SERIOUS HABITUAL OFFENDER/DRUG INVOLVED PROGRAM

INFORMATIONAL PROGRAM GUIDE

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July 1986

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ACQUISITIONS

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This report constitutes

Volume IV

of the SHO/DI Program Information Series.

SHO/DI PROGRAM GUIDE

LIST OF FIGURES

PREFACE

Murder, rape, aggravated assault. Vicious crimes which, upon conviction, can carry stiff and substantial sentences. Unless, that is, the perpetrator happens to be a juvenile—then the scenario changes entirely.

According to recent statistics, juveniles are responsible for about one third of all serious crime committed each year in the United States. That in itself is astounding. Further, as noted by Alfred S. Regnery, Administrator of the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP), every year nearly 2,000 juveniles are arrested for murder, 4,000 are arrested for rape, and more than 34,000 are arrested for aggravated assault.

Juvenile Justice

The United States courts operate on what has become known as the two-track system of justice. From the moment a juvenile commits a crime, his trek through the justice system differs substantially from that of an adult who may have committed the same crime.

When juvenile courts were first established in the United States in 1899, they were under the doctrine of parens patriae—hence they were not designed to be criminal courts, but rather civil courts in which children were viewed in a supportive and protective manner. The new courts were established on the belief that children could be

steered away from criminal activity. The purpose was not to punish the child but to provide help and guidance.

For the vast majority of juvenile delinquents, the juvenile justice system is entirely appropriate. Most adolescent crime is not serious, and such adolescents do not develop into career criminals. In fact, many adults can remember their own adolescent actions which may not have been within the boundaries of the law. Thus, some adolescent criminal behavior is tolerated because it is not violent and because there is a widely held belief that children are not mature enought to be responsible for their own actions.

On the other hand, research has shown that there also exists a small core of serious, chronic offenders who repeatedly commit crimes while suffering little or no serious consequences. It is in order to deal with these juveniles that the Serious Habitual Offender/Drug Involved program (SHO/DI) was formed.

1. INTRODUCTION

SHO/DI is a law enforcement information and case management initiative for police, schools, probation, prosecutors, social services, and corrections authorities, developed to respond to the growing problem of serious juvenile crime. The program enables the juvenile justice system to give additional, focused attention to juvenile offenders, with particular attention given to providing relevant case information for more informed sentencing dispositions.

When the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP) first funded SHO/DI in May 1983, it provided one of the earliest systematic responses to the growing problem of juvenile crime. Developed as a research, test, and demonstration program, SHO/DI was funded in five cities nationwide: Colorado Springs, Colorado; Jacksonville, Florida; Oxnard, California; Portsmouth, Virginia; and San Jose, California. In brief, the SHO/DI program builds upon the organizational development process first created under the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration's Integrated Criminal Apprehension Program (ICAP), which sought to provide a more systematic approach to data gathering, analysis, planning, and integration of police activities. Based on the ICAP process, SHO/DI is designed to increase the effectiveness of the various authorities to reduce serious, habitual juvenile criminal activity.

Although landmark research describing serious juvenile offenders had been conducted in the early 1970s, the Office

of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention focused most of its efforts and resources on status offenders and on programs to divert juvenile offenders out of the juvenile justice system. Lately attention has been turned to this small cohort of chronic serious offenders who commit the majority of juvenile crime. It is this population for which the SHO/DI program was developed.

In recent years, members of the juvenile justice community have come to recognize that, when dealing with serious, chronic offenders, the safety of the community must be considered. Additionally, for most juvenile offenders, the point of initial contact with the system is the police department. Thus, the SHO/DI program was designed as a law enforcement response to serious juvenile offenders. However, even in the planning stages of the program the need for cooperation and information-sharing among agencies was recognized. Thus, the major goals of the SHO/DI program reflect this need for interagency cooperation.

As the program has evolved, practitioners from various agencies involved in the SHO/DI effort have recognized that such interaction is necessary in order to effectively address this small core of juvenile offenders. Consequently, even though SHO/DI is a law enforcement program, the key to successful implementation is an interagency approach in which the juvenile-related agencies work together to develop a coordinated, comprehensive response to juvenile crime.

2. THE NEED FOR SHO/DI

2.1 Conceptual Model

Their numbers are small--very small. Yet their crimes are many and severe. They are the career criminals, the serial murderers, rapists, and child molesters. Until recently they have, for the most part, been allowed to remain free. Only since law enforcement agencies have begun sharing information has the extent of their criminality come to light.

Programs such as the Violent Criminal Apprehension Program (VICAP) have been developed as a criminal justice response to this type of offender. VICAP focuses on multijurisdictional serious crime. It encourages law enforcement agencies across the country to exchange information in an attempt to identify these serious, chronic offenders.

However, programs such as VICAP focus largely on adult offenders. Yet the histories of these criminals share several factors. Many of these offenders were abused and/or neglected as children. They exhibited behavioral difficulties in school. Many were chronic runaways or chronic truants. Additionally, many were criminally active as juveniles. Even though these various indicators were present early in life, such criminals were allowed to "fall through the cracks" of the justice system.

. Part of this problem may be due to the fact that the United States has a two-track criminal justice system. Juvenile criminal records are automatically sealed or expunged at the age of majority, to protect the youth whose illegal behavior is considered to be the result of immaturity or lack of judgment. However, the system also protects chronic offenders who, like their more innocent counterparts, enter into adulthood with no record of their repeated illegal activities. Thus, while criminal activity peaks between the ages of 16 and 17, most career criminals are not identified until approximately age 22. This is reflected in Figure 2-1 in the program gap between ages 18 and 22. While the two-track system tends to camouflage chronic, serious offenders, so does the lack of system-wide cooperation in the current juvenile justice system.

Historically, the system has developed a number of responses to juvenile involvement in crime. Some programs, such as the National Center for Missing and Exploited Children (NCMEC), focus on the child as a victim. Others, like the National School Safety Center (NSSC) and Police Operations Leading to Improved Child Youth Services (POLICY), focus on juveniles both as victims and perpetrators. The NSSC was developed to provide a central headquarters to assist school boards, educators, law enforcers, and the public to restore schools as safe, secure, and tranquil places of learning. The Center facilitates information-sharing and

FIGURE 2-1

CONCEPTUAL MODEL:
SERIOUS HABITUAL CRIMINAL EVOLUTION*

TYPES OF CRIMINAL ACTIVITY**

b — SERIOUS PROPERTY CRIMES, DRUG INVOLVEMENT, DIFFICULTIES IN SCHOOL

c — SERIOUS PROPERTY CRIMES, CRIMES AGAINST PERSONS

a — ABUSE, NEGLECT, EXPLOITATION

d — SERIOUS VIOLENT CRIMINAL LIFESTYLE (MURDER, RAPE, MOLESTATION)

RATE OF CRIMINAL INVOLVEMENT PER YEAR

30

20

10

AGE IN YEARS

0   5   10   15   20   25   30   35   40   45

NATIONAL CENTER FOR MISSING AND MURDERED CHILDREN

CAREER CRIMINAL PROGRAM

NATIONAL SCHOOL SAFETY CENTER

VIOLENT CRIMINAL APREHENSION PROGRAM

"POLICY"

JUSTICE SYSTEM RESPONSES (NON-INCLUSIVE)

SHO/DI

*IT IS IMPORTANT TO REMEMBER THAT ALTHOUGH THIS TYPE OF INDIVIDUAL REPRESENTS A VERY SMALL PERCENTAGE OF THE OFFENDER POPULATION, HE IS RESPONSIBLE FOR A LARGE PERCENTAGE OF CRIMINAL OFFENSES.

**ALTHOUGH THE TYPES OF CRIMINAL ACTIVITY ARE IDENTIFIED ACCORDING TO AGE GROUP, THIS DIVISION IS FOR GENERAL PURPOSES. OBVIOUSLY THERE IS ACTIVITY OVERLAP BETWEEN AGE GROUPS.

training related to school crime and violence prevention. Similarly, POLICY provides training for personnel from law enforcement and other juvenile-related agencies and focuses on strengthening police juvenile services. These programs address children who may be at risk--that is, they may be neglected or abused or they may be in families which exhibit criminal behavior.

2.2 Background Research

Serious juvenile crime is not new. In the classic study conducted by Wolfgang, Figlio, and Sellin, a cohort of Philadelphia boys was followed to record juvenile delinquent behavior. The researchers concluded that 6.3 percent of the total population could be considered "chronic recidivists" (committing five or more offenses). Although the total number of chronic recidivists was small, over half (51 percent) of all the juvenile crimes committed by the entire cohort can be attributed to that small faction of the population.[1]

Although this study was published over 12 years ago, the results have been supported time and again by additional studies. Columbus, Ohio, was the site of another cohort study which included all juveniles born between 1956 and 1960 who had been arrested at least once for a violent offense. Thirty-one percent of the

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[1] Marvin Wolfgang, Robert Figlio, and Thorsten Sellin, Delinquency_in_a_Birth_Cohort (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1972).

cohort were identified as chronic recidivists. These habitual offenders accounted for 44.8 percent of the crimes against persons committed by the cohort.[2]

Juvenile involvement in crime is also apparent when one looks at the number of crimes committed by youths. In 1981, juvenile arrests comprised 17 percent of all arrests for violent crime and 32 percent of all property crime arrests. Additionally, juveniles were arrested for 14 percent of reported forcible rapes, 27 percent of reported robberies, and 12.7 percent of reported aggravated assaults.[3]

Similarly, in the 1983 Report_to_the_Nation_on Crime_and_Justice, the Bureau of Justice Statistics noted that serious crime arrests are highest in young age groups. For example, arrests for property crimes peak at 16 years and drop in half by age 20, and violent crime arrests peak at age 18.

It is interesting to note that the characteristics of violent juvenile offenders are similar to adult felons. The Bureau of Justice Statistics notes that these juveniles (and adult felons): 1) are overwhelmingly male; 2) are usually economically disadvantaged; 3) experience(d) behavioral problems in school; and 4) often come from families that exhibit conflict,

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[2]
Donna Martin Hamparian, Richard Schuster, Simon Dinitz, and John P. Conrad, The_Violent_Few:__A_Study of__Dangerous_Juvenile_Offenders (Livington, MA: D. C. Heath, 1978).

[3]
1981 Uniform Crime Reports, p. 171.

instability, and inadequate supervision of children.

In light of these similarities between the two groups,

it has been argued that the two-track justice system

would be more effective if it were based on severity of

offense rather than solely on age of the offender.[4]

In examining the problem of serious juvenile of-

fenders, researchers have recently focused attention on

the system that responds to the juveniles. In April

1984, a State-of-the-Art conference was co-sponsored by

the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Preven-

tion (OJJDP) and the Alcohol, Drug Abuse, and Mental

Health Administration (ADAMHA). Researchers at the

conference noted the lack of cooperation and coordin-

ation between agencies:[5]

> The social worker or attendance specialist
> for the school system doesn't share infor-
> mation with the social worker assigned to
> deal with health care or other kinds of
> assistance. The police officer and the
> juvenile court officer don't have the
> benefit of linking the offender's prior
> record of offenses with the current of-
> fense. It's not a very pleasant picture,
> and in the middle of it all is a troubled
> young person. We seem to be so caught up
> in the systemic perpetuation business that
> the raison d'etre for our existence slides
> out of view.
>
> The youth we are talking about—the "juve-
> nile delinquents with alcohol, drug abuse,

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[4]
     Wolfgang Pindur and Donna Wells, "The Injustice
in Juvenile Justice," Journal_of_Police_Science_and
Administration 12 (June 1984), p. 221.
[5]
     Richard R. Clayton, Multiple_Problem_Youth:
Defining_the_Problem_and_Searching_for_a_Solution,
1984, p. 35.

and mental disorder problems"--fall between
the cracks. Often they barely get the
minimum of attention they need, instead of
the comprehensive collection of services
that cuts across systemic boundaries.

The National Advisory Committee (NAC) for Juvenile

Justice and Delinquency Prevention concluded in a

1984 report that "most serious juvenile crime is com-

mitted by a small core of chronic offenders."[6]   The NAC

suggested a redirection in juvenile justice.   Its first

recommendation was that any federal effort in the area

of juvenile delinquency should focus primarily on the

serious, violent, or chronic offender.

Juvenile and family court judges have also re-

cently addressed the problem of the serious juvenile

offender.   At a meeting of the National Council of

Juvenile and Family Court Judges in Colorado Springs,

Colorado (July 1984), the Council endorsed 38 recommen-

dations concerning serious juvenile offenders.   As the

Council noted,[7]

        "only about five percent of the juvenile
        delinquency adjudications in this country
        involves what has been labeled the
        'serious violent offenders,' those charged
        with the most serious personal crimes and
        those about whom the public justifiably is
        most concerned."

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[6]
     National Advisory Committee for Juvenile Justice
and Delinquency Prevention, Serious Juvenile Crime: A
Redirected Federal Effort (Office of Juvenile Justice
and Delinquency Prevention, U. S. Department of Jus-
tice, March 1984).
    [7]
     National Council of Juvenile and Family Court
Judges, "The Juvenile Court and Serious Offenders,"
Juvenile and Family Court Journal, Summer 1984.

3. THE SERIOUS HABITUAL OFFENDER/DRUG INVOLVED PROGRAM

3.1 Current Practices

The current juvenile justice system is designed on the practice of true rehabilitation. For the great majority of juvenile offenders--the one-time offenders and those who are rehabilitated away from or mature out of criminal activity--this system works well. However, difficulties arise when dealing with a juvenile who not only is not rehabilitated, but also knows how to beat the system.

Discretion and diversion are two mainstays of the juvenile justice system, and both play into the hands of a juvenile serious habitual offender. An officer can exercise discretion when a juvenile is stopped on the street. That same juvenile may have been stopped by other officers on other shifts, yet if the officers choose not to write any type of report, then no one else in the system is even aware that any action has taken place. Just as police officers practice dis- cretion, so do prosecutors and court intake workers (whether or not to file, reduce charges, etc.); judges (to accept a plea, to dismiss charges, etc.); and corrections personnel (choosing type of facility, per- mitting home visits and furloughs, etc.). Such dis- cretion, however well-intentioned, allows juveniles to fall through the cracks of the system.

Like discretion, the diversion built into the juvenile justice system was meant to benefit the youths involved in it, yet the impact reaches beyond the juveniles. When a serious juvenile offender is diverted out of the system and returned to the community, the victim may feel little sense of justice. In fact, the victim may be subjected to further abuse by the juvenile.

Juveniles are also amazingly quick at learning the system, and it does not take them long to realize there are really very few sanctions against committing crimes. An experienced juvenile offender knows that he can often avoid arrest, but even if he is arrested, he knows there is a good chance that he will be released without a formal referral to juvenile court or any other agency. According to the Bureau of Justice Statistics, in 1981 over a third of those juveniles arrested were released without a referral of any kind. This applies to repeat offenders as well as to those who commit a single offense. Such handling of serious juvenile offenders serves as a poor model for other youths to observe.

Additionally, because 80-90 percent of all arrested children are diverted or dropped from the judicial process, serious juvenile offenders are seldom truly held accountable for their actions. This aspect of diversion has often frustrated law enforcement personnel. Juvenile arrests typically involve a great

deal of paperwork. The officer who arrests a juvenile may have to spend several hours with the offender and complete all the additional paperwork, only to find that the juvenile is diverted and actually beats the officer back out on the street.

Perhaps the most significant difficulty in dealing with juvenile serious habitual offenders is the lack of information-sharing and cooperation among juvenile-related agencies. These agencies have long perceived that information cannot or should not be shared; thus agencies have maintained separate, usually incomplete files. This lack of information-sharing has had a major impact on the system response to chronic, serious offenders.

3.2 Program Background and Goals

In the past decade, federal efforts in the area of juvenile justice have focused primarily on delinquency prevention and on social efforts to rehabilitate juvenile offenders. While such programs appear to be successful with most juveniles, research has shown that they have little impact on those juveniles who repeatedly commit serious crimes.

Critics also argue that the focus on protection and rehabilitation has left little room for accountability, especially for juveniles who are arrested time and again only to be diverted out of the system.

Some states and localities have passed more stringent legislation concerning certain types of juvenile crime. However, this is usually a localized response or reaction to the problem, often brought on by recent cases in the juvenile justice system, rather than a comprehensive, proactive plan leading to a solution.

SHO/DI, on the other hand, is based on the hypothesis that a national effort is required to address the problem of chronic serious juvenile crime. The goals of the program require police agencies to:

1. Establish an accurate and useable data base focusing on the juvenile habitual offender.

2. Develop operationally acceptable standards for identifying the juvenile serious habitual offender These standards must be acceptable to police officials, juvenile authorities, prosecutors, court administrators, judges, and appropriate community groups.

3. Develop procedures for the early identification of the SHO/DI useable to uniformed patrol officers and criminal investigators.

4. Develop and refine, through crime analysis, criminal information files that focus on the method of operation (MO) of the SHO/DI.

5. Improve the linkage and flow of information between street uniformed patrol officers, crime prevention officers, and criminal investigations officers.

6. Develop in concert with the prosecutor, courts and aftercare agencies a process to eliminate or reduce pre-trial delays, case dismissals, plea bargaining, and sentence reductions for SHO/DIs.

7. Establish support among the appropriate criminal justice agencies and community groups for the program.

8. Develop a technical assistance cadre to transfer program knowledge, operations, and development to other agencies.

3.3 The SHO/DI Population

When the program was first developed, little data was available on habitual, serious juvenile offenders. Consequently, the police departments first had to identify their population and then develop procedures to address this population. One of the first steps in identifying the SHO/DI population was to look at the entire spectrum of juvenile delinquent behavior. Figure 3-1 shows the range of juveniles involved in criminal activity.

Juvenile offenders are either serious offenders or they are not. Similarly, they are habitual or not, and they are drug-involved or not. By combining and recombining these various factors, the matrix depicts eight basic types of juvenile delinquents. In the SHO/DI program, efforts are focused on Category 1 (serious, habitual, and drug-involved) and Category 2 (serious, habitual, but not drug-involved). In addition, juveniles who fall into Categories 3, 4, and 5 may potentially become SHO/DIs. For such juveniles, the SHO/DI program attempts to intervene and prevent such juvenile from moving into Category 1 or Category 2. On the other hand, the program does not focus efforts on juveniles who fit the descriptions of Categories 6, 7, and 8. Although they are involved in criminal activity, the current juvenile justice system usually is successful at turning these kids away from further criminal behavior.

FIGURE 3-1

JUVENILE OFFENDER MATRIX

SERIOUS OFFENDER				NOT SERIOUS OFFENDER			
Habitual		Not Habitual		Habitual		Not Habitual	
Drug-Involved	Not Drug-Involved	Drug-Involved	Not Drug-Involved	Drug-Involved	Not Drug-Involved	Drug-Involved	Not Drug-Involved

1.   Serious, habitual, drug involved

2.   Serious, habitual, not drug involved

3.   Serious, not habitual, drug involved

4.   Serious, not habitual, not drug involved

5.   Not serious, habitual, drug involved

6.   Not serious, habitual, not drug involved

7.   Not serious, not habitual, drug involved

8.   Not serious, not habitual, not drug involved

Although there was little data available at the outset of the program, a great deal has been learned about the kinds of juveniles with which the program is concerned. Early data collection indicated that the typical SHO/DI is male, between the ages of fifteen and sixteen, with an average of nine arrests--the first at approximately age ten. Sixty percent of these juveniles have parents with a criminal history; 73 percent have siblings with criminal histories. In addition, it was found that six-tenths of the SHO/DIs live with only one parent, almost thirty-one percent live with both, and about 10 percent are in the custody of a guardian or other authority.

The SHO/DI population is generally very small, ranging from 0.6 percent to 2 percent of the entire juvenile offender population. Although their numbers are few, they are responsible for large numbers of crimes. Figure 3-2 presents the arrest history of the active SHO/DI population in one city; 53 SHO/DIs are responsible for 281 felony arrests, 391 misdemeanor arrests, and 141 status offenses.

Additionally, the SHO/DI populations share several other similar characteristics. There appears to be a high incidence of child abuse, neglect, and violence in the history of the SHO/DI juveniles. Many of these juveniles also come from families with criminal histories. Finally, a surprising number of these juveniles are still in public schools.

FIGURE 3-2

COLLECTIVE ARREST HISTORY

(February 20, 1985)

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53 SHO/DIs    =  2% of the juvenile offender population
813 Arrests   = 18% of the juvenile arrests
281 Felonies  = 43% of the juvenile felony arrests
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MISDEMEANOR ARRESTS		FELONY ARRESTS	
Petty theft	89	Homicide	1
Misdemeanor assaults	39	Rape	6
Vandalism	26	Robbery	26
Possession of weapon	20	Felony assault	26
Resisting arrest	10	Kidnap	5
Disturbing	22	Child molest	2
Trespass	9	Extortion	3
Tampering with vehicle	6	Escape	18
Possession of burglary tools	3	Arson	5
Brandishing a weapon	5	Burglary	109
Shooting at a vehicle	1	Receiving stolen property	45
Hit and run	2	Grand theft	13
Indecent exposure	3	Auto theft	18
Lewd conduct	2	Admin. drugs to another	2
Cruelty to animals	1	Threatening witness	2
Disturbing human remains	1		
Violation of probation	51		
		TOTAL	281
Subtotal	244		

Narcotics or Alcohol Arrests		STATUS OFFENSE ARRESTS	
Drunk	24	Curfew	123
Possession of alcohol	18	Habitual truant	18
Drunk driving	8		
Inhalation of toluene	58		
Possession of marijuana	31	TOTAL	141
Under influence of heroin	4		
Under influence of cocaine	3		
Under influence of PCP	1	Misdemeanor Arrests	391
		Felony Arrests	281
Subtotal	147	Status Offense Arrests	141

TOTAL MISDEMEANOR ARRESTS	391	TOTAL ARRESTS	813

4. THE POLICE AGENCY

4.1 Program Implementation

Much of the early program implementation takes place within the police department. The SHO/DI program requires the Integrated Criminal Apprehension Program (ICAP) as an organizational development base. The ICAP process is designed to focus on (1) the development of a system of operations management; (2) the improvement of resource allocation; (3) the expansion of uniformed patrol capabilities and responsibilities; and (4) the integration of police order maintenance functions with crime prevention, crime repression, and apprehension.

ICAP represented a process of police service delivery based on data collection, analysis, planning and service delivery (Figure 4-1). Many cities and states adopted various parts of the ICAP process, and more communities, both small and large, could benefit by implementing the ICAP model. Using ICAP as the organizational development base, various divisions within the police agency play a role in the SHO/DI process.

4.2 The Crime Analysis Unit

The principles of crime analysis underlie all SHO/DI programs and operations and are the key to SHO/DI. SHO/DI is a specific application of basic crime analysis. Crime analysis is defined as a

FIGURE 4-1

ICAP MODEL AND LOGIC FLOW

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┌──────────────┐       ┌──────────────┐       ┌──────────────┐       ┌──────────────┐
│     DATA     │──────>│   ANALYSIS   │──────>│   PLANNING   │──────>│   SERVICE    │
│  COLLECTION  │       │              │       │              │       │   DELIVERY   │
└──────────────┘       └──────────────┘       └──────────────┘       └──────────────┘
       ^                                                                     │
       │                              FEEDBACK                               │
       └─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```

FEEDBACK
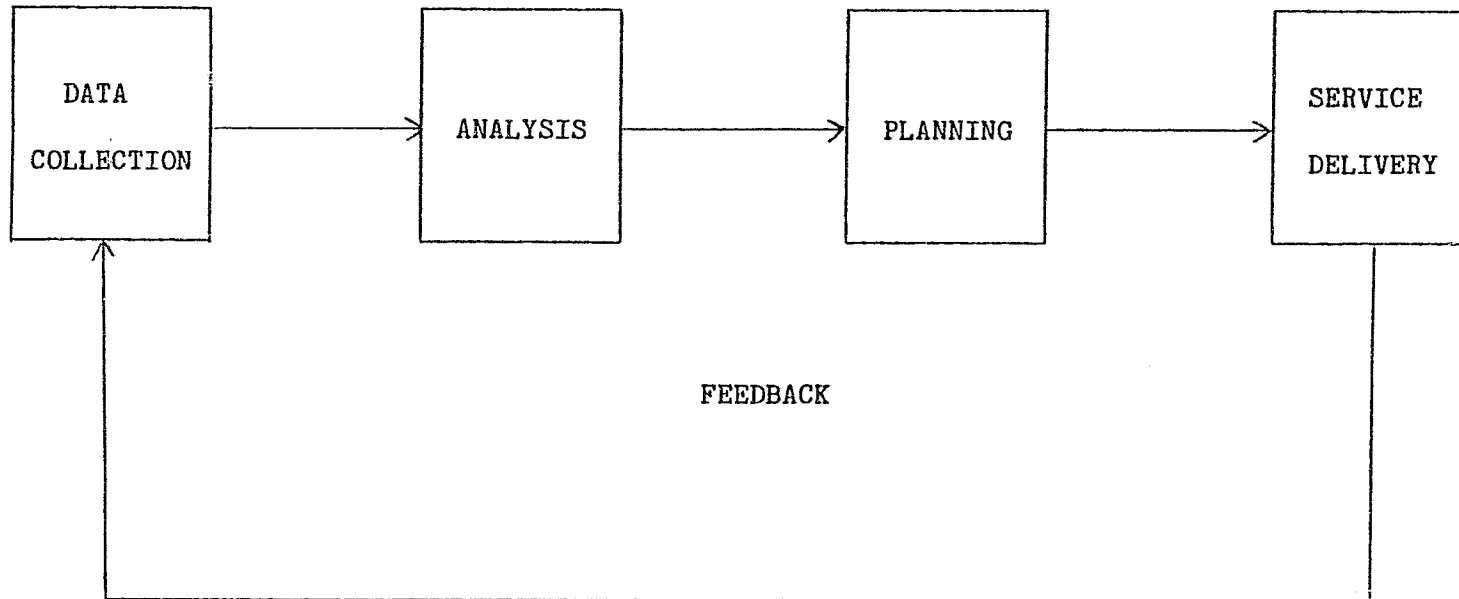
set of systematic, analytical processes directed at providing timely and pertinent information relative to crime patterns and trend correlations. This information will assist operational and administrative personnel in planning the deployment of resources for prevention and suppression of criminal activities, aiding the investigative process and increasing apprehensions and clearances of cases.

Generally, crime analysis focuses on those offenses that are amenable to analysis and have a high probability of recurrence. The crime analysis unit has the most comprehensive picture of crime patterns in the community as well as individual modi operandi (MO). Consequently, a SHO/DI's operation/pattern may be evaluated by an analyst to obtain a complete picture of a suspect for dissemination to line officers. The SHO/DI project relies heavily on crime analysis capabilities (manual or automated).

A summary of crime analysis procedures is outlined below:

1. Collection: identification, receipt, and sorting copies of all resource documents in the department that contain information relevant to the crime analysis procedure.

2. Collation: a) examination and extraction of crime element information from all source documents; b) arrangement of this information into a set format for subsequent retrieval and analysis (Recaps).

3. Analysis: a) identification of crime patterns to provide leads for prevention and supression of crime; b) assistance in providing leads for iden-

tification of the criminal perpetrator; c) early
identification of crime trends for the purposes of
patrol and administrative planning.

4. Dissemination: communication of target crime in-
   formation to user groups, especially patrol and
   investigations.

   a. Directed patrols initiated via crime analysis
      unit.

   b. Officer-initiated direct patrol.

   c. Crime Stoppers' (Crime Line) directed patrol.

   d. Robbery/Burglary, etc., details with investiga-
      tions and patrol.

   e. Narcotics/Special Investigations unit infor-
      mation requests.

   f. Other information requests (Crime Prevention,
      Neighborhood Watch, special units)

5. Feedback and Evaluation

   a. Assessment of the crime analysis products and
      activities by user groups.

   b. Self-evaluation of the unit's ability to
      satisfy ongoing user group needs.

   The SHO/DI project would be difficult to accom-

plish without crime analysis capabilities, and these

capabilities have created invaluable resources through

research and analysis of data. A SHO/DI juvenile does

not live in a vacuum; rather, he interfaces with adults

and/or adult career criminals. His behavior patterns

are often prompted by adult associates or other juve-

niles. Consequently, involvement with other criminal

constituents appears in crime analysis products via

FIRs/suspect information, and link analysis.

<u>Crime Analysis Operations</u> When a case report
enters the data system, the crime analysis unit assumes
responsibility for reducing the data into the specific
categories required for pattern detection and suspect
correlations. In Colorado Springs, for example, burg-
lary, robbery, and sexual assault crime categories are
prioritized for analysis and the development of pro-
files. If the profile includes a suspect description,
a search is made of available data for correlation with
previous offenders.

If the suspect is a juvenile or the pattern sug-
gests a juvenile offender, a search is made for juve-
nile offender data correlations. Associate data is
provided in a link analysis chart. Link analysis
serves to develop valid inferences and relationships
from available information and to focus further inves-
tigations by providing leads or association links.
Types of link analysis include associate links and
telephone toll analysis. Links are provided when a
directed patrol is initiated if suspect information is
applicable, and are also utilized with profiles. They
can be used for crime specific information, intelli-
gence, or long-term associates. Associate information
is updated on the link diagram when new information is
provided via crime analysis.

<u>SHO/DI Suspect</u> Once the profiles have been up-
dated and the SHO/DI is deemed a suspect in an unsolved
crime, probation reports and detention rosters are

checked to determine if he is at large in the area. If
FIRs and other evidence support activity in a target
area, a directed patrol is initiated. Once a SHO/DI is
apprehended, the profile is provided to Juvenile Inves-
tigations for filing.

SHO/DI Crime Analysis Information Output The
crime analysis workload is primarily compiled manually
(approximately 75-80 percent). The computer files
serve as data sources, expediting the preparation of
crime analysis products. The crime analysis informa-
tion outputs are all related to juveniles previously
identified as SHO/DI subjects; all juveniles on record
who meet the established criteria are candidates for
inclusion in SHO/DI profiles. These updated profiles
are the primary data base used to answer requests for
specific crime-related information. SHO/DI analysis
also provides overviews on crime trends and developing
criminal patterns.

There are several types of information requests
petitioned by patrol, investigations, and special oper-
ations that include SHO/DI data: directed patrol en-
hancement, case recaps for pattern detection, FIRs,
associates link analysis, and intelligence data.

Profiles are provided as a tool to aid officers/
investigators in detection of offenders, as well as for
case filing and prosecution. The District Attorney's
office files the case and reviews the profile for
assistance in prosecution. Juvenile Probation may use

the profiles in evaluation reports. The juvenile judge

may get access upon request or case assignment.

Crime Analysis Information Utilization The pri-

mary users of SHO/DI data are patrol and investigations.

The DA's office and detention depend heavily on SHO/DI

profiles for case filing and presentation. Secondary

users are support agencies/special operations units

such as Crime Stoppers, Crime Prevention, Narcotics/

Vice, and Intelligence.

Crime analysis information also provides the means

to gauge the results of the program. Figures 4-2 and

4-3 present two quarterly pin maps which represent

criminal activity in one neighborhood. Figure 4-2

indicates criminal activity occurring while five SHO/DI

juveniles resided in the neighborhood. In Figure 4-3,

criminal activity decreased substantially once four of

the juvenile offenders were taken into custody. Figure

4-4 provides a further update on the reductions in

criminal activity in the neighborhood.

FIGURE 4-2
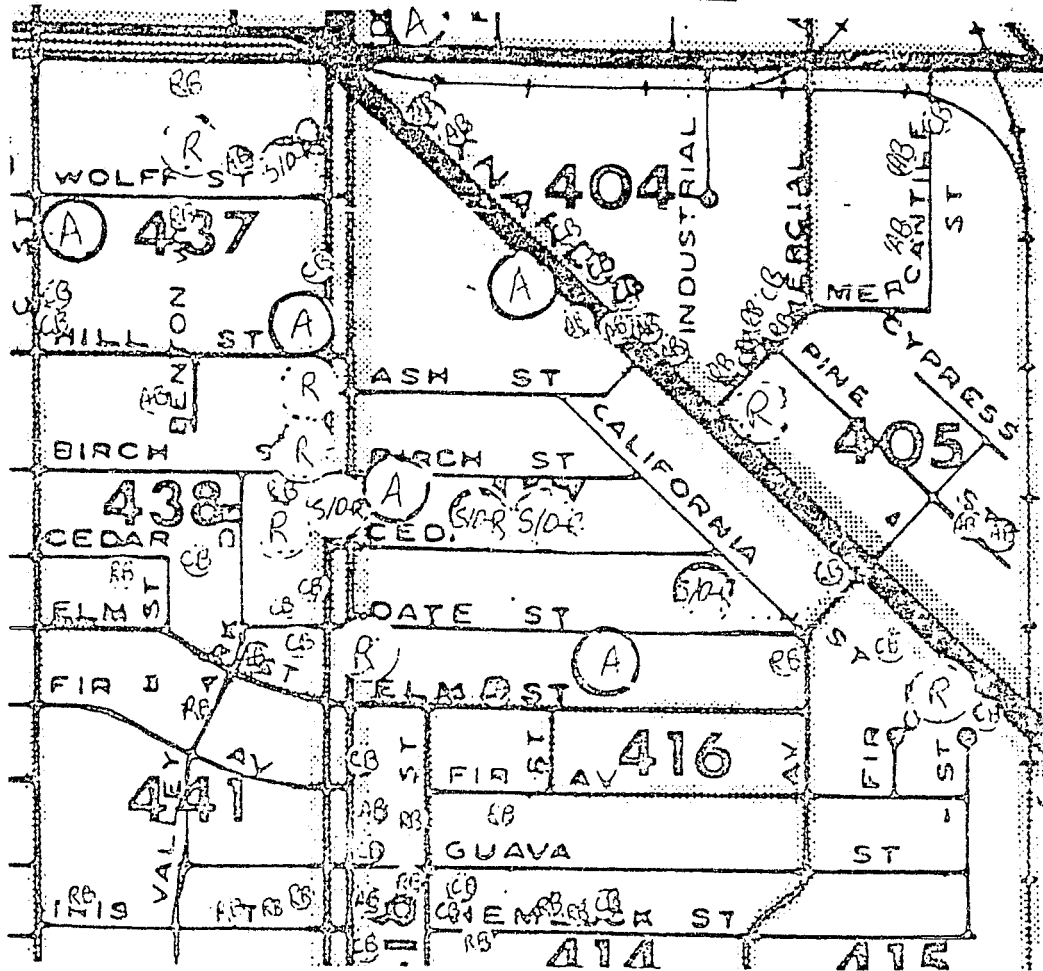
S/O-R SHO/DI's Residence

R Robbery

A Assault
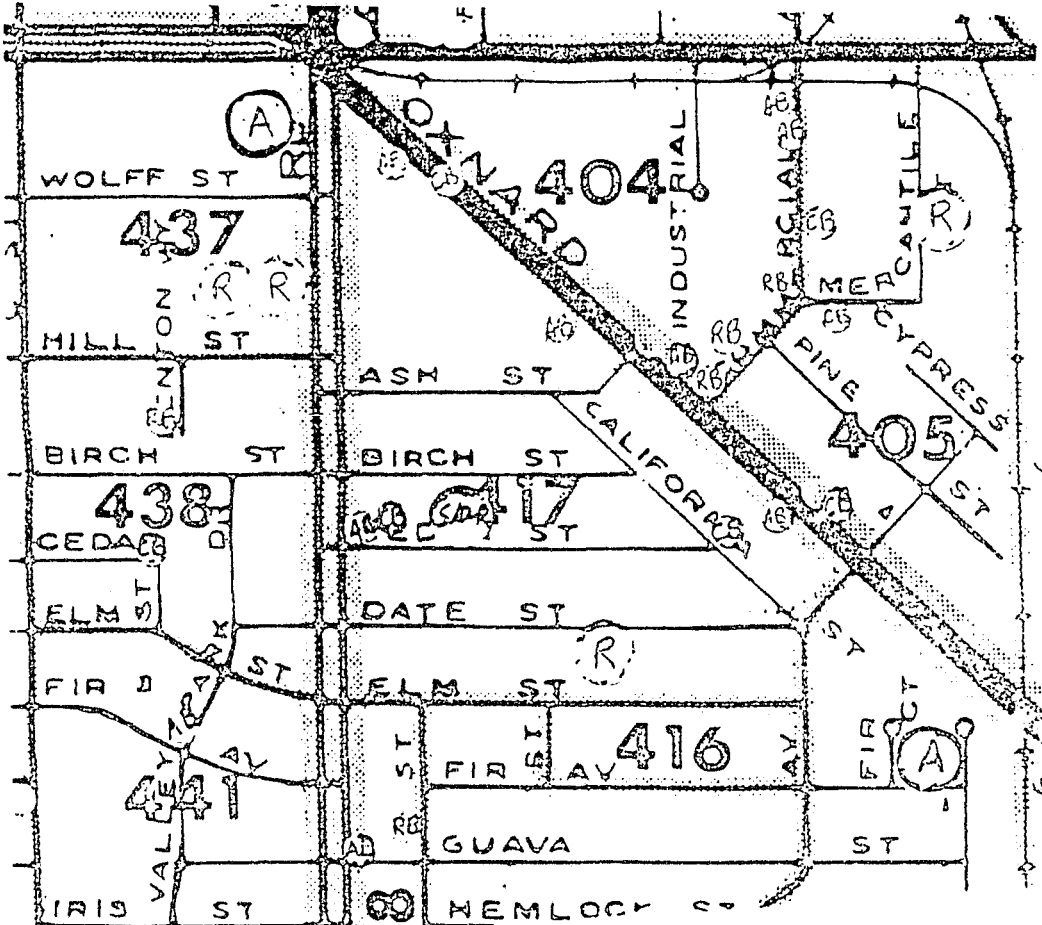
RB Residential Burglary

CB Commercial Burglary

AB Auto Burglary

NOTE: Five SHO/DI's resided in the above neighborhood during the period of January 1, 1984, through March 31, 1984. One was in custody since January 25, 1984, and three others were arrested (and detained) the last week of March, 1984.

FIGURE 4-3

APRIL 1, 1984 TO JUNE 39, 1984

-S/O-R   SHO/DI's Residence

R   Robbery

A   Assault

RB   Residential Burglary

CB   Commercial Burglary

AB   Auto Burglary

NOTE: Only one SHO/DI still resided
in the above neighborhood during the
period of April 1, 1984 through June
30, 1984. He was detained on 5/28/84
and all five SHO/DI's were subsequent
ly sentenced, and are now serving tim

The pin maps depicting criminal acti-
vity in this area show a substantial
reduction in Part I crimes from the
first quarter of 1984, to the second.

FIGURE 4-4

UPDATE ON CRIME IN SHO/DI NEIGHBORHOOD

(February 20, 1985)

A one and one-third square mile area in the city was monitored for criminal activity during the four quarters of 1984, because in the first quarter five SHO/DIs resided there. The area is approximately 75 percent residential and 25 percent commercial, and has about 7,400 residents.

During the first three-month period, while all five SHO/DIs were living there, there were 69 serious crimes reported. The criminal activity declined 61 percent to a total of 27 offenses in the second quarter, after four SHO/DIs were incarcerated and only one remained. The third quarter reflected an increase to 36 crimes, but was still down 48 percent from the first quarter. During that period, the fifth SHO/DI was taken off the streets, but two more SHO/DIs (none of the original five) were released from custody and lived in the area. These two were arrested during the fourth quarter, which shows a total of 28 serious crimes reported, a reduction of 59 percent from the first quarter.

	First Quarter	Second Quarter	Third Quarter	Fourth Quarter
Robbery	7	4	1	5
Assault	5	2	2	3
Residential Burglary	23	5	18	10
Commercial Burglary	19	7	10	4
Auto Burglary	15	9	5	6
TOTAL	69	27	36	28
		down 61 %	down 48 %	down 59 %
Number of SHO/DIs living in the area	5	1	2	0

4.3 Uniform Patrol Management

Whether the patrol operation is gauged by the
number of personnel or the cost of the operation, it is
the mainstay and muscle of any law enforcement agency.
Between 50 and 70 percent of sworn personnel are gen-
erally assigned to patrol. The police--especially the
patrol operation--is very labor-intensive. As much as
89 percent of many police budgets is devoted to labor
costs.

Yet historically, the patrol function in police
departments has not been well-managed. While super-
visory and command personnel were often preoccupied
with manning all the beats, making sure all equipment
was accounted for, and staving off or quieting citizen
complaints about police service, little or no sys-
tematic attention was given to defining or pursuing
specific objectives in the various neighborhoods
patrolled. Watches were turned out, and officers,
provided with little or no information or direction,
conducted patrol in their own highly individualized
manner. With this state of affairs in patrol--the
police department's largest organizational element and
the group responsible for primary delivery of police
services--police agencies were delivering low produc-
tivity at high costs.

The primitive state of police patrol organizations
nationwide has become better understood in recent years

as research has begun to study patterns of operation and payoff. Such examinations have generated a renewed emphasis on patrol, not only because of obvious needs for improved productivity, but also because of a recognition of the enormous potential of patrol to deliver more effective crime control and public safety services.

Establishing police patrol operations which are flexible yet responsive to community needs requires a number of changes in police management and operations. One of the most critical areas of change is that patrol must be managed (Figure 4-5). Specifically,

1. workloads must be clearly defined;

2. resources must be effectively scheduled and carefully husbanded;

3. decision-making systems must operate to quickly identify community needs and define precise objectives and appropriate strategies; and

4. the organizational capability must exist to quickly and effectively mount defined field responses.

In 1975 the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA) administered a survey to determine if implementation was being made with regard to the recommendations of the 1975 National Advisory Report's Standards and Goals Committee. A survey of 20 police departments servicing populations ranging from 80,000 to 450,000 citizens showed that there was only one department which allowed the patrol officer to conduct a thorough preliminary investigation. Another department had a crime analysis unit which served the patrol

FIGURE 4-5
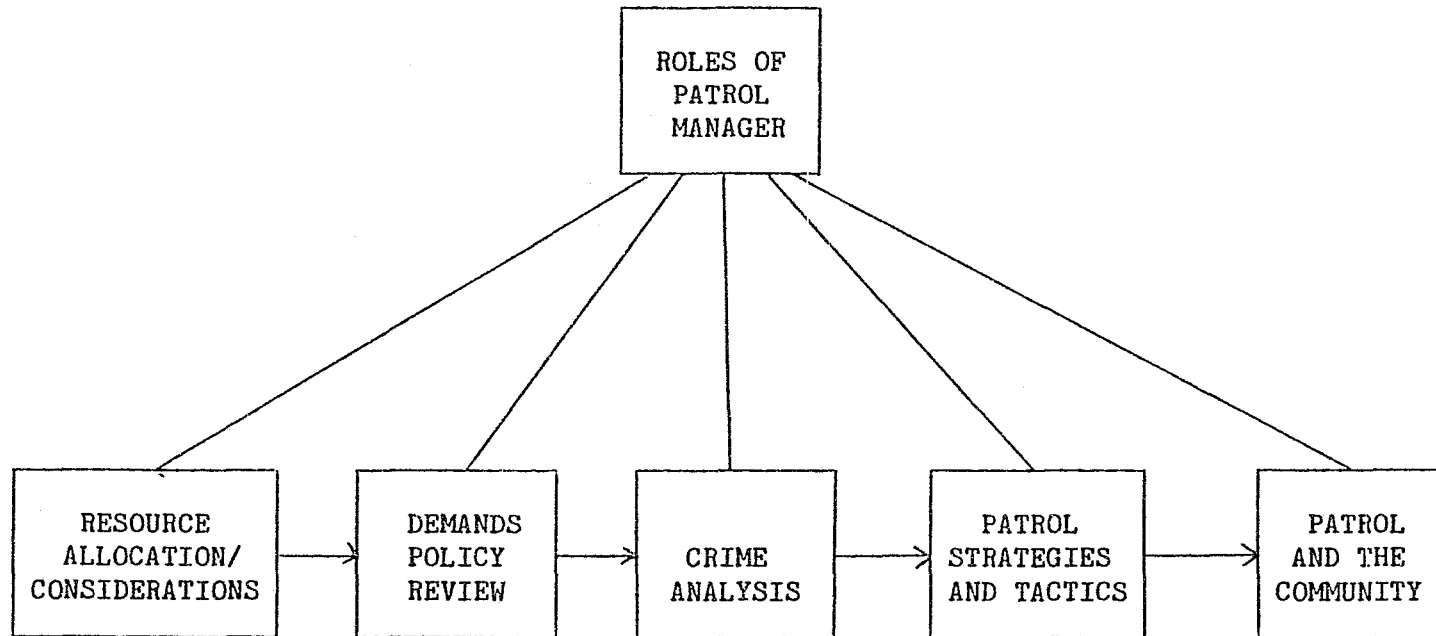
operation, and that department was retraining its patrol force in preliminary investigations and drastically revising the offense report that had been used by the department for over 10 years. In 1975, that crime analysis unit was only one year old. Another major department with over 1,500 sworn personnel required its patrol officers to stand by at the scene of a crime until two detectives arrived. In many cases, the patrol officer had to wait forty minutes for the arrival of detectives, and was instructed to take only rudimentary data regarding the crime.

A survey of readings in police field practices reinforces the need to develop a more productive role for the patrol force. In the early 1970s, many departments began experimenting with team policing as a means for restoring responsiveness and responsibility to the patrol operation. Specialized policing forms, such as task forces and tactical units, had taken most of the responsibility of general police services away from the patrol operations. Given the importance of the patrol function, it would seem reasonable that more should be expected from the patrol officer than to be a watchman at the scene of a crime.

The Integrated Criminal Apprehension Program (ICAP) makes the preliminary investigation report by the on-scene patrol officer the major and most important initial investigation report precipitating identification of career criminal activity. The crime

analysis unit assures that the patrol offense report is
utilized to its best advantage in developing the prin-
cipal tactical strategy for the criminal apprehension
process.

Through the development of more responsibilities
for the patrol officer, ICAP has been altering the
availability of information developed by the patrol
operation for criminal apprehension and follow-up in-
vestigation needs. Patrol responds to all crimes and
makes up to 95 percent of all arrests made by a police
department. The information gathered, witnesses inter-
viewed, and evidence observed, protected, and developed
by the patrol officer is, without any doubt, the most
vital factor contributing to establishing a suspect
identification or apprehension possibility. Far too
many departments have allowed the responding patrol
officer to do little more than take the report on who
made the complaint and why.

The enhanced investigative role of the patrol
officer is described in Figure 4-6. This model gives
the patrol officer a greater role in the initial inves-
tigation and in the follow-up of cases.

4.4   Directed_Patrol

Background_to_Directed_Patrol   Contemporary police
methods have been limited essentially to patrol offi-
cers handling calls for service (CFS) and detectives

FIGURE 4-6

ENHANCED INVESTIGATIVE ROLE OF PATROL

Patrol Responsibility	Case Referral Procedure	Consequences	Management Policies
- Investigate crimes in increased number of categories - Suspension can occur on scene after initial investigation	- Refer only those cases which require high level of skill or which are of an exceptional nature	- Maximal use of detectives by assigning them to follow up only those cases with high probability of solution and/or those which require specialized skills - Maximal use of patrol resources in all investigations - Improved relationships between public and police - New roles and opportunities available for detectives	- Establish policies detailing the differing authority and relationships between patrol and detectives - Adopt case screening system which incorporates early, on-scene, case-closure criteria

handling criminal cases. Preventive patrol became a catchall for officer-initiated activities and other ad hoc functions performed by patrol officers when they were not responding to CFS. Special problems or programs were handled by special units, and task forces were formed any time a problem got out of control.

Improved concepts of time management have identified the need to create periods of time in which a patrol officer may concentrate on one assignment. Operations analysis studies have indicated that the largest number of activities or tasks that police need to do are one to three hours in duration. These tasks cover the range of crime, crisis, and order maintenance functions of police. Yet, no one does these jobs presently. Special units and task forces tend to focus on shift-long or multiple-person day assignements and tactics. Conversely, patrol officers function in 20-minute spans of time, which are controlled by the perceived need to be available for CFS. The jobs which fall in-between (the one- to three-hour tasks) are often too mundane for a special unit to handle and too time-consuming for patrol.

Directed patrol has emerged as a means for releasing patrol officers from CFS, for short periods of time, to conduct special activities. Directed patrol is now being used to increase police productivity by taking time recovered from preventive patrol and expanding it on a useful service or activity.

The most successful uses of directed patrol have the following common characteristics:

1. Directed patrol is a one- to three-hour assignment, usually involving only one officer.

2. Directed patrol may be used for any bona fide police activity or service.

3. Directed patrol is a pre-planned activity (before shift), as distinguished from an officer-initiated activity (OIA) which occurs on an ad hoc basis during a shift.

4. Directed patrol may be used to:

   - respond to a single problem statement
   - respond to an ongoing problem statement
   - document time spent planning a series of directed patrols
   - document time spent preparing for a series of directed patrols
   - account separately for each in a series of directed patrols

5. Directed patrol emphasis is on a high volume of assignments which are basic (instead of a low volume of highly complex, time-consuming jobs that conflict with special unit objectives).

6. Directed patrol normally requires that an officer be relieved of CFS assignment.

7. Directed patrol is mostly a "bottom-up" activity (officer-conceived), in lieu of a "top-down" (management-conceived) assignment; this creates an incentive for greater volume and performance.

8. Directed patrol planning is oriented around a patrol squad, and officers are involved directly in planning for the balancing of CFS coverage and directed patrol activities.

Initiating Directed Patrol The request for a directed patrol assignment should be initiated based on a problem or service need from one of the following sources, in order of importance:

1. patrol officer

2. special unit or detective

3. management

The order of importance reflects the experience of departments which have implemented directed patrol programs. It is now a rule of thumb that the desired volume of directed patrol will come if patrol initiates at least 66 percent of the assignments from the bottom up. Directed patrol referrals from special units or detectives may represent another 20-30 percent. The remaining directed patrol assignments may come top down with a reasonable expectation of patrol compliance.

The directed patrol request form may be designed in many ways, whichever is most preferable for each department. Some agencies have elected to require an elaborate and time-consuming format. However, these tend to suppress the volume of requests. Many others prefer to keep the format simple, requiring only the most pertinent information.

Some designs combine the directed patrol request and the post-action report (results) on one form. A few departments separate the two so that multiple or repeat directed patrols may be used against the same general problem statements. However, it is simpler to combine the forms to avoid the risk of becoming stale.

A common mistake of many departments has been to imply, in directed patrol guidelines, that something

more than street intelligence or officer perceptions is required to justify a directed patrol. Another mistake is to require that a problem statement be verified or approved by someone other than the first-line supervisor. This tends to suppress volume and does little to improve quality.

Patrol Task Schedule A task schedule is the simplest means of assuring that CFS, directed patrol, and special assignments are balanced properly. A patrol task schedule helps to substantiate that first-line supervisors are managing their resources, instead of merely supervising officers. (Supervisors enforce the rules of an organization, but managers are held accountable for the use of resources.) The patrol task schedule supports field managers--usually sergeants-- who take the initiative to plan the workday of their officers.

The primary purpose of a task schedule is to show how CFS will be covered and how the remaining resources left to the patrol supervisor will be expended. For instance, a typical patrol squad may have eight officers. Each works an eight-hour shift, which means that the supervisor has been given 64 hours of paid-for police time to use. CFS will normally consume about 35 percent of this time, leaving about 48 hours. At least 50 percent of the remaining time is lost to the normal downtime between CFS. So it is not unreasonable to assume that 24 hours are available for discretionary

assignments. By filling out a task schedule, the supervisor is forced to acknowledge an awareness of how time is being spent.

Shift commanders may gauge the performance of supervisors better by comparing their input to patrol planning with what actually happens. This helps to spot the sergeants who plan their whole eight-hour shift based on the worst hour that is expected. It also helps to spot the sergeants who need remedial assistance, because every day is planned the same, regardless of the actual day-to-day variance that is predictable. It also protects those sergeants who did everything right, but were the victims of unusual circumstances which were beyond their control.

Patrol task schedules vary by department, mostly due to local preferences or to an administrator's perception of the present capability and remedial needs of the first-line supervisors. The optimum task schedule should include:

1. The required number of CFS response units for each time segment; this may be broken down into one-, two-, or four-hour blocks.

2. The time periods that are projected to be uncommitted for each officer.

3. The directed patrol or administrative activities that will be assigned for completion during uncommitted time periods.

4. The relative priority for cancellation of each assignment when CFSs exceed expectations.

5. The optimal times to relieve personnel for meals or relaxation.

Management Standards For Directed Patrol   Many
administrators assume that police officers will auto-
matically know how to do directed patrol. The exper-
ience of others has shown that officers, left to their
own devices, will probably limit their directed patrol
activity to stake-outs for crime problems and radar for
traffic. Since their only role models for tactics have
been special units, patrol officers will tend to
develop directed patrol plans that are labor-intensive.

It is advisable to publish a list of directed
patrol examples. These management standards for dir-
ected patrol are provided as a guide of pre-approved
responses to problems, which may be used as the need
arises. The list has an educational value, and it
stimulates more creativity in the development of dir-
ected patrol plans. The list also helps patrol offi-
cers to confine their planning to the one-to-three hour
time blocks that avoid serious conflict with special
units or investigators.

Each department should develop its own list based
on the potential range of problems and services that it
faces. A sheriff's office may differ from a municipal
police agency. Rural, suburban, and urban law enforce-
ment agencies vary as well. Therefore, the lists
should be as broad as possible and avoid the tendency
to lump directed patrols under general categories.

It is in the best interests of a department to
break down every potential category of directed patrol.

Otherwise, many officers will miss the value and personal reward of carrying out what may have been considered a mundane activity in the past, which now takes on greater significance.

Examples of Directed Patrol Categories and Management Standards   Directed patrol may be used to provide any bona fide police activity or service encompassing the crime, crisis and order maintenance functions of law enforcement.   Figure 4-7 provides a general breakdown of the categories of directed patrol and a sample list of management standards which may be utilized.

Directed Patrol for Juvenile Problems   Juvenile law enforcement matters account for a minimum of 50 percent of patrol officer time.   About 95 percent of all police-youth contacts are made by patrol officers, with less than 5 percent handled by youth specialists. Therefore, it is obvious that patrol or field officers handle the bulk of juvenile services.

One of the keys to an improved juvenile service program must be the commitment to a directed patrol program.   Directed patrol will increase the quality of patrol services to juveniles through its structure, formality, and effect on positive performance.   Moreover, it provides a vehicle for juvenile officers and specialists to communicate the needs of juvenile programs more effectively with patrol and general assignment investigations.

FIGURE 4-7

CATEGORIES OF DIRECTED PATROL

CRIME	CRISIS	ORDER MAINTENANCE
deterrence	disturbance follow-up	traffic
apprehension	interventions	complaints
prevention	positive contacts	major events
protection	victim assistance	maintenance of
investigation	referral services	public conveyances
intelligence		pedestrian access

Management Standards

investigation follow-up	disturbance follow-ups	traffic problem
warrant packaging	senior victim follow-	preparation
warrant teleservice	ups and checks	traffic enforcement
warrant service	child neglect case field	- radar
warrant sweeps	visits	- stakeout
security surveys	teleservice for victims	- roadblocks
minor drug busts	& disturbance complaints	accident prevention
stake-outs	business checks & high	- slowdowns
bar checks	visible surveillance	- saturations
block club meetings	(bars, clubs, etc.)	- teleservice
F.I. (juvenile & adult)	intervention and referral	follow-up
teleservice rotation	service for family dis-	-- programs
surveillance of known	turbances	pedestrian safety
offenders	neighborhood dispute	- stop & walks
F.I. & saturation patrol	resolution meetings	- intersection con-
of problem areas	joint pick-up & transport	trol
business reference card	of homeless/indigent	parking control in
updates	persons	problem areas
school liaison meetings		point control plan-
		ning for major events
		traffic signal/meter checks

Management standards for juvenile directed patrols may be subdivided initially between the following categories: prevention, protection, positive contact, enforcement, and intelligence. Each of these categories may be developed into an exhaustive list of juvenile directed patrol standards.

A specific type of directed patrol may fit into several categories, depending on its unique objective. For instance, a truancy-oriented directed patrol may be aimed at reducing neighborhood offenses (prevention), school attendance (enforcement), or picking up local runaways (protection). Likewise, a directed patrol tactic aimed at the arrest of public drunks may be more acceptable if its objective is to protect juveniles who obtain alcoholic beverages through drunks who hang out near video arcades and liquor stores. The tactic would, therefore, focus on public drunks who "inhabit" certain areas where juveniles are likely to make contact. The primary objective is to protect juveniles rather than to arrest drunks.

4.5 Criminal Investigations

The SHO/DI program incorporates the Managing Criminal Investigations design to increase the rate of felony arrests and convictions by enhancing the role of patrol officers in crime scene investigations and by improving the management of follow-up investigations.

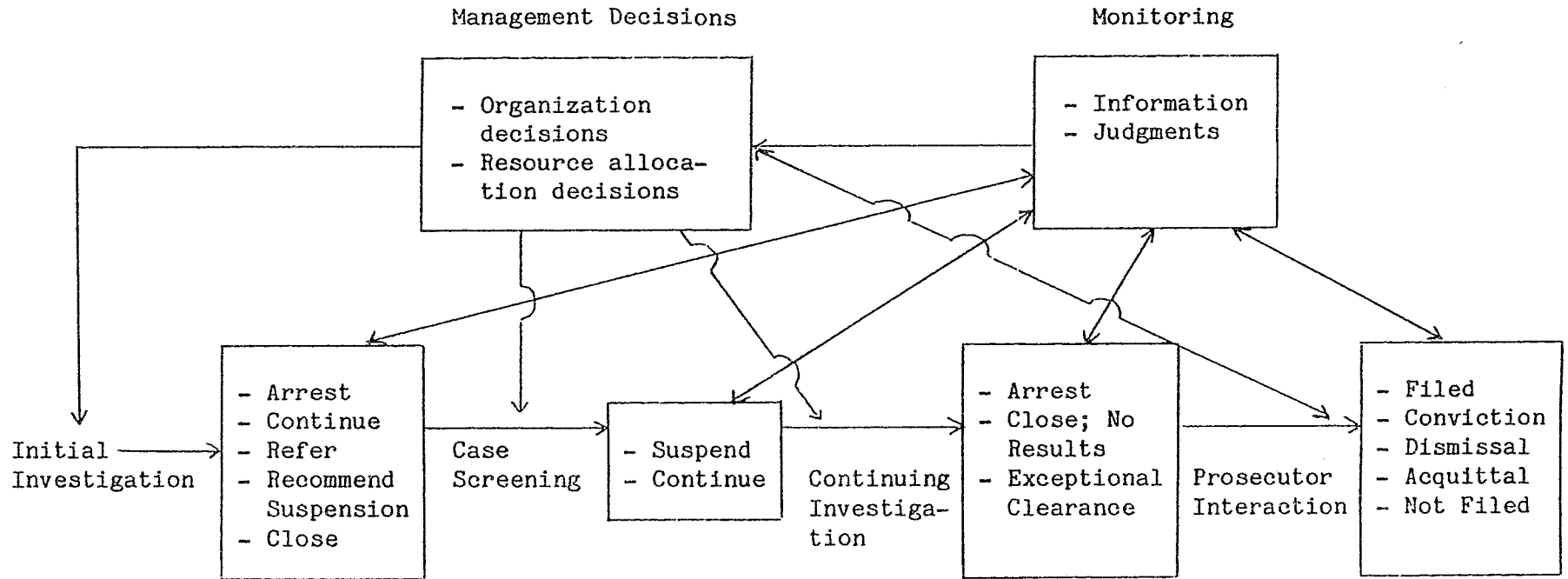The MCI design (Figure 4-8) contains six components:

1. Enhancement_of_Investigative_Role_of_Patrol
Officers. While this program design does not seek to
eliminate specialized investigators, it does attempt to
maximize the utilization of patrol officers who typ-
ically respond to calls for service and complete crime
reports. The thrust of this component is to fully
utilize the time currently spent by patrol officers in
securing crime scenes to conduct preliminary formatted
investigations which need not be repeated by investiga-
tors.

2. Case_Screening. This program element is
intended to assess crimes in terms of solvability and
seriousness factors to determine which cases initially
investigated by patrol officers warrant further inves-
tigation by detectives. A case screening officer is
utilized to determine cases requiring follow-up by
detectives. Patrol officers may also be involved in
this screening through their incident reports. Solv-
ability and seriousness are determined by using a scale
developed by the grantee police agency. These screen-
ing scales must be based on the Sanford Research Insti-
tute "Felony Investigation Decision Model" or other
similar analysis of solvability. Individual variations
are permitted to include local crime priorities and
departmental experience in solving various crimes.

3. Management_of_Continuing_Investigations. This
component is intended to provide police administrators

- 43 -

FIGURE 4-8

.THE CRIMINAL INVESTIGATION SYSTEM AND OUTCOMES

Management Decisions

Monitoring

- Organization
  decisions
- Resource alloca-
  tion decisions

- Information
- Judgments

Initial
Investigation

- Arrest
- Continue
- Refer
- Recommend
  Suspension
- Close

Case
Screening

- Suspend
- Continue

Continuing
Investiga-
tion

- Arrest
- Close; No
  Results
- Exceptional
  Clearance

Prosecutor
Interaction

- Filed
- Conviction
- Dismissal
- Acquittal
- Not Filed

with improved management control over follow-up investigations by detectives. It involves the continued application of seriousness and solvability factors to the investigative workload and periodic reporting on case progress to develop improved supervision of investigators.

4. Police-Prosecutor Liaison. In this program element, a prosecutor liaison officer is responsible for obtaining feedback from the prosecutor's office in order to apprise police administrators of inconsistencies between prosecutorial changing policies and police investigative priorities. The prosecutor liaison officer also provides police administrators with timely information concerning completeness and quality of investigations offered for prosecution. The prosecutor liaison officer may, as a local option, exercise a screening of cases for seriousness and quality of preparation, prior to presentation to the prosecutor.

5. Monitoring-Evaluation. This component involves the development of an ongoing assessment of work quality and case prioritization for the investigative function, and the development of data necessary for decisions concerning the allocation of resources between patrol and investigative (follow-up) functions, and between specialist and general investigators.

6. Police Agency Organization and Allocation Decisions. The examination of existing organizational arrangements and the allocation of police resources

should lead to the formulation of policies and pro-
cedures that promote the successful performance of the
initial investigation, establish a meaningful case
screening, expedite the continuing investigation, and
encourage a working relationship between the police
executive and the prosecutor.

Management of criminal investigations for SHO/DI
will lead to the following results:

- complete preliminary investigations by patrol
  officers;

- greater attention by detectives to cases with
  highest probability of solution;

- development of a case screening method which
  will more accurately identify solvable crimes

- retention of existing response capability of
  patrol officers;

- improved efficiency of detectives through im-
  proved management and case control;

- increased rate of case acceptance by prosecutors
  through improved police/prosecutor relations; and

- increased conviction rates for cases prosecuted
  as a result of more thoroughly prepared cases.

4.6 Crime Prevention

Crime prevention personnel play a key role in the
interagency approach of SHO/DI as part of the early
warning system of the program. This early warning
system, made up of individuals from the police depart-
ment, schools, social services, etc., is designed to
identify children at risk in order to intervene and
interrupt their illegal conduct.

Crime Prevention in the Schools   Approximately
half of all juvenile serious habitual offenders are
enrolled in public schools, but quite often the schools
are unaware of these offenders or their criminal his-
tory.   Crime prevention officers work closely with
schools in responding to SHO/DI juveniles enrolled in
the schools.   For example, if an officer completes a
field interview on a truant SHO/DI, he can then make
the schools aware of that juvenile's whereabouts during
school hours.   Crime prevention officers can also work
with school personnel to make them aware of how to
recognize and respond to children at risk.   Because
juveniles often commit crimes against other juveniles,
the crime prevention unit and other officers can work
with the schools to increase awareness among all juve-
niles and to promote schools as safe and secure insti-
tutions of learning.

Neighborhood Leagues and Community Groups   Most
serious, chronic juvenile offenders commit crimes in
their own neighborhoods.   Crime prevention officers can
work with neighborhood groups on crime awareness and
crime prevention techniques.   Also, in recent years
there has been a growing public awareness that juve-
niles are involved with drug and alcohol use.   Many
community groups have responded by increasing their
involvement in such issues.   Crime prevention officers
can provide a law enforcement perspective to such
groups.

5. THE INTERAGENCY APPROACH

5.1 Introduction

One of the difficulties in dealing with juveniles who are serious, habitual offenders is that the juvenile justice system was never designed to address such offenders. Rather, the philosophy of the system is based on protection and rehabilitation. This system, built on the premise that all juveniles can be successfully rehabilitated, must then address juveniles who repeatedly commit crimes and are not rehabilitated.

With protection of the juvenile as one of the highest priorities, most agencies extend this philosophy to protection of records. Consequently, often agencies do not fully share information with one another. Bizarre behavior patterns in school are not related to police agencies or social services. For a serious juvenile offender, pieces of his behavioral history may be spread out among several agencies with no comprehensive, accurate picture of his entire range of behavior.

SHO/DI is dramatically demonstrating (through cooperative policies and procedures) that the individuality of information, if shared and analyzed, can provide the whole system with the collective information that will allow for better decisions to be made with regard to the juvenile who is showing the warning signs of requiring very serious concern and attention.

What follows is a brief description of the con-
tribution of each agency to the program. Figure 5-1
portrays this information graphically.

5.2 Prosecutors

In most states, the components of the juvenile
justice system are the police, the prosecutor, the
judge, and probation/parole/social services. The pros-
ecutor, in most jurisdictions, interfaces with all of
these agencies on a daily basis; thus, prosecutors are
in a unique position to bridge gaps in the system and
to introduce the people in agencies who do not usually
work together. The prosecutor can also encourage them
to support and cooperate with the SHO/DI project goals.

Prosecution of SHO/DIs Most often SHO/DI cases
are handled by the same prosecutor from beginning to
end. That prosecutor reviews the case, makes the
filing decisions, and makes all court appearances.
Each time the juvenile comes back to court on other
cases, that same prosecutor will handle him. In this
way, the prosecutor gets to know the minor, his family,
his associates, and his patterns, and develops exper-
tise about that particular juvenile to better handle
the case. In addition to vertical prosecution, the
minor must plead to every provable charge. In this way
the court has the maximum ability to sentence the
minor, and he will soon learn that if he commits four

FIGURE 5-1

SHO/DI INTERAGENCY NETWORK
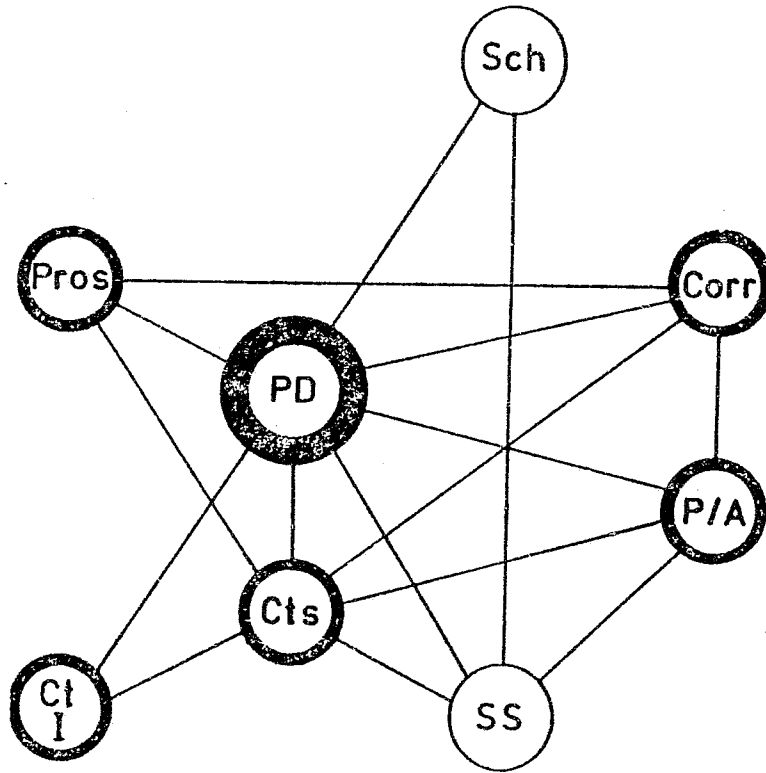
LEGEND:

⊙ Traditional   ○ Other Juvenile—
    Justice Agencies   Related Agencies

PD—Police Department   Sch—Schools
Pros—Prosecutor   SS—Social Service
Ct I—Court Intake
Cts—Courts
P/A—Probation/Aftercare
Corr—Corrections

crimes, he will be charged with and plead to, or go to trial on, four crimes. At each stage of the proceedings, the prosecutor tries to keep the SHO/DI detained (because of his danger to the community) and does everything possible to expedite the case through the system.

Officers can also come to court to testify in SHO/DI cases in non-trial situations when necessary. A live witness testifying in a detention hearing, a sentencing hearing, a restitution hearing, or a probation progress review hearing can be far more effective than a few written lines in a report. In cases where the issue is a closed one, having the officer available to speak to the judge can sometimes make a difference in the ruling.

5.3   Social Services/Probation/Aftercare

When SHO/DI was first developed, many professionals in social service agencies questioned whether the program would have any value for them. In fact, the information-sharing that has resulted from SHO/DI allows both social services and the police to obtain more accurate information on serious juvenile offenders.

SHO/DI police departments, for example, can provide probation officers with copies of field interview (FI) cards on juveniles. Such information can aid

probation personnel in determining if and when probation violations occur. Similarly, crime prevention officers can work with social service professionals to address the needs of neighborhoods where serious juvenile crimes are occurring.

Aftercare agencies, on the other hand, can provide police with information concerning pending releases of SHO/DI juveniles from secure care facilities. Such constant contact between the agencies ensures that juveniles will not so easily fall through the cracks of the system.

5.4 Corrections

Juvenile justice is realized when the juvenile offender is properly processed through the judicial and correctional systems and as an adult remains at liberty without further criminal violations. This implies that the various components of the justice system, i.e., police, prosecutor, judge, probation, correctional counselor, and parole, must function as a unit which will enable the consistent application of the judicial/ correctional process. The major failure of the juvenile justice system is the breakdown in communications inherent in each of the components, and there is a history of these segments not communicating with one another to collectively assure swift, fair, and sure correction of the serious, habitual juvenile offender.

The role of corrections to rehabilitate and return
the juvenile to the community with the ability and
attitude to remain at liberty is no more or less impor-
tant than the investigation and apprehension by law
enforcement that first brought the juvenile into the
judicial/correctional process. The attitude of law
enforcement and the tone of prosecution establishes the
foundation for rehabilitation and has as much to do
with turning around a juvenile delinquent as does the
therapy of the sentence and the work of the correc-
tional agent. Each juvenile justice professional must
realize his responsibility to serve and protect.

The involvement of corrections in the SHO/DI pro-
gram has intensified the communications with the police
agency. The SHO/DI juveniles require coordinated
police work, special prosecution, immediate judicial
response, and protection of the community. Following
adjudication, the placement of a juvenile in a correc-
tional environment should enhance the probability of
altering his behavior.

5.5   Schools

When records showed that over half of all SHO/DIs
were still in school, it became impossible not to
include the schools in the SHO/DI process. Through the
interagency approach, the law enforcement agencies work
closely with the schools to address not only the

SHO/DIs, but also the potential SHO/DIs, children at risk, and school safety in general.

Early Warning Signals Teachers often have more contact with juveniles than any person other than family members. Because teachers have this daily contact with juveniles, they are in a prime position to observe the early warning signals of a child they believe is a victim of abuse, neglect, or drug involvement, or if they become concerned that a juvenile is beginning to victimize others. Through the SHO/DI program, the schools and the police agencies work together to develop coordinated policies and procedures to address these issues.

The agencies are also coordinating efforts on issues of school safety. Traditionally, crimes which are committed in school are handled internally and the police are never made aware of the incidents. This, in turn, contributes to the lack of comprehensive histories of troubled juveniles. SHO/DI suggests that schools share such information with law enforcement personnel, and by doing so, the entire range of a juvenile's behavior, rather than just bits and pieces, is known. A valuable by-product of the exchange of information among the agencies is the growth of mutual respect, the discovery that all agencies are working toward the same goal where SHO/DIs are concerned, and the realization that each agency can help the others reach that goal.

6. PHASE II--PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION

6.1 Functional Model

As stated earlier, the SHO/DI program builds on
the organization development process first created
under the ICAP program. Each of the major goals of the
SHO/DI program falls within the components of the ICAP
process (see Figure 6-1).

The eight SHO/DI goals can be divided between
Identification processes and Action-oriented tasks.
Thus, the first four objectives involve identifying and
formalizing the SHO/DI population as well as the func-
tions within the department necessary to address that
population. The final four tasks speak to various
activities which should take place amoung the juvenile-
related agencies in order to implement a successful
SHO/DI program.

6.2 Operational Model

While the Conceptual Model explains the "why" and
the Functional Model explains the "what" of the pro-
gram, the Operational Model illustrates the "how" of
SHO/DI (see Figure 6-2). The model describes each of
the program tasks, the procedures required for each
task, and the outcomes which can be expected.

Task One: Establish the Data Base Unlike adult
criminal information, juvenile records are often incom-

FIGURE 6-1

ICAP: SHO/DI IMPLEMENTATION
FUNCTIONAL MODEL

| Identification Process | | | | Action-oriented Tasks | | | |

DATA COLLECTION → ANALYSIS → PLANNING → SERVICE DELIVERY

| Establish Data Base | Establish Criteria | Establish Process for Early Identification | Specialized Crime Analysis Functions | Linkage & Flow of Information | Establish Specialized CJ Procedures | Interagency and Community Support | Organization Development & Technical Assistance |

Feedback to Criminal Justice System and Technical Assistance Delivery to Other Jurisdictions
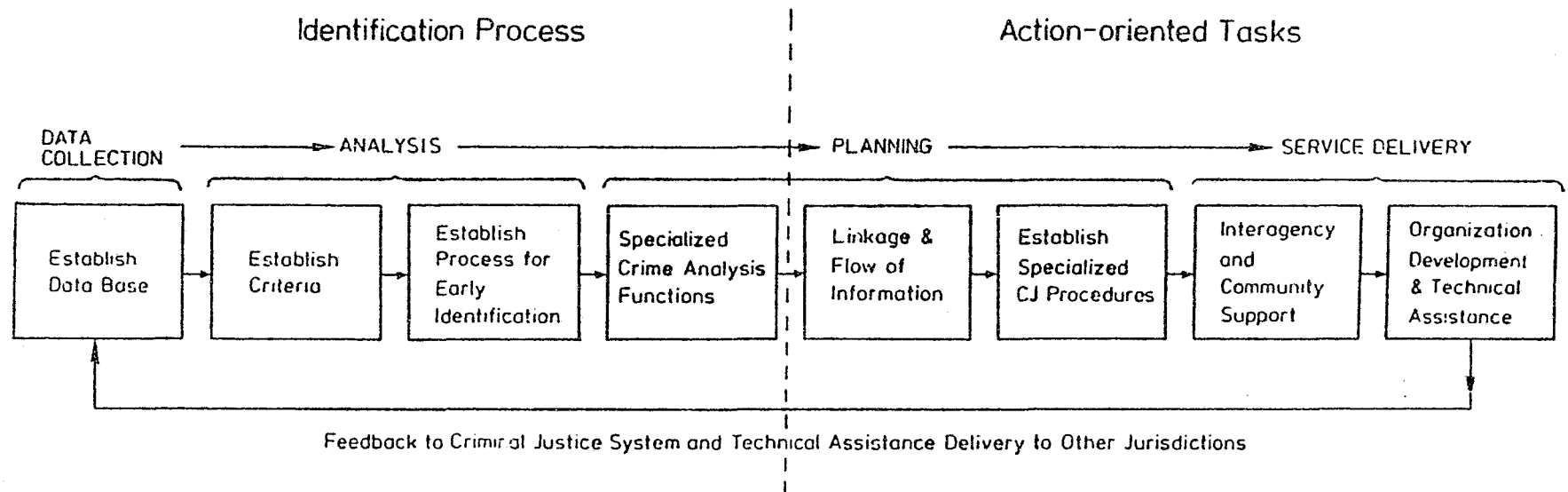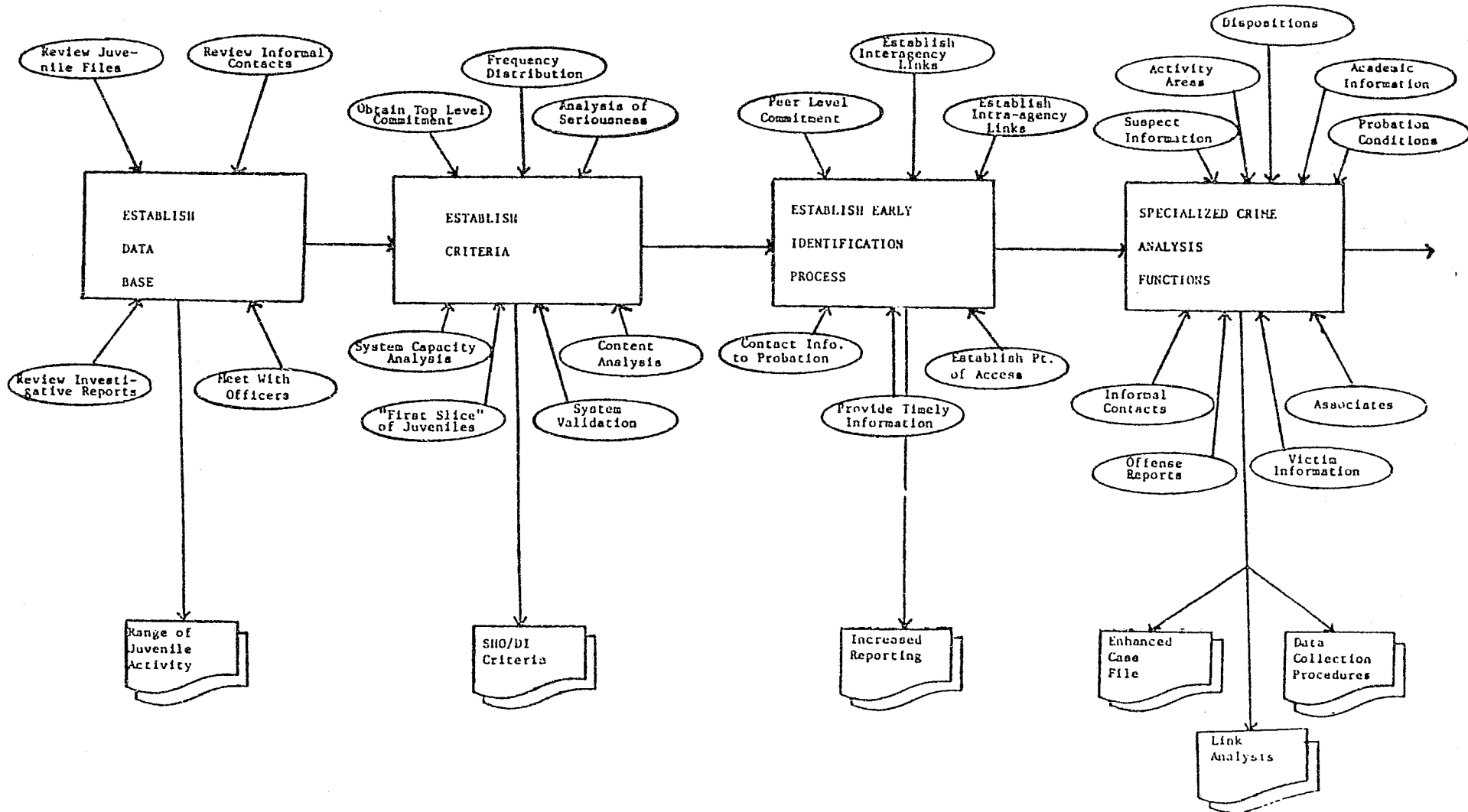
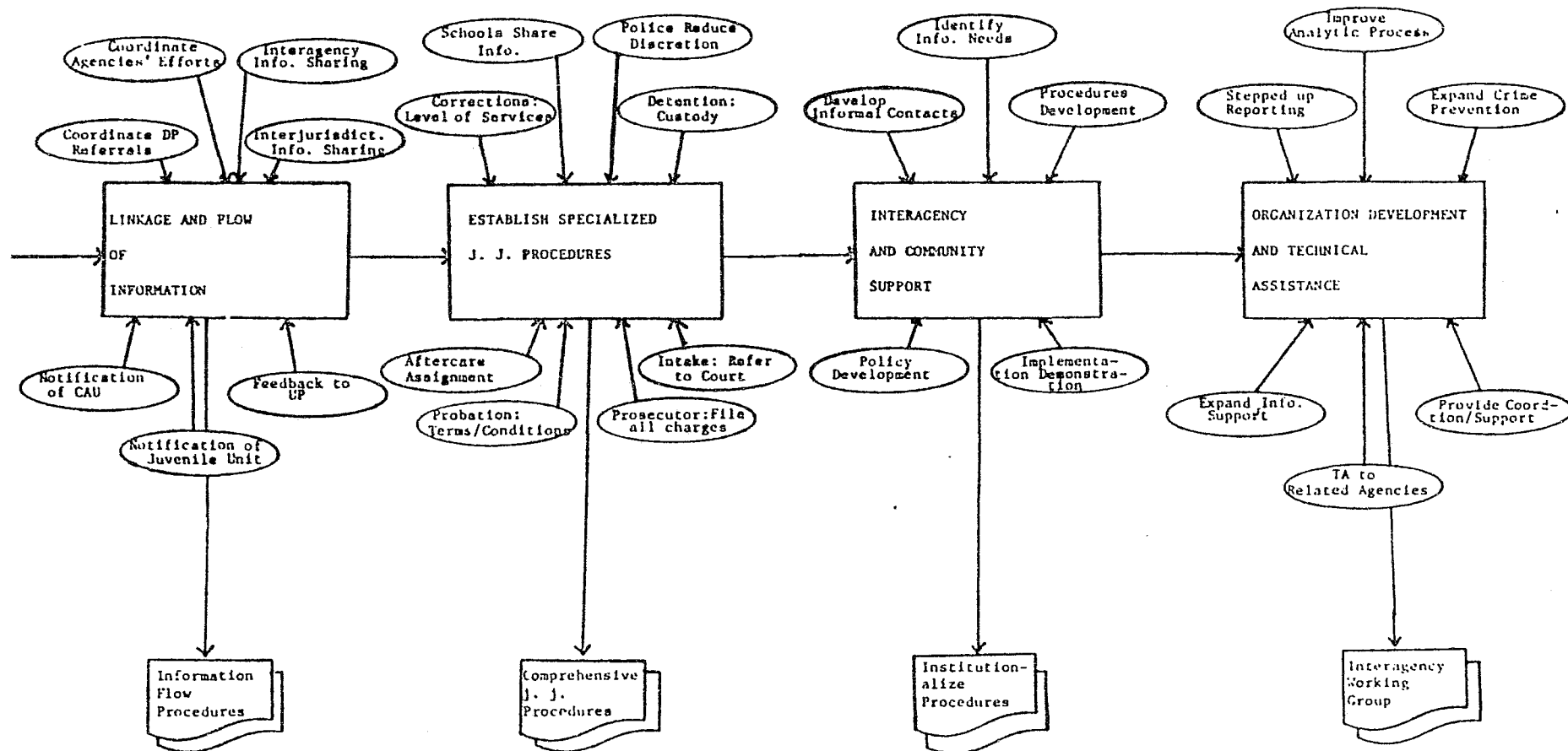# FIGURE 6-2

SHO/DI OPERATIONAL MODEL

FIGURE 6-2 (Continued)

SHO/DI OPERATIONAL MODEL

plete or inaccessible. One of the first tasks in the program is to review all of the department's juvenile files. This accomplishes two major objectives. First, a comprehensive review provides the opportunity to analyze the entire range of juvenile criminal behavior in the community. Second, such a review allows the department to scrutinize the information it is currently collecting on juveniles. If the data is incomplete, responses such as future training programs, roll call briefings, or form revisions can be based on the needed modifications.

The establishment of a juvenile data base can be accomplished in a number of ways. In one of the initial SHO/DI sites, department volunteers were used in the Crime Analysis Unit. The volunteers reviewed 4,000 juvenile records, and then an analysis of the records was conducted. Another city had most of its information more readily available; however, the department found that some necessary information was not being collected. Thus, the youth cards were revised to correct the situation. In another city, absolutely no juvenile records were available, hence the SHO/DI coordinator had to begin from scratch in establishing a data base.

In order for the SHO/DI program to be successful, it is essential to establish an accurate data base. In addition to all current juvenile records, information can be collected on informal contacts, from investiga-

tive report contacts, and also from police department personnel. Once the data is collected and analyzed, the worst-of-the-worst juveniles will be identified. The Task One output will lead to Task Two.

Task Two: Establish Criteria The SHO/DI program is designed to be specifically tailored by each jurisdiction. Thus, the criteria for deciding which youth should be included as SHO/DIs will vary somewhat from city to city. Once the data base is established, the department can begin to formulate its criteria.

A frequency distribution and an analysis of seriousness can be conducted. This will lead to the completion of a content analysis of the juvenile records. The analysis must then be validated through other agencies and also through other departments within the police agency. As the analysis yields different levels or groups of juvenile activity, the descriptors (a given number of arrests, given types of crime, etc.) of the worst behaviors will provide the basis for the criteria. If necessary, the criteria can then be refined through system validation.

As the criteria are established, it is also necessary to conduct a System Capacity Analysis. It does little good to identify SHO/DI juveniles and process them through the system only to find that there are inadequate facilities to handle them.

In order to have meaningful criteria, top-level policy commitment is recommended. Such commitment will

enhance the department's ability to stimulate system-
wide cooperation. The end product of this task will be
the program criteria.

Task Three: Establish Process For Early Iden-
tification As stated previously, one of the difficul-
ties in responding to chronic, serious offenders is
that each juvenile-related agency keeps separate
records on juveniles and there is little sharing of
specific information among agencies. Similarly, each
juvenile-related agency has a good deal of discretion
in dealing with juvenile offenders. These are the
cracks in the system through which serious juveniles
often fall. The SHO/DI program attempts to tighten up
the system in order that such serious, chronic offen-
ders can be more readily identified.

Thus, this task involves not only the police
department, but also other agencies. First, it is
necessary to provide ready access to the data base in
order to give uniformed patrol and detectives timely,
accurate juvenile-related information. This means the
identification of a consistent point of access for
detectives and patrol officers. Second, linkages
between uniformed patrol and detectives should be
established so that there is a continual flow of SHO/DI
information between them. Links must also be estab-
lished with other juvenile-related agencies. These
various linkages can best be implemented at this point
if peer level commitment has been fostered.

Task Four: Specialized Crime Analysis Functions

In the majority of the SHO/DI jurisdictions, program data is housed and analyzed in the Crime Analysis Unit. Program implementation has required some specialized crime analysis functions. In addition to offense reports, the SHO/DI program recommends that Crime Analysis assess other data, including informal contacts (FIRs), dispositions, and conditions of probation. Other information which should be analyzed includes suspect information, activity areas, associate information, and victim information. Academic and school discipline information is also especially helpful in providing a comprehensive picture of a juvenile's activity.

The analysis of this information will yield several products. The first outcome will be the specialized procedures for SHO/DI data collection. These procedures will enable the department to develop the enhanced case profiles which are built for each SHO/DI juvenile. Additionally, Crime Analysis can use the specialized data for link analysis activities on juvenile offenders.

The first four program tasks (establishing a data base, criteria development, early identification, and crime analysis) were established as identification process tasks. They provide the means for identifying chronic, serious juvenile offenders. They also serve as the basis for the final four tasks, which are more

action-oriented. These tasks provide the structure for moving the juveniles through the system.

Task Five: Linkage and Flow of Information The completion of this task is crucial to successful implementation of the program. The department must establish a flow of information not only within the police agency but also with other juvenile-related agencies.

Within the department, once a juvenile is apprehended and has met the SHO/DI criteria, a pre-set process is implemented. Upon contact, the juvenile unit or officer is notified immediately, as is the Crime Analysis Unit. This activates the completion of the enhanced case profile.

Police operations should also coordinate efforts with other related agencies. This involves establishing procedures for interagency information-sharing and ensuring that this is conducted on a regular basis. The department may also choose to share SHO/DI-related data with surrounding jurisdictions, which would involve establishing and coordinating this interjurisdiction information-sharing process.

Finally, it is necessary to provide continual feedback to all of those involved in the process. For example, uniformed patrol should receive regular feedback on case outcomes.

Task Six: Establish Specialized Criminal Justice Procedures This task identifies the crux of the SHO/DI program. The overall goal is to facilitate cooperation

and information-sharing among juvenile-related agencies who address chronic serious offenders. For each agency, specialized procedures are recommended which enhance the likelihood that a SHO/DI juvenile offender will be held accountable for his conduct throughout the entire system. For example, within the police agency, officer discretion can be limited.

Procedures can be established so that prosecutors file on every provable charge. Prosecutors can also request pre-trial detentions and speedy trials. In addition, prosecutors can appear at sentencing and seek the highest possible sentence and also can make presentations at parole hearings. Intake Services can require mandatory referrals to court rather than diversion.

Probation officials can be encouraged to share terms and conditions of probation with the police and schools, and also can recommend such things as drug/ alcohol testing and intensive supervision. Corrections can use the enhanced case profile to help determine appropriate treatment and level of services. Similarly, Aftercare programs can use a case profile to determine the level of supervision necessary for a particular juvenile.

By working more closely with the police department, social service agencies can take special action on a SHO/DI juvenile when they have original jurisdiction. The enhanced case profile can be used by such agencies to assist them in making placement decisions.

Finally, SHO/DI procedures can be established in school districts to assist them in responding to chronic serious offenders as well as children at risk. Program information can be used to assist in classroom placement, counseling needs, etc. By sharing truancy and discipline information with police, the schools can aid in putting together an accurate, comprehensive juvenile history. Such a history will allow the juvenile justice system to respond more effectively.

Task Seven: Interagency and Community Support

One of the long-term goals of the program is to institutionalize the SHO/DI procedures in all juvenile-related agencies. In the initial SHO/DI sites, the police agencies first used informal contacts to develop SHO/DI procedures. As these contacts were made, the police also inventoried and assessed the information needs of the other agencies in order that cooperative procedures could be established. Appropriate staff and coordination mechanisms were also identified.

Once the procedures have been developed and implemented, a decision can be made as to whether or not formal policies need to be developed to achieve institutionalization of the process.

Appropriate community group support can also be pursued, again initially through informal contacts. For example, Crime Prevention Officers can work with neighborhood groups or civic organizations to respond to neighborhood crimes perpetrated by juveniles.

Task Eight: Organization Development and Technical
Assistance This task, designed to address both
intra-agency and interagency needs, is an ongoing
process which builds on the successes of the program.
Within the police agency, SHO/DI fosters organization
development in a number of ways. For example. the
program requires stepped-up records and recording.
Information support is improved, and the Crime Preven-
tion role is expanded. The analytical processes in
Crime Analysis are also improved and a good deal more
emphasis is placed on the juvenile unit (or function).

Additionally, technical assistance is provided to
other agencies in an ongoing manner. In the five
original SHO/DI cities, the police agencies worked to
create an environment in which the specialized juvenile
justice procedures and information-sharing could take
place. Several of the five cities have since estab-
lished a working group of juvenile justice agency
representatives who meet on a regular basis. Initially
these groups emphasized program coordination; however,
they have expanded their focus to include support
activities, policy development, children at risk, and
other relevant topics.

Finally, agencies involved in the SHO/DI program
can provide technical assistance to other jurisdictions
interested in implementing the SHO/DI program. This
has already occurred and will continue to increase as
the program spreads across the country.

7. CONCLUSION

7.1 Program Summary

The first phase of SHO/DI produced two areas of focus for implementation. First is the overwhelming necessity for system-wide information-sharing and cooperation--a "systems" response to the problem of handling chronic juvenile offenders. This need has also been addressed by other practitioners and researchers, including the National Advisory Committee for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention and the National Council of Juvenile and Family Court Judges.

Second, the data collected during Phase I and the interaction which developed between the agencies involved underlined the need to focus efforts on children at risk before they become SHO/DI juveniles. Thus far, the program has demonstrated that this preventive measure in conjunction with a system-wide response to youngsters who are already chronic, serious offenders will result in a tremendous decline in juvenile crime.

7.2 Future Directions

While the first eighteen months of the SHO/DI project focused on researching juvenile data and consequently developing the program in each of the cities, actual program implementation did not begin until Phase II in early 1985.

In the year since the program was first implemented, however, the impact on the juvenile justice system has been substantial. From the beginning, the law enforcement agencies in the SHO/DI sites sought to gain the support of other juvenile-related agencies, including prosecutors, courts, probation, corrections, social services, and schools. During the first phase of the program, police worked at establishing informal agreements on sharing information among the various agencies. The agreements varied from agency to agency, but their overall purpose was to prevent serious, habitual offenders from falling through the cracks of the justice system. By sharing case information on such juveniles, each component in the system would have complete, comprehensive profiles of these juveniles' activities.

During Phase II of the program, the agencies have been formalizing these agreements and incorporating them into policies and procedures. It is important to remember that these policies and procedures relate to a very small number of juveniles--less than 2 percent of the entire juvenile population. However, these offenders are responsible for a large amount of juvenile crime.

There has not yet been a comprehensive, quantitative evaluation of the impact of the program on the offenders. Such data is currently being collected for analysis; this will be the first time such a population