

THE FUNCTION OF THE POLICE IN CRISIS INTERVENTION AND CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

A TRAINING GUIDE

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This training guide was prepared under Grant No. 74-TA 99-1006 awarded to Criminal Justice Associates, Inc. by the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U.S. Department of Justice, under the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, as amended. Points of view or opinions stated in this document are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of the U.S. Department of Justice.

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Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice**

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
FOREWORD	vii
1. PRELIMINARY CONSIDERATIONS	
Planning for Change	1.1
Policy-Making	1.2
Middle-Management Resistance	1.4
Patrol Supervisor Support	1.4
Patrol Officer's Role	1.6
Use of Civilians	1.8
2. ORGANIZATION OF A FIELD TRAINING PROGRAM	
Importance of Field Training	2.1
Selection of Leaders	2.2
Development of the Process	2.4
Role of the Group Leader	2.4
Use of Case Material	2.6
Individual Consultation Sessions	2.7
Summary	2.8
3. DEVELOPMENT OF ADMINISTRATIVE FORMS AND PROCEDURES	
Basic Data Form	3.1
Car File	3.2
Community Resource File	3.3
Referral Form	3.3
Consultation Debrief Form	3.4

	<u>Page</u>
4. CRISIS INTERVENTION	
1. Introduction	4.1
2. Crisis Theory Explained	4.1
3. Police Role in Crisis	4.4
4. Advantages of Police Competence	4.5
5. Family Crisis Origins	4.6
6. Crisis Intervention Case Study Material	4.11
5. INTERPERSONAL CONFLICT MANAGEMENT	
1. Introduction	5.1
2. Conflict Theory Explained	5.1
3. The Management of Interpersonal Conflict	5.3
4. Police Officer as Third Party	5.4
5. Family Conflict	5.5
6. THE FAMILY	
1. Definition	6.1
2. Family Role Structure	6.2
3. Functions of the Family	6.3
4. Social Class Differences	6.5
5. Cultural Determinants of Behavior	6.9
6. Family Interaction	6.12
7. Family Stresses	6.15
8. Conflict and Violence in the Family	6.18
7. INTERVENTION METHODS	
1. Introduction (Rationale)	7.1
2. Steps in Management of Problems	7.4

	<u>Page</u>
7. (Continued)	
3. Interviewing	7.7
4. Basic Information	7.17
5. Special Interviewing Situations	7.22
6. Arriving at a Diagnosis	7.24
7. Selecting an Intervention Plan	7.26
8. Implementing the Intervention Plan	7.29
 DISCUSSION EXAMPLES	 7.35
 EXERCISE I	 7.43
 8. THE REFERRAL NETWORK	
1. Organization of the Referral Network (Administrative)	8.1
2. The Helping Service Network	8.10
3. The Referral Process in Intervention	8.16
 9. REFERENCES	
1. General Training References	9.1
2. Supplementary References	9.6
3. Crisis Intervention References	9.9
4. Conflict Management References	9.10
5. Family References	9.12
6. Professional Referral References	9.15
7. Interviewing References	9.16
8. Film References	9.17

APPENDICES	<u>Page</u>
1. REAL - LIFE SIMULATIONS	1-1
1. Description	1-3
2. Goals	1-3
3. Instructions to the Trainer	1-4
4. Materials/Supplies	1-6
FOUR BRIEF FAMILY DISTURBANCE SCRIPTS	1-9
Family Disturbance Skit #1	1-10
Family Disturbance Skit #2	1-16
Family Disturbance Skit #3	1-23
Family Disturbance Skit #4	1-31
2. PERFORMANCE EVALUATION SYSTEM	2-1
3. ROLE PLAYS WITH SMALL GROUPS	3-1
4. GROUP DISCUSSION AND EXERCISE TECHNIQUES	4-1
5. TRAINING POLICE AS SPECIALISTS IN FAMILY CRISIS INTERVENTION	5-1
6. FAMILY CRISIS INTERVENTION FROM CONCEPT TO IMPLEMENTATION	6-1
7. EFFECTS OF CONFLICT MANAGEMENT TRAINING ON POLICE PERFORMANCE	7-1
8. CRISIS INTERVENTION AND INVESTIGATION OF FORCIBLE RAPE	8-1
9. THE ROLE OF LAW ENFORCEMENT IN THE HELPING SYSTEM	9-1
10. STATEMENT BY GERALD M. CAPLAN, DIRECTOR NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF LAW ENFORCEMENT AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE REGARDING BATTERED CHILDREN	10-1
11. <u>TO COMBAT CHILD ABUSE AND NEGLECT</u> , PUBLIC AFFAIRS PAMPHLET #508	11-1

FOREWORD

As the research center of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice sponsors research to develop new crime control techniques and to promote more effective administration of justice. Our hope is that the progress achieved through research in other fields - health, defense, and space - can be made in criminal justice.

Such progress is possible only if innovative programs and practices generated by research are widely adopted. Too often, useful information developed by researchers has been filed away, making little or no impact on general practices. To help reverse this trend, the Institute emphasizes providing state and local officials with the best available information on what works and what doesn't work in criminal justice.

In 1973, one in every four homicides grew out of family disputes. A substantial number of serious assaults also occur within families. Another dreadful result - one which has been largely overlooked - is child abuse. Many parental attacks on children occur in the course of a general family quarrel.

Police are aware of how frequent, time-consuming and dangerous the family quarrel can be for their officers. They know it can often end in death or serious injury to the participants or the police.

Given the proper training, police officers have a unique potential to defuse family fights before violence reaches its peak. The police are usually the first summoned in such situations, for people know that they can respond quickly and have the power to do something. But the "something" the citizen wants done may not be an arrest. We all know that many calls arise from personal crises in which an arrest is neither necessary nor appropriate.

For several years, the Institute has worked to develop and refine crisis-intervention techniques and training to help police handle family conflicts safely, without the use of force or arrests. In two New York City experiments, the Institute found that this approach significantly reduced injuries to both the police and the families they assisted. We hope the program can be used in other communities with similar success.

Beyond improving safety, the family crisis intervention concept changes the police function in concrete and positive ways. Success is measured in terms of the officer's ability to solve disputes rather than the number of felony arrests he makes. As officers begin to view themselves as skilled conflict managers, capable of defusing potentially explosive situations, beneficial effects are felt throughout the department. If the department recognizes and rewards the officers for using these new skills, both practice and its benefits can be institutionalized.

Gerald M. Caplan
Director

SECTION 1

PRELIMINARY CONSIDERATIONS

Planning for Change

The primary function of family crisis intervention training programs in police departments is to teach new skills and competencies in an area of police work which is already an integral and sizable portion of the patrol officer's regular routine. The police role has been traditionally defined by both the public and the police as "crime-fighting" and hard core "law enforcement." The reality of the situation indicates that approximately 80 percent of the officer's time is spent in the area of social regulation, order maintenance, and service to the community. Only two out of every ten of the seven million calls for New York City police assistance in 1973 involved actual or threatened crime and violence. Thus the separation of the social regulation and strict law enforcement aspects of police work may be purely artificial. The ambiguity of the role of the police in our society has serious ramifications to both the police and the public.

When conflict in role definition surfaces in a department, it may take the form of pressure either for or against new programs and may affect the shape of these programs. The responsibility of the administration is to plan, develop, and implement programs to improve the performance and efficiency of their respective agencies. In order to gain support for new programs, the administration needs to recognize, understand, and deal with any resistance to change. Inherent in any conflict is the opportunity for growth. If conflict

can be viewed in this light, the administration may be able to turn this momentum toward constructive organizational objectives. The administrator should be advised that in those cases in which programs are designed as specific, isolated activities rather than goals and objectives of the entire agency, implementation tends to be delegated to a specialized person or group rather than to all members of the agency. Programs based on this premise tend to be uncoordinated with other agency efforts and are often, from the outset, doomed to failure.

Consequently, it is imperative that the police administrator plan for change, while being keenly aware of the potential resistance and the necessity to manage such conflicts (to insure the success of the program). The following section deals with the various possible forms of conflict and suggests ways of analyzing and using them for the positive opportunity they provide.

Policy-Making

The influence that policy-makers can exercise over the success or failure of new programs in a department has the potential of developing in different ways. A discussion of this can be found in Morton Bard's Family Crisis Intervention; From Concept to Implementation.^{*} The absence of firm commitment and support to ventures such as the integration of family crisis intervention training will set the effort adrift with a vague basis of institutional support. This can result in the rest of the department's being uncertain as to just how vigorously it should support the innovation. Lack of commitment is most often a result of the failure of people at the policy-making level to come to grips with the role definition conflict described earlier. It is the duty of the police administrator to define the police role clearly, and to persuade officers to fulfill this role. This is, of course, best accomplished by

* See Appendix 6, this document

motivating officers to accept the role voluntarily. The most effective and sensible way to overcome resistance to policy which defines the police role is to enlist the cooperation of officers at all levels. The role definition problem may surface as a conflict between providing "services" or doing "real police work." This characterization suggests that the two functions are distinctly separate parts of the officer's routine function. Nonetheless, recent findings clearly indicate that these two areas are neither mutually exclusive nor contradictory, but are rather complementary and supportive of each other.

Lack of understanding about the program's goals and objectives can take several forms. Bard, in Family Crisis Intervention: From Concept to Implementation, pp. 22-25, has discussed three: the social work myth; the community relation gimmick; and the funding game. These three forms of resistance are all derivative of the basic notion that family crisis intervention is not "really" police work. These postures fail to understand the way in which the crisis intervention function complements other areas of police work. They also neglect or fail to recognize the side benefits that this kind of training can have for other police functions.

For example, in "The Effects of Conflict Management on Police Performance" (Zacker and Bard, Journal of Applied Psychology, 1973)¹, the authors present data bearing on the impact of "conflict management training" on other areas of police performance. Their findings indicate that in such areas as arrest rates and clearance rates police officers improved their performance significantly when they had received conflict management training as compared with officers who had not received this training. This is evidence to support the notion that skill in handling disputes in families and knowledge of crisis theory and intervention techniques assist the officer in handling other kinds of police work as well (e.g., rape investigation)².

1. Appendix 7

1.3

2. Appendix 8

Middle-Management Resistance

When a new program being developed in a department requires outside funding sources, it is usually conceived at the policy-making level and then assigned to one or two supervisors of lower rank for planning and implementation. This sets up an implicit accountability that often operates outside the formal chain of command, thereby functioning to exclude members of the middle-management force of the department from the planning stages. Those members excluded by this violation in the chain of command will develop some resistance to the program. When the program reaches the implementation stage, the cooperation of these same middle-management people will be needed in order to handle some of the future operations problems, such as making personnel available for training, gathering information about field operations needed to support the training effort, and developing evaluation procedures. The time to enlist the support of middle-management people is at the planning stage; moreover, police agencies should draw on the knowledge and experience of their personnel at all levels in formulating policy. If middle-management is included when areas are considered that will affect them, their resistance will be less. If this is added to an indication of firm support from the top levels of the department, the spirit of cooperation and support that will be needed at the implementation stage should begin to develop.

Patrol Supervisor Support

There is nothing that works more quickly to discourage patrol officers from using their new skills than to be chastised by a supervisor for taking "too long" on the job, or for getting "involved." This will happen if the sergeants and lieutenants who

supervise patrol are not made an integral part of the training program. The patrol supervisors are probably the most crucial of all the officers in the department for the long-range success of this type of program. With their support, the informal reward structure that operates at the field level can support the efforts of the program in the field.

The field supervisors will further support the project if they learn to see the supervisors' role in terms of the program's development rather than in strict accountability terms. The supervisor has a role to play as a trainer, and the most effective training occurs in the field. It has long been recognized that one of the principal duties of the supervisor, and perhaps one of his most important responsibilities, is the training of his personnel (See Principles of Supervision, Iannone, Chapter 6). Special attention, then, should be paid to the sergeants and lieutenants who will be supervising the police officers who participate in training in the field. Field supervisory personnel should be included at all levels of planning and implementation in order that their special knowledge of current operations can be used to anticipate field problems as they arise. In addition, they need the same training as the patrol officers so that a thorough understanding of what is expected is developed among superiors. Hopefully, a supervisory style that is consonant with the new professional view will be developed in officers. Additional training may be required in what are the appropriate professional/supervisory models.

There are many different ways to facilitate the supervisors' involvement in the program. One possibility is to train the supervisors first, then give them an actual role to play in the training program. They could be given the role of discussion leaders, they may participate in the development and presentation of some of the sessions, or they may be co-discussion leaders for the field training part of the program discussed later. They could be

paired with civilians to develop in collaborative efforts an ongoing field training program. These approaches help the supervisor focus on his natural role as trainer. By recognizing the skill, ability, and influence of the people in the field, one also adds credibility to the program in the eyes of patrol officers. In addition, involving supervisors from the field diminishes the gap between the "ivory tower" instructors and the "real officers" in the field.

An administrator's central concern with personnel at the executive level is finding a vehicle that insures their early and ongoing involvement in the program. Without their active support, efforts to support the officers in the field as they try out their new skills will be frustrated.

Patrol Officer's Role

Of all police personnel, the patrol officer will most reap the benefits or suffer the consequences of a new program to train him in intervention skills and theory. It is also true that he suffers most from the inadequacies of the police role definition. The confusion resulting from both new training programs and the lack of definition about his job are likely to breed a cynicism that at times borders on despair or open hostility. He has seen programs and trends come and go in the police profession and heard his job debated as a political issue from the very highest offices of the land down to those of city government. He knows that police work is politically charged and he therefore has reason to be suspect and cynical at new attempts to change the way he does his job. "How is this new program...whatever it is...going to benefit me?" He is right, of course; many new programs are merely political, the result of whatever the presently dominant political force sees as expedient for its goals. Training in family crisis intervention, however, is not an attempt to change in a fundamental way the tasks a police officer has to do. It does attempt to bring existent behavioral

science knowledge to the profession of police work, and thereby enable the officer's ongoing performance to be more efficient, safe, and satisfying. The payoff for the officer is that he is provided training and skill in an area of police work where heretofore he has been asked to perform without training.

People do not, however, easily change the way they do things. The choice of the kind of training for this project is crucial. The training that allows for maximum participation by the officers in the sense that they may talk about personal feelings and matters of concern is essential. Firstly, without this participation they will feel that another way of doing things is being forced on them and their resistance is likely to surface in the field; secondly, even more crucial, the personally involving nature of such participatory training is a necessity. The success of the training requires that the officers develop their personal perceptions and skills.

An attempt has been made to look at the various forms of resistance that could be encountered in setting up a program of this sort. This is not to be considered all inclusive, since there are other forms of resistance not mentioned and still others that may not have been encountered yet. An alert department administration will recognize these as they arise. If they are not seen as a threat to the program, but rather as an expression of the legitimate concerns of the people involved, they can be used as a starting point for developing support for your efforts. If these opportunities can be used as a means of involving others in the department and increasing their awareness of the goals, the resultant involvement and awareness will help establish the program with a sound foundation of support.

Use of Civilians

The integration of civilians into the police department as a part of family crisis intervention training presents unique problems both for the police professionals and the civilians involved. Typically, police agencies have entered into association with social scientists as a temporary "marriage of convenience." Each of the participants tolerates the other for the short-term gain. Usually the law enforcement agency cooperates with the social scientist and allows itself to be "done to," while the social scientist contents himself with "doing his own thing" and getting out. This obviously is not the best use of the social scientist's resources, either from the police agency's or the social scientist's perspective.

There are many pitfalls or traps that both the police and the social scientist can encounter in their attempt to work out a suitable relationship. An examination of some of the less productive examples can be useful in describing what should be a more productive model of this relationship.

Police agencies often feel civilians coming to work in their agencies lack the knowledge of police work necessary to participate in the decision-making of the police department. This often leads the police agency to isolate the civilians in an office with some specific information-producing or analytical task. The product of their work is then used by a member of the agency to make decisions. This often results in police and civilians working on the same project simultaneously, doing parallel work without interacting with each other. This redundancy is costly in dollars and cents terms, and the result of both efforts will be less productive than if both the civilians and the police could benefit from each other's unique experience and expertise.

Isolated civilians are likely to develop feelings of anxiety as a result of having no close relationship with the department. The police, on the other hand, will have feelings of apprehension

because what the civilians are doing is not likely to be clear. The misgivings that develop in this situation require both sides to engage in "image building" to establish some feeling of security and in fact, to encourage the free exchange of ideas between the civilians and police.

Another, less obvious extreme is one in which the civilian is seduced into thinking he is somehow part of the brotherhood of the police world. In other words, the civilian is "co-opted" into thinking and acting as if he were an officer. He may even decide to wear a gun or carry some kind of badge, or even offer to answer some police calls. Obviously, in this situation the civilian has forsaken his own professional identity and taken the "police" identity. However, he ends up being neither officer nor social scientist. He cannot assume the role of officer because he lacks the legal responsibility and preparation that goes with the designation. Nor can he act as a professional because he has compromised the integrity and uniqueness of his professional position. Neither of these two extremes is hard to identify. And, obviously, neither of the extremes adds any new dimension to the police profession.

It is perhaps harder to recognize a third trap of the civilian/police professional relationship. This trap is most likely to occur when the police and the social scientist cooperate for some sort of short-term gain. Because the relationship here is brief and is predicated on the availability of some short-term gain for both sides, there is no pressing need to work out a productive, long-term relationship. This results in both sides participating in setting up a "mutual admiration society" as a kind of payoff for the things they need from each other. Often a lot of time is spent making public and private statements about how great the other side is. This, of course, detracts from the real work that could and should be done.

A more effective and productive model for professional relationships is that of collaboration. Collaboration suggests a more active role on the part of both sides, as opposed to the passivity implied in the cooperative situations described. The collaborative model implies mutuality of decision-making, accountability of goals, and interchangeability of some functions. In essence, it is an active participatory process.

This has special implications for departments in which civilians are used as trainers. Traditionally, civilians have been asked to come and lecture on a topic of their expertise. When they leave, the police trainers come and tell the officers "what to do"...usually with no attempt to integrate the two sessions. Police and civilians should be required to collaborate both in the design and presentation of the training. Interchangeability of function can occur where the civilian can then present the "how to" and the officer can present the "theory" (i.e., when both parties collaborated in the preparation and both are clear as to the objectives they are trying to achieve). In a situation in which both civilian and police trainer are in the classroom at the same time providing point and counterpoint to the classroom exchange, a much richer discussion will ensue. Where this collaborative model has been tested, police officers have found the enlarged area of interactions both interesting and useful.

SECTION 2

ORGANIZATION OF A FIELD TRAINING PROGRAM

Importance of Field Training

The experience to date recommends that the training of officers in family crisis intervention skills be done with a combination of an initial intensive phase and an ongoing regular field training program. The initial phase is done intensively; that is, the officers attend the training full-time for a period of two weeks or longer. Field training happens after the officer has returned to the field to apply what he has learned in intensive training. The field training should occur at frequent, regular intervals for at least six months after the officer returns to the field. (These recommendations are made in Morton Bard's Training Police as Family Crisis Specialists)*. The entire training effort will be considerably less effective if field training is not given the priority it deserves.

The training that will be described here as field training is similar to the kind of training that is required of most professions that deal with people in complex interactive capacities. Teaching colleges require their students to spend a semester or two in the field as student teachers and the medical profession requires its candidates to spend a lengthy period of internship before they qualify as doctors. These professions recognize the fact that they are dealing with complex areas of human behavior--areas requiring the use of professional discretion and judgment that cannot be taught "from the book." This is certainly true of the police

officer as well. It is true for many facets of the officer's job and is particularly applicable to his role as intervener in a family dispute. For this kind of skill the most significant learning takes place as the practitioner begins to adapt to the field what he had learned in the classroom.

The task for the officer is to take the understanding of human behavior that he gains in the family dispute situation, blend it with his own personality, and develop on the basis of his own experience a style that is appropriate for him. To do this it is imperative that he have a chance to learn on his own and under the guidance of a skilled trainer, with assistance from other officers. This training will also support the officer in his attempt to use what he has learned in the classroom. It will further allow the trainer to receive important feedback as to the effectiveness of the initial training.

The most successful field training program will bring together the same group of officers on a regular basis with a discussion leader. The group should meet weekly, for at least six months. The meetings should last for two or three hours and should have as their focus the officers' various experiences in family disputes in the field. Discussion leaders/trainers should be assigned to each group.

Selection of Leaders

The selection of effective discussion leaders is crucial to the success of the field training phase of the training program. Leaders who are unsure of themselves and also of the goals and objectives of the program will be of little help in achieving the program's objectives. A combination of civilian/police officer, shared group leadership can be very effective. The qualities of the civilian trainer in this capacity should include a knowledge of

group process techniques and an intimate and thorough understanding of the program and its goals and objectives. In addition, they should include the ability to work with and interact with police officers without compromising professional integrity. It would be advisable for the civilian trainer to go through the initial training the officers receive with his group. He might also ride along and observe some of the officers as they handle family disputes.

In choosing a co-leader to pair with the civilian for the group leadership role one should look for an officer who has credibility as a "patrol" officer and a belief in and understanding of the objectives of the program. With this combination of "street knowledge" and professional "training skill," there is an excellent opportunity for a collaborative relationship to develop among the civilian and officer trainers. This combination also will provide strong leadership for the group and in addition serve as a model for others as to how the civilian police relationship can work.

Other possibilities for choosing the discussion leaders for a field training program are available. A supervisor from the field may be included as one of the leaders as a way of lessening what may develop into resistance from the supervisory level in the field. The possible combinations are many; however, the important prerequisite is to understand the need to include both the knowledge of discussion group techniques and real "street" knowledge as part of the qualifications of one or the other of the group leaders. The mere possession of credentials is not enough in this instance.

A combination of professional skill in group process and field knowledge in the shared group leadership is insufficient. The group leaders need ongoing discussions among themselves and with the project leaders to insure the continuing effectiveness of the groups. These ongoing meetings should serve as inservice training for the group leaders. New innovations or new training ideas pertinent to the project should be discussed here for use in the field training sessions.

Development of the Process

For our purposes "process" is defined as the way in which a group of officers can work together to support each other in the development of intervention skills. The group uses as the basis for its discussions the actual experiences of the individual members of the group in the field.

This definition of the group process suggests two interim goals for the group if they are to be successful as training groups. The first of these is the development of a compatible working relationship among the members of the group which will allow the members to discuss and openly critique their intervention attempts from the field. The initial responsibility for the development of this relationship falls to the leaders of the group.

The second of the interim goals to which the group should address is how it can organize the task of capturing the actual interventions of the members for the group discussion. An effective plan for providing this information to the group will prevent one or two members from dominating the group with their experience.

Role of the Group Leader

The first task of the group leaders is the development of the working relationship among the members of the group. An effective way of bringing this type of group together initially is to use structured group exercises as a way of demonstrating how groups can work together and what they can accomplish. These exercises show the effectiveness of group decision-making and also demonstrate in condensed fashion the dynamics of the group process. (The best source for these kinds of group exercises is the University Associates

Trainers Handbooks, available from University Associates, San Diego, California).

After the group has these structured group experiences to provide its members with an understanding as to how groups work, it should be ready to work on setting some guidelines for itself. An effective way for the leaders to organize this session is to suggest that the group develop a contract among all members of the group, including the leaders. This takes the form of an understanding among the members as to what behavior and material is pertinent to the group's objectives.

Contracts for group behavior can have many items but should include such factors as:

- Each member will speak only for himself and not for other members of the group.
- When the behavior of one member of the group is bothering another member to the extent that it affects his participation, he will raise it with the group. (When bother occurs, it interferes with learning and consequently is a legitimate concern of the group.)
- What is talked about in the group stays in the group unless all members agree to share it with others.

There are many possibilities for other items. Each group is unique and therefore, may develop some unique items of its own.

In addition to the already mentioned facets of the leaders' role, the leaders should take as their responsibilities any other functions that will assist the group to function smoothly. This may include administrative matters such as scheduling, facilities, materials, and whatever else the group may require.

As the field training part of the program progresses, the discussion that takes place in the groups may begin to get repetitive or stale. Training groups don't function at 100 percent efficiency all the time. To increase the officer's effectiveness in the field, it

may be wise to have a session set aside each month for new or different material.

One or more sessions should be used to further strengthen the project's relationship with the referral network. Officers should visit the referral agencies to meet staff and learn about procedures. When visiting these agencies, an officer could see how cases are handled to understand the steps his clients will have to go through. Workers from the referral agency should also be invited to present case material to the group. In this instance the referring officer and the worker from the referral agency could present a case collaboratively. This part of field training will not only increase officers' understanding of the referral network, but also will build a relationship between the officers in the field and workers in the agencies. This will have direct impact on their success in making referrals.

Other material could also be developed for this special monthly session as long as it bears directly on the objectives of the project.

Use of Case Material

Case material, in this context, is material which describes the actual interventions of the officers in the field. The first problem in using this kind of material is how the material can be presented as accurately as possible to the group.

This material can be captured in a variety of ways. In some states is it possible for officers to be equipped with recording devices to record actual interventions as they happen. While this is perhaps the most effective and accurate way of capturing a case in its entirety, there are serious ethical and legal questions that must be considered before this technique is used. State law varies regarding the use of recording devices, and trainers and officers

should only use this technique after a careful exploration of all the consequences. For these reasons this technique is rarely used. Two other means of capturing these experiences are possible. The first of these is to use an observer who will watch a series of interventions by an officer or team of officers and then present them to the group. Preferably the observer should be another member of the group who is released for this purpose from regular assignments for a tour or two. Another alternative, perhaps the least costly in terms of manpower, is to have a recording device available in the car. When an officer leaves the scene of a dispute he can record his recollection of what transpired and have the tape played back to the group for analysis. As the members of the group become used to the discussion of their cases in this fashion, they should begin to bring in cases that they have questions about or problems with in order to help other members of the group understand these cases. As this spontaneous case-sharing begins to develop, the need for the more formal presentation of case material may diminish.

As the officers begin to discuss their cases in the group there should be a continuing effort to refer back to the material that was presented in the initial training for use in analysis of the cases. This technique provides for a solid bridge between the more theoretical and abstract knowledge of the classroom and the practical realities of the field. This also provides the officers with an organized vehicle for analyzing their field experiences. The leaders have a role to play in summarizing the points made in the discussions of the group so as to capture the concrete learning examples that are provided.

Individual Consultation Sessions

In addition to participating in discussion groups, the officers should be provided the opportunity to discuss their interventions

with the consultants to the project on an individual basis. Each officer should be provided with this consultation service on a weekly basis, if possible. This consultation should last for six months.

The purpose of the individual consultations is to give the officers a chance to discuss their interventions with a skilled, objective social scientist. This will help the officer build an understanding of the principles of human behavior that affect dispute situations. When these consultations are done skillfully, the officer will begin to see what other options are open to him in intervention situations both in terms of his own behavior and in terms of the behavior of the disputants.

The consultant should be given an orientation and training in his role as a consultant trainer. Use of the consultant debrief form can provide some structure to these sessions. (See page 3.4).

Summary

The field training component of the Family Crisis Intervention Program is crucial to its success. Careful planning is required to insure this facet of the program's smooth operation. The consultant trainers and police trainers should be integrated into the program at its inception. The trainers, both police and consultants, should be carefully selected and thoroughly oriented as to the goals and objectives of the program. These trainers should be considered the ongoing staff of the program. In this capacity they should meet regularly with the project leaders. In addition, regular reports should be required of them to capture their perspective on the progress of the training. Careful attention to the details of this phase of the training will help insure a successful field training program.

SECTION 3

DEVELOPMENT OF ADMINISTRATIVE FORMS AND PROCEDURES

When developing the forms needed to capture the data a department requires to analyze its efforts in the Family Crisis Intervention Program, the basic data should come from the officers in the field. With this in mind the forms should be simple, easy to use, and helpful to those actually doing the work of the project. The forms should provide basic data about the numbers and kinds of family disputes in which the officers are required to intervene. To assist in the development of these forms a few of the most basic kinds of forms are discussed here. Further information about the interventions in the field can be captured from the individual consultation sessions and the referral agencies. Forms are also suggested for these.

Basic Data Form

The simplest data collection plan is to have one form provide all the basic data you need for the project. This should be the form that the officer uses to report on each intervention he makes. It should provide the department with basic information about the family involved, the type of dispute, the cause of the dispute, and the officer's action in the situation. This form should also have space for the officer to give his impression of the situation.

Specific information should include items similar to the following:

- Origin of the call
- Time

- Place (address, telephone number, etc.)
- Information about the complainant (nature of the complaint, whether the complainant was a disputant, relationship of the complainant to the disputants)
- Information about the disputants (name, age, employment, ethnic identity, address, relationship with each other, relationship to others involved in the dispute, and other information deemed relevant by the department)
- Children (number, ages, sex, parents, etc.)

The section for the officer's evaluation may include some of the following:

- What was happening when you arrived?
- What happened immediately before you arrived?
- What do you think led up to the crisis (loss of job, change in living arrangement, etc.)?
- What is your evaluation of the family (how long together, who is the dominant figure, what is the appearance of the house and of the people, and other impressions)?
- How was the dispute resolved (medication, referral, etc.)?

In this part of the report there should also be a section for the officer to write a brief description of the dispute, his action, and the resolution of the situation.

Car File

In the initial family crisis unit in New York City it was found useful for the officers to have at their immediate disposal information about disputes of a chronic nature. For this purpose a car file was developed that would provide the officers with basic data about all the interventions conducted in a given patrol area. This file was designed so that the interventions were filed by address. This file provided officers responding to a dispute call

with information as to whether there had been previous calls to the address, what the circumstances were in the previous calls, and what action had been taken by the officers. This system has obvious safety advantages, but it also provides for a continuity of service often unavailable in these circumstances and allows for information on chronic dispute cases to be developed over time.

Community Resource File

If the officers intervening in family disputes are to be effective in the referrals they make, they must have ready information available as to what resources are in the community and what kind and quality of services they can provide. This file should be a continuously updated, cross-indexed file of resources in the community. It should include the material as discussed in Section 10, "Organization of the Referral Network." It should also be in a form that is easy to add to as the officer develops personal contacts in other resources. The officers of the initial family crisis unit suggested this be developed in a form that could be inserted in the memo book.

Referral Form

In those instances in which the officer makes a referral it is advisable to have a simple form for the officer to give to the person being referred in order to facilitate the process. This form serves several different functions. First, it provides the client with a concrete reminder that help is available--there are psychological advantages to this in that the client tends to regard it as a concrete symbol of the fact that help is available. Secondly, it serves to identify the client for the referral agency as someone who is referred by the police. Third, if this form is done in duplicate, it offers a means for following up on whether or not the referral was used.

This form should be simple, with information on the name of the person being referred; the name, address, telephone number, and contact person for the referral agency; and the name of the referring officer.

Consultation Debrief Form

The consultation de-briefing form serves two purposes: (1) It can insure uniform data collection in depth on individual interventions and thus supplement the basic data form, and (2) It can add an element of structure to the individual consultation process.

This form should include such basic data as --

- Date, time, and place of the dispute.
- Disputants' names and relationship.
- Intervening officer.
- Consultant.

In addition, it should include the following kind of information about the dispute:

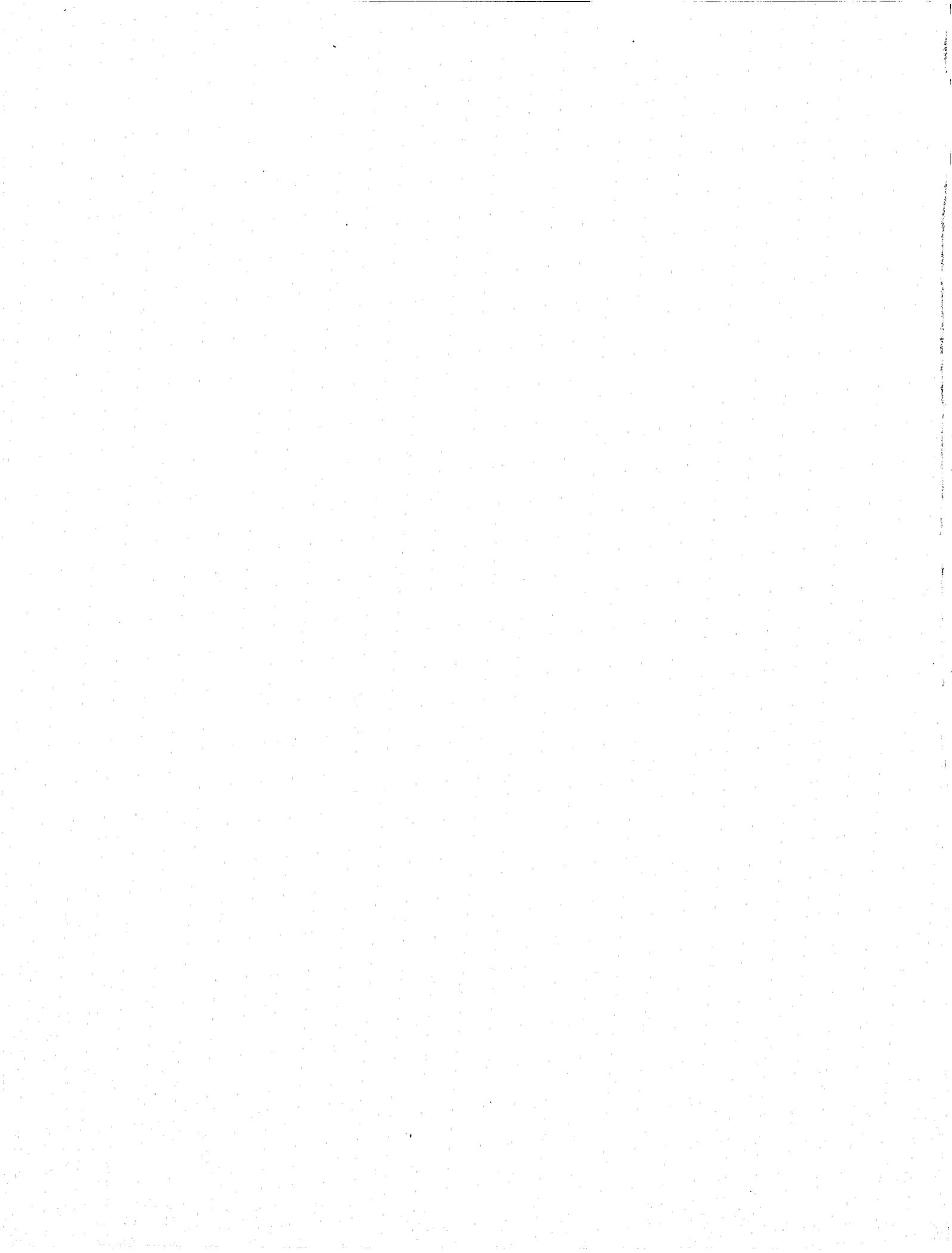
- Immediate cause: What is the precipitating set of circumstances?
- Underlying causes: Is this a chronic or acute case? Why? History of the problem?
- Social unit: What is the family member structure? What people are involved? Are there other important figures?
- Officer's approach: What kind of intervention did he make? Why?
- Disputant's response: How did they react to the officers? How satisfied were they?
- Alternative approaches: In what other ways could it have been handled?
- Unique aspects of the dispute.
- General impression: What are the consultants' comments as to how the intervention was handled?

•Training recommendations: What suggestions can be incorporated for use in field training?

The consultants should be given training and orientation as to the use of this form. It should be completed after each consultation.

Other forms and procedures will be needed for some of the family crisis training projects*. They will vary from city to city but may include such items as consultant's report forms, group discussion reports, case histories on particular dispute situations, and others. Whatever the need of the particular projects is, the reports should be simple and to the point so as not to bog the project down in paper work, thus detracting from the basic goals of the project.

*Sample forms used in New York can be found in appendix 5.



SECTION 4

CRISIS INTERVENTION

1. Introduction

1.1 The police make up a human service system with unique crisis management potential. Of all service delivery systems, the police form one which inevitably is involved in the atypical and stressful events that profoundly affect people.

1.2 The fundamental characteristics of the police--their immediate response capability and their authority--are basic to the crisis intervention role.

1.3 Understanding of crisis theory is useful in the broad range of police work. Acquiring crisis intervention competence generates a greater sense of security in the public and facilitates the safe, satisfying and successful fulfillment of the police mission.

2. Crisis theory explained

2.1 What is crisis? It has been defined as "an upset in a steady state"; or, as a disruption of coping ability as a consequence of the impact of a stressful life experience.

2.11 A stressful life event that taxes adaptive resources.

2.12 Reactions are painful and malfunctional.

2.2 Crisis as a turning point in people's lives. Although a disorganized and painful response to seriously stressful events, crisis affords an unusual opportunity to improve coping ability. (The Chinese word for "crisis" is made up of two written characters: opportunity and danger.)

2.21 During crisis people are more accessible (normal defenses are down) to the skillful and authoritative influence of others than at times of normal psychological equilibrium.

2.3 Crisis as stress.

2.31 A threatening life event that is sudden. The event occurs without warning, without the opportunity for the individual to "prepare" psychologically (Example: wife learning that her husband has "dropped dead" when he had no history of illness).

2.32 A threatening life event that is arbitrary. The event occurs without apparent reason or defies any explanation. (Example: a heavy object falls from a high building and selectively kills one pedestrian on a crowded sidewalk.)

2.33 A threatening life event that is unpredictable. Some events can be expected to be stressful as, for example, elective surgery or an important examination in school. Other events, such as natural disasters or crimes cannot be predicted and therefore the inevitable stress cannot be predicted and psychologically cushioned.

2.4 Crisis as reaction (feelings and behavior); some of the following may appear in any combination.

2.41 Feelings of chaos ("things are falling apart").

2.42 Feelings of confusion ("can't make a decision").

2.43 Feelings of helplessness ("I can't help myself").

2.44 Feelings of dependency ("tell me what to do").

2.45 Regression (reverting to child-like behavior).

2.46 Disruption of basic functions (eating, sleeping, etc.).

2.47 Mistrust ("I don't trust anybody to help me").

2.48 Anger ("what has befallen me").

2.49 Denial (behaving as if nothing happened).

2.4A Repression ("I can't remember anything").

2.5 The opportunity afforded by crisis is in the direction of outcome; that is, a "turning point" that can be negative or positive.

2.51 The danger is inherent in events that act upon the person in crisis to effect a "good" or "bad" outcome. That is, the person may be better for what he/she went through, or worse.

2.6 The key is in the nature of the intervention.

2.61 The knowledge and understanding on the part of "who" intervenes.

2.62 The skill and competence of "how" the intervention is done.

2.63 The "how" of doing is infinitely more important than the "what".

2.7 Earliness (immediacy) of intervention is critical.

2.71 Before the disrupted emergency state "hardens" and becomes a fixed pattern of feeling and behavior.

2.72 Before the susceptibility to outside influence is lost.

2.8 Authority of intervention is critical.

2.81 Authority must be distinguished from authoritarianism. The former flows from knowledge, role, and competence; the latter, from power and status.

2.82 Dependency needs to be fulfilled in a temporary and constructive way.

2.83 A sense of order and control should be found in a suddenly chaotic world.

3. Police role in crisis

3.1 Crisis is the domain of the police. Most events with which they deal have crisis implications for someone. Each of the following is usually sudden, arbitrary, and unpredictable. Each produces disorganized feelings and behaviors.

3.11 Natural Disasters

3.12 Fires

3.13 Explosions

3.14 Serious accidents

3.15 Death notifications

3.16 Crimes*

3.2 Immediate response is the mode of the police. Instant communication and highly mobile response capability are technologically more sophisticated than in any other existing human service system.

3.3 Authority and order are the essence of the police role. Both legally and symbolically they embody the qualities that are of critical importance in crisis intervention.

3.4 In view of the basic principles of crisis theory, the domain, the mode, and the essence of the police attest to their primary position as the system for the crisis intervention role over virtually every other human service system.

4. Advantages of police competence

Police competence in crisis intervention has inherent advantages to the police and to the public.

4.1 Advantages to police

4.11 Personal safety

4.12 Job satisfaction and self-esteem

4.5
*In appendix 8 a discussion on the crisis implications of crimes can be found. Page 70

4.13 Challenge of function counteracts boredom resulting from lack of understanding and lack of skill

4.14 Increased communication with the public resulting in cooperation and support.

4.2 Advantages to the public

4.21 Greater sense of security

4.22 Availability of a service that cannot be performed by any other system as effectively.

4.23 Skillful police crisis service has ramifying effects because many of the events have profound impact on the basic social unit in society....the family.

5. Family crisis origins

Family crises may originate in a variety of ways and be expressed in a variety of ways.

5.1 Any sudden, arbitrary, and unpredictable event affects not only the victim but also those who are close. Crises which the police are likely to be party to are death, disaster, and crime. Crisis intervention approaches would apply to either or both the victim and family members. For example, on a death notification the competence of the officer can have a lasting positive or negative effect. The same can be said for the family residing in a burglarized home and experiencing the event as a crisis.

5.2 Responding to a "family disturbance" requires the ability to discriminate whether the disorder is the behavioral expression of some crisis in the family (as defined by theory) or whether the disorder is the expression of a conflict.

5.21 Family disturbance as expression of crisis.

This is usually the case when the family has had no prior history of requiring police intervention for difficulty. The situation is usually an acute (time limited) expression of feelings related to other stresses. For example, a particularly threatening event (illness, loss of job, rape) causes impotence, frustration, and rage that may be displaced on a family member and express itself in a fight. Prior to the stress the family may have been functioning well, but have its equilibrium acutely upset by the stressful life event.

5.211 Crisis intervention techniques require ability to identify quickly the precipitating event and to deal with the acute situation in those terms. If that opportunity is missed, the equilibrium in that family might not be restored and the difficulty could become a chronic pattern adversely affecting the family and the police as well (in so far as repeated call-backs are concerned).

5.212 After establishing the "real" basis for the difficulty, the officer/crisis-intervener is in a position to authoritatively and immediately restore equilibrium by identifying the source of the disorder and clarifying its function in the disorder.

5.212 Case example:

A radio patrol unit responded to the report of a family disturbance. On arrival the officer found a married couple in their late 30's embroiled in a highly charged and loudly expressed argument. Actually, the officer

could hear the sounds of the dispute long before he reached the front door. The couple appeared somewhat sobered by the appearance of the officer; he quickly ascertained that there had been no previous police intervention. Sensitive to the acute nature of the present event, he proceeded to determine the facts. After establishing a reasonable basis for trust and communication, he first interviewed the wife and then the husband. The officer learned in the course of his interviews that the two had married in their mid-20's. Although they had wanted children almost immediately, their only child wasn't born until virtually their seventh year of marriage. She was now five. About three weeks before, prior to this incident, their daughter was diagnosed as having a rare blood disorder of uncertain outlook.

The incident that precipitated the dispute was trivial. The wife made a comment about her husband's practice of leaving his socks on the bedroom floor. He came back with an accusation regarding her mother's interference in their lives. The exchange escalated with little light but a great deal of heat. Aware that the immediate precipitating incident was not directly responsible, the officer inferred that during the three weeks since learning of the threat to their only child, both were in crisis....anxious, frustrated, confused and angry. He further established that there had been no sharing of feeling....that each had been pretending strength and calm in the face of the threat. When the dam burst, it expressed itself in what could be viewed simply as a fight.

The officer then used his authority with skill and competence. He called the two together and interpreted to them the "real" basis of the "interpersonal explosion." He explained that they were experiencing a crisis reaction and that its expression reflected their fear and frustration. He pointed out that the atypical dispute, one that resulted in police intervention, was really attributable to their feeling of helplessness in the face of the threat and that now, more than ever, they needed to share their feelings and engage in mutual support. Both parties were enormously relieved to understand the real basis of the altercation and were grateful to have it out in the open. Indeed, in about 30 minutes the officer enabled them to be closer than they had ever been. In effect, using his immediacy and authority when the two were accessible, the officer took advantage of the (crisis) opportunity to effect a constructive outcome.

5.22 Family crisis as expression of conflict. This is most likely to be the case when the family has a prior history of requiring police intervention for difficulty. The situation is likely to be part of a chronic (habitual) pattern of interaction. (For example, some families characteristically communicate through the medium of "hurting" relationships, usually over trivial matters such as food served, placement of furniture, etc.).

Or, it can be the expression of a conflict, that is, head-to-head incompatibility over something, such as, a father and adolescent daughter in an escalating dispute over a reasonable curfew time.

5.221 In these cases, crisis intervention techniques have less usefulness. The techniques of interpersonal conflict management are more appropriate. (See Intervention Methods, Section 7.30).

5.222 Case example: On arrival at the scene, the two officers are met on the porch by a middle-aged and obviously distressed woman. She informs the officers that her daughter and grandchild, currently residing with her, are fearful of her son-in-law, from whom her daughter is separated. She points out a young man sitting in a car across the street. The officers approach the car with caution and ask its occupant to step out. He complies but is clearly on the verge of an outburst. Immediately sensing the underlying rage, the officer sets himself the task of establishing a basis of communication. This he quickly accomplishes, and learns that the young man wishes to see his child, only to see if she is being care for properly. He mistrusts his wife and is convinced that the child is being neglected. The other officer suggests that, while his partner continues the discussion, he go into the home and talk with the estranged wife. On doing so, the officer finds the fearful wife concerned that her husband will do harm to the child as a way of his getting back at her for leaving him. She refuses to let her husband see the child.

The two officers confer and decide on a negotiated settlement in which neither side loses. The negotiation is worked out quickly by one officer acting as intermediary. The husband agrees that all he wants is to visually "see"

the child. The officer so informs the wife who agrees that he can see the child just so long as she (the wife) has no contact. The agreement is struck that her mother would bring the child out on the porch, and in the presence of the officers, he can approach the child to satisfy his "need-to-see." In the process, both officers inform the respective disputants of the way in which, despite the separation and imminent divorce, each was perpetuating the hurtful relationship that existed before the break-up. The husband agreed to apply for legal visitation rights to enable him to satisfy his "need-to-see." The wife agreed to comply provided the visitations would occur without her involvement.

6. Crisis intervention case study material

Case study from personal experiences of trainees should be elicited for the following and discussed:

- 6.1 Death notification.
- 6.2 Runaway.
- 6.3 Acute family crisis.
- 6.4 Chronic family conflict.
- 6.5 Burglary as a crisis.
- 6.6 Rape as a family crisis.

SECTION 5

INTERPERSONAL CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

1. Introduction

1.1 Any task analysis of police functions reveals that conflicts among people occupy a high percentage of patrol time.

1.2 Most of these conflicts require the intervention by a third-party authority to bring about a constructive outcome.

1.3 Both the urgency and the destructive possibilities inherent in interpersonal conflict require the authoritative and lawful third-party-response capability absolutely unique to the police function.

2. Conflict theory explained

2.1 What is conflict? It is defined in the dictionary as "opposing action of incompatibles": or, "antagonistic state or action (as of differing ideas, interests, or persons)."

2.11 When incompatible actions occur within a person, it is referred to as intrapersonal conflict, for example, having to choose between unemployment and a job one dislikes.

2.12 When incompatible actions originate within a group, it is called intragroup conflict, for example, a policy difference among members of a community school board.

2.13 When incompatible actions occur between two or more groups it is called intergroup conflict, for example, a jurisdictional dispute between two different labor unions.

2.14 When incompatible actions originate between two or more persons it is regarded as interpersonal conflict, for example, two motorists arguing the cause of a fender-bending accident.

2.2 Functions of conflict

2.21 Conflict is commonly viewed as dysfunctional and therefore "bad." It is seen as destructive to stability and as representing a breakdown of control.

2.22 Consistent with the view of conflict-as-evil is the belief that conflicts should be "resolved" or "supressed" in order to restore stability.

2.23 Conflict also can be viewed as a fact of life with positive potentials. It has been said that "wherever there is life there is conflict."

2.24 Consistent with the positive view is the belief that conflict is a necessary condition that brings about creativity, innovation, change, and development in relationships: that the operation of conflicts between groups, between individuals, and even between emotions in the same individual promotes growth.

2.25 The positive view of conflict calls for the regulation or management of conflicts rather than their suppression.

3. The management of interpersonal conflict

3.1 Effective regulation of the conflict between two parties is the introduction of an objective authority in a third party role. The third party may use an array of methods (see Section 7 Intervention Methods), but, in any case, it is important to have an understanding of the factors affecting the course of the conflict. In a conflict between husband and wife, landlord and tenant, two neighbors, customers and tradesmen, or casual strangers, it would be useful to know something of the following:

3.11 The characteristics of the parties--their values, motivations; their objections, etc.

3.12 The prior relationship of the parties. Any differences affected by pre-existing attitudes.

3.13 The nature of the issue that gave rise to the conflict--its scope, rigidity, significance, etc.

3.14 The social environment in which the conflict occurs--the facilities, the restraints, the social norms.

3.15 The interested audiences to the conflict--their relationship to the parties, their interests in the conflict, and their stake in the outcomes.

3.2 The third party maintains objectivity in order to achieve:

3.21 Reduction of irrationality. In regulating the conflict, the third party clarifies by introducing reality and pointing out the emotionally charged irrationality.

3.22 Assistance in graceful retreat. The third party facilitates the "backing-down" process even-handedly,

allowing face-saving.

3.23 Exploration of solutions. The third party affords the prospect of alternatives that both contesting parties cannot conceive.

3.3 The third party maintains authority as the most significant aspect of the role. It provides both sanction and power but must be judiciously used.

3.31 An undisciplined third party may misuse authority and thus:

3.311 Destroy third party credibility or,

3.312 Create a potential for violence between parties.

3.313 Provoke violence toward the third party by those in conflict.

4. Police officer as third party

4.1 Both legally and symbolically the police officer is the authority "here-and-now."

4.2 There is evidence that officers are expected to function so as to effect a constructive outcome -- not as repressive instruments of law.

4.3 Understanding of third party role and skills in third-party intervention provides limitless opportunity for effecting constructive outcomes. (See Section 7, Intervention Methods).

4.4 It is inappropriate and possibly dangerous for the third party to take a punitive or judgmental stance.

4.5 Even if well-meaning, third party behaviors may make matters worse if they do not rest upon understanding and skill.

5. Family conflict

5.1 The intensity of conflict is related to the closeness of a relationship. Close relationships are marked by frequent interaction. If conflicts arise in a close relationship, they are likely to be more intense. This does not mean that there will be more frequent conflicts in close relationships than in less close ones.

5.2 Close or intimate relationships are responsible for between 70 to 80 percent of homicides and for a very high proportion of assaults.

5.3 Police are frequently called upon to intervene as third parties in conflicts among intimates.

5.31 There is evidence that they are expected to regulate the conflict, not to enforce a law. It is, in the majority of cases, objective authority that is sought.

5.32 Third party understanding and skill may be even more necessary in conflicts between intimates than among people who are less close and hence less likely to be as intensely hostile.

SECTION 6

THE FAMILY

1. Definition

1.1 What is a family? Everyone is familiar with the "family." This can be both a help and a hindrance in clarifying what the family is: a hindrance because it is hard to step back and consider the family objectively however important it is to do so. One's own family may or may not be typical. One broad definition of the family is a social group characterized by common residence, economic cooperation, and reproduction.

There are many arrangements of related people that can be considered a "family."

1.11 Husband, wife and their own children: this is sometimes called the "nuclear" family.

1.12 A man and woman legally married but with no children (a "couple").

1.13 A man and woman living together for a certain length of time, without legal marriage: a "common-law" marriage, with or without children.

1.14 A household consisting of a divorced or widowed person with children.

1.15 A husband and wife, their children, and their parent(s) -- a three-generation family, sometimes called the "extended" family.

1.16 Various combinations of aunts, uncles, and/or parents living with the nuclear family; also called the "extended" family.

1.17 A commune, a group of people living together, some of whom may be married to each other, and some not; (the commune will not be dealt with here.)

1.2 A family can also be described in terms of the patterns of power within it.

1.21 Patriarchy: The father rules; most familiar pattern historically and in all cultures.

1.22 Matriarchy: The mother makes the decisions and has the authority.

1.23 Equalitarianism: There is approximate similarity between husband and wife in status, in authority or control, and in decision-making. Equality is brought about either by coming to an agreement or by dividing areas of influence.

2. Family role structure

There are basically two types of roles within each family which are usually divided in some way that is congenial to all family members.

2.1 Instrumental roles: These are task-oriented and involve responsibility, decision-making, and ultimate disciplining.

2.2 Expressive roles: These are the roles embodying such activities as nurturance and emotional expression.

2.3 Conflicting conceptions of role on the part of the husband and wife can lead to conflicts in the sexual, economic, domestic, and other areas of family relationships.

3. Functions of the family

The functions of a family can be looked at in several ways: there are those which promote society's goals and those which operate to gratify individuals within the families. Sometimes the two overlap.

3.1 Reproductive functions. Society must reproduce individuals to replace the dying. The family performs this replacement function for the survival of society.

3.2 Sexual functions. The sexual drive is a powerful impulse, and if left without restraints, it would disrupt society's order. The nuclear family provides an outlet for sexual satisfaction which maintains the social order.

3.3 Economic functions. Traditionally, the family was self-sufficient, producing all that it consumed. Many of these functions have now been taken over by industry. However, the family still performs several economic functions.

3.31 Physical maintenance: shelter, food, clothing, etc.

3.32 Allocation of resources: meeting family needs and costs; distributing material goods, facilities, and space, etc.

3.33 Division of labor: deciding who does what (earning income, managing the household, etc.).

3.4 Education functions. Although the formal educational function has been moved to the schools, the family still has responsibility for the socialization process.

3.41 Socialization: The family sees to it that children develop in such a way as to make it possible for them to become members of society, behaving in an acceptable and functional manner.

3.42 Children are made members of a particular society by acquiring the values, beliefs, expectations, and accumulated knowledge which constitute its culture (for example, a child may be socialized into ghetto life).

3.43 Status placement: The placement of individuals into different positions in society is determined, to some extent, by their family backgrounds (the family business may be passed on to the children, for example).

3.5 The family also specializes in gratifying psychological needs such as love, encouragement, acceptance, reward for achievement, communicating, and expressing oneself. One important aspect of family life is companionship, the unity that develops out of the mutual affection and intimate association of husband and wife and parents and children.

There are many types of love which can be gratified within the family. For the married couple, love provides security (since each feels beloved and able to express his or her own love); being chosen for marriage increases the self-esteem of each and, therefore, often one's self-reliance and ability. Protectiveness is mutual; there is always someone to lean on, at least for a short

time. In addition, sexual love and romantic love are present and nonsexual, outgoing tender love that seeks to benefit the love object.

Tenderness is the keynote of love between parents and children. A child who is amply loved is made to feel wanted, secure, and worthwhile. The family provides an arena within which each member can try out or express his ideas and opinions and get feedback concerning their value. In addition it is within the family that people learn their characteristic interaction patterns -- ways of dealing with other people.

One fundamental need of human existence is to be in relation with other human beings; at the same time it is important within the family, to develop and maintain one's own identity. Thus it is one of the important functions of the family to allow a harmonious working-out of the proper balance between these needs for separateness and relatedness.

4. Social class differences

Families differ in their social class placement. These differences are to be found in the everyday patterns of living within the family, such as work and play, childbearing and childrearing, education, marriage, and divorce, as well as family troubles and crises.

4.1 Upper class is characterized by wealth that has existed in the family for generations. In addition, members of these families tend to associate with each other exclusively, and to protect themselves from intrusions from the lower classes.

4.2 Upper middle class

4.21 General description: Upper-middle-class persons earn an income adequate for a comfortable way of life, usually engage in professional or substantial business occupations, and typically have college education. Occupational success and community leadership are considered very important.

4.22 Family characteristics: the nuclear family is typical -- friendly social relationships exist between nuclear families of siblings and their parents, who provide mutual assistance in time of stress.

4.3 Lower middle class

4.31 General description: Skilled workers, clerks, and small shopkeepers who often have ethnic backgrounds, usually high school educations, and generally have enough income for a decent standard of living. They tend to fear downward mobility.

4.32 Family characteristics: The husband clearly is the head of the family but the wife tends to control the purse on household expenditures. There are regular large gatherings of close relatives, such as uncles, aunts, and cousins, but nuclear families don't usually live as neighbors. Children "belong" to the nuclear family and are expected to uphold the respectability of the family.

4.4 Upper lower class

4.41 General description: Upper-lower-class persons tend to come from partially assimilated ethnic groups, be semi-skilled workers, have income to cover bare necessities only, and have to struggle to make ends meet and maintain respectability. Often these persons experience discontent due to the gap between their low social status and the high expectations for a good life created by the media.

4.42 Family characteristics: Extended families are not uncommon, nor are broken homes with the father absent. Differences in the degree of assimilation between the generations often cause conflict.

4.5 Lower lower class

4.51 General description: Lower-lower-class persons live in slums or slum-like dwellings, in which street life is important, work intermittently, and often depend on government support. They find that money is always short; so that the family lives from day to day, with budgeting survival-oriented. Children are likely to end their educations and enter the labor force earlier than members of other classes.

4.52 Family characteristics: The husband's ability to provide adequately for his family is impaired; his adolescent children often earn as much as he does. The husband often spends time with his masculine peer group where the values of sexual prowess and physical aggression are more easily achieved than economic success. His prestige and authority are threatened; he is frustrated and sometimes abusive and often he deserts. In general,

the husband's commitment to marriage is low (many marriages are common-law), with broken and disorganized homes common. Children receive little adult supervision.

	<u>MIDDLE CLASS</u>	<u>LOWER CLASS</u>
Role of father	Involvement with child-rearing	Little role in socialization
Style of verbal communication	Reasoning and discussion	Much use of commands
Basis for discipline	Motivations of child taken into consideration in wrong-doing	Child punished for bad behavior no matter what the reason
Type of Punishment	Withdrawal of love, withdrawal of approval, appeals to guilt	Physical punishment
Demand for responsible independence	Demand high	Demand moderately low
Primary values to be taught	Independence, achievement, industriousness, deferment of gratification	Order, obedience, and limits to what child can do
Expression of physical aggression	Expression discouraged	Expression regarded as normal and accepted

5. Cultural determinants of behavior:

In addition to social class as a determinant of how a family functions, race and ethnic-religious background are two cultural factors which are also important in shaping the values of family members. These differences show up in several areas.

5.1 Expressive behavior. Ways of communicating emotions may differ from one culture to another.

5.11 Body contact. The degree to which people touch each other in conversation varies from one group to another. For example, among people of Mediterranean background (French, Italian, Greek, etc.) touching each other is quite common. Kissing and hugging are acceptable behaviors even among men. There are also differences in the amount of roughhousing commonly used by different groups. "Give me five" and playful punches are common expressions of greeting among blacks: Orientals typically use very little physical contact in public.

5.12 Anger. Although the prevailing American culture tolerates a minimum of physical force as a reaction to anger, such physical force is the common response among certain ethnic groups. Therefore, whether or not the use of such force can be considered serious depends in part on the cultural background of the people using it.

5.13 Sound level. Different cultures seem to maintain different levels of loudness. Voice levels and the amount of noise tolerated in the home may differ. For example, Latin-Americans prefer music played at a high volume.

5.14 Non-verbal behaviors. "Looking someone in the eye" is considered by the prevailing culture to be a sign of honesty and respect. However, among certain groups (e.g. Navajo Indians and Hispanic cultures) this behavior is considered either arrogant or disrespectful in the presence of authority.

5.2 Personal space. Unspoken rules about the characteristic distances to be maintained in everyday life between individuals differ from one culture to another. For example, people with Mediterranean backgrounds (e.g. Arab) stand very close to one another when having an ordinary conversation; this should not be confused with an aggressive intent.

5.3 Variations in life-style.

5.31 Differences in family structure.

5.311 Extended families are common among certain groups e.g., Italians. Among Latin-American families, large groups of related families often live in close proximity to each other.

5.312 It is traditional in some cultures for the mother to be the head of the household. Even when there is a succession of men and not all children have the same father, the mother alone plays the parental role and is often the main breadwinner.

5.313 In some cultures the dominance of the father is especially noticeable. In Puerto Rican families, for example, not only is the need to assert masculinity ("machismo") very important to males and taught to them early, but unmarried females are also carefully chaperoned.

5.314 Acceptance of unwed motherhood varies. In some communities, for example, an unwed mother and her child are commonly accepted. Usually the mother keeps the child, although it may be taken care of by its grandmother.

5.315 Common-law marriage occurs with more frequency in some groups than in others. The extended families typical of the Puerto Rican community traditionally have given support to this type of marriage.

5.32 Discipline of children. Differences in the treatment of wrongdoing by children are found in different ethnic groups. In many cultures physical punishment and the threat of physical punishment ("I'm gonna kill you for that") are the sole means of disciplining a child. Among certain groups (e.g., Jewish) disapproval or loss of love or acceptance are common ("Mother is very disappointed in you" or "I am very hurt by your behavior," a direct appeal causing a child to feel guilty for wrongdoing). Among certain Indian tribes, a child is allowed complete freedom of behavior, and until age three or four, gains complete acceptance of everything he does. Thus, modes of discipline differ; it is likely that a person will respond differently to different treatments depending on the kind of upbringing he has had.

6. Family interaction:

Interaction consists of communication which may be either explicit or subtle.

6.1 Explicit communication is usually verbal, and may be used to convey correct or incorrect information, to clarify or mislead, to enlighten or deceive, or to convey feelings.

6.2 Subtle communication including non-verbal language, is especially important in situations in which people have difficulty expressing themselves verbally. For example, a vast amount of communication is not at all precise; the message is hard to read and misreading is common. For example, a rejected partner may accuse the other person of leading him on; the husband and wife may be frustrated by their inability to communicate their desires.

6.3 "Bad" communications: In some situations interaction takes on the aspect of a cat-and-mouse game, with move and counter-move. There is often an intent to confuse, to create uncertainty: "What does he mean by that?" "Why'd she do that?" "What's he up to?" Often the move is designed deliberately to arouse such fears and suspicion in order to humiliate the partner later when the nature of the move is made clear. For example, a husband intentionally leaves a lipstick-smearred handkerchief to be discovered by his wife, and then indignantly indicates its harmless origin, thus making the wife feel foolish.

6.4 Interpersonal relationships: Family members develop images about each other through communication. Based on these images they develop patterns of alignment which are distributions of ties among members of the family. The patterns of alignment include any bases on which family members line up with each

other: unconsciously as well as consciously, in fantasy as well as in action, for reasons of comfort or affection as well as those of power, to enhance each other as well as to defeat each other.

6.5 Maladaptive interaction patterns: There are some forms of communication patterns that are so disruptive that they have serious consequences for the harmonious functioning of the family. Even when the symptoms of the disruption show up in only one family member (in alcoholism, delinquency, or mental illness, for example), they often reflect a general malfunctioning of the entire family.

6.51 Double-bind: This is a form of communication in which two conflicting sets of messages are habitually expressed at the same time. For example, a parent might say "I love you" to a child but couple the verbal statement with cold kisses and other signs of rejection. There is no rational way a child can cope with these conflicting communications, and over the years, he may become confused and withdrawn.

6.52 Scapegoating: Sometimes the tension in a family is so great that a person is needed to symbolize the conflicts and draw off the tension. A child, being powerless, dependent, and unable to leave the situation, is vulnerable and usually becomes the scapegoat. He is, thereafter, called the "problem child" and his existence, by drawing off the tension, seems to allow the rest of the family to function fairly smoothly. However, not only does the scapegoat become a disturbed child, but also the problems of the family may become intensified.

6.53 Marital schism and skew: In marital schism, the entire family is divided by an overt split between the parents. In these families, parents repeatedly threaten to separate, with one spouse seeking to force the other to conform to his or her expectations, and thereby arousing defiance. Difficulties of almost any type cause arguments, rather than mutual support, between parents. Spouses are deprived of any sense of fulfillment; both are losers in this hostile encounter. The parents belittle and undercut one another, so it becomes impossible for the child to model himself after either one or to use either parent as a love object without antagonizing the other.

Another type of disturbed family--called "skewed"-- is that in which family life is organized around a central, dominating, psychologically disturbed figure. In this situation, relative stability can be maintained, and the continuation of the marriage is not constantly threatened. However, family life is seriously distorted by the skew in the relationships, and role models for the children are inappropriate.

7. Family stresses

Family stresses are any situations for which the usual patterns of family living may be inadequate. A stress affecting any individual member of a family has implications for all the members. Therefore, dealing with a family difficulty requires the cooperation and adjustment of all the members. Some of these stresses can be handled by the resources within the family. Others are extremely acute and require crisis intervention. Still others may be chronic and can best be handled by interpersonal conflict management.

7.1 Externally caused stresses

7.11 Natural disasters.

7.12 Destruction of property (e.g., by fires or explosions).

7.2 Stresses resulting from loss of a member.

7.21 Hospitalization.

7.22 Death of child, spouse or parent.

7.23 Separation (e.g., military service or out-of-town work).

7.3 Stresses resulting from marked changes in family structure.

7.31 Illness in family.

7.32 Child leaves home (e.g., to go to college or to take own apartment).

7.33 The breakdown of traditional definitions of masculine and feminine roles by which men and women were guided in the performance of their obligations and the enjoyment of

their privileges. Such as, the wife is leaving the traditional housewife role to take a job.

7.34 Retirement.

7.4 Stresses resulting from demoralization.

7.41 Commission of crime and delinquency.

7.42 Victimization by criminals (rape, robbery, etc.)

7.43 Alcoholism or drug addiction.

7.44 Non-support.

7.45 Infidelity: this may include "swinging" or "wife-swapping."

7.46 Chronic conflict among family members. For example, cultural disparity may cause a lack of sexual satisfaction because of differing ideas and standards of sex behavior, which in turn may lead to dissatisfaction with the mate and lack of cooperation as breadwinner or homemaker, which in turn may create stresses in the family. All this may so weaken the bonds of affection between husband and wife that communications between them deteriorate. The children, too, may become embittered, and the only means of communication thereafter employed by family members may be hurtful and destructive.

7.5 Stresses resulting from addition of a member.

7.51 Adoption.

7.52 Birth (and possibly pregnancy).

- 7.53 Unwanted pregnancy.
- 7.54 Return of a deserter.
- 7.55 Moving-in of a relative.
- 7.56 Reunion after separation.
- 7.57 Marriage introducing a stepmother or stepfather.
- 7.6 Stresses resulting from demoralization plus addition or loss of family member.
 - 7.61 Annulment, legal separation or divorce.
 - 7.62 Desertion.
 - 7.63 Birth of illegitimate child.
 - 7.64 Abortion.
 - 7.65 Imprisonment.
 - 7.66 Institutionalization (e.g., for mental retardation of mental illness).
 - 7.67 Runaway child.
 - 7.68 Suicide or murder.

8. Conflict and violence in the family

8.1 Conflict: The family process can be thought of as a continuous confrontation between participants with conflicting (though not necessarily opposing) interests in their shared fate. The strategy of family conflict revolves around simultaneously inflicting damage on the other person while protecting or enhancing one's own identity. Offensive strategy in the family involves forcing the other to put himself down. Other strategies include sarcasm, the use of ambiguous gestures, and the use of private insults in front of outsiders.

Conflict typically reaches a point where it threatens the well-being of the participants or the bonds they value. In many cases conflict is resolved by one or both parties giving in or compromising so that friendly relations may resume. However, conflict can become chronic when the individual's personality characteristics and/or the family interaction patterns are not adequate to handle the stresses caused by the conflict.

8.2 Violence: The family is generally considered to be committed to harmony and gentleness among its members. However, evidence indicates that violence among family members is so general as to be almost universal. In fact, a recent Senate Subcommittee on Children and Youth has found that child abuse may cause more deaths among children than any other single factor, including illness and accident.

8.21 Parent-child violence: Can include physical punishment, child abuse, patricide and matricide, incest and other sexual abuses.

8.22 Violence among husband, wife, and kin: Can include fights, beatings, murder, and sexual abuses.

SECTION 7

INTERVENTION METHODS

1. Introduction: (rationale)

Intervention in family disturbances has always been a necessary function of the police. The manner and objectives of intervening in these critical situations were often left to the discretion of the officer responding to the scene. The ramifications of this laissez faire policy are well known and thoroughly documented. The need for developing a professional, systematic approach to this serious problem is apparent to the seasoned police officer. It has been recognized that proper training reduces the need to improvise in difficult field situations.

This section provides a systematic foundation upon which an instructor can develop training regarding the management of family disturbances. The work of the social scientist provides tools with which the police can perform more effectively and efficiently in the handling of family disputes. It affords an opportunity to reduce chaotic events to manageable proportions that can be analyzed and systematically developed to provide adequate solutions to long unresolved problems. Each phase of the operation will be discussed and illustrative examples may be found in their respective sections.

Training aids and suggestions relating to the role of the officer in various steps of the intervention may be found in each section.¹ The method of delivery of the training program ultimately lies within the local agency. The need for active participation of the trainees should be of paramount concern to every agency. The intensive training should be regarded as orientative rather than as comprehensive. It should be conceptualized as the foundation upon which training in the field will be built. Naturally, the methods employed in that training should also set the tone and prepare the officer for the kinds of methods to be used in the field.

The agency's objectives and priorities should be constantly reinforced by illustrating the connections between principles and practices. Bridging the ever-present gap between theory and practice can be facilitated by stressing the relevant and functional aspects of the training. The training should instill officers with the realization that by fulfilling their defined roles they are serving the highest ideals of their profession. The process of handling problems and conducting investigations is not alien to the average police officer. An investigation by the police may be defined as an examination and inquiry into the cause of certain events. Thus a vast reservoir of expertise lies within a group of police personnel. The trainer or facilitator faces the challenge of transferring and building upon

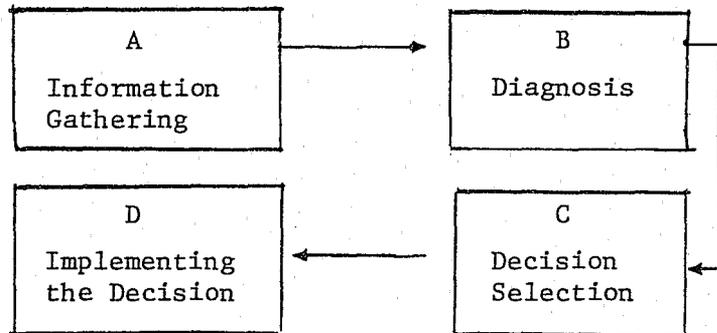
¹Trainers are referred to the following books as resources for training in interviewing skills: 1. Danish, S.J., & Hauer, A.L. Helping Skills: A Basic Training Program, 1973 (New York: Behavioral Publications, Student's Workbook and Leader's Manual). 2. Gazda, G.M. et al. Human Relations Development Manual for Educators and Instructor's Manual, 1973 (Boston: Allyn & Bacon). 3. Ivey, A.E., Microcounseling, 1971 (Springfield, Ill: Charles C. Thomas).

this knowledge to the case at hand, namely, family disputes. The principles of a good investigation can be applied to a successful intervention. The necessity for a systematic approach to investigation cannot be denied. Similar techniques must be developed for family disputes. The work of the social scientist can assist the officer in this area to develop the skills necessary for a successful intervention.

The method or delivery of the training should be designed by the agency to meet local needs. The trainer may choose the most appropriate format for his/her particular situation. The active involvement of participants should remain as prime concern for the trainers. Drawing upon the resources within the group, the trainer may solicit personal experiences to emphasize the important points of the intervention process. Debriefing the various stages should cover all desired areas in the curriculum. The trainer or facilitator can generate involvement of the participants by brainstorming the steps in management of problems from personal experiences within the group; or the group can be requested to develop a model which may be compared to the guidelines in the text. The use of role plays or other experiential techniques can be used to vividly demonstrate a systematic approach to intervention in family disputes. A brief lecture may be used to reinforce and review the proper mode of intervention strategy. The material in this section has been prepared to orient and assist the trainer, not to be presented directly or in toto to the trainees. Exercises, and examples, are to be found at the end of this section. An annotated bibliography is presented following Section 10.

2. Steps in management of problems

An overview of the intervention process.



2.1 Information gathering. The skilled investigator recognizes the critical nature of information in the ultimate resolution of a case. If decisions are to be made, certain facts must be known. The officer intervening in a family dispute should exercise the same type of thorough investigation or fact finding. Every effort should be exerted to obtain as much information as possible. The police officer responding to a family dispute has several sources of information. These include:

2.11 Prior knowledge about the family from his own experience or that of other officers who have responded to the location. Records may indicate previous calls, the nature of the disturbance, the parties involved and police action taken.

2.12 The setting and the environment are other sources of information. For example, a neatly organized home or apartment tells you that the occupants are likely to lead usually neat and organized lives. The family dispute that is loud enough for the neighbors to hear may reflect that family's failure to function as a separate and private

group, and may also serve as a means of informing other people that a disturbance exists. (The instructor may be able to present many other examples, or ask for examples from the class.)

2.13 Interviewing the people involved, of course, is an indispensable means of gathering information. The police officer who is aware that each family is like a system in which each part (each person) affects every other part, knows that all family members are possible sources of information. A complete description of interviewing techniques is presented below.

2.2 Diagnosis. When a police officer makes a judgment about the nature and cause of a family disturbance, he has made a diagnosis. Obviously, it's best to make a diagnosis after you have gathered information from as many sources as you can. A diagnosis is different from a hunch. While a hunch can determine the kind of questions you ask, it becomes part of the diagnosis only at that point when you decide that it is the best way of explaining part of what has gone on. Also, a hunch becomes a diagnosis when it determines your decision about managing the situation. Thus, while it may be appropriate to have a hunch about a disturbance while driving to the scene, it is not appropriate at that time to arrive at a diagnostic decision as to how to manage the situation. A full presentation of issues related to diagnosis is presented in part 6 of this section.

2.3 Decision selection. The trainer can present and/or obtain examples which illustrate the risks of inadequate information gathering. Yet even with the proper information and an accurate understanding of the cause of the difficulty, one must still

decide on the course of action to follow. The breadth and quality of a police officer's training and experience determine the choices he will have. With family disturbances, the officer who is familiar with the most options has a better chance of making an effective decision. (An extensive presentation of issues related to decision selection is presented in part 7 of this section. Also, see discussion example #1).

2.4 Decision implementation. Family disturbances are complex, not simply because of the number of people involved, but because causes and solutions are varied and often not readily discernible. It is not surprising, therefore, that in the past police officers have reacted to these calls as people typically react when dealing with situations of which they have inadequate understanding: either oversimplifying ("most of these family calls are the same, so I handle 'em the same way") or under-simplifying ("each family call is different, so I handle each one differently"). Both attitudes are, of course, wrong. It is possible to classify family disputes into a limited number of types into which most fall (e.g., repeated disputes over little things because the parties haven't learned how to negotiate with each other; or, blow-up about an ordinarily minor thing because one or both parties is under stress about something else).

Not only is it possible to classify family disputes, but it is also possible to classify the approaches used by police officers to manage them (e.g., police officer seeks to negotiate a settlement; or, police officer arbitrates a conclusion). Classification of police action and reviewing of cases responded to are but two ways of studying and improving the effectiveness of what police officers do to implement their decisions. (An extensive

discussion of issues related to selection of an intervention approach is presented in part 8 of this section.)

2.5 Review of effective management of problems.

2.51 Effective management of problems involves information gathering, diagnosis, decision selection and decision implementation, in that order.

2.52 The effectiveness of each step depends on the effectiveness of the preceding steps.

2.53 Relying on just a few diagnoses or methods of implementing decisions for all family disturbances is inefficient (and probably also dangerous).

2.54 Since most police officers receive insufficient training in the management of conflict and crisis in families, it is no surprise that so many police officers either fall "into a rut" of using only a few methods of dealing with family disturbances, or simply try to "get out fast."

3. Interviewing.

A successful investigator realizes that an interview is a conversation with a purpose: to obtain facts regarding an incident, to discover information about the persons believed to have been involved, or to obtain background information on a particular person. The interview is an attempt to collect any and all facts relating to an incident, substantiate information obtained from other sources, or to provide additional information. The effectiveness of an investigator is largely dependent upon his ability to obtain information.

The officer responding to a family dispute is an investigator and therefore must be cognizant of the importance of conducting an effective interview. The multiple skills of the investigator must be employed to arrive at a successful intervention. The following are areas of concern when approaching an interview.

3.1 The initial contact. As far as the family is concerned, your intervention begins when you make your first contact (verbal, auditory, or visual). The importance of the first contact cannot be overemphasized. Examples can be used to illustrate that how an officer gains initial contact can determine the tone and outcome of the intervention. Role plays may be used to demonstrate initial contacts and their effects on the people involved. The skilled police officer will convey a professional sense of competence, a willingness to help, and a realization that the home he enters is the family's private domain. The officer should introduce himself (and partner) by full name and rank and indicate that they have come in response to a call for police service. After entering the home (and after ascertaining that no physical danger exists), the officer who removes his cap shows an awareness that he is a visitor and is more likely to be seen as an "individual-who-is-a-police-officer," than as a nameless and faceless policeman. See discussion example #2.

3.2 Scanning the environment. It is important that the interviewing police officer make a rapid scan of the scene, to determine whether weapons or dangerous objects are present. The officer should also determine if any disputant appears close to violence. While scanning is necessary for protection of self and others, what is learned from scanning may also help in making

the diagnosis and decision selection. Scanning should not be done in a manner that would indicate that the officer expects trouble; the officer should be aware that most family disputes are not violent.

3.3 Organizing the environment. The police officer must set the scene in which he will be working. In most family disturbances, there is a lack of organization in the family, at least during the disturbance. In organizing the environment the officer may well be restoring some order to the family. In most disputes, the officer should interrupt the interaction between the disputants and restore calm. Skilled officers typically separate the disputants and interview them individually (one at a time if only one skilled officer is at the scene, or two simultaneously if there are two skilled officers). Generally it is wise to separate the disputants so that each can be interviewed privately and also to minimize a flare-up of accusations or attacks between disputants. If the officer is working alone and considers that there is a potential for violence, he should direct all disputants involved to remain within his sight while he interviews one at a time in a far corner of that room. When two or more officers are present, and/or violence seems unlikely, interviews may be conducted in separate rooms. When the officer has organized the environment, he will have created conditions conducive to gathering additional information by interviewing the parties.

3.4 Goals of the interview. There are two major purposes for the interview: (a) gaining information necessary for an accurate evaluation of the nature and cause of the disturbance (as well as the information required for the report); (b) establishing a relationship with the disputant so as to improve chances of success in implementing the decision.

At times the interview can serve other important purposes. The first of these consists of increasing the party's understanding of the situation. In a good interview, the interviewer may discover a cause of the dispute that has not been obvious to the disputant. This information may have profound meaning to the disputant. Secondly, benefit can occur when an overly emotional disputant can ventilate feelings during the interview with an objective and interested third party: the officer. This enables the party to "blow off steam" that might otherwise be violently-expressed, or to "get things off his chest" that he (or she) hasn't been able to express. In a related fashion when the interviewer speaks calmly and reasonably, it tends to "bring down" an emotionally excited party to a calm and reasonable state.

3.5 Establishing a relationship. The success of an intervention depends to a large extent on obtaining reliable and full information from the disputants, and on their willingness to cooperate (go along) with the officer or, even better, to collaborate with him. Therefore a crucial goal in interviewing is the establishment (and maintenance) of a working relationship (rapport) with the interviewer.

The instructor can ask members of the class to describe their own experiences at eliciting ways of establishing or failing to establish rapid rapport. He may pose a question such as: Think of someone you met with whom you very quickly felt at ease, or someone you quickly mistrusted."

A good relationship requires that the people feel the officer is genuinely interested in their problem and is willing to help. When officers have developed skills in understanding non-verbal behavior, active listening and effective questioning, it will

easier for them to establish rapport. The following are guidelines that an officer may follow in attempting to establish a relationship.

3.51 Relating on a person-to-person basis. For most people, it is easier to talk to a person who behaves respectfully and with equality. These qualities must be communicated throughout the interview. For example, it is respectful to address a man named George Waller as Mr. Waller. For example: "Mr. Waller, I'd like to talk with you...".

Respect and interest are communicated in what you do (non-verbally) as well as by what you say. If Mr. Waller is looking at you, you should be looking at him as you speak, and not over his shoulder or at your shoes. Similarly, if he is standing, it is all right for the officer to stand. However, an officer who stands towering above a seated disputant is not likely to promote rapport.

3.52 Explaining the purpose of the interview. An officer who begins an interview by launching directly into a series of questions may give the party a feeling of being interrogated. When possible, the officer may begin by saying:

"Mr. Waller, I'd like to talk with you about the problem you've been having in the family (with your wife, with your son, etc.). If we can really understand what it's all about we can figure out the best solution (saying "we" instead of "I" promotes your collaborative intention, and eases the party's suspicion that you will try by interrogation to "get the goods on him"), okay"? (Asking denotes

respect, and since most people will agree, they will more likely work with you during the interview.)

3.53 Starting where the client is. When the client is involved with the disturbance, is angry, upset, or had been talking or arguing with the other person when police arrive, it is often best to start by finding out what he is angry or upset about, or what he had been talking or arguing about. This is often the best way to begin (e.g., by beginning where the client is) because these issues are "right there" in the client.

When people have time to cool off, they may forget certain aspects of what they had thought, felt, or done earlier. Also, they may deliberately withhold information when time has passed. Effects of memory and personality may lead to unintentional distortion of facts as time passes. So, in general, good interviewing involves starting where the client is at the moment because you thereby gain more thorough information.

There's another reason to start where the client is: It can show the client that the officer understands something about what he feels and about what is important to him at that moment. In short, it promotes rapport. The general rule may be broken, on occasion, when officers deliberately attempt to calm and distract an emotional client (e.g., by asking for basic information). This may be successful if the officer himself can appear calm and well-organized.

3.6 Interviewing skills. While years of training, experience, and supervision may be required to develop an expert interviewer, behavioral scientists have made significant headway in isolating important interviewing skills and in developing programs to train

people in the use of them. Presented below are skills which are important for effective interviewing by police officers. Where suitable material for discussion and training in these is available, sources are indicated.¹

These interviewing skills are grouped into three sections: gaining information from clients; understanding the client; and imparting understanding to the client (see Interviewing Exercise on pp. 24-25 of Gazda's Instructor's Manual).

3.61 Gaining information from clients.

3.611 Interviewing non-disputants. Important information can often be obtained by interviewing members of the household and knowledgeable people other than the disputing parties.

3.612 Open-ended questions. These are more likely to elicit responses that indicate the client's attitudes, feelings and experiences. Closed-ended questions are more often answered with a yes or a no, and the interviewer is often trying so hard to think up the next question that he pays less attention to the client. Furthermore, closed-ended questions usually deal with facts; when interviewers' questions are mostly closed-ended, clients may feel that the officer is not interested in them, and may, as a result, withhold information vital to the case. Skilled interviewers use both open and closed forms of questions.

¹These materials all relate to interviewing situations where much time is available to the interviewer. With this in mind, program staff may selectively consider the materials and should be prepared to modify them to suit the conditions and constraints under which police officers operate. (See earlier footnote on part 7.1)

The instructor can model effective use of questioning in an interview or develop a micro-training exercise for this skill (see Ivey, 1971, Chapter 5).

3.613 Interviewer characteristics that promote effective relationships. Some qualities that promote trust and openness are empathy, respect, warmth, concreteness, genuineness, self-disclosure, and immediacy. While training for each of these is lengthy, training staff should become familiar with these characteristics and may wish to train their class in one or more (see Ivey, 1971; Danish and Hauer, 1973; Gazda et al, 1973, for descriptions and training methods).

3.614 Nonverbal responding. Clients are more apt to provide information to interviewers who communicate their attentiveness via eye contact, posture, and verbal quality (see Danish and Hauer, pp. 15-23 for examples of training exercises regarding nonverbal responding; also Interpersonal Frustration Exercise on p. 24 of Gazda's Instructor's Manual).

3.615 Continuing responses. An interviewer encourages a client to continue discussing an issue by indicating that he is following the client ("Mm, Mm"), and by checking as to whether both of them understand what the client has been expressing, (e.g., "let me see if I understand the problem: what you are saying is that..."). (For additional training material see Danish and Hauer, pp. 25-31; Ivey, pp.57-62 on "paraphrasing" and "reflection," Gazda et al, Chapter 8 on "empathy").

3.62 Understanding the client. People are always sending messages about their immediate experiences by how they act. From time to time people also communicate with words as well as by their behavior.

3.621 Understanding what the client says. Such understanding requires skill, for the interviewer must be alert to the ideas, concerns, attitudes, and facts expressed in what the client says, while simultaneously noting verbal expressions of what the client is feeling. Training exercises may be adapted from Gazda, chapter 7.

3.622 The importance of non-verbal communication. Unpleasant feelings and thoughts can be hidden by a person from himself "by not thinking about it." Similarly, people withhold information from others by not talking about it. Nevertheless, many times actions, gestures, facial expressions, and voice qualities reveal feelings which are being covered. Such non-verbal communications are often involuntary, autonomic nervous system reactions. As such, they are very difficult to control and to "hide."

When non-verbal communication is different from spoken communication, the former is more likely to be the truth. For example, the person who appears sad while saying "I am happy," is probably feeling sad. (See Gazda, pp. 89-93 for categories and examples of non-verbal communication behaviors; see Exercise #1).

3.623 Officer's reactions as helpful or harmful. The traditional police department advice to be "neutral" and "objective" may have originally been intended to prevent police officers from acting on negative feelings. Taken literally, this advice is difficult, if not impossible, to apply.

Notice interviewers trying to be "neutral" come off either as "cold," or they betray their reaction non-verbally (and often without their being aware of these non-verbal communications). An interviewer who is either "cold" (and disinterested), or who is "leaking" non-verbally, will be less able to gather useful information during interviews.

An interviewer who pays attention to his own reactions uses them as an additional source of information about the disturbance and the people. He tends to be better able to control the expression of these reactions; and to have less of the non-verbal leakage that is counterproductive to interviews.

An officer can learn to recognize his own reactions and their non-verbal expressions by getting feedback from peers and supervisors. The instructor may use videotaped replays (without audio) of simulated interventions by police officers to highlight the officers' non-verbal leakage. These demonstrations can be used to illustrate and maximize the helpful effects of police officers' reactions to clients.

3.63 Imparting understanding to the client. People often are not "in touch" with either their feelings or with the implications of what they are saying. To promote discussion of important issues that involve how the client feels and of which the client is somewhat vague, officers can either reflect the client's feelings or make some other empathic response (see Ivey, 71, pp. 57-64; Gazda, 1973, Chapter 8 and 17). Interpretations aim to show the client a different way of looking at some issue which the client has been discussing, so that the client can better understand it or deal with it.

3.7 Testing options during the interview. Sometimes a party to a disturbance may think of an effective resolution to the problem. It is good practice to ask lucid disputants what they see as reasonable solutions. Doing so not only leads to the attainment of additional data, but it is also likely to result in a more cooperative attitude on the client's part.

If, during his interview, the officer thinks of a course of action that seems promising, the officer can "test out" the plan before implementing it by asking each party what his or her opinion of the plan is, and whether they would help implement the plan.

4. Basic information

Important information will include basic data about the family, the immediate precipitating events, and long-term, underlying issues. If the interviewee is calm enough, the officer can seek the information in the order presented above (i.e., the basic data first and underlying issues last). In most cases though, the general rule should be: "State where the client is."

4.1 Basic data about the family. Certain data regarding the structure of the family is essential - it will often help the officer diagnose the nature of the problem. It includes:

4.11 Identifying data about each disputant. Name, address, age, ethnic group, occupational status or sources of income.

4.12 Data about relationship. Relationships of disputants and the family (common-law, legal, etc.); number, age, and parentage of children; length of time family has been together and at that address.

The above items are perhaps the bare minimum in each category. The officer may want to ask for more detail about any item in order to check out ideas he has gotten elsewhere in his interview with that client or from other sources. For example, if the officer thinks that a wife is upset or angry because her husband is away from home so much, the officer may want to ask the husband about his working hours, travelling times, and job(s), etc.

4.2 Nature of the current disturbance. The officer will want to know what happened before he arrived: the who, what, where, when, and why:

WHO: Mr. and Mrs. Smith
WHAT: were having a loud and heated verbal dispute
WHERE: in their home
WHEN: during the past hour
WHY: because when Mr. Smith took a can of beer, Mrs. Smith accused him of being an alcoholic and he responded by insulting her looks, and she said and he said

It is obvious that this information is insufficient, since taking a can of beer, by itself, does not mean Mr. Smith is an alcoholic. Even if Mr. Smith were in fact an alcoholic, why was there a dispute which led to a call for police intervention on this day?

While the above information tells us something of the events that occurred during the disturbance, we need to know what the real reasons were. Such reasons generally fall into three categories: intra-personal, interpersonal, and situational.

4.21 Intrapersonal factors are those that are within one person. They are sometimes physical in nature:

- a. the woman going through menopause who is very depressed.
- b. the senile person who is demanding, accusing, or otherwise hard to tolerate.
- c. the ailing person who is frightened of his condition or who is very irritating to others because he can't adjust to his condition, etc.

(Often, intrapersonal factors involve emotional problems, faulty attitudes, or improper behaviors.)

- d. the alcoholic
- e. the psychopath
- f. the shiftless individual
- g. the person who typically blows up over little things
- h. the irresponsible individual who rarely does his or her share within the family
- i. the depressed person
- j. the individual with a short-term emotional disturbance
- k. the person with a long-term emotional disturbance
(see Discussion Example #4).

4.22 Interpersonal factors appear to be the most common in family disturbances, especially when the disputants are both adults. In these cases, the problem arises because both parties contribute to it. (See Discussion Example #5)

Perhaps the common element in most interpersonally caused disturbances is the parties' lack of knowing how to establish and maintain a relationship as intimate as those that exist in families. Other examples of causes that are typically interpersonal are:

- a. refusal of sexual advances
- b. wish of one partner to reconcile after divorce or separation
- c. lack of communication, attention or understanding between the disputants
- d. a history of constant disputes
- e. difference over property, money, use of car, etc.
- f. disobedient child

The list could go on and on because people with a disturbed relationship may have disputes that arise over any and all issues.

4.23 Situational factors are those external events which affect people. There are situations which put a strain on anyone in them. This strain inevitably and naturally leads to stress and irritability. A partial list of such events may include:

- a. actual or likely financial loss (loss of job, bad investment, theft, etc.)
- b. change in residence or job
- c. a heat wave (and on air conditioning)
- d. unending rain during a vacation
- e. recent death of a close relative or friend
- f. recent birth of a child
- g. unwanted house guests

4.3 Identification of the problem as chronic or acute. It is vital that the officer try to determine whether the problem is chronic (i.e., has existed for a long time) or is acute (i.e., is of recent origin). An error can lead to an intervention in which the diagnosis and decision implemented are useless or worse (see Discussion Example #6).

To determine whether the family difficulty is chronic or acute, the police officer relies on his interviews with the disputants and his knowledge of whether there have been prior disturbance calls to that family. If there is no history of such disturbance within the family, the officer will try to determine if there have been recent stressful events or circumstances that may have precipitated the problem. Even if there is a history of a disturbance within the family, the officer can determine if there were events that preceded the first such disturbance (see Discussion Example #7).

4.4 Underlying issues. In many cases, knowledge of the events surrounding the immediate disturbance will not tell the officer why these people have a problem. Because the police officer is on the scene while people are still involved in the problem and still reacting to it, there are times when one party will "blurt out" a painful truth about the problem (e.g., "officer, I think she's a lesbian," or "my husband won't admit it, but he's ashamed because his brother is a success"). At other times, skillful interviewing can be relied upon.

Generally, underlying issues are those that people either want to keep private because they involve their most vulnerable feelings about themselves, or those they aren't consciously aware of themselves as their feelings. In Discussion Example #7, Mr. Green had become jealous at losing so much of his wife's attention when their child arrived. He was aware of it at the time, but it was so embarrassing that he "forgot" about it, and found "other reasons" to justify his resentment towards his wife and child. The instructor and project personnel may find it useful to ask their behavioral science consultant to take an active role in describing/presenting material concerning underlying issues in families.

5. Special interviewing situations

Whereas the interview skills referred to previously are relevant in most disturbances, there are times when the interviewee poses additional challenges to the interviewing police officer. Since these cases are common and can engender both frustration and counterproductive behavior in the officer, some training time must be devoted to enhancing officers ability to deal with these cases.

5.1 Interviewing teenagers. On disturbance calls, youths who have observed skillful officers usually pose no special interviewing problems. When problems do arise it is essentially because teenagers expect the police officer to treat him as he had been treated by other authorities in his life. If this is the case, it is necessary for the teenager to see the police officer as different from other authorities. Youths test out adults to see if they will be treated like big children or as young adults; often they test by trying to provoke the officer into losing his temper. The interviewing police officer can hasten the process by which he is recognized as different from other authorities by being open and "straight." Where appropriate, the officer might remove his cap, open his jacket, sit down, or otherwise act in a personal way. The officer who asks a teenager for his own impression of the situation is more likely to gain cooperation.

5.2 Interviewing a hostile person. A client openly hostile to the police officer is a challenge. As with any hostile person, the officer must take safety precautions.

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Reason for Hostility

- a. The person expects you to act like other authorities he or she has known.
- b. The person wants to protect his or her pride.
- c. The person is unaware of the possible consequences of his or her hostility.
- d. The person wants to be punished (beaten or arrested).
- e. The person is enraged for other reasons and needs to let it out on someone.

Interviewing Technique

- a. The officer indicates that he or she is not the same person as other authorities.
- b. The officer asks, "Are you too proud to accept help?" or, "How have you got this figured?"
- c. The officer points out, "By giving me a hard time you will force me into other actions," (pointing out consequences).
- d. The officer uses interpreting behavior ("You seem to want to be arrested") and explores it ("Why?")

5.3 Interviewing a reluctant person. Many clients will appear to be hesitant or otherwise unresponsive to the officer's interview. Often this occurs because the client feels the situation is hopeless or doesn't understand the nature, extent, or effects of it. The officer may be effective by getting right to the source of the reluctance (e.g., "It seems you feel - resentful/its useless/hopeless/etc. - to talk about this, is that so?"). The client's response will assist the officer in determining how he should proceed with the interview.

5.4 Interviewing the easily influenced person. Some people agree with any person in authority, to the extent that they feel that their own opinions are not important in comparison with what an authoritarian such as a police officer might say. Regardless of how the interview is conducted, determining that the party is so easily influenced may be extremely helpful in making the diagnosis, and in the selection and implementation of the officer's subsequent intervention.

6. Arriving at a diagnosis

6.1 Relationship to information gathered. Selecting the best method of dealing with the disturbance depends on the diagnosis (a decision as to the nature and most probable cause of the dispute). This depends on the amount and quality of the information gathered and the intervening officers' experience in "processing" such information.

When two or more intervening officers have gathered information (as is always so when two officers have each participated in joint or separate interviews), they should hold a "conference" to share data and impressions.

To retain control of the situation while maintaining the parties' cooperation, the officers should prepare the parties prior to their conference. For example, "All right, Mr. and Mrs. Jones, we would like you to wait patiently where you are for a few minutes while we talk things over and decide how we can best help you with this problem. Will you do that?"

6.2 Factors to consider in reaching a diagnosis.

6.21 Is the disturbance a conflict or a crisis?

6.22 If it is a conflict is it realistic or nonrealistic? Realistic conflict arises from frustration within the family, and can be reduced if the parties find better alternatives to reach their goals. Non-realistic conflict results when one person uses the other to release frustration arising from outside the family, and can be reduced if the angry party redirects the anger at someone or something else.

6.23 Is the disturbance caused by interpersonal, intra-personal, or situational factors?

6.24 Is the relationship stable or unstable? An unstable family relationship is one in which there has been a recent change (divorce, separation, birth, death, someone moving into the household or moving out, etc.). Such changes are likely sources of stress.

6.25 Is the disturbance chronic or acute? When there is no history of disturbances within the family, the problem is more likely to be due to recent stress to one or more members.

6.26 What is the violence potential? Consider whether there has been a history of violence within the family.

6.27 Consequences. The greater the parties' awareness of the consequences of the disturbance in terms of the health, legal standing, and emotional and social well-being of themselves and other family members, the more likely will be their interest in suggestions and actions to remedy the problem.



CONTINUED

1 OF 4

6.3 Common factors in chronically disturbed families.

6.31 Guilt of the victim. In most families with a history of conflict, the apparent victims often contribute to the conflict. For example, to bolster their self esteem, some people marry passive or timid spouses whom they can then disparage at will. In such cases the "competent" spouse will try to prevent mature and independent behavior by the "inadequate" partner. In other chronic cases, the "victim" may have become so used to being victimized that he or she is reluctant to try out new and unfamiliar ways of relating in the family.

6.32 Sado-masochism. A special case of the "guilt" of the victim" exists when two or more members of a family characteristically suffer/inflict (or do both alternately) physical or emotional pain on the other party.

6.4 Putting yourself in their shoes. At times the officers will have gathered enough information to have a fairly accurate picture of what has been taking place, but still have little or no idea as to why these events occurred. In this event, the officer may gain some insight into the problem by putting himself in the disputants' places and theorizing how he would act and what he would do if in this situation. As a result of this self analysis he might become aware of some action that might minimize or prevent such disturbance. The officer then can consider what course of action to follow for the disputants to understand and resolve their differences.

7. Selecting an intervention plan.

7.1 The need to select a plan. Taking time to arrive at a diagnosis and select a plan demonstrates the police officer's self-organization.

7.11 A well-organized officer, simply by virtue of the "smoothness" of his management of the situation, tends to restore order in a disturbed situation.

7.12 Selecting a plan of action promotes organization during its implementation; i.e., an officer who is clear as to what he is trying to achieve and on the means of achieving it, will tend to be both efficient and effective.

7.2 Factors affecting any plan's success

7.21 The relationship established between the officer and the parties prior to selection of a plan.

7.22 The quality of the officer's diagnosis of the nature and probable cause of the disturbance.

7.23 A good match between diagnosis, prevailing conditions (whether all involved parties are at the scene, lucid, etc.), and the plan selected. Put another way, an effective intervention requires a match between what the problem is, what needs to be achieved and what it is possible. The plan which attains the closest match between what needs to be achieved and what it is possible is most likely to succeed.

7.3 Goals. When the officer's understanding of the nature and likely cause of the disturbance is superior to that of the parties (e.g., often the officer is in a good position to explain to the parties what they are feeling and why), the officer should communicate what he perceives (i.e., if the officer sees something that the parties do not, the officer's plan should include his telling them what he sees). Even if the officer planned to do nothing else, sharing his understanding might lead to positive results.

The first is that the parties would hear an objective view of what has been happening. Often the information provided by the officer leads the parties to see things in a different way (although the officer may never hear about it). It also helps the parties make sense out of what may have seemed a chaotic situation. Thus, the officer should be advised that sharing his perceptions of the situation with the parties as part of his intervention plan may be corrective.

The second result is that many people will recognize the officer as having expertise and interest regarding their lives. This engenders improved relations between these parties and the police.

7.31 Often it is desirable to show the parties that their disturbance or behavior is likely to result in certain consequences (e.g., legal, social, financial, emotional, physical).

At times it is desirable to have a joint discussion with the parties in order to promote the airing of suppressed feelings, to enhance the parties' communications, to clarify issues raised during the earlier interviews, etc.

The officer may seek to promote an agreement between the parties about means of settling the immediate issue or similar issues.

Officers can often effectively inform people about resources available to them, offer options for reaching goals, and provide practical advice.

7.32 At times of personal or familial crisis, officers can promote self-correction and prevent undesirable consequences by:

- a. Administering "first-aid," such as allowing ventilation of feelings, helping the parties become clear as to what they are experiencing, offering realistic support and advice, etc.
- b. Instructing other people who are close to the victim as to the nature of the crisis and how they can be of help.
- c. Promoting contact with appropriate community resources.

7.33 Even when an arrest is necessary in a disturbance, the plan can include other goals as well (e.g., it is often possible for the officer to discuss consequences, air underlying issues, etc. before leaving the scene with the person arrested).

7.34 If a referral is appropriate, the officer's plan should include preparing the parties to accept the referral and, if possible, what they should expect.

8. Implementing the intervention plan

8.1 Intervention approaches can be classified.

8.11 While no two cases are exactly the same, officers' interventions fall into a finite number of approaches (for example, 1,000 family dispute cases might have been managed by a total of a dozen different approaches).

8.12 Departments can discover which approaches are being used by their officers.

8.13 Step-by-step training directions for using any intervention would be counterproductive - every officer must adapt each approach to both his own personality and style, and to the individual case.

8.14 Training in intervention approaches should involve active participation and take place in the classroom (using lecture, discussion, examples, practice simulations, role playing, etc.) and should be reinforced over time.

8.2 Five possible approaches. Each department has the responsibility for isolating, selecting, and using in training intervention approaches that appear best for its own resources, officers, and clientele. It is to be expected neither that a single approach will be appropriate for all disturbances, nor that all officers will be equally effective in using it.

It might be most advantageous, therefore, to train officers in a limited number of intervention approaches (perhaps three to six). After gaining experience in applying each, officers may be able to successfully self-select those which work best for them.

8.21 Advocacy. This intervention approach requires two officers. When the plan of intervention aims to promote objectivity in parties, especially about the manner in which they have been interacting, an advocacy approach may be useful. This intervention approach may also be used to help each party hear what the other party has been saying.

In essence the officers apply this approach by taking the roles of sides of each of the two disputants, and engaging in a debate. A brief example follows:

During the argument that prompted a call for police intervention, Mr. and Mrs. Gold had been hurling insults and accusations at each other. The immediate issue was all but forgotten as each became angry and unreasonable. After

interviewing Mr. and Mrs. Gold, the officers diagnosed the disturbance as one in which old hurts were finally being aired. They believed that the Golds would be able to work things out themselves over time if they became more objective and could listen to each other. The officers decided to try an advocacy approach; they often worked as a team and had used it with some success on similar cases. Officer A would take Mrs. Gold's "side," because he had interviewed her; Officer B would take Mr. Gold's "side." The intervention took place in the living room, with Mr. and Mrs. Gold seated.

Officer A (to Officer B): "Well, Mrs. Gold said that he always comes home late, so when he got annoyed at the cold food she got mad."

Officer B (to Officer A): "Sure he got mad; he's dead tired after work. When she started accusing him of being a bum he really got mad at her and tried to hurt her by insulting her looks. 'Who would be in a hurry to get home to a woman who looks like a slob?'"

Officer A (to B): "Well, she's not going to dress up for a guy who doesn't seem interested in her...".

The interaction between the officers went on Mr. and Mrs. Gold sat in amazement at hearing the way they sounded to each other. Removed from the center of the "battle," they could hear themselves with greater objectivity, almost as if it were an audiovisual playback.

8.22 Bargaining. This intervention approach can be applied with one or more officers. The officer tries to promote an agreement between the parties about the issue at hand. The

Officer acts as a go-between to promote a settlement. A brief example follows:

The court order permits Mr. Brown to visit his child on alternate Sundays. The child has been ill, but Mr. Brown has been away on business and could not visit yesterday. The dispute took place on the street near the residence of the former Mrs. Brown. The officer's interviews indicated that the ex-wife was legally within her rights, and was strongly opposed to a visit that day. Mr. Brown appeared to be sincere in his concern for the child. The officer decided to attempt a bargaining approach to resolve the immediate issue. He positioned the parties out of hearing distance of each other.

Officer to the woman: "Ma'am, Mr. Brown is really concerned about the baby. I think he would be satisfied if he could spend just a half hour with the baby today. (She refuses.) Well, would you permit him to visit later this week for just a few hours? (She vacillates.) Let me talk to him."

Officer walks to Mr. Brown. "Mr. Brown, I've just spoken to your wife. She refuses to let you visit today, but she may agree to a brief visit, say Thursday or Friday...."

The officer continues as above and both parties agree to a two hour visit Friday morning.

8.23 Arbitration. This intervention approach can be applied with one or more officers. Here the officer uses his powers (legal or otherwise) to impose a conclusion.

The officer acts in accordance with the following scheme: I have interviewed both parties, and my plan of intervention will be to order them to do such-and-such, or to make an arrest.

As an arbitrator the officer imposes a conclusion which is binding upon the parties. Naturally, this approach can only be applied on a selective basis.

8.24 Telephoning. This intervention approach can be applied with one or more officers. In this approach the officer's goal is to enhance the parties' ability to communicate with each other. He directs each party to talk to the other individual through him, e.g., "Mrs. White, you tell me what you want to say to him, and I'll tell him."

With this approach the parties are talking directly to an interested but objective third-party: the intervening officer. And, importantly, each party can be more receptive to the other parties' views since these are presented to them by the officer.

8.25 Counseling. This intervention approach can be applied with one or more officers. One goal of counseling is to direct the parties' attention to underlying issues that have not been apparent to them. By virtue of skillful interviewing, the officer often discovers that the immediate precipitant of the dispute is not the real problem. A brief example follows:

Mr. White and his 14 year old son had an argument and a tussle. Mrs. White called the police. After restoring order and interviewing the parents and the son, the officers diagnosed the disturbance as being a symptom of a problem between the parents. Mrs. White had little pleasure in life and little affection from her husband. Turning to her son for closeness she became too close and too permissive. The son enjoyed his mother's permissiveness and became increasingly angry and confused when his father became strict with

him. Accordingly, the officers selected to use the counseling approach to direct the parents toward the problem in their own relationship. They began by asking to speak to the parents without the son being there.

"Mr. and Mrs. White, we've had a chance to talk to all of you and we want to talk to you about your situation. We believe the problem with your son is really...."

The officers try to show the Whites the nature of their own relationship, and how the son and his relationship to his father has been affected by it. The officers may offer some corrective steps ("spend more time together doing things you both like") and/or make a referral.

DISCUSSION EXAMPLE #1

Decision Selection

(Relates to part 2.3 of this section)

The trainer may stimulate the participants to discuss the effects of acting with only limited knowledge of a situation. The focus should be on the options available after the situation is carefully assessed. Are there options? What are they? Personal experiences may be solicited in any area of police work. The discussion should then be directed to applying the relevant implications to a family disturbance. The participants should be encouraged to analyze the situation in terms of exploring all the options applicable to the resolution of the intervention.

DISCUSSION EXAMPLE #2

Initial Contact

(Relates to part 3.1 of this section)

Officers McKlosky and Johnson want to handle family disturbances well (to minimize danger, help citizens, prevent escalation of crime by addressing the real issues, etc.). As they approach the residence from which the "family dispute" complaint came, they listened at the door for a moment. They only hear a T.V. set. Then Officer McKlosky knocks at the door with his nightstick. "Who is it?" asks a male voice from inside. Stick at ready, the officer replies, "The police." Discussion should focus on the effects of verbal and non-verbal actions of the police officer and their resultant implications to the disputants.

DISCUSSION EXAMPLE #3

Data About Relationships

(Relates to part 4.12 of this section)

While interviewing a wife, the police officer notes with surprise that he is getting annoyed at her. He thinks to himself: "What is happening to make me annoyed?"... (He observes himself and the interviewee for a moment.) ... "Say, her voice is whiney (non-verbal communication) and she sounds like a demanding nag. If she always sounds this way it could drive her husband crazy. Or maybe the husband has been giving her too little of something..." (Hunches which will serve as leads for the police officer to check during his interview).

DISCUSSION EXAMPLE #4

Intrapersonal Factors

(Relates to part 4.21 of this section)

In the case of Mr. and Mrs. Smith (presented in the section: Nature of Current Disturbance), if the responding officer discovered that Mr. Smith was indeed an alcoholic, and that Mrs. Smith had been angry with considerable justification, the cause of the dispute should be designated as intrapersonal. The cause would similarly be intrapersonal if Mr. Smith were not alcoholic, and Mrs. Smith's accusation was but one more expression of the irritability which had increased since her father's death three years ago.

DISCUSSION EXAMPLE #5

Interpersonal Factors

(Relates to part 4.22 of this section)

For example, consider the case of a dispute between a husband and wife. The officer learns that the husband does not feel loved by his wife. At this point further information is needed to determine if the cause is interpersonal. If the officer were to learn that the wife had once loved him but had fallen out of love with her husband as he lost his youthful zest and drive, the officer could conclude that the problem was interpersonal (in the relationship). If, on the other hand, the wife appears to hate and distrust all men, the problem would be intrapersonal (i.e. an emotional problem of the wife).

DISCUSSION EXAMPLE #6

Problem Chronic or Acute

(Relates to part 4.30 of this section)

To illustrate, consider the case of the veteran police officer who responds to a family disturbance. The family is unknown to him. He witnesses evidence of an assault on the wife and learns that it occurred because she had "forgotten" to prepare dinner for her husband. The officer listens to the parties angrily interact and develops a hunch that the wife does not love her husband (an interpersonal factor as cause). There remain two important items of information to discover: the first is - how long ago the wife lost her affection for the husband (to aid in determining if the relationship can be repaired or whether amicable separation should be sought) and the second is the history of violent behavior between the couple. If this assault is the first between them it would suggest that the disturbance has escalated because a crisis is occurring in one spouse or in the relationship. In this event, proper intervention can prevent future violence. On the other hand, according to recent data, if there is a history of repeated violence, future violence can be expected. This situation is both more complex (because not only is there a problem in one or both parties, but the problem can also lead to violent behavior) and more rewarding when managed successfully.

DISCUSSION EXAMPLE #7

Problems Chronic or Acute

(Relates to part 4.30 of this section)

Consider the following example. Mr. and Mrs. Green were known to many officers by virtue of their frequent disputes. For years Mr. Green had been very abusive towards his wife and their eight-year-old son. He was usually not assaultive. The usual police interventions consisted of threats of arrest, actual (short-term) arrests of Mr. Green, and suggestions that they separate. On occasion an officer would attempt to arbitrate a settlement about the issue that had prompted that particular disturbance. With such "chronics" it may seem that there's really little else that the police can do. But such an approach is wrong, because it's not known whether the cause is situational, interpersonal, or intrapersonal. Every district has its Green families. Typically the police officer acts as if they are hopeless cases - so over the months and years the number of man-hours spent at the Greens' mounts, to say nothing of the frustration of the responding officers, or the missed opportunities for a better family life for the Greens.

Let us continue the example further. During their most recent "visit" to the Green family, the officers ask Mr. and Mrs. Green about the history of their relationship. They learn something vital -- that there had been a good relationship between the couple prior to the birth of their child eight years ago; it was subsequent to that event that Mr. Green's attitude and

behavior towards his wife changed. Since Mr. Green gets along with people outside his family and has been a reliable provider, its unlikely that the problem is intrapersonal. And since Mr. and Mrs. Green can't still be responding to the birth of their child (eight years ago), the cause is probably not situational. So on this occasion the responding police officers have reason to judge the familial difficulty to be chronic and interpersonal. In essence this would mean that there are underlying issues causing the chronic problem in the family.

EXERCISE I

NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

The instructor may use models (live, filmed, or videotaped) to demonstrate non-verbal communication. A simulated intervention by a member of the class, for example, can be played without audio. Danish and Hauer (1973, pp. 61-72) present a training method dealing with non-verbal aspects of communication. (Also see Body Language exercise on pp. 21-23 of Gazda's Instructor's Manual).



SECTION 8

THE REFERRAL NETWORK

1. Organization of the Referral Network (Administrative)

1.1 Introduction

1.11 Importance of the Intervener. This entire document is geared to what may be the most important part of any effort made to implement conflict and crisis intervention capability within a police department: the development of skillful, competent interveners. However, while effective intervention is clearly the most valuable asset in such an effort, those responsible for making it happen can encourage and support these skilled practitioners by providing tools which officers can use creatively to help people in need. One of those tools can be the system that is set up to provide that help: the social and community service network.

Police officers serve as catalysts and provide early warning signals for people in trouble as well as those agencies designed to help them. The agencies can serve as alternative resources in support of the police officer as he responds to an emergency call for help. This section is designed to assist the department in maximizing its use of resources in the community. There is an established network of helping agencies in every community. Setting up and maintaining a functional relationship among the agencies and the police is a task whose importance cannot be emphasized too strongly.

1.12 Relationship Between Law Enforcement and the Helping Network. In most cities, a collaborative relationship between the police

and social and community agencies does not exist; rather strained cooperation has been more the rule. In fact, with some exceptions, the relationship between the two has been characterized by mutually negative stereotyping and poor communication, often resulting in conflict, hostility and distorted perceptions. In a situation in which these groups need each other, initial distortions are totally dysfunctional, to say the least. Effective collaboration necessitates a mutuality of interest, realistic goal setting mechanisms, and ongoing interaction for co-accountability to exist and be meaningful.

1.13 Basis for Collaboration. The goal shared by both the police department and the helping network is effective intervention and subsequent resolution of conflicts and crises. For this, the police officer needs at his disposal the kinds of resources that are ready, willing and able to follow through on problems he identifies and analyzes. By the same token, the helping network needs the police as an early case-finding mechanism so that troubled persons can be contacted when they are most open to change and help. Periods of crisis and conflict offer the maximum opportunity for such contacts.

1.14 Maintenance of Professional Identity. While mutuality of interest is a prerequisite for collaboration, so is maintenance of individual professional identity. Public security is the primary mission of any police agency. The prime mission of the helping network, on the other hand, is to provide a variety of direct services to those in need. While competent crisis intervention may prevent commission of a crime (homicide, assault, child abuse, etc.) in the immediate situation, quality long range help for disturbed families could cut down on the future likelihood of violent means for dealing with problems, as well as creation of conditions contributing to delinquency. In no way

should the functions of the two be seen as the same; rather they are complementary. The police agency and the helping agencies retain their identities as integral parts of the process of collaboration.

1.2 Planning

Planning for the establishment and maintenance of a productive collaboration involves both "what" and "how." The "what" is the relationship itself and the "how" is the process by which it is attained.

1.21 The relationship. The relationship between your department and the network of agencies established to provide help will depend of course on what exists in the community, its quality and orientation, and the needs of the department.

1.22 An inventory of resources. While community services vary from city to city, generally the helping network exists on three levels, funded by a variety of private, federal, state, and local revenues.

1.221 City-wide services are usually delivered via large government agencies (e.g., the domestic court, housing bureau, welfare department) or by private social service organizations (e.g., Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children or Family Service Society). These same city-wide agencies may be decentralized in local offices (e.g., medical centers, state employment offices or mental health clinics).

1.222 Neighborhood services are usually representative of community based or citizen originated self-help organizations. They may or may not have government financial support; indeed they may not even appear in directories of the formal helping systems. However, they can be very important elements in the helping network. They should be sought out and involved.

One of the first tasks those responsible for coordinating the social service contracts should undertake is a precise inventory of what is available. An up-to-date profile of existing services will be needed. It should include:

- a. Stated purpose of the agency
- b. Eligibility criteria, if any
- c. Caseload capacity
- d. Services offered - treatment style
- e. Type of staff
- f. Hours, address, phone, and NAME of the contact person
- g. History of past relations with the department, if any, and a profile of past referrals
- h. Response time

When a police department canvasses its staff to determine some of this information, it is often surprised by the informal ties to the helping system by individuals or units. A department canvass can be a step in the direction of formalizing and taking advantage of the rich potential in these existing relationships. In addition, the impressions of patrol officers can be very useful in assessing the quality of the agencies.

The canvass can also give an idea of the kinds of referrals most frequently sought. Since it will be impossible to work with all

agencies at once, some priorities will have to be established before planning meetings can be arranged.

The canvass should serve not only as an information gathering tool, but also as a mechanism for involving patrol officers, from the inception of the program, in planning and resource development. The most important result of the canvass could well be the stimulation in motivation for patrol officers who see their participation and knowledge being actively sought and used. Seen in this light, it will be clear that the canvass cannot be simply a mailed questionnaire. Rather, the canvass should take the form of small group interviews or conferences conducted by those who will be responsible for the community service referral network. Also, this would be a good time to begin solidifying the working relationship between the patrol officers and the administration of the program.

1.23 The process. Since continuity is the key to successful collaboration, one person should be designated by the department as responsible for the setting up and maintenance of the referral network. This person should be known not only to the agencies, but also to the front line police officers, and should participate in the initial intensive and ongoing training of the officers. It should be this person too, who actually becomes involved with the "how," the process of planning an ongoing working relationship. Just having a mutual interest in competent and effective intervention is not enough. Unless the department and agency representatives agree upon some intermediate goals, the process can fall apart before it gets going.

Work process is made easier when goals are explicit. For measuring the effectiveness of those goals, the following criteria may be useful:

- a. Are the goals specific? Do they imply a next step?
- b. Do they describe performance? Can a person say what he will be doing?
- c. Is everyone involved?
- d. Are the goals realistic? Are they attainable?
- e. Can the results be observed?

Commitment of those involved is the natural outcome of goal setting, assessment and achievement. With each agency knowing its own constraints, there should be no surprises further down the "pike." In fact, the personal relationships built in this kind of enterprise ensure a willingness to work out the problems as they come up.

1.3 Training

While problems cannot be eliminated, some can be ironed out through training, both at the intensive session and in ongoing field work. For a network to be useful, those who are to employ it must be convinced of its utility and thoroughly familiar with its operations. As the planning and implementation carried out by the department is collaborative on the staff level, so too should it be on the operational level. Police officers and professional helpers share an interest in effective intervention. They also share the negative stereotyping often found between groups which operate in the same realm without communication. This common phenomenon can preclude a good working relationship.

The training should not only include a presentation of what is available to the officer, but also should mandate personal involvement of police officers with staff in agencies who provide the direct services referral will be using. An officer is more likely to refer people to a colleague in an agency and to have a sense of personal tie to the agency if groundwork in collaboration

has been laid at that level. For example, when Officer Jones refers a case to Counselor Mary Smith, he is involved in a process that has personal involvement with the referral quite unlike the faceless agency, either directly accountable or given to feedback. This kind of involvement can take place in an introductory fashion at the intensive training session, but should be extended by field visits and a series of ongoing working conferences wherever and whenever cases so require. Part of the field training sessions should be regularly scheduled for this function. (See page 2.6).

1.4 Care and feeding of the network

The relationship between the police department and the helping network is a healthy one so long as it is used and not abused. Since the relationship should be a collaborative one, it would be well to look at some of the most common abuses that can occur. Police departments most often abuse this kind of relationship by seeing agencies as convenient dumping grounds for problem cases. On the other hand, social agencies can be equally disposed to seeing cases as an opportunity to swell caseload figures in order to insure increased funding. It cannot be emphasized too strongly that the collaborative process in such a network is intended for one purpose only: to serve as a tool for furthering effective intervention. If that is the objective, then the appropriateness of the network's operation must be continually tested. There are many pitfalls that occur and that can be avoided.

1.41 Overuse of the domestic court. In most cities, the court dealing with domestic affairs is the helping resource most used by police officers when referring troubled families. This is one reason among others that the staffs of the court and its ancillary services are usually overburdened. Overuse of any facility results in disappointment both for the client and for

the police officer who makes the referrals, with consequent self-fulfilling disillusionment and cynicism. Remember, knowledge of the specific capabilities of various agencies is important in eliminating a necessary step in the normal helping process, i.e., the screening interview. When an officer performs the screening interview function, he eases the burden on the helping network, the client, and in the long term, the officer himself.

1.42 Overuse of the responsible. As an agency establishes its reputation as good, quick, and responsible, that reputation usually spreads by word of mouth and can be a factor in the overuse of that facility. When that happens the agency is compromised and, in effect, finds its initial adequacy becoming responsible for its subsequent inadequacy.

1.43 Lack of communication. This factor is so common in inter-agency relationships that it hardly needs emphasis here. However, something can be done about it. A mechanism must be quickly established that addresses this problem from the outset. Misunderstanding can occur. For example, a monthly administrative meeting attended by representatives of all agencies involved, including the police, would do much in supporting and reinforcing the communication among individuals. However, it should be remembered that having a meeting does not guarantee communication. Thought will have to be given to the format, content, and personnel attending these meetings. Not only should staff or administrative personnel be included, but also operational personnel should be rotated through the program on a regular basis.

1.44 The rumor mill. Complete reliance on word of mouth evaluations that flow from individual experience can be destructive. Rumors spread quickly and an otherwise excellent referral source can be written off on the basis of an atypical experience. If the network is to function smoothly, this tendency must be assumed to require monitoring.

1.45 The Con. Any element in the network, police or helping resources may promise much and deliver nothing. This is always a danger, particularly in the first flush of enthusiasm. Its long-term consequences, however, can be devastating. Intentions must be kept related to reality.

1.46 Feedback. Some mechanism should be established for tracking individuals in the system with feedback to those professionals who have played a role in the person's movement through the network. Each officer and agency staff person should be routinely informed on outcomes. (Suggestions for appropriate forms are included in section 3, and case conferences with agency people in field training, section 2)

1.5 A cautionary word

Unless great care is exercised in the organization and maintenance of the collaborative helping network, the delivery of crisis and conflict services will be seriously compromised. Previous experience in other settings with family crisis efforts in police departments has attested to the critical significance of an ongoing, smoothly operating network. This cannot happen by itself, no matter how well intentioned everyone is in agreeing to cooperate. It may well be one of the most important elements in the success or failure of any effort to utilize the unique potentials of the police in the helping system.*

* Ref. Appendix 9 - "The Role of Law Enforcement in the Helping System"

2. The Helping Service Network

2.1 Introductory Note to the Trainer

This section deals with the helping service network, the external resources the officer will have at his disposal as he intervenes in crisis and conflict situations. For the intensive training, limited goals should be set. Since it is unrealistic to expect officers to digest the encyclopedic knowledge of community services available in the time allotted, it is suggested that the trainer aim toward a familiarization with the service structure and its historical context, an outline of what may be developed in the field, and the generation of interest to pursue experimentation with referrals.

Before going over this section, the trainer should re-read the Referral Network Administrative section and plan not only to design, but also to teach this section together with the staff person responsible for the resource network. The Inventory of Resources should have been completed before the intensive training begins. A community resource manual containing the information outlined in the suggested profile with space for officer's notes and blank pages for resources developed by the officers in the field should be assembled in a manageable pocket-size format. This manual should be distributed at the intensive training.

This section will make the most sense and be best received if the trainers localize the information as much as possible. While an outline is offered below, local input is crucial. The general history of social service is interesting, but the history of social service in one's own city could be fascinating and is certainly relevant. While a general outline of social service delivery systems is useful, a description of how the resources are organized locally is what the officers really need.

2.2 Historical Context of Helping Services

While there has always been a tradition of charity in this country, it was not until after the Civil War, as the Industrial Revolution came into full swing, that conditions mandating the creation of helping services came about.

2.21 Industrialization removed workers from home to factory, leaving them without the sense of pride in workmanship and control over one's own destiny that came with rural life or cottage industries.

2.22 Urbanization brought a lessening of personal relationships; social control, previously maintained by traditional and internalized mores, came to be exercised and imposed by institutions, including the police.

2.23 Immigration massive waves of shifting populations, both foreign and rural compounded the difficulties faced. Most immigrants were poor, unskilled, and illiterate. They had to adjust not only to the forces of industrialization and urbanization, but also to an entire new way of life.

2.3 Family Pressures

These forces created pressures on families which made specialized help increasingly more necessary.

2.31 The nuclear family was strained as husbands and wives worked long hours in sweat shops and children were left alone.

2.32 Children worked or attended schools which were un-sanitary, overcrowded and characterized by curricula irrelevant to their needs.

2.33 As children assimilated faster than adults, intergenerational conflict led to lessening of the authority of the older generation.

2.34 Miserable social conditions led to a high incidence of anti-social behavior including family disorganization, delinquency, and prostitution.

2.4 Specific Forces At Work In Your Area

Given these general forces as a context, look at the specific forces that operated in your own area.

2.41 Describe the waves of immigration from the turn of the century to the present, including foreign and domestic. (For example, some cities have experienced waves of Eastern Europeans, blacks and Appalachian people.)

2.42 Discuss ethnic characteristics which could impinge on intervention (for example, Appalachian people generally will accept help only from other Appalachians).

2.43 Describe the economic growth of the city and the effect this has had on the labor market and therefore on the poor.

2.5 Learning From History

Learn from history by understanding what has changed and, more importantly, what has remained the same.

2.51 Newly arrived immigrants have always been more subject to disorder, whether cultural or economic, in personal and physical conditions. They have always experienced the highest rates of crime, violence, and need for help.

2.52 Today there is a "Psychology of Entitlement" (refer to Yankelovich, Survey of Youth Attitudes, 1973) in which most young people and a sizeable number of adults feel that they have a right to services.

2.53 People experiencing chaos or disorder have always needed specialized services.

2.54 Specialized services have developed as forces pushed for their creation, but they have always been shaped by prevailing social attitudes, and have often fallen short of the actual needs of the population.

2.6 Historical Context of the Police and the Helping Network: The Development of Professionalism

Police involvement in helping activities has historically come from their right, their responsibility, and their role.

2.61 Right: Police have a variety of legal powers which no one else has to intervene in conflict. Police have the authority, immediacy, and symbolic power to restore order.

2.62 Responsibility: Police are responsible for public order maintenance. Public order may be threatened by

conflict and crisis as well as by failures of municipal and other services. Unresolved conflicts can lead to criminal acts.

2.63 Role: By virtue of police authority, availability, and symbolic power, people call on the police for help in time of need. People who lack knowledge or resources or who do not have them available are most likely to involve police in their problems.

2.7 Payoff from the Relationship

The functional relationship between the police officer and the helping network can have many pay-offs.

2.71 Crime prevention

2.711 Police are called upon to intervene in conflicts that, if left unresolved, can result in crime (homicide, assault, child abuse, etc.).

2.712 Police can be early warning signals for the helping system so that those exhibiting anti-social behavior can be helped early on.

2.72 Prevention offers the promise of relief with fewer call-backs to the case and, perhaps with effective referral, fewer calls in the long run.

2.73 Increased cooperation from the community

2.731 People are more likely to be cooperative in reporting crime and assisting police with information if they perceive the police as competent helpers.

2.732 Police can serve as models for human interaction in communities in which such models are sorely needed.

2.74 Prompt and effective assistance for persons in need helps create public trust in government. Police are the most visible representatives of local government and are available 24 hours a day. Citizens often do not differentiate between elements of local government. The service a citizen receives affects his respect for government in general and the police in particular.

2.8 The Resources Police Officers Have At Their Disposal

While community services vary from city to city, generally the helping network exists on three levels funded by a variety of private, federal, state, and local revenues.

2.81 Citywide services are usually delivered via large government agencies or by private social service organizations.

2.82 These agencies may be centralized in local offices.

2.83 Neighborhood services are usually representative of community-based or citizen-oriented, self-help organizations. They may or may not have government financial support; they may not even appear in directories of the formal helping system. However, they can be important elements in the helping network and should be sought out.

(In this section, the prepared Manual of Community Resources should be presented and discussed.)

2.9 Relationship to Field Activities

The final component of this resource section should be a detailed discussion of what will be happening in the field. Such a discussion about what is available and how to use it represents just the beginning of the effort to familiarize the officer with the helping network and assist him to begin to think about using it creatively to help those who need it. The bulk of the learning will happen as the officer begins to use community agencies he knows about, develops contacts on his own, and shares them with other officers in the same command. That this intensive training has been only a beginning should be reinforced; whatever the department decides for the format for the ongoing training and whatever the department plans as a schedule for regular and ongoing contact between the patrol officers and helping agency staff, should be detailed at this time. In addition the possible pitfalls outlined in Section 1 should also be discussed.

3. The Referral Process in Intervention

3.1 Making a Referral

The traditional view of a referral is that it is "made." While selecting or implementing the intervention plan, officers can make an evaluation of the appropriateness of referring the disputants to a community helping service. In making that evaluation they acknowledge that they and the disputants will be engaged in a process in which people recognize they need help, prepare themselves to attain it, and finally get to it.

3.11 Referral is appropriate when the officer has a good working knowledge of the resources available to him (see next section for inclusion in training program) and of the ethnic and cultural characteristics of the population the officer is serving which could affect acceptance of referral.

3.12 Referral is appropriate when the officer has established a relation of trust with the disputants which allows them to see that he believes that the suggested course of action is a good idea. (See Intervention Methods, Part 3,5).

3.13 A referral is appropriate when the capabilities of the officers and those of the disputants, as problem-solvers, are clearly unequal to the task at hand.

3.14 A referral is appropriate when the officer has a reasonable expectation that the people he sends will be helped and that the quality of service will be good.

3.15 A referral is appropriate even when, and maybe especially when, referrals have been made in the past and not acted upon.

3.2 Process View of Referral

In fact referral is a process, with steps which prepare people to do what is necessary to obtain assistance once they themselves have recognized what their problem is and what help they need.

3.21 Involving the disputants. Once the intervening officers judge a referral to be appropriate, the first task is not to tell the people where to go to solve their problem, but rather to discuss the problem itself, taking

the discussion to the point where the disputants recognize what might be the matter. (This may not even happen on the first visit.) The disputants must have a stake in the problem identification.

3.22 Exploring options and alternatives. Officers and disputants can then begin to explore some of the options available. The officer himself must first think of what seems to be the most helpful and relevant assistance for the problem at hand and for this particular set of troubled people. The officer has a chance here to make a creative mix of available resources and the specialness of the individuals involved. If the family is one which has had previous experience with agencies or the city bureaucracy, it is likely that its members may be cynical about just how "helpful" the referral will be. Discussing the realities of the helping system should not be avoided; in fact, an officer's knowledge of the best assistance available in his sector should make the information given to disputants relevant and credible.

3.221 In this discussion the officer should remember that he will be most effective when the emphasis in the discussion is on action in an area which the parties see as responsive to their perception of the situation. He should start from where the clients are.

3.23 Making a contract. Once the parties agree to accept a referral, they need to make a commitment to a specific plan of action. The officer should help the disputants make some kind of contract with each other. If he wishes, the officer can become involved in the contract himself

(e.g., if you agree to call A right now, I will take you to your first meeting). If the referral source is available at the time of intervention, a contract can be in the form of making an appointment on the spot.

3.3 Follow Up

An agreement implies follow up and this is where problems are guaranteed to arise--with the disputants, the agencies, and the officers.

3.31 When nothing happens: When the disputants don't go to the agency the officer referred them to, when they don't keep "their end of the bargain" the results are felt both by the disputants and the intervening officers. For the disputants, the condition continues, possibly with some reservoir of guilt for not having followed through. For the police officer, unless an effort is made to understand the dynamics of the referral process (which may involve several interventions with the same parties) disillusionment with the family and the process of referring can set in.

3.32 When not enough happens: Sometimes the disputants may tentatively take the first steps, but peter out at the first sign of disappointment. Conversely, for whatever reason, the agency may be a disappointment. Again, for the disputants, the condition will probably continue, with increased resistance to helping services. For the officers, not only may they become disillusioned with the family and the process, but with the agency as well.

3.33 When something happens but the officers are not kept informed: It is possible that the parties will follow through with whatever the plan of referral was, but unless there is some way for the officer to find this out, he will not get the satisfaction possible from knowing he has actually been competent in a job he has set out to do. Nor will the officer get the feedback he can use to continually upgrade the quality of his referrals, nor have a sense of continuity.

3.34 The problem of lack of feedback cycle is preventable if a good information follow up system is developed with the agencies, police department, administration and local precinct on an ongoing basis. A format and suggestions for this will be discussed in the next section.

3.35 Understanding reactions to unresponsive cases: all people beginning in helping activities tend to feel a sense of personal failure in cases that don't respond and a feeling of anger at the situation and people that provided the sense of failure. All professionals learn that not everyone can be helped, at the time the helper wants it to happen. We all just hope to keep upping our percentages. Clients too must learn to use the system, just as officers do. The kinds of coping skills officers develop so well in many areas, that allow them to keep doing their jobs well, even though results continue to be frustrating, have to be developed for this facet of police work as well.

SPECIAL NOTE

The referral network that must be developed by the Crisis Intervention Project is intended to support the police officer and the citizens with whom he deals. If the police officer is to safely and effectively function as a crisis intervener and conflict manager, the referral network must not let him down. Therefore, it is important to form a group of senior agency representatives to act as a watchdog committee on the functioning of the network.

Through committee interaction, interagency problems can be more clearly understood and any philosophical or ideological differences dealt with. This is an effective way to guarantee the essential feedback to the police officer concerning his referrals.

Finally, experience has shown that the single most important factor determining the effectiveness of the referral committee is the authority possessed by its members within their own organizations. In this regard, strong police representation on the referral committee is critical.



SECTION 9

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Listening	Supporting	Problem-Solving and Decision-Making
Leading	Centering	Behavior Modifying
Reflecting	Referring	Modeling
Summarizing	Comforting	Rewarding
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8. Film References

Films of the Pittsburgh Police Reapartment distributed by Documentary Educational Resources: Center for Documentary Anthropology, 24 Dane Street, Somerville, Massachusetts 02143. Telephone: (617) 666-1750.

All of these films are about three to five minutes in length.

After the Game: Shows an incident in which police respond for a second time to a house where there allegedly is a disturbance. Four boys between the ages of 18 and 22 claim that nothing is the matter, that they have just returned from playing basketball. Eventually, the police discover more people upstairs who allegedly were glue-sniffing. Effectively shows the haphazard and somewhat belligerent questioning of the boys and the doubtful arrest procedures.

Vagrant Woman: Shows an incident in which police question a woman who has been living in an automobile on the street. The woman is rather gentle but perhaps mentally disoriented, but the police question her abruptly and generally not very sympathetically. She finally is referred to the Salvation Army for a place to stay.

Henry Is Drunk: Shows an incident in which police stop a black driver who may be intoxicated. On questioning him, the police avoid any eye contact. One of the police officers good-naturedly disputes how much beer the man had drunk and eventually puts him in a taxi to go home.

\$40 Misunderstanding: Shows a domestic dispute in which a woman accuses her boyfriend of stealing \$35 from her. Smoking cigarettes and not removing their hats in the house, the police do nothing to moderate the dispute or to separate the parties. Finally, the woman lunges at the man violently and after being separated hysterically puts her hand through the window. Only when violence occurs so the police finally act. An excellent demonstration of the counter-productive effects of police confining their roles to law enforcement and violence control models rather than a broader helping model.

Third Party Intervention: Three documentary films show police interventions in interpersonal conflicts. The interventions are critiqued by a group of six police officers from three cities: Brookline, Massachusetts; Dallas, Texas; and New York

City. 60 minutes. Videotape cassette available from Motorola Tele-Programs, Inc., 4825 North Scott Street, Suite 26, Schiller Park, Illinois 60176.

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APPENDIX 1

REAL - LIFE SIMULATIONS



REAL-LIFE SIMULATIONS

1. Description

In real-life simulations, professional actors enact a family disturbance. The enactments are scripted up to the point at which police intervene and attempt to manage the disturbance. Subsequently the actors begin again following the same script, and at the same point different officers, who are unaware of the previous intervention, intervene. This sequence is repeated one more time. Afterwards, actors step out of their roles and give feedback to officers regarding their behavior during the respective interventions.

2. Goals

Real-life simulation is a training methodology that can dramatically heighten the realism of the scene depicted to the audience as well as to the interviewing trainees. Specific goals include the following:

- Providing "depth" through fuller character presentation
- Providing "depth" through presentation of events preceding arrival of the police.
- Providing realism through the use of highly trained and/or professional actors whose primary identities are as civilians.
- Providing continuity by showing the audience a disturbance from its inception through police intervention.

- Demonstrating that different outcomes result from different interventions.
- Providing immediate feedback to the officers (and audience) as to how the officers communicated their feelings and attitudes, and how these were experienced by the actors and audience.
- Real-life simulation may well be the best chance for officers to try out their intervention skills short of actual field application. The best time to use the method can be toward the conclusion of the intensive training phase, after the officers have received some training in intervention theory and basic skills.

3. Instructions to the Trainer

The trainer must be involved at six stages: orientation of actors, selection and orientation of interveners, orientation of the audience, conduct of the performances, conduct of the post-intervention confrontation between audience and actors, and conducting the subsequent discussion with the audience and interveners.

3.1 Orientation of Actors

3.11 If Plays for Living will present a real-life simulation, the orientation of the director is needed to ensure maximum impact and adherence to training goals.

3.12 If plays other than those copyrighted by Plays for Living are to be presented, the trainer must take all

steps necessary to ensure that the content of the script is sound and that a delivery adheres to training goals.

3.13 The director must prepare the actors to improvise according to their roles in response to the officers' behavior during the interventions.

3.14 The Trainer needs to review with the director the facilities, seating arrangements and necessary and available props.

3.2 Selection and Orientation of Intervenors.

3.21 Prior to the performance of each play, six trainees should be selected who will intervene in three teams.

3.22 During the first enactments, these six trainees are to be in a nearby room where they are unable to see or to hear what is going on in the, "theatre".

3.23 All teams are told that at the conclusion of their intervention they will be isolated together and should review what they have done, what they understand the situation to have been about, how they felt, etc.

3.3 Orientation of the Audience

3.31 The trainer briefly informs the audience of the format of the presentation.

3.4 Conduct of the Performance.

34.1 General guidelines for the conduct of the performance can be found in the Plays for Living Pamphlet (See page 2 of Appendix 2).

34.2 The trainer should end each intervention when he perceives that the interveners have established the tone of their strategy and when their relationship to the disputants has been set. Rarely should an intervention be allowed to exceed 20 minutes.

3.5 Conduct of the Post-Intervention Confrontation.

35.1 See The Plays for Living pamphlet (page 2).

35.2 During this segment, comments from the audience about police strategy should be discouraged; rather, this segment should focus primarily upon the officers' behavior, and how it affected the disputants.

3.6 Conduct of the Subsequent Discussion.

36.1 When the actors have been excused, the audience is invited to join in for further analysis and critical discussion of the interventions.

4. Materials/Supplies

The basic tools are scripts that have been carefully prepared and reviewed for realism and effectiveness.

Three such scripts are presented in the Plays for Living pamphlet included in this document.

Additionally, four brief scripts are appended. It is recommended that if these are used, the scripts should be expanded. Use of these scripts, or any others written for training, requires extensive rehearsal and preparation by the most skillful actors available.

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FOUR BRIEF FAMILY DISTURBANCE SCRIPTS

FAMILY DISTURBANCE SKIT #1

INVOLVING CHILDREN

Introduction

Scene Living room of a 4-room apartment, and hallway directly outside apartment door.

Actors

Father - James Jones, male-48 years old, construction laborer, 8th grade level education.

Son - William Jones, male-16 years old, 2nd year High School Student,

Sister - Mary Jones, female-19 years old, housekeeper, an unwed mother, with 1 year old baby.

Notes to Actors on role they should project:

Father - You are a hard working father who has been a widower for ten years; your children have disappointed you. You are frustrated by your son's attitude toward education and his relations with you. At this time, you portray a very stubborn role in relation to allowing your son back into the house. (He ran away two weeks ago, after throwing bricks from a rooftop at you). This incident hurt you deeply. At time of police intervention you portray a respectful attitude, but also maintain a very reluctant position regarding re-admitting your son into the home.

Answer all questions honestly, but based on your feelings of love and disappointment.

Son - Portray a rebellious attitude toward the family. Project feelings of being unwanted, unloved by the family. By being truant you are knowingly spiting your father, because of the value he places on your education. You resent the authority of your older sister taking the place of your long deceased mother. Use the intervening policemen as your mediators in opening communications with your father.

Sister - Portray a dominant female figure who has control over the father and sides with him against son. You and your brother do not get along, but since he has been away from home for two weeks, your role in the household is being observed more closely by your father.

SKIT #1

Time: 7:00 P.M., Tuesday Evening

Place: Living Room of Apartment

Scene: Mary and Bill are sitting in living room talking.

Mary: "Dad will be home shortly, perhaps it would be better if you leave and let me talk to him first."

Bill: "You never helped me before, I think I will have a better chance if I talk to dad myself."

Mary: "I don't know about that; after you threw the bricks at him and left home, he's been very mad and upset."

Bill: "Well, I have to try to make dad listen to my side."

Mary: "O.K., you can try, but I don't think he wants you back."

At this point a key turns in the lock and the father, looking tired, enters the apartment.

Both Mary and Bill stand and face the door. Bill portrays a tense and apprehensive attitude. Mary begins to fade back from the impending confrontation.

Father: (Very agitated) "What are you doing in my house?"

Son: "Dad, I want to come home."

Father: "You have some nerve coming here, after what you have done! What do you expect from me? All day I work hard to support

my family and what does my son do in return? He spits in my face! He gives me no respect at all, and to top it off he tries to kill me and then runs away without facing me like a man."

Son: "Dad! You've got to let me explain, please, at least talk to me."

Father: "Son, I have done all the talking that needs to be done. I don't want you in my house. I worked hard to give you a good education, and what happens? You play hooky and don't do your work. I have told you time and again you got to go to school and get an education. But no - Mister Smart Guy, he knows it all. Don't want to listen to his father and thinks he can make it on the street. Well, I am through. You get out of my house and stay out."

Son: "Please listen, dad. I can't make it out there and I need your help."

Father: "Go back where you were staying. Your older sister can take care of you. Maybe she can understand you better than I can."

Son: "Becoming emotionally upset) (CRYING)
"I'm sorry, dad, I didn't want to hurt you, I just wanted to scare you. I was sorry after I did it, and I ran away because I was afraid you would beat me. The only reason I played hooky was to get back at you."

Father: (HIGHLY AGITATED)

"No son of mine is going to hurt me and get away with it. If you don't leave I'm going to put you out, even if I have to go to jail for beating my own son."

Sister: (Off to the side, dials phone to call police. She portrays fears that father will hurt son).

Dialogue:

Sister: "Hello, police? This is Mary Jones, could you send the police to 115 Oak Street, Apt. 4, my father and brother are having a fight?"

(Sister hangs up the phone)

Sister: "Stop this arguing or somebody will get hurt. I called the cops."

Father: "Well, those cops better get here soon, because if he don't leave, I'm going to throw him out."

(Sister places herself between father and son)

Sister "Don't do it, dad, let the cops come and take Billy out! You will hurt him if you do it."

(At this point bell rings and sister runs to admit police officers to the apartment)

End of dialogue-statement and reactions of players should now be based on questions and methods used by officers in intervention.

INSTRUCTORS GUIDE TO INTERVENTION

Based on prior instruction on family dispute intervention, the instructor should review the following points about the intervention:

- 1) General approach to the confrontation.
- 2) Method of taking control:
 - a. Did they properly separate the disputants to calm the situation?
 - b. If physical contact was used to separate participants, was it necessary?
If so, why or could it have been accomplished verbally?
- 3) During intervention, did officers get sufficient information to give a proper evaluation to the problems which existed?
- 4) How did disputants respond to the intervention?
- 5) Did officer change method to fit situation?
- 6) How was the officers mediation accepted by the disputants?
 - a. Did they establish communication?
 - b. Were they satisfied, reluctant or dissatisfied with the officers?

FAMILY DISPUTE SKIT #2

ALCOHOLIC

Introduction

Actors

- Wife - Ann, female - 42 years old.
Husband - Charles, male 44 years old, alcoholic.

Notes to Actors on role they should project:

Charles - The role to be portrayed is one of an alcoholic, consisting of a man who, although well-educated, is very weak-willed and has married a woman who is very domineering and constantly degrades his character. Charles' mother was also a domineering person and because of his life with his mother, he developed a personality which drew him to a similar type person in his courtships and eventual marriage.

Charles must be portrayed as a very weak-willed and subservient type who will go along with anything that is said and may have sacrificed his manhood and position as head of family as a price for his continued drinking and alcoholic state.

Charles should be shown as a person who will fully resist or argue matters with his wife, but will quickly give in or is easily overcome by authoritative and dominating rebuttal. He is a man who is very hesitant in making positive statements in the presence of his wife.

Ann - This is a person who is very forceful and dominating in her actions and conversation. Ann must be portrayed as a person who is unbending and difficult to communicate with. She should be portrayed as a person who takes delight in controlling her husband. Although she appears to want to help her husband, in actuality she is aiding his alcoholic condition by such acts as providing liquor. In her role with the police officers, she should maintain her unyielding attitude and continued insistence on her husband's removal from the apartment.

Although Ann will listen to officer's suggestions, she will find some fault with these suggestions and try to implement her own so as to keep control of officers and her husband.

SKIT # 2

Time: 6:00 P.M., Monday

Place: Living Room of Apartment

Scene: Charles is asleep on living room chair; he has been drinking. Wife Ann, returning from work finds Charles asleep and wakes him up.

Ann: "Wake up, Charles."

Charles: (In waking stupor) "Oh! Hi, honey, how was work today?"

Ann: "Same as usual. How did you make out at the employment agency? Was the man able to find you a job?"

Charles: "No! It didn't work out too well."

Ann: "What do you mean it didn't work out?"

Charles: "The man at the agency said that the position was filled."

Ann: "Well, couldn't he find you anything else?"

Charles: "Yes, but I didn't like the type of positions available."

Ann: (Becoming agitated) "Any kind of job would have been good enough, Charles. You know we need the money, no

matter how little. Or maybe you think you're too good to work." (Pause) By the way, were you drinking before you went there?"

Charles: "Well I needed one or two, to steady my nerves."

Ann: "You sure it was one or two? From your looks, I would say you drank a full bottle. In fact, I am not sure you even went there."

Charles: "Baby, I swear that I went."

Ann: "Oh, what's the use? You wouldn't last on any job anyway. You can't stay off the damn booze for an hour anyway. I'll bet you never made it past the liquor store."

Charles: (Sitting with a guilty expression on his face)

Ann: "You see I'm right. I can't let you do anything on your own. I'll bet you took the \$5.00 I left you for carfare and lunch and bought a bottle. (Pause) You are nothing but a filthy drunk and you haven't got the guts to kick it. If I didn't work and take care of you, you would be out in the street with the rest of the bums. Well, I am sick and tired of taking care of a damn bum who won't work and be a man. I'm finished being your wet nurse. You're getting your clothes and leaving this house tonight."

Charles: "Ann, you can't put me out, where will I go? I haven't any money and you know without money I won't be able to stay any place."

Ann: "What happened to the money I left you this morning?"

Did I tell you to drink it up?

Charles: (Getting worried) "Listen! I promise you that tomorrow morning I'll go to the employment agency and take any job they offer me, but don't put me out in the street."

Ann: "It won't work this time, Charles. You've used me for the last time, and all your pleading and sobbing won't change my mind: You're going! I hope you had a good sleep in the chair."

Charles (Getting emotional - sobbing) "Please, baby, give me another chance. I'll straighten out and do my part. I'll go to bed and get up early tomorrow."

Ann: "You're going nowhere but out the door. If I have a baby I want him in diapers. I don't need an infant like you around. Go get some clothes and stay with one of your cronies."

Charles: "Ann I can't leave, please don't do this to me."

Ann: (Going to telephone) "Well, maybe I'll get you an escort. The cops will help carry you down the stairs, (Ann on phone) "Hello, police. Will you send an officer to 123 Meadow Street, Apt. 7, and do something with my drunken husband?"

Charles: "I don't care what they think. Try putting on your sad crying act for them. Maybe they'll let you sleep over at the station house. (Ha-Ha -Ann laughing) But don't wet the bed, or they will throw you out, too."

Charles: (Sobbing) "Ann, please don't do this to me."

Ann: (Bell rings) "Here comes your moving men. Wait until they see the shape of you." (Ann goes to door and admits police officers).

END OF DIALOGUE

INSTRUCTORS GUIDE TO INTERVENTION IN SKIT # 2

This skit could well lead to a feeling of frustration on the part of the intervening officers. They are confronting a woman who gives the impression of having a low regard for the male sex in general. She could easily lead the officers into a "side-taking" situation. This can happen to the experienced officer as well as the recruit. A solution to this dispute may be difficult and possibly long in coming. As can be seen, the control person is the wife and a premature opinion of her behavior and attitude could lead to an opening of the door for the officers to become personally involved in a way that could be most unfavorable to themselves and the Department.

We are dealing with two people who have been living along the same patterns for many years: The alcoholic, who needs constant support and domination, and the wife, who is the one who needs to be around such persons as an alcoholic or a person with masochistic tendencies, because of her controlling personality. In the event of what seems to be an unsuccessful solution to this dispute, it would be well to advise the recruit officers involved that they have not failed. The problems of alcoholism are with us as police officers. Highly trained persons have not been able to solve the problems of alcoholism. At best, the police officer can only temporarily curtail the pitiful conditions that exist with the alcoholic.

FAMILY DISTURBANCE SKIT #3

NARCOTIC ADDICTION

Actors

Wife -- Sarah Marlboro, female, 23 years old, unemployed, victim of drug addiction.

Husband-- Roger Marlboro, male, 25 years old, sergeant, U.S. Army, home only on weekends, Vietnam veteran with 4 years of service.

Grandmother --Margaret Smith, female, 60 years old, seamstress.

Son -- Steven, male, 5 years old, not present.

Baby Son- 17 months old, not shown.

Notes to Actors on role they should project:

Wife - This girl should be portrayed as a drug user with typical addict mannerisms and apathy who will have very little interest in the welfare of her children and her role as a wife and mother. She will be full of guile and deceit. All of her answers to questions will be hazy and she will utilize a constant stream of excuses to cover up her addiction and overall behavior at this stage.

FOOTNOTE: (Mother of boy 5 years, and a 17 month old baby)

Husband - The sergeant's role must be one of primary concern for one of the children, whose natural father he is. He tolerates the young baby, but depends on the grandmother to take his wife's place in rearing the children. In this skit he will be easily angered by his wife's general appearance and behavior.

Grandmother- She is a good, hard-working woman who loves her grandchildren and her daughter and son-in-law. However, she is caught in a situation where she is finding it difficult to cope with her daughter and the care and up-bringing of her grandchildren. She realizes that something concrete must be done if the family is to regain its stature and normal functioning. She reluctantly concedes that outside help is needed for reaching a desired solution. She will be the most responsive to the police intervention.

CHARACTER PORTRAYALS UPON ARRIVAL OF INTERVENING OFFICERS

- Wife - Sarah will appear indifferent to presence of police officers. She will be uncooperative in a passive and respectful way. She won't give any opinions they would tend to make her look responsible for the entire situation. She actually feels that she is not a wayward wife or bad mother at all.
- Husband - Roger will tend to be cooperative with the officers because of his military training and apparent respect for the police. However, in his present frame of mind he could be aroused by an unconcerned approach by police officers. He feels that he has no responsibility concerning the condition of his wife, and will react if questioned as to his possible failure to obtain help previously.
- Grandmother- Mrs. Smith is the person who is to gain or lose the most from this situation. She is relying on the police officers to come up with a workable solution to her problems (mainly, the care of her grandchildren and the treatment of her daughter). She will be the most cooperative to the police, and will offer information without being asked. She has a high regard for the police and their function in her city.

DIALOGUE

Scene: Grandmother's apartment - living room.

Time: About 2:00 P.M. on a Friday.

Husband - Sergeânt Marlboro entering apartment on a weekend pass.

Grandmother - Sitting on living room chair.

Roger - "Hi, mom! What are you doing home at this hour? Don't you work on Friday?"

Grandmother - "Oh! I took the day off."

Roger - "What's the matter, don't you feel well?"

Grandmother - "I feel all right."

Roger - "Mom, are you that rich, that you don't need the money?"

Grandmother - "Well, to be truthful Roger, I couldn't get a baby-sitter for the little one."

Roger - "Why should you need a baby-sitter for this kid? Where's Sarah? It's her kid, and she should be home taking care of him."

Grandmother - "I haven't seen my daughter in two days. She must be off on a kick again: And God knows, what else she's up to."

Roger - "Do you have any idea when she will be coming home?"

Grandmother - "I don't know, but she's always managed to get here before you get home for the weekend. I she knew you would be home on a Friday; I think she would have been here."

Roger - "How long has this been going on?"

Grandmother - "Don't act so dumb, Roger. You know that Sarah is on junk and plays around. That child is a good example, isn't he?"

Roger - "Yeah! But she has been here every weekend I am home."

Grandmother - "When you go back to the base on Sunday she takes off, and leaves the baby for me to care for. If it weren't for Mrs. Jones taking care of Steven, I would have the two children to worry about. It's getting harder for me to work and take care of the baby without any help. You and that daughter of mine better do something about this situation, I can't take much more of it."

Roger - (Getting angry for being put on the spot)
"You're damn right: Something's going to be done, when that bitch gets here. I'll fix her..."

P A U S E

Scene: Daughter enters apartment and shows a surprised expression at finding her husband home. She is partially under the influence of drugs. She is in a passive and non-aggressive state.

Sarah - "How come you've home on Friday, Roger?"

Roger - "I can see that you don't expect to see me."

Sarah - "I went shopping this morning, and had a few drinks with a girlfriend."

Roger - "Since when have they been putting booze in hypo needles? You're high on drugs, you whore, don't lie to me!"

Sarah - "No! I told you; I'm off the stuff."

Roger - "Sure! Just like you were such a faithful wife when I was overseas. You saved nothing of your allotment, and had to sell yourself for the price of a fix. You're just a part in the parade of tramps."

Grandmother - (Becoming worried for fear of violence on the part of Roger) "Please, Roger, don't talk to Sarah that way. Maybe we can help her to change."

Roger - "Help her to change! How can we help her if she won't try to help herself."

Sarah - "It wasn't that way, Roger. I was really worried about you being over in Vietnam; that's why I got hooked."

Roger - "Did you get hooked on men, too? You were so worried about me that you got yourself knocked-up. I wasn't alone over there, and other guys wives aren't junkies. I'm sick of your damn excuses, I don't want to listen to them anymore."

Sarah - "Please try and understand, Roger."

Roger - "Understand! Are you kidding? Look what you've done to you own mother. You took her possessions from the house; you left your child for her to take care of and have Steven sent to a neighbor. I ought to break you damn neck; we would all be better off."

Sarah - (In passive answer) "If that's going to make you happy, go ahead."

Grandmother - "Roger, I'm going to call the police, we've got to get help for Sarah."

Roger - (Reluctantly) "Mom, if you think that they will be able to help, go ahead, I've had it!"

Grandmother - (Gets on the phone and dials) "Officer, would you send someone to 892 Pine Avenue, Apt. 21. I am having trouble with my daughter (pause) Thank you."

END OF DIALOGUE

INSTRUCTORS GUIDE TO INTERVENTION

For your information (the case as actually handled) the following was accomplished by the officers:

Based on information gotten mainly from the grandmother, a contact was made with Department of Social Services who set up emergency assistance for caring for the baby and began investigating other ways of helping this family.

During the actual intervention, the officers were successful in calming the husband and getting his cooperation for outside help. The wife's passive attitude made it difficult for officers to help her. But it was hoped that her mother and the social agency would get proper treatment for her.

FAMILY DISTURBANCE SKIT # 4

GENERAL DISPUTE - HUSBAND AND WIFE

Actors

Husband - Walter Scott, male, 26 years old, Salesman.

Wife - Louise Scott, female, 24 years old, Technician.

Note to Actors on role they should project:

Husband - Dominant and forceful, very confident in his ability. He will give hints that he gets along with the women even though married. He will project an attitude of a man whose interests and likes lie outside his marriage. He will give the impression that he was pushed into this union by a premarital pregnancy. Toward police officers, he will be very responsive and respectful. He will attempt to have the officers respond favorably to his position.

Wife - Disposition similar to husband in that she also has her major interest outside the home, although she will portray a more responsive person, who endeavors to keep the household functioning properly. She will show a disgust with her husband's constantly reminding her that she forced him into this marriage, and his attitude that she should pay the expenses connected with the household, while he blows his money.

DIALOGUE

Scene: Kitchen of Apartment

Time: About 8:10 A.M.

Position of

Actors: Wife sitting at kitchen table having coffee.

Husband: Entering apartment after being out all night is greeted by his wife with a scowl on her face.

Walter: "What are you doing up so early?"

Louise: "I'm waiting for my playboy to come home."

Walter: "What do you mean "playboy"? I called from the office last night and told you I had to entertain some out-of-town customers."

Louise: "As far as I know, lover, New York entertainment goes beddy - bye at 4:00 A.M. in the morning."

Walter: "Well, you know how it goes, Louise. After we got them back to the hotel, they insisted we come to the room for a few drinks'. Before I knew it, the sun was coming up."

Louise: "You always have a story ready for me."

Walter: "What story? You know it's part of my job. You'd think you would be happy that I'm trying to get ahead."

Louise: "Were they women you were entertaining? You seem to have enjoyed the evening."

Walter: "No! NO! They were buyers from St. Louis."

Louise: "Yeah! Who paid the bill? You or the Company?"

Walter: "I had to pick up the tab, but my expense account will take care of that."

Louise: "Well, I got a lot of expenses too, but no expense account! (Pause) "When do you get this expense account, twice a year? I haven't seen any money from this so-called expense account. In fact, out rent is past due, with some other bills and I can't cover them myself."

Walter: "Well, how much do you need from me?"

Louise: "I need at least \$100.00, and that won't cover the food bill either."

Walter: "I'll give you \$50.00 now, that's all I can spare. The tab was big last night."

Louise: "That's you, Walter. Real generous with your friends, but the baby and I are on our own."

Walter: "What do you mean you and the baby? You're doing all right for yourself. You're managing to see your "friends" often enough."

Louise: "What: Am I supposed to be, housebound? You never take me anywhere."

Walter: "From the shape of the house you're far from a shut-in! Did you stay home last night or were you bouncing with your friends?"

Louise: "I was home all night!"

Walter: "That's why you're mad: You had to stay home with the baby."

Louise: "It's your baby also, Walter!"

Walter: "I know that, Louise. You never stop reminding me about the baby."

Louise: "You talk like you were forced into this, Walter."

Walter: "Well, I had to do the right thing and give the baby a name."

Louise: "Oh, look! A knight in shining armor."

Walter: "Well, I sure as hell wouldn't be here if it wasn't for the baby."

Louise: "Well, your love-making screwed up my social life too. In fact, if I'm such a burden to you, why don't you get the hell out of here? If you support the baby, I can manage by myself."

Walter: "Sure, that's just what you want, plenty of room to entertain and it wouldn't be long before there would be another little mouth to feed."

Louise: (Picking up a cup and throwing it at Walter)
"You rotten bastard, get out of this house!"

Walter: "This is my house, too, I'll stay as long as
I want."

Louise: "The apartment and rent receipts are in my
name. I'll call the cops and get rid of you."

Walter: (Laughing) "Go ahead, call the cops."
I'll wait downstairs for them."

Louise: "Yeah! Well you better wait for them -
because you won't get back in without them."

Walter: "Well, we'll see about that!"

Louise: (Dials the police and asks for a radio car)

Walter: (Upon hearing that police are responding goes
downstairs to await their arrival).

END OF DIALOGUE

CONTINUED

2 OF 4

INSTRUCTORS GUIDE TO INTERVENTION

In the actual case the officers found that both participants were looking for a way out of the marriage and lacked maturity to accept their state. The mediation consisted of a referral to an appropriate agency for separation proceedings.

Both participants will attempt to get officers to side with them. The officers ability to remain objective in gathering facts, to control the conversation and not let participants control the scene is important. Both actors will be very positive and play-up to the officers. The officer's will have to work hard to pick through this facade and root out the actual feelings.

APPENDIX 2

PERFORMANCE EVALUATION SYSTEM

Arrests as dispositions of family disturbance calls decrease dramatically when police officers are trained in improved alternative techniques for handling domestic crisis. Accordingly, a performance evaluation system is needed that recognizes and rewards the officer's abilities to resolve these problems without resorting to arrests. The following performance evaluation system accomplishes these goals.

These sheets and excerpts from an evaluation guide are taken from the Full Service Evaluation System used by the New York Police Department.

Pages 2-3 and 2-4 comprise the form for rating officers on eleven factors. The rating on each of these factors is determined by first analyzing the officer in terms of several subfactors which are detailed in the adjoining pages.

STANDARDS

APPEARANCE

Consider the impression this officer makes on people by his/her personal neatness, hygiene, weight, dress and bearing. Is this officer physically fit?

COMMUNICATION SKILL

Consider this officer's effectiveness in discussion and expression in person-to-person or group interactions. Is this officer an attentive listener? Does he/she express ideas in writing with facility?

COMMUNITY RELATIONS

Consider the extent of this police officer's involvement with the community. Is this officer knowledgeable of the cultural aspects of the community and sensitive to its needs? Does this officer try to integrate police and community goals?

HUMAN RELATIONS — IMPARTIALITY

Consider if this individual is friendly, tactful and empathetic to people regardless of their ethnic, religious, racial or cultural background. Does this officer evoke a positive response from people by offering equal service to all?

JUDGEMENT— DECISION MAKING

Are all available factors weighed before judgements are made? Are decisions based on a correct assessment of available facts?

POLICE ETHICS

Consider the extent to which this individual can be relied upon to adhere to the Department's policy on ethics. Is this officer's attitude toward such policy professionally oriented?

SELF-IMAGE

Does this individual consider himself/herself a professional by demonstrating a positive attitude toward work and placing a special value on it? Does this officer possess professional self-confidence in dealing with others?

SERVICE-ORIENTED

Is this individual concerned with giving service to the victim and complainant and is this officer respectful and responsive to them? Does this officer derive job satisfaction from public service by going out of his/her way to be helpful and extending efforts beyond procedural boundaries? Is this individual person-oriented?

STABILITY— FLEXIBILITY

Consider the way this individual acts in times of crises. Is this officer able to control the situation? Does this officer adapt to different circumstances, or is this individual rigid in his/her approach? The rater is required to comment as to the individual's overall behavior in enforcement and regulatory situations as well as his/her use of appropriate and justifiable force.

STREET KNOWLEDGE

Does this officer possess adequate street knowledge to perform as a service-oriented police officer/detective? Is this individual adept at quickly sizing up situations and taking appropriate action? Is this officer able to recognize police problems in their incipiency and to take corrective action before they become major problems?

WORK ANALYSIS

Consider this individual's interactions and interventions with people on service calls. Assess this officer's investigative skill and analyze the quality of his/her arrest activity.

WELL ABOVE STANDARDS	ABOVE STANDARDS	MEETS STANDARDS	BELOW STANDARDS	WELL BELOW STANDARDS
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**DIMENSIONS FOR
POLICE OFFICER
AND
DETECTIVE**

APPEARANCE

- Is the manner of this officer's dress appropriate for the requirements of the present assignment? 5 4 3 2 1
- Does this individual's appearance give an immediate impression of a professional police officer? 5 4 3 2 1
- Does this officer's bearing elicit a positive response from the public? 5 4 3 2 1
- Does this officer's appearance reflect a positive self image and pride? 5 4 3 2 1
- Is this officer properly uniformed? (see Department Manual Procedure 105-1 through 7) 5 4 3 2 1
- Are this individual's uniforms and equipment clean and serviceable? 5 4 3 2 1
- Measure this officer's personal appearance, personal hygiene, weight, hair style. (see personal appearance guide chart) 5 4 3 2 1
- Is this individual physically fit? 5 4 3 2 1

COMMUNICATION SKILLS

Does this individual express ideas with clarity, poise and relevance?	5 4 3 2 1
Is this individual empathetic when speaking to people on a person to person basis?	5 4 3 2 1
Is this officer tactful in dealing with others?	5 4 3 2 1
Does this individual have the verbal ability to reduce tension through persuasion?	5 4 3 2 1
Does this officer have the verbal ability to express authority and allay fears?	5 4 3 2 1
Does this individual effectively express himself/herself in group interactions?	5 4 3 2 1
Is this individual able to communicate his/her point of view to others?	5 4 3 2 1
Does this individual maintain open lines of communication with other police personnel by exchanging information with them whenever possible?	5 4 3 2 1
Does this individual listen to what others say and extract relevant information?	5 4 3 2 1
Are this officer's written reports complete, concise, accurate and qualitative?	5 4 3 2 1
In preparing reports, does this individual comply with Department procedure?	5 4 3 2 1

COMMUNITY RELATIONS

- Is this individual aware of the cultural background of the community? 5 4 3 2 1
- Is this officer aware of and sensitive to the various existent groups? (e.g. religious, fraternal, racial, etc.) 5 4 3 2 1
- Does this individual know the community leaders and have an awareness of their needs and their aspirations? 5 4 3 2 1
- Does this individual have an insight into the incipient problems that may affect a community? 5 4 3 2 1
- Is this individual positively involved with the community he/she serves? 5 4 3 2 1
- Is this individual concerned with the response of the public to him/her? 5 4 3 2 1
- Does this officer's performance and interaction with the public reflect favorably on the image of the police within the community? 5 4 3 2 1
- Has this individual developed a knowledge of community resources and does this officer make serious referrals? 5 4 3 2 1
- Is this officer concerned with and supportive of the youth in the area? (e.g. incipient delinquency, neglected children, etc.) 5 4 3 2 1
- Does this officer give community "feedback" to superiors? 5 4 3 2 1
- Does this individual coordinate service efforts with the Community Affairs Police Officer? 5 4 3 2 1

HUMAN RELATIONS — IMPARTIALITY

- In interacting with the public, does this officer empathize with its plight by being friendly, tactful and humane? 5 4 3 2 1
- Does this officer try to look at things from the other party's point of view? 5 4 3 2 1
- Does this officer give people adequate time to explain their problems? 5 4 3 2 1
- Do people respond well to this officer's actions and are they generally satisfied with this individual's handling of situations? 5 4 3 2 1
- Is this officer able to give consolation and emotional support to people in times of crises? 5 4 3 2 1
- Does this individual allow people a chance to ventilate their feelings in order to relieve tension? 5 4 3 2 1
- When possible, does this officer try to explain or give a rationale to people before taking action in order not to appear arbitrary? 5 4 3 2 1
- Does this individual use persuasion rather than authority realizing he/she can always fall back on authority to gain compliance? 5 4 3 2 1
- Does this officer recognize impartiality as part of being a professional? 5 4 3 2 1
- Does this individual offer equal service to "all" people predicated on need regardless of ethnic or racial background, economic class, sex or status? 5 4 3 2 1

Is this officer sensitive to the human rights of individuals?	5 4 3 2 1
Does this individual recognize stereotyping as a shortcoming?	5 4 3 2 1
Does this officer avoid a condescending or contemptuous attitude?	5 4 3 2 1
Does this officer maintain a favorable relationship with other police personnel by being cooperative whenever possible?	5 4 3 2 1

JUDGEMENT — DECISION MAKING

Does this officer avail himself/herself of all possible relevant information before making a decision?	5 4 3 2 1
Are decisions and actions in accord with command policies and concerned with community response?	5 4 3 2 1
Does this officer consider alternatives and implications of actions? (e.g. use of deadly physical force)	5 4 3 2 1
Is this individual able to establish correct priorities?	5 4 3 2 1
Are this officer's decisions logically sound, as opposed to emotional or impulsive?	5 4 3 2 1
Is this officer able to integrate his/her decisions with those of peers and supervisors in order to coordinate his/her functions with command goals?	5 4 3 2 1
Can this individual make decisions under stress?	5 4 3 2 1

Does this officer assimilate information readily permitting him/her to get to the crux of matters quickly?	5 4 3 2 1
Does this individual make decisions within a reasonable time?	5 4 3 2 1
Is this officer's judgement exercised with the welfare of the people involved as the primary concern?	5 4 3 2 1
Is this officer able to exercise restraint?	5 4 3 2 1
Does this individual use discretion in making arrests?	5 4 3 2 1
Is this police officer able to make firm decisions despite past errors?	5 4 3 2 1

POLICE ETHICS

Does this officer actively support Department policy?	5 4 3 2 1
Does this officer view police ethics as an essential ingredient of professionalism?	5 4 3 2 1
Does this individual's deportment and performance reflect a high level of integrity?	5 4 3 2 1
Is this individual willing to be unpopular among peers in order to adhere to positive principles?	5 4 3 2 1
Is this individual aware that cynicism has a negative effect on ethical standards and work performance?	5 4 3 2 1
Is this individual loyal?	5 4 3 2 1
Can this officer be relied upon to fill sensitive positions?	5 4 3 2 1

SELF IMAGE

Does this officer value and take pride in his/her work as a police officer?	5 4 3 2 1
Does this individual's department suggest an officer who possesses self-assurance and who is not easily threatened or antagonized?	5 4 3 2 1
Is this individual's self-assurance clearly demonstrated by performance?	5 4 3 2 1
Is this officer a willing worker?	5 4 3 2 1
Does this individual display proper attitudes in all work contacts?	5 4 3 2 1
Is this officer a self-motivator requiring a minimum of supervision?	5 4 3 2 1
Does this individual have confidence in his/her own ability?	5 4 3 2 1
Is this officer willing to take reasonable risks?	5 4 3 2 1
Is this officer's self-image in line with reality?	5 4 3 2 1

SERVICE-ORIENTED

Is this individual's general outlook geared to providing service to the public?	5 4 3 2 1
Does this individual go out of his/her way to give assistance to the public?	5 4 3 2 1
Does this officer place a high priority on public satisfaction?	5 4 3 2 1
Is this individual aware of the needs and feelings of the people he/she services?	5 4 3 2 1
Is this officer effective in attempting to address these needs once they are recognized?	5 4 3 2 1
Is this officer aware of various service agencies available to help people in need?	5 4 3 2 1
Does this individual answer service calls and complaints with dispatch?	5 4 3 2 1
Does this officer give respect to get respect?	5 4 3 2 1
Does this individual place a positive emphasis on the personal treatment of citizens?	5 4 3 2 1

STABILITY AND FLEXIBILITY

Is this officer a stable individual?	5 4 3 2 1
Is this officer able to maintain control in incidences of stress?	5 4 3 2 1
Is this individual able to control his/her emotions?	5 4 3 2 1
Is this officer mature enough to withstand verbal abuse?	5 4 3 2 1
Does this officer employ necessary force when appropriate but only as a last resort?	5 4 3 2 1
Does this officer engage in enforcement activity (arrest and summonses) in accordance with Department and local command policies rather than as a personal action?	5 4 3 2 1
How does this officer react to unforeseen events?	5 4 3 2 1
Can this individual adapt to changing circumstances?	5 4 3 2 1
Is this individual able to adapt his/her approach to attain objectives?	5 4 3 2 1

STREET KNOWLEDGE

- Is this individual aware of the criminal hazards and other conditions that exist in his/her assigned area? 5 4 3 2 1
- Does this individual direct service efforts toward these hazards and conditions? 5 4 3 2 1
- Is this officer able to perceive potential police hazards and to act against them before they become actual hazards? 5 4 3 2 1
- Is this individual able to separate the usual from the unusual in recognizing hazards in his/her assigned area? 5 4 3 2 1
- Does this officer have an immediate and instinctive perception of police street conditions? 5 4 3 2 1
- Does this officer have a grasp of patrol techniques and is this individual innovative in their application? 5 4 3 2 1
- Is this officer versatile in his/her patrol function effectively handling a variety of situations? (crime, traffic conditions, vice, lost children, etc.) 5 4 3 2 1
- Does this officer patrol in an intelligent manner directing his/her efforts toward command priorities and utilizing slow service periods for secondary functions? 5 4 3 2 1
- Does this officer intelligently respond to the scene of crimes and emergency situations? (e.g. respond without siren in burglary cases and respond with caution in emergency situations?) 5 4 3 2 1
- Is this individual able to defuse potential arrest situations? 5 4 3 2 1
- By effective action, does this officer eliminate the need to make certain arrests? 5 4 3 2 1

**STREET KNOWLEDGE
DETECTIVE — INVESTIGATOR**

- Is this individual aware of the criminal hazards and other conditions that exist in his/her assigned area? 5 4 3 2 1
- Does this individual direct service efforts toward correcting these hazards and conditions? 5 4 3 2 1
- Is this officer able to perceive potential police hazards and to act against them before they become actual hazards? 5 4 3 2 1
- Is this officer able to separate the usual from the unusual in recognizing hazards in his/her assigned area? 5 4 3 2 1
- Does this officer have an immediate and instinctive perception of police street conditions? 5 4 3 2 1
- Does this officer have a grasp for investigative techniques and is this individual innovative in their application? 5 4 3 2 1
- Is this officer versatile in the investigative function effectively handling a variety of investigations? 5 4 3 2 1
- Is this officer adept at recognizing evidence and is this individual able to assure its validity through a proper chain of control? 5 4 3 2 1
- Is this individual able to develop sources of information in the community? 5 4 3 2 1
- By effective action, does this officer eliminate the need to make certain arrests? 5 4 3 2 1

WORK ANALYSIS

Does this individual consider service as a most important part of the job? 5 4 3 2 1

Does this officer respond as quickly as possible to service calls? 5 4 3 2 1

Is this officer knowledgeable of the various social agencies which he/she can refer people for assistance? 5 4 3 2 1

Are this officer's interactions and interventions with the public on service calls received favorably? 5 4 3 2 1

Is this individual aware of all the sources of information available? (e.g. internal and external indices — preliminary investigation) 5 4 3 2 1

Is this individual able to develop sources of information in the community? 5 4 3 2 1

Does this individual analyze data and assemble facts and information with accuracy and an attention to detail? (preliminary investigation) 5 4 3 2 1

Is this individual persistent in pursuing his/her investigations and ensuring justice to the best of his/her ability? 5 4 3 2 1

Is this officer aware of Department policies and procedures? 5 4 3 2 1

Does this individual have a knowledge of the law and does this individual apply the spirit of the law? 5 4 3 2 1

Arrest analysis

Quantity (see T.O.P. 165 s.72) 5 4 3 2 1

Quality 5 4 3 2 1

Case preparation and court presentation (see Interim Order #22 s.73) 5 4 3 2 1

Overall assessment of arrest activity 5 4 3 2 1

WORK ANALYSIS DETECTIVE

- Does this individual consider service as a most important part of the job? 5 4 3 2 1.
- Does this individual handle investigations promptly and thoroughly? 5 4 3 2 1
- Is this officer knowledgeable of the various social agencies to which he/she can refer people for assistance? 5 4 3 2 1
- On investigative calls with the public, does this individual make a serious effort to ameliorate the situation by making appropriate referrals? 5 4 3 2 1
- Are this individual's interactions and interventions with the public on service calls favorably received? 5 4 3 2 1
- Does this individual organize work well? 5 4 3 2 1
- Does this individual tie fragmented information together and assimilate pertinent data developed internally and externally (outside agencies)? 5 4 3 2 1
- Does the individual analyze data and assemble facts and information with accuracy and an attention to detail? 5 4 3 2 1
- Is this individual persistent in pursuing his/her investigations and ensuring justice to the best of his/her ability? (e.g. alert to the possibility of false identification of perpetrator) 5 4 3 2 1
- Is this individual aware of all the sources of information available (e.g. internal and external indices)? 5 4 3 2 1
- Does this individual elicit and develop pertinent information from witnesses, complainants and suspects through his/her skill as an interviewer? 5 4 3 2 1

Is this individual able to seek out and develop sources of information? 5 4 3 2 1

Is this officer aware of court decisions affecting his/her functions as an investigator and does this individual maintain the standards set by the court? (e.g. Miranda and Wade cases) 5 4 3 2 1

Does this individual have a knowledge of the law and does this officer apply the spirit of the law? 5 4 3 2 1

WORK ANALYSIS DETECTIVE

Is this individual aware of Department policies and procedures? 5 4 3 2 1

Arrest Analysis

Quantity 5 4 3 2 1

Assigned cases cleared by arrest* 5 4 3 2 1

Pick-up cases of arrest 5 4 3 2 1

Quality 5 4 3 2 1

Case preparation and court presentation 5 4 3 2 1

Overall assessment of arrest activity 5 4 3 2 1

*Arrests need not be made by the assigned detective. Arrests by other commands on assigned cases will also be considered. Inter-command cooperation in disseminating information should be encouraged in achieving the goal of clearing assigned cases.



APPENDIX 3

ROLE PLAYS WITH SMALL GROUPS

Role Plays With Small Groups.

This technique is applicable wherever you have a large group that can be broken up into 4 or less groups with around 10 members.

Description:

Role play with small groups as a simulated Family Dispute exercise is a training technique in which the trainees are asked to draw on their own experiences to prepare plays for spontaneous intervention by fellow trainees. The roles are played by members of the group. The group also is responsible for moderating the discussion after each role play.

Goals:

- (1) Provides a situation where the trainees participate in the development of training for their own learning.
- (2) Allows participants to experience an intervention as if they were a disputant.
- (3) Allows officers to practice intervention techniques.
- (4) Provides examples of different types of intervention situations the officers may encounter in the field.

Instructions for the Trainers:

(Careful preparation is the most crucial factor in doing successful role plays).

- (1) Divide the trainees into groups of ten or less.

(2) Instruct the groups. (See attached sample instruction sheet for group members). In addition instruct the group as to the kind of dispute you wish them to prepare, i.e., husband-wife, parent-child, common-law lockout situation, etc.

(3) Clear up any questions the group may have regarding the instructions.

Options for Use:

(1) Video-Tape: Video-tape replay can be used very effectively when the group is discussing the intervention. For this purpose the role play should be taped as it is done. The moderator then can have the tape played back and stopped wherever a point is to be made.

(2) Different aspects of the intervention: You may want to use role play to demonstrate different aspects of the intervention such as:

- Interviewing - fact-finding
- Referral making
- Entrance to the scene, etc.

To do this, modify your instructions to the group to have them prepare just the aspect you wish to analyze. Proceed as per instructions in all other respects.

(3) General Variations:

(a) Different interventions in the same dispute:

Different officers are asked to intervene in the same role play situations - the different approaches are then compared.)

(b) Different examples of the same situations:

Different groups can be instructed to prepare similar situations for purposes of comparison.

For example: All groups are instructed to prepare a typical husband and wife dispute that occurs in _____ district of your department.

SAMPLE HANDOUT FOR
FAMILY CRISIS INTERVENTION SEMINAR

Simulated Family Dispute Exercise

Instructions: Your task during this one hour preparation period will be to design a skit in which a dispute occurs (the disputants' relationship will be designated by a trainer). Afterwards, the skit will be performed with members of your group portraying the disputants, while one or more members of another group will portray a police officer intervening in that dispute. Representatives of your group will participate in the ensuing critique.

The skit will require careful preparation for effectiveness as a learning/teaching method. We suggest you cover the following steps:

- 1) talk about cases you've known that fit the designation and select one that can be effectively portrayed and that promises to be a good learning vehicle for the audience.
- 2) discuss the personalities and situations involved. Develop characters clearly and prepare a dialogue and actions which will precede the arrival of the "police".
- 3) select group members to portray the roles.
- 4) help the actors become familiar with their roles, with what they will say and do before the "police" arrive.

5) help the actors practice and become "natural" in their roles. Discourage overacting!! It is ESSENTIAL that after the "police" arrive your actors react naturally to what the "police" do, and not according to some script.

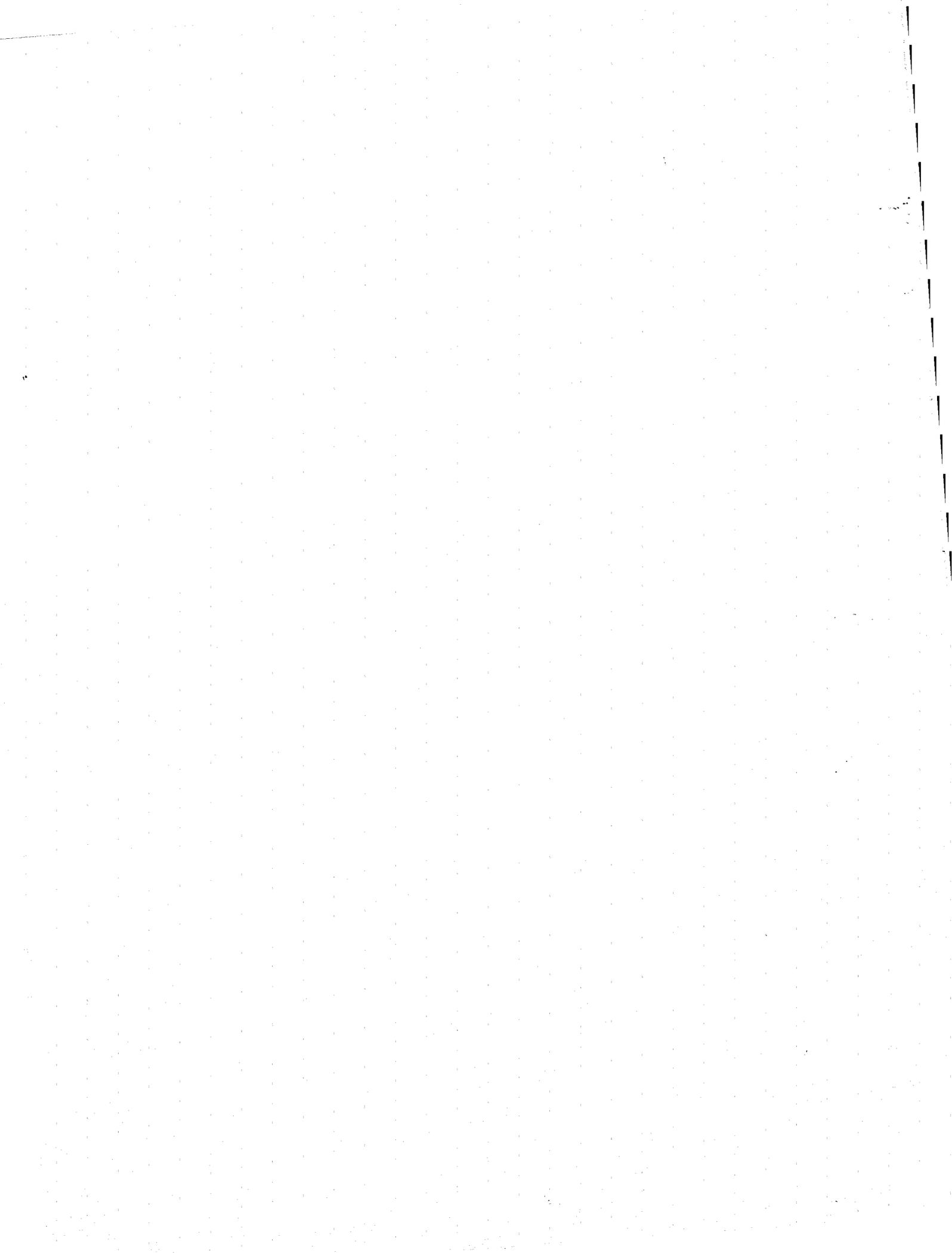
6) decide on one or two members of another group who you will designate to be the third-party police intervener(s) when you enact your skit.

Remember, when your skit is presented, your actors/actresses will have no script to follow after the intervening officer(s) arrive. They will respond to the officer(s) as they think their characters would respond.

7) decide on points the audience should consider during the critique that will follow the demonstration. Select one or two group members to lead that critique. They should raise points and questions about such matters as: the intervener(s) style: the depth and accuracy of their understanding of the dispute; the extent of the rapport established; non-verbal communications during the enactment; etc.

APPENDIX 4

GROUP DISCUSSION AND EXERCISE TECHNIQUES



GROUP DISCUSSION AND EXERCISE TECHNIQUES

Group exercises are the best way of insuring a maximum part of participation from the trainees. Group exercises can be used in a number of ways. The role play method described in this manual is a group exercise.

Group exercises have many uses. They can be used to facilitate the process of building a work, to analyze content material, to analyze individual's behavior, to make decisions, etc. Your imagination can be your guide. When designing exercises to fit your program make sure that the instructions to the group are clear, that the groups are not too large (8-12) and that the trainer is clear on the purpose for the group exercises.

There are some excellent resources that will assist the trainer in developing group experiences and that discuss the role of the trainer in groups:

Golembiewski, Robert T. & Blumberg, Arthur, Sensitivity Training and the Laboratory Approach, F. E. Peacock, Itasca, Illinois.

Do not be put off by the title. This is an excellent collection of essays by professional trainers. They deal with all aspects of the group process in intensive training programs.

University Associates, (Pfeiffer and Jones, P.O. Box 00637, San Diego, California 92138). A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training. Vol. I, II, III, and IV. (\$4.00 each)

The Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators: 1972, 1973,
and 1974 (\$17.50 each)

Together these two series are the most complete collection of practical material for use in human relations training. They contain all totalled over 100 group exercises. In addition the "Annual Handbooks" contain lectures, essays, and resources for the trainer. This material is easy to use and is adaptable to most any kind of group situation.

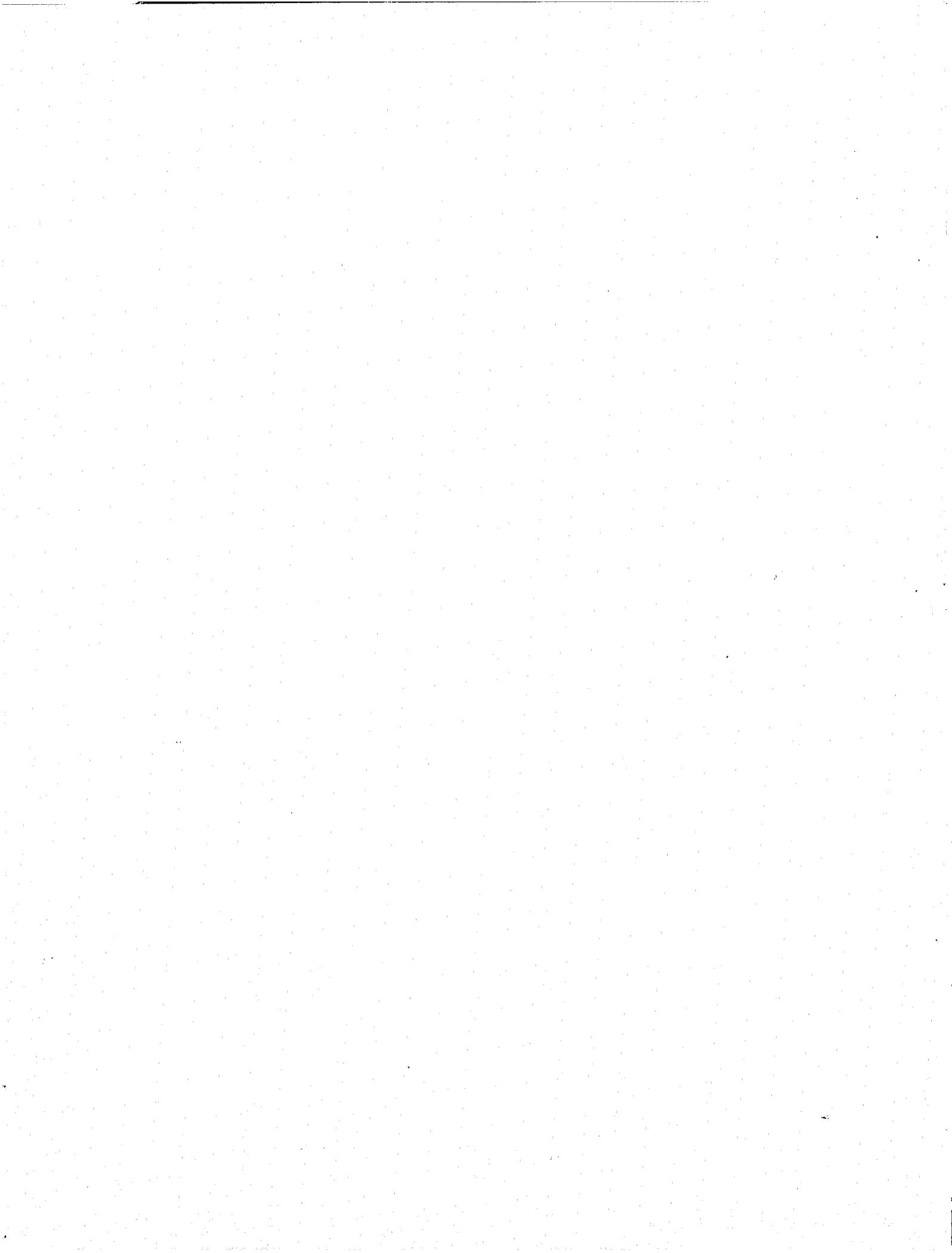
Geis, H.J., Effectively Heading a Group in the Present Moment:
A highly artistic, probabilistic and professional task if one
would bypass traditional myths about group work.
Educational Technology, 1973 (Jan. 13, pp. 76-88.)

Prince, G., Leadership for Creativity and Synectics Meeting,
Educational Opportunity Forum, 1969 (Fall) 1, (4), pp. 125-137.

(Discusses leadership techniques to reduce the barriers between leader and group members, such as rotation of leadership, creating a "brainstorming" atmosphere in which all ideas were valued, not permitting any member to be put on the defensive, etc.)

APPENDIX 5

TRAINING POLICE AS SPECIALISTS
IN FAMILY CRISIS INTERVENTION



Training Police as Specialists in Family Crisis Intervention

PR 70-1

MAY, 1970

Submitted By

**MORTON BARD, Ph.D., Project Director
Psychological Center of The City College
The City University of New York**

**This project was supported in part by OLEA Grant No. 157
awarded by the Attorney General, U.S. Department of Justice
to The City College, The City University of New York.**

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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE

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U.S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
WASHINGTON : 1970

For sale by the Superintendent, U.S. Government Printing Office
Washington, D.C. 20402 - Price 70 cents

FOREWORD

Perhaps the most difficult police function is intervention in family crisis situations. Studies have estimated that family disturbance calls are one of the leading causes of police fatalities in line of duty and account for 40 percent of the time lost due to disabilities resulting from injuries. Other studies have shown that such calls for police assistance are common to rural communities as well as to urban centers. One police official, drawing on extensive rural experience, estimates that "family fights" are second in frequency only to motor vehicle accidents as incidents involving police action.

Despite the universal frequency of family crisis situations that can and do erupt into irrational and violent events that cause criminal homicides, suicides, serious assaults, and deaths or injuries to the police, there is little evidence which shows that techniques for managing families in crisis is included in existing recruit or in-service training programs.

In cooperation with the New York City Police Department and with the support of a Law Enforcement Assistance Grant from the U. S. Department of Justice, the Psychological Center of The City College, The City University of New York, undertook the training of a police Family Crisis Intervention Unit (FCIU) in a New York City precinct. The final report of the project demonstrates innovative methods

and possibilities of crime prevention and preventive mental health inherent in training police to more effectively handle family crisis as an acknowledged part of the policemen's responsibility.

The project has produced a number of noteworthy results. For example, over the entire period of the project during which 1400 interventions with more than 950 families were made in a police patrol area of 85,000 population, no injuries were sustained by members of the FCIU despite their greater exposure to family disturbance; there was a positive community response to the FCIU; and the basic professional identity of the unit officers remained intact as unit members performed regular patrol activities when not responding to family disturbance calls.

The second and present phase of this study is supported by a research grant awarded by the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U. S. Department of Justice, under the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968. The present phase will make further analysis of the data already obtained and develop more refined methods for training members of the New York City Housing Authority police in intervention in conflict situations extending beyond the family.

HENRY S. RUTH, JR.
*Director, National Institute of Law
Enforcement and Criminal Justice*



SUMMARY

Training police in family crisis intervention was intended to demonstrate innovative methods of crime prevention and preventive mental health. Processing family disturbances constitutes a major aspect of police work. Traditional police approaches to the problem do not reflect the realities of this aspect of the police experience. There is evidence that a significant proportion of injuries and fatalities suffered by police occur in the highly volatile family conflict situation. The present project attempted to modify family assaults and family homicides in a circumscribed area, as well as to reduce personal danger to police officers in such situations.

In addition, the project attempted the development of a new preventive mental health strategy. Assuming that family conflict may be an early sign of emotional disorder in one or all of the participants, the project attempted to utilize policemen as front-line "case-finders" in keeping with theories of primary prevention. It was proposed that selected policemen could be provided with interpersonal skills necessary to effect constructive outcomes in deteriorating situations which require police intervention.

Rejection of an exclusively specialized role for the police officers involved was a major emphasis. The program assiduously avoided the conversion of policemen into social workers or psychotherapists. The officers were expected to perform all generalized police patrol functions but were the individuals dispatched on all family disputes in a given geographical area of about 85,000 residents.

The project was organized in three stages:

1 Preparatory Phase. During the first month, 18 police volunteers were selected; all had had at least three years of service and gave evidence of motivation and aptitude for family crisis specialization.

The second month entailed an intensive, 160-hour, on-campus training course involving the entire Unit. In addition to lectures and field trips, there was active

participation in "learning by doing" through Family Crisis Laboratory Demonstrations. These demonstrations involved specially written plays depicting family crisis situations enacted by professional actors and in which the patrolmen in the Unit actively intervened in pairs. Practice interventions were subjected to group critique and discussion. Finally, human relations workshops were conducted to sensitize the patrolmen to their own values, attitudes, and automatic responses.

2 Operational Phase. For the two-year duration of the project one radio patrol car was reserved for family crisis work in the experimental precinct. It was dispatched on all complaints or requests for assistance that could be predetermined as involving a "family disturbance." The car responded to calls anywhere in the precinct without regard to sector boundaries. The 18 men in the Unit were able to provide continuous coverage, and at most times on each tour of duty four additional family crisis specialists were available to assist in processing calls during peak evening and weekend periods.

Discussion groups of six men each met with group leaders who were familiar with the work of policemen. Consideration of current crisis situations evoked assumptions, preconceptions, and misapprehensions about human behavior and family relationships that may have been implicit in the attitudes and performance of Family Crisis Unit members.

In addition to continuous group experience, each family specialist was assigned an individual consultant for at least one hour's weekly consultation. The individual consultants were advanced clinical psychology students who acquired in this way an unusual community consultation experience. The reciprocal effect of these encounters on the students and upon the policemen is self-evident.

3 Evaluation Phase. The evaluation phase encompassed the last four months of the project, although

normal operations of the Family Crisis Intervention Unit continued during that time. Systematic data collection took place over the duration of the project, with an emphasis on simple tabulation in order to assess changes over time in a number of variables.

To facilitate evaluative procedures, a neighboring police precinct with a population composition somewhat similar to that of the demonstration precinct served as a basis of comparison. Comparisons were made based on changes in the total number of family disturbance complaints in the demonstration precinct as compared with the control precinct, differences in recurrence of complaints by the same families within the demonstration precinct and within the control precinct, and changes in the number of homicides and assaults involving both family members and policemen responding to family fight complaints.

The demonstration in Police Family Crisis Intervention was evaluated primarily in relation to a police function as it affects certain categories of crime. Over the life of the project, the demonstration precinct reported a significantly greater number of interventions; there was an increase in the total homicides (significantly) and in total assaults (not significantly); there was an increase in family homicides but there were no homicides in any of the 962 families previously seen by the FCIU; family assaults decreased; and there were no injuries to any officer in the Family Crisis Intervention Unit. In addition to the formal evaluative criteria, there were a number of impressions and observations bearing upon the demonstration project. These impressions and observations are discussed, along with implications of the project for law enforcement, mental health, and education.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The project described herein could not have been realized without the contributions of a number of dedicated people.

First of all, Police Commissioner Howard A. Leary of the New York City Police Department demonstrated rare vision and sensitivity in encouraging and supporting the project at every stage. First Deputy Police Commissioner John Walsh gave unstintingly of time and energy in assuring that the project proceeded according to design. Deputy Inspector Vincent Agoglia, 30th Precinct Commander during the project period, made operational administrative decisions which evidenced an unusual understanding of the project's significance. Lieutenant Timothy O'Shea, Administrative Officer of the 30th Precinct, evidenced an unusual grasp of the project issues which he translated into operational leadership terms in an outstanding manner.

Second, gratitude is expressed for the support and cooperation of the Administration and Faculty of The City College. The encouragement of the Faculty of the Department of Psychology, under the Chairmanship of Professor Joseph E. Barmack, is much appreciated. Special thanks go to Graduate Faculty in Clinical Psychology and to the clinical psychology students, without whom this project would never have been a reality.

A special word of appreciation is due the social agency representatives, community groups, professional people, and others who contributed to the project in ways too numerous to mention specifically.

And, finally, special thanks to the administrative staff of The Psychological Center, whose contribution can never be sufficiently acknowledged: Mrs. Miriam Michaels; Mrs. Eleanor Kobrin, Mrs. Trudy Strassberg, and Mrs. Tilda Saidel; and to staff social workers Mrs. Eugenia Bain and Mrs. Bess Williamson.

MORTON BARD, PH.D.
Project Director

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<i>Page</i>		<i>Page</i>
FOREWORD	iii	Family Disturbance Report	9
SUMMARY	v	Family Car File	10
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vi	Community Resource File	10
BACKGROUND AND GOALS		Referral Form	10
Introduction: The Function of the Police ...	1	Agency Follow-up Form	10
Family Crisis Intervention as a Specific		Consultation De-briefing Form	10
Function of the Police	1	Data Processing	10
The Need for Specific Training	1	Intensive Training Program	11
Relationship of Family Crisis to Crime ...	2	THE OPERATIONAL PHASE	
The Need for Preventive Mental Health		The Family Crisis Radio Motor Patrol	13
Approaches	2	Individual Consultation	13
The Use of the Paraprofessional Mental		Supervisory Sessions: Student Consultants ..	14
Health Worker	2	Group Leaders' Meetings	16
Family Dynamics as a Determinant of Dis-		Group Sessions	17
ordered Behavior	2	The Effects of Psychological Understanding	17
Preventive Crisis Intervention	3	Preventing Assaults on Police	18
Summary	3	Interlocking Patterns of Conflict and Inter-	19
THE DEMONSTRATION PROJECT PLAN		vention	19
Pre-proposal Activity	4	Agency Liaison	20
30th Precinct: Commanding and Executive		One-way Screen and Group Interviews	20
Officers	4	Home Visits	20
Station House Interviews	4	Spoken Spanish Instruction	20
Headquarters Conference	5	Dissemination of Information	20
Comparison Precinct	5	Mass Media	21
The Plan	5	Professionals	21
THE PREPARATORY PHASE		EVALUATION	
Selection of the FCIU	8	Statistical Findings	23
Selection of the Project Staff	8	Table 1. Comparison of Differences in Total	
Group Leaders	8	Family Crisis Interventions (30th Pct. FCIU	23
Summer Psychological Advisors and Re-		and Patrol Force 24th Pct.)	23
search Assistants	9	Fig. A. Total Family Crisis Interventions	24
Social Worker	9	(30th Pct. FCIU/24th Pct.)	24
Personnel for Intensive Training	9	Table 2. Number and Percentage of Repeat	
Data Collection: Forms and Procedures	9	Intervention (30th Pct. FCIU/24th Pct.)	25
		Fig. B. Total Repeat Interventions (30th	26
		Pct. FCIU/24th Pct.)	26

	<i>Page</i>
Table 3. Distribution of Family Crisis Inter- ventions (30th Pct. FCIU/24th Pct.)	27
Table 4. Comparison of Homicides and Assaults (30th Pct. FCIU/24th Pct.)	27
Summary of Statistical Findings	29
Observations and Impressions	29
Implications for the Community	29
Implications for Law Enforcement	29
Implications for Mental Health	30
Social Agencies as Resources	30
Table 5. Families Referred to Community Resources by the 30th Pct. FCIU	31
Table 6. Referral Patterns in the 30th Pct. FCIU and the 24th Pct.	31
Table 7. Actions Taken on Referral by Families Served by the 30th Pct. FCIU . .	32

	<i>Page</i>
Implications for Education	32
Police Education	32
Psychology Education	33
Implementation and Institutionalization . . .	33
CONCLUSIONS	35
REFERENCES	36
<i>Appendix</i>	
A Family Disturbance Report	37
B Map of 30th Precinct, N.Y.C.	39
C Intensive Training Schedule	40
D Referral Form	46
E Agency Follow-up Form	47
F Consultation De-briefing Form	48
G Code Book	49
H Vernacular Vocabulary (Spanish)	65

BACKGROUNDS AND GOALS

INTRODUCTION: THE FUNCTION OF THE POLICE

In large urban centers, rapid social change, alienation, increasing population density, and ever more complex economic competition conspire to subject the family and the individual to exacting pressures. For the disadvantaged in urban society, the personal effects may be extreme. Resulting frustration, despair and hopelessness often make for a volatile, aggressive mixture kept inert only by the presence of the police. . . . society's agents of control.

The police may be regarded simply as a domestic army which keeps civilian order, or they may be regarded as individuals involved in highly complex functions that often extend far beyond mere repression. Indeed, it has been estimated that almost ninety per cent of a policeman's function today is concerned with activities unrelated to crime control or to law enforcement (11). A recent study by Cumming *et al* (9) revealed that about one-half of calls for assistance received by an urban police department involved complaints of a personal and interpersonal nature.

A. Family Crisis Intervention as a Specific Function of the Police

The problem centers, then, on isolating those non-crime functions of the police which realistically make greatest demands upon police officers and which traditional police training methods ignore. Preliminary investigation reveals that "family fights" or "family disturbances" constitute one such "non-crime" functions. Accurate estimates of the scope of this police function are difficult to determine with any precision: usual police statistics reflect recognized crime categories and do *not* report incidents which do not involve a reportable crime. However, personal com-

munication with experienced police officers attests to the frequency of the occurrence of "family disturbance" calls. As a matter of fact, such calls for police assistance are common not only in urban centers, but in rural communities as well. One police official, drawing on extensive rural experience, estimates that calls for "family fights" are second in frequency only to motor vehicle accidents as incidents involving police action (17). One of the most ominous statistics mutely testifying to the importance of the "disturbance" call as an identifiable police function in need of scrutiny is revealed in a recent report of the Federal Bureau of Investigation; it was found that twenty-two per cent of policemen killed in the line of duty died while responding to complaints of "disturbances" (12). An experienced law enforcement officer has observed that many calls in the disturbance category are *in fact* the result of family disputes (17).

B. The need for Specific Training

Despite indications of need for police training in techniques for managing families in crisis, there is little evidence of such content in existing recruit or in-service training programs. As a consequence, the police officer called upon to intervene in a family fight is usually unable to render effective service and, indeed, may be needlessly exposed to personal danger because of deficits in knowledge about this kind of disordered behavior. A family crisis which has deteriorated to the point of threatening violence is in critically delicate balance and requires a high level of skill on the part of the intervening authority who is expected to mollify the situation. Regretfully, the police officer, if he is unprepared for this function and left to draw upon his own often biased notions of family dynamics and upon his skills as a law enforcer, may actually behave in ways to induce a tragic outcome.

C. Relationship of Family Crisis to Crime

There is no way of knowing at present how many crimes are a direct outcome of uncontrolled aggressive outbursts within families. There are indications, however, that their number may be considerable. If one considers only the category of homicide, the evidence is impressive. There are numerous studies which support Durkheim's observation (10) that "while family life has a moderating effect upon suicide, it rather stimulates murder." In 1965 there were 634 homicides in New York City, of which 35% involved family members or close friends (19). A study of homicide in Houston, Texas, by Bullock (7) concluded that most felonious assaults result from either petty quarrels, marital discords in which one spouse kills another, or love or sex disputes in which the deceased was slain by someone other than a spouse. Bensing and Schroeder (4) studied 622 homicides committed in Cleveland, Ohio, and said, "Homicides committed during robberies receive much publicity but do not represent as great a number of killings as do marital discord and quarrels between friends." In Wolfgang's study (24), sixty-five per cent of 500 homicide victims were relatives, close friends, paramours, or homosexual partners of the principal offender, while only twelve per cent were complete strangers.

There is evidence, then, that police officers in today's society are realistically involved in many interpersonal service functions for which traditional police training leaves them unprepared. It is further suggested that intervention in family disturbances is one such function in which unskilled police performance may in fact endanger the policeman and may fail to prevent eventual commission of capital crimes or assaults.

THE NEED FOR PREVENTIVE MENTAL HEALTH APPROACHES

In addition to increasing social pressure on the police, there is similar pressure upon mental health professionals to develop novel service strategies in keeping with changing needs. Traditional methods of diagnosis and treatment appear to have lessening impact as the demand for psychological services quickly outdistances professional manpower resources. It is increasingly apparent that preventive mental health approaches hold the greatest promise for resolving the dilemma. The program in family crisis intervention, based upon an emerging body of theory and research, defines a method which joins preventive approaches in mental health with those of crime prevention. It rests on the convergence of at least three

distinct tracks of theory and research: 1) the use of the paraprofessional mental health worker; 2) the role of family dynamics in determining disordered behavior; and 3) preventive crisis intervention.

A. The Use of the Paraprofessional Mental Health Worker

The Joint Commission on Mental Health and Illness (14) has recommended that relief of manpower shortages in mental health be undertaken through the effective utilization of paraprofessional personnel. In 1963, Rioch and her associates (22) reported on the results of a pilot experiment to test the hypothesis that carefully selected mature people can be trained to do limited psychotherapy. Eight forty-year-old married women were trained in therapeutic skills which enabled them to function with clearly positive results. The implications of the experiment were widely considered as offering one possible means for relieving manpower shortages in the field of mental health.

More recently, Reiff and Reissman (21) have written extensively on the use of indigenous mental health aides as a community action strategy. In an effort to extend the social impact of the highly trained mental health professional, they call for the use of trained paraprofessionals. There appears to be little question that intelligent laymen can be trained to render effective mental health services under the consultative direction of the more highly trained professionals. In this approach, the highly trained consultant is involved in *little direct service* himself but instead influences the functioning of the paraprofessionals directly providing service, thus extending the social impact of his education and experience.

In the present project it was hypothesized that a similar approach could be employed in using the police as mental health paraprofessional personnel; and it was proposed that selected policemen, already engaged in quasi-mental health service roles (9) *but without training*, be trained to function in those roles more effectively.

B. Family Dynamics as a Determinant of Disordered Behavior

In recent years there has been a growing recognition of the extent to which the family shapes the personalities of its children and of the complexity by which the shaping occurs. The importance of the family environment in the genesis of behavior pathology is

well documented by a number of studies (1, 13, 16). The results of these research investigations suggest that early identification of and intervention in families where the parents live in a perpetual state of hateful and sadistic involvement may have significant preventive mental health implications for their children.

At the moment, most disordered families are diagnosed and treated only *after breakdown has occurred* and only *after seeking help*. Families who seek help are generally well educated and sophisticated in mental health matters; they come from the middle classes and usually have the resources and awareness requisite to seeking help. Undoubtedly there are large numbers of families in difficulty whose class and educational limitations prevent their identification by usual mental health case-finding methods. It is the contention here that the identification of such families would be facilitated by the use of atypical "case-finders" . . . in the present instance, the police. Those families who lack knowledge and sophistication in matters pertaining to mental health resources are the very ones most likely to involve the police when family crisis approaches breakdown.

C. Preventive Crisis Intervention

Human adaptation to crisis has come to occupy a singularly important place in behavioral science. Reaction to disasters and natural catastrophes, as well as responses to personal dangers, are increasingly important in the understanding of normal personality development and of the origins of psychopathology. Successful resolution of life crises during development can contribute much to ego growth. By the same token, many emotional disorders appear to begin or to be aggravated by an important life crisis. Caplan (8) believes strongly that the prevention of ego damage in children often centers on openness and vulnerability during crisis—an event he maintains "involves both danger and opportunity." This notion conceives of a crisis situation as one in which typical personality defense patterns are breached in the face of threat (openness), thus presenting unusual opportunities (vulnerability) for modification of usual behavior by

direct intervention. Alein and Lindemann (15) contend that effective intervention techniques will not only relieve the crisis but will often serve to bring about personality change as well. Other crisis researchers present convincing evidence to support these observations (3, 20).

A family in a crisis requiring police assistance may present a state of openness and vulnerability which would permit a dramatic response to skilled and authoritative intervention. Usually fixed patterns of family interaction may, in the face of violent dissolution, offer the opportunity for reorganizing an otherwise remote prospect. It is possible, therefore, that even greater therapeutic effect can be achieved at the time of crisis than would be the case after the crisis subsides and typically intractable defensive patterns are reconstituted and become impervious to usual therapeutic techniques.

Police constantly meet states of openness and vulnerability as they find themselves enmeshed in countless life crises. But most particularly for the police project, their skillful preventive intervention in a specific life crisis, the "family fight," holds special promise as an effective means of behavior modification.

SUMMARY

The police project sought to demonstrate the effective utilization of selected police officers in a program of crime prevention and preventive mental health. There is evidence that police are currently engaged in a variety of quasi-mental health roles with little or no training equal to them. There is evidence that their lack of training is often personally dangerous and is wasteful to society as an opportunity lost for preventing certain classes of crime and for relieving manpower shortages in mental health. The area for study involved a common police complaint—the "family fight" or "family disturbance." This project sought to demonstrate the viability of training police in techniques of intervention and to define methods for extending such specialized training in the preparation of police for existing functions.

THE DEMONSTRATION PROJECT PLAN

PRE-PROPOSAL ACTIVITY

The preparation of the proposal which eventuated in the Police Family Crisis Training Project involved a full year of intensive activity prior to funding by OLEA. The investment of that effort by The Psychological Center of The City College of New York demonstrates the obligation of a consultative facility—The Psychological Center—to familiarize itself in depth with the consultee institution. Particularly in the case of a police department, there is the need to earn the right to suggest, advise or counsel. The problems, frustrations and demands in relation to resources of a peace-keeping agency are unique. The feeling of peace officers of being insufficiently understood and appreciated is not without justification. There is no dearth of simplistic solutions to police problems. The ready acceptance of the proposal for this project is attributable in some measure to the "homework" that preceded. The preparatory work was limited only by the restriction of the New York City Police Department on having civilians accompany officers in the course of their patrol duties. In jurisdictions where such direct observation is possible, there is no better way for the non-police professional to acquaint himself first-hand with the realities, the difficulties and the opportunities of the law enforcement task. In the present instance, the handicap of the local department's policy was minimized by the circumstance that the Project Director and the Project Supervisor had previously served in the same department as police officers. Despite this personal experience, nothing was taken for granted. The subject area was researched through the National Institute on Crime and Delinquency, the John Jay College of Criminal Justice, and, finally, through direct consultations with personnel of the New York City Police Department.

A. 30th Precinct: Commanding and Executive Officers

In the spring of 1966, after preliminary expression of interest by Police Commissioner Howard Leary, the commanding officer of the 30th Precinct (Capt. Ferranti) was invited to the College in the first of a long series of visits between staff members of The Psychological Center and of the Precinct. The rationale of the proposal was renewed and explained, and the active assistance of the Captain (and his executive officer) was enlisted in resolving specific administrative problems. Cooperation at this level was invaluable, since it insured a plan that made sense in the context of the realities of police administration. This plan was reviewed with Commissioner Leary in June of 1966 as the basis for a draft proposal. During the fall and early winter 1966-67, there were continuing consultations with the new commanding officer of the Precinct (Capt. Agoglia), his executive officer, and the training sergeant. In November the Divisional Inspector and his staff met at The Psychological Center for a thoroughgoing review of the entire project plan. These meetings were invaluable for obtaining the "middle-management" support essential for any enterprise. Suggestions coming from these meetings served to further strengthen the plan and make it the shared product of many minds.

B. Station House Interviews

By January a draft proposal was ready for dispatch to the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance. What had been intended as a preliminary draft proposal proved sufficient as the proposal upon which the grant award was finally made. February of 1967 was devoted to a month-long pilot study of family crises and a preliminary run of the data collection and debriefing procedures. Preliminary forms of the basic

"Family Crisis Card" (Appendix A) were distributed to the men of the 30th Precinct going out on patrol. The commanding officer and desk officers instructed out-going platoons in the use of the cards and introduced the Project Supervisor to answer questions. This was not only the first test of the data collection, but, in a sense, was the first test of the relationship between The Psychological Center and the 30th Precinct. The results were most gratifying and proved an augury for the rest of the project. The patrolmen not only completed a new and physically unfamiliar form, but also gave of their own time to discuss or debrief the material after their tours of duty. These debriefing sessions in the station house muster room yielded a sampling of case material upon which much that followed could be realistically based.

C. Headquarters Conference

By March, 1967, the time had arrived to set the final details. The grant award had been made. There was much pressure for an early start. The anticipated "hot summer" of 1967 was approaching. On the one hand, there was a sense of urgency to do anything that might show some promise of a positive contribution by police to community life. On the other hand, there was the understandable reluctance to make unavailable eighteen men at a time when every man was sorely needed on patrol. A meeting at police headquarters on March 16, 1967, thrashed out the answers to questions that could only be answered at the highest administrative levels.

A central feature of the plan was that the Family Crisis Intervention Unit which was to be created would not become detached from the patrol strength of the precinct. They would continue to work all tours, around the clock, in uniform, and be responsible for all normal patrol duties in a sector assigned to their car when not engaged in responding to a family crisis call. Thus the new Unit would not deplete the precinct's roster. However, the plan did call for a month of intensive on-campus classroom training before the Unit went operative. This month presented problems. The Psychological Center needed time to prepare for it: select the men, hire the instructors, and buy the educational materials with the funds that had just become available. The Police Department had no time as the demands of summer rapidly approached. The month of June was a compromise which represented pressures and sacrifices on both sides.

Other sensitive issues were studied and resolved at this meeting by the Department's legal and administrative heads. Follow-up visits to measure the effec-

tiveness of instruction were reluctantly prohibited as a possible infringement of the rights of privacy. Ethnic identification and national origin inquiries were eliminated from the demographic data to be collected. Hard decisions were made, risks assessed, and the "go" signal was given.

D. Comparison Precinct

The effective starting date of the grant was May 1, 1967. But the month of April was filled with conferences, with Plays for Living (see pages 11 and 12, Intensive Training Program), arranging academic credit with The City University's John Jay College of Criminal Justice, and setting up the screening interviews with patrolmen volunteers for the FCIU. However, there was concern about the control precinct (24th). Evaluation is often the weakest aspect of many projects and the lack of comparable control data is usually responsible. The choice of a comparison precinct was difficult to make; *even more difficult was the problem of insuring the motivation and interest of those who might feel their role of secondary importance.* Worse still, "comparison" seems somehow associated with "invidious." While the commanding officer of the 24th Precinct was involved and his executive officer actively participated, there was always some question about reaching the men of the precinct on whose cooperation so much depended. The same techniques which seemed so effective in reaching the men of the 30th Precinct did not seem equally effective in the 24th. Although the latter has a larger population and a larger complement of men, a comparable period in the 24th Precinct did not produce half the response of the trial run in the 30th. Obviously we could not conduct a double blind study without contaminating the findings. Therefore, although it is possible to point to a record of careful and detailed preliminary work, the techniques for reaching and motivating comparison areas are still to be refined and improved.

THE PLAN

The plan which emerged as a consequence of the year's planning contained elements faithful both to intended innovative objectives and to normal New York City Police Department organizational functioning. It was regarded as essential that the design demonstrate enhancement of usual police performance within the context of usual institutional structure. Any departure from usual procedure was designed to be minimally

disruptive in order to demonstrate that the intended objectives could be achieved within the existing organizational framework of the Police Department.

In essence, the plan called for the selection and training of eighteen patrolmen in one Upper West Side Manhattan precinct.* This group of officers (approximately 8-10% of the precinct's complement patrolling a lower class to lower-middle class, stable, largely black, residential community of about 85,000) would be designated as the Family Crisis Intervention Unit (FCIU). The Unit was to be trained intensively for one month and then function operationally for the duration of the two-year project period, with weekly consultations provided by The City College Psychological Center. During its operation, the Unit was to be divided into three teams of six men each; each team to be available for duty under the normal three-platoon system. It was anticipated that, even with absences for illness, vacation, etc., at least two men of the team of six would be available to man the "family motor patrol" on each tour of duty. The car designated for this function was to patrol a regularly assigned sector, in keeping with usual practice, but would be dispatched to *any* sector of the precinct when a family disturbance occurred. If, by chance, the men in another sector inadvertently responded to a family disturbance, they were under instructions to summon the "family car."

The development of police "generalist-specialists" was an essential feature of the plan. That is, the FCIU patrolmen were to perform general patrol functions but, in addition, were to be available as a precinct task force—able to deliver a form of professional police service.

In addition to the service to be provided by the members of the FCIU, it was intended that they collect vital information on family disturbance as a police function. Little specific information on the event is available in police records anywhere or in behavioral science research. The operations of the FCIU offered an opportunity to determine some of the parameters of family conflict as an aspect of human behavior. The Unit officers therefore were to be trained also in observational techniques and data collection methods to enable the investigators to arrive at conclusions regarding domestic disturbance.

Two key issues were undercurrent in the design:

1 It was recognized that the skills required for effective intervention in highly volatile family crises would, in large measure, be dependent upon significant alteration of the interpersonal perceptual set of each participating police officer. To ensure *gradual*

change over time in personal attitudes and values in order to develop necessary interpersonal objectivity, traditional classroom instructional methods had to be supplemented by innovative educational techniques. Drawing on recent developments in the behavioral sciences, a central feature of the design called for a period of intensive training along more traditional lines to be followed by an extended period of weekly individual consultations and group discussions.

2 Role identity confusion was a potential threat to the integrity of the project—not to speak of its potential as a personal threat to each of the men who would operationally staff the project. The essential task was to engender the attitudes and skills of a helping professional without in any way compromising the police officer's basic peace-keeping mission. Throughout the project's duration, the selected personnel would be reinforced in their general police role despite their specialized function in relation to family disturbances.

The project design, then, consisted of three stages: a Preparatory Phase, for selection and intensive training of the Unit personnel; an Operational Phase, in which the Family Crisis Intervention Unit would function with consultative support; and an Evaluative Phase, for analysis of data.

Project evaluation was restricted to the effectiveness of the program in relation to crime control and police personnel safety in both the demonstration precinct (30th) and the comparison precinct (24th). The data in the comparison precinct were to be collected by the normal patrol force. While otherwise desirable, it was outside the scope of the present effort to attempt a large-scale assessment of the project's effect upon the community. The following evaluative comparisons were planned:

1 Changes in the total number of family disturbance complaints in the demonstration precinct and as compared with the comparison precinct.

2 Recurrence of complaints by the same families in the demonstration precinct and as compared with recurrence of complaint rate in the comparison precinct.

3 Changes in total number of homicides in the demonstration precinct and as compared with changes in the comparison precinct.

4 Changes in the number of homicides among relatives in the demonstration precinct and differences in comparison with similar data in the comparison precinct.

5 Changes in total number of assaults in the demonstration precinct and as compared with similar data in the comparison precinct.

6 Changes in the number of assaults among family

* See Appendix B.

members in the demonstration precinct and as contrasted with the comparison precinct.

7 Changes in the number of injuries sustained by patrolmen responding to family disturbance complaints, both within the demonstration precinct and as compared with the comparison precinct.

8 Follow-up visits to determine outcome in families served by the FCIU as compared with families served by the comparison precinct. (As noted before, follow-up visits were precluded by the New York City Police Department's concern for the civil and individual rights of the families visited by the police.)

THE PREPARATORY PHASE

During this phase of the project (May 1, 1967—June 30, 1967) four activities were predominant: A. selection of the 30th Precinct Family Crisis Intervention Unit; B. recruitment and preparation of professional project personnel; C. design and preparation of data collection and operational forms and procedures; D. intensive on-campus training of the FCIU.

SELECTION OF THE FCIU

An early decision was made to staff the experimental program with volunteers. The nature of the experiment indicated the advisability of selecting men with at least three years, but no more than ten years, of service. The minimum assured participation by experienced officers; the maximum would eliminate those men whose seniority might contribute to an inflexible quality. To ensure a satisfactory number from which to select eighteen officers, announcement was made by commanders in each of four precincts comprising the Police Department's Fifth Division, the administrative command of the Upper West Side of Manhattan. Each precinct commander made the initial selection of applicants after giving each man some indication of the nature of the project. The applicants were given to understand that they would be frozen in their FCIU assignment for the duration of the project and that the only tangible reward would be the education they would receive during the course of the project, as well as three college credits from the John Jay College of Criminal Justice of The City University of New York. In addition, advanced students enrolled in the College could receive three additional credits in an advanced social science research seminar.

Final selection was made by Dr. Morton Bard, Project Director, and Dr. Bernard Berkowitz, Project Supervisor. The selection procedure was kept as simple as possible and involved only a brief clinical assess-

ment interview. Psychological tests were not used for two reasons—one, there was considerable doubt that they could reliably discriminate the factors considered important; and, two, their dubious value was far outweighed by their negative effects in possibly convincing the officers that the real intent of the college-based project was to permit psychologists to "psych cops" or otherwise to use them as "guinea pigs."

Forty-two men who volunteered were approved by their commanding officers. Drs. Bard and Berkowitz each interviewed twenty-one applicants in twenty to thirty minute sessions. Each interviewer rated his applicants on a four-point scale in an effort to assess motivation, nature of professional commitment to police work, sensitivity to people and tolerance for behavior deviation, and personal stability.

In view of the ethnic composition of the 30th Precinct area, it was decided to effect an ethnic balance in the Unit and, hence, nine black and nine white officers were selected. It was intended that the men be paired bi-racially in order to enable the investigators to gain some insight into the possible effect of ethnicity on successful family crisis intervention in a largely black inner city community.

SELECTION OF PROJECT STAFF

A. Group Leaders

The project design focused upon the importance of the group discussion leaders in the weekly consultations during the operational phase. Three highly skilled psychologists were recruited: Drs. Selwyn Lederman, Wilson Meaders, and Henry Sindos. Each had considerable formal post-graduate training as individual and group psychotherapists. However, each had extensive experience in non-therapeutic group leadership as well. This combination of therapeutic

as well as non-therapeutic group leadership was regarded as ideal for the achievement of project goals. Therapeutic experience ensured a depth of perception and sensitivity to deeper-lying issues; non-therapeutic leadership experience ensured the flexibility necessary to adapt experience to the specific needs of the project.

Ideally, of course, it would have been best if the group leaders had also had previous experience with policemen; the life of a policeman is among the most unique in today's urban society and is far removed from the world of most mental health professionals. It was assumed that even extensive professional training and experience as psychologists would not be sufficient preparation for effective group leadership of policemen. However, since it proved virtually impossible to recruit psychologists who also had experience with the world of the policeman, Drs. Bard and Berkowitz drew upon their own experience in the New York City Police Department to provide the three group leaders with an initial orientation to the police world. It was regarded as essential that some effort be made to bridge the gap between the largely introspective and thoughtful world of the psychologist and the external and action-oriented world of the policeman. There is some reason to suspect that when collaborative efforts between mental health and law enforcement fail, they do so because insufficient attention is directed toward causing the two disparate worlds to intersect successfully.

B. Summer Psychological Advisors and Research Assistants

Since the FCIU was to begin its operational phase on July 1, 1967, when classes were not in session at the College, graduate student consultants were required to function until the beginning of classes in September. With the onset of the fall semester, the most advanced class of doctoral students in clinical psychology were to be available to provide individual consultations. However, during the summer months' operation, the FCIU would require consultative support, and four graduate students were retained (A. Blum, N. Papouchis, C. Silverstein, and E. Welker), as was a research assistant (L. Goldsmith). All five were provided with an orientation and preparation along with the group leaders. (An unusual feature of the project design called for the group leaders to supervise the individual consultants who were providing consultations to Unit patrolmen in each leader's group. This afforded a unique opportunity for educa-

tional feed-back and will be discussed more fully later in this report.)

C. Social Worker

While not exclusively assigned to the project, The Psychological Center's social worker (Mrs. E. Bain) devoted herself almost exclusively to the needs of the project during the preparatory phase. In addition to her own orientation and preparation, she was primarily charged with responsibility for establishing community resource contacts, developing a community resource file for use by the Family Crisis Unit and arranging field trips to health and welfare agencies which were planned for the final week of the intensive training month (June). The social worker discovered extraordinary interest and offers of support by other agencies as she interpreted the project background and aims to them.

D. Recruitment of Personnel for Intensive Training

During the first month of the preparatory phase (May), the intensive training schedule was devised (see Appendix C). Personnel necessary to staff the training program were selected and assigned specific tasks. The original budgetary estimate of \$1,000 to cover this aspect of the project proved inadequate and arrangements were made with OLEA to transfer funds from another category to make up the deficit.

Another budgeted item originally projected as critically important in intensive training was to be an experience for the Unit patrolmen in which they were to "learn by doing." Designated as Laboratory Demonstrations, this aspect of training involved the enactment of three short, specially-written plays by professional actors. During May, story conferences took place between the script writer and Drs. Bard and Berkowitz. In addition, there were two rehearsals which were attended by producer, director, writer, Dr. Bard, Dr. Berkowitz, and Mrs. Bain. (This feature of training will be treated more fully later in this report.)

DATA COLLECTION: FORMS AND PROCEDURES

A. Family Disturbance Report

The report to be completed by Unit patrolmen was to be the basic data source of the entire experi-

ment. It was necessary that its design be such that essential information could be readily recorded with clarity and that the form itself should be easy to manage in the field. In addition to the collection of the usual demographic and descriptive data, the form was designed to encourage the patrolmen to report impressions and judgments based upon their professional training. (Appendix A.)

B. Family Car File

In addition to its usefulness as a basic research data source, the Family Disturbance Report was intended to serve an important operational purpose. A card file was permanently installed in the family car to enable Unit patrolmen to have readily available to them reports of all interventions conducted by members of the Unit. The file was designed so that reports were filed according to street address and apartment number. This permitted the patrolmen to determine on being dispatched if there had been a previous intervention in that family, what the circumstances had been, whether or not weapons had been involved, and what action had been taken by the previous intervention team. This procedure had obvious advantages for personnel safety but, in addition, it assured a kind of continuity of service which would otherwise be unavailable to those seeking police aid.

C. Community Resource File

A continuously up-dated and cross-indexed family resource file was instituted as a permanent feature of the family car. Actually in the form of a small loose-leaf binder, it contained references to community agencies with specific agency staff liaison personnel and telephone numbers which would permit specific consultative guidance to the men at the time of the actual intervention if necessary. This feature proved so successful that, at the suggestion of the Unit patrolmen, a personal file has been developed in a form which permits its insertion in each patrolmen's memo or log book.

D. Referral Form

To facilitate referrals, a special form was developed. Designed to be similar to a physician's prescription pad, it was also intended to serve as a "flag" for agencies to which referrals were made. It was hoped that a person applying for service could be quickly identified on intake as having been referred by the

FCIU, thus enabling more rapid identification of these cases for statistical follow-up purposes. This intention was somewhat frustrated by the fact that the form was not produced in a sufficiently distinctive color. Since the form was white, agencies complained that they found it difficult to be immediately alerted by it. In any event, the form was believed to have a psychological advantage in that the recipient would tend to regard it as concrete and "official" evidence of the prospect of help by the agency to which he was referred. (Appendix D.)

E. Agency Follow-up Form

This form was intended to facilitate the acquisition of information regarding individuals referred to other agencies. It was designed to be simple and to make minimal demands on overburdened social agencies. The primary goal was to learn whether or not family members were actually making efforts to act upon the officers' suggestions. (Appendix E.)

In the main, results in using the form were not good. It was our impression that despite the best of intentions most agencies assigned the completion of the monthly form a very low priority in the utilization of their own manpower. Hence, forms were not returned, or, if they were, often they were devoid of information. It was difficult to ascertain whether clients were not acting on referral recommendations or whether the agencies were being remiss in responding to the inquiry.

F. Consultation De-briefing Form

This form had a dual purpose: 1) to ensure uniform data collection *in depth*, beyond the limitations imposed by the brief Family Disturbance Report, and 2) to add an element of structure to the individual consultation process. Since there were educational advantages to the students serving as consultants, the de-briefing form served to focus the otherwise free-ranging aspects of the consultation. For both the consultant and the consultee, the form was intended to introduce an element of structure and discipline which had educational significance in the supervisory process. (Appendix F.)

DATA PROCESSING

At the outset of the project, a decision was made to develop a system for rapid information and data retrieval in order to allow for continuous monitoring of

the project. Unfortunately, the system selected (Key-dex Information and Data Retrieval System) did not prove useful for this purpose and also proved to be far more complicated and time consuming than had originally been anticipated. In connection with the system a word dictionary of more than 1,300 characteristics was developed. A subsequent decision to prepare data for key punch, key sort and tabulation preparatory to computer analysis required adaptation of the word dictionary for use as a coding device preliminary to key punch and sort (Appendix G): This research aspect of the project will continue and was not a feature of program evaluation.

INTENSIVE TRAINING PROGRAM

As indicated earlier in this report, a basic assumption in this demonstration was that training police as family crisis intervention specialists required two levels of approach: 1) learning selected and highly specific behavioral science content relevant to functions to be performed and 2) gradual modification of personal values and attitudes and a generalized increase in self-understanding to facilitate the sensitive nature of interpersonal intervention to be attempted. Traditional methods of training emphasize the former and usually ignore the latter. However, the nature of this project, with its dangerous potentials for the officers involved, indicated that innovative training procedures were not only desirable but imperative. Interpersonal skills, particularly those to be used in emotionally volatile family conflict situations, cannot be taught successfully by the typically intellectual and cognitive methods employed in the classroom. By the same token, there is ample evidence that deeply held personal biases and value-derived attitudes do not yield to "how-to" manuals which leave the reader uninvolved and, hence, if changed at all, on the intellectual level at best.

The intensive training aspect of the program was intended to provide relevant content but also to prepare the trainees for the on-going and continued self-exploration which was to continue during the operational phase of the program—that is, during the weekly individual and group consultations.

The intensive training period entailed full-time attendance for four weeks by the entire Unit of eighteen selected officers. An hour-by-hour schedule of training activities was distributed to all concerned (Appendix C). The first week was designed largely as an orientation and familiarization period with gradual introduction to the significance of psychological factors underlying observable behavior. Most of the first week's

content was intended to be easily related to the world of the policeman and was presented in a lecture context during the mornings. Afternoons were devoted largely to group discussions or workshops. During the afternoon sessions, the officers had their first opportunity to begin working with the group leaders who would be their group consultants through the entire course of the project.

During the second week, the mornings were devoted to content specifically related to "The Family." Again, the afternoons were largely group oriented and quite naturally evidences of openness and group cohesiveness began to be apparent. During the last afternoon of the week, the men were requested to complete sociograms to provide a basis for establishing bi-racial teams. It was intended that assigned pairs would work together as partners for the duration of the project. Also, pairing was accomplished at the end of the second week to enable each pair to practice intervention in the feature of the third week designated as Laboratory Demonstrations. Dr. Bard and Dr. Berkowitz used their own observations of the men, as well as their sociograms, to pair the Unit officers. Of nine pairings made on this basis, there was one refusal. The strong objections of both officers were respected and two different pairings were arranged with no further difficulty.

The third week of intensive training was intended to deal with conflict resolution and specific techniques of intervention. Again, the morning lecture format was used, with continuing opportunity each morning for a "feed-back" session to discuss the material and events of the previous day.

For three afternoons during the third week, all that had been learned up to that point was afforded opportunity for expression in the Family Crisis Laboratory Demonstrations.* These demonstrations proved to be a highlight in the intensive training period. On each of three successive afternoons, specially written family disturbances of about eight minutes' duration each were enacted by professional actors in their entirety three times. Six members of the Unit in uniform were kept in another room as the remaining twelve members of the Unit observed each run-through of the play. At the conclusion of each run-through, two patrolmen who had been paired as partners entered upon the scene as they would in reality and practiced intervention techniques, data collection and referral, if indicated. There were no scripted conclusions to the plays; the actors were instructed to improvise in relation to the behavior of the patrolmen.

* Plays for Living, a division of Family Service Association of America, 44 E. 23rd St., N.Y., N.Y.

The repeated performances permitted the patrolmen in the audience to gain added insight into causative and precipitating factors in the dispute. But, most important, they permitted the officers to witness how the same set of events (by script) could eventuate in entirely different outcomes, depending upon the behavior of the intervening officers. After each intervention, the officers involved retired to a room to confer. After the third run-through had been completed, the first pair of officers was summoned to present to the audience their evaluation of events as they found them on arrival at the scene and to provide a rationale for the approach they took. The actors, in turn, frankly stated their reasons for having improvised as they had—giving all the officers an opportunity to see how often well-intended behavior can have an entirely opposite effect. After the three pairs of officers had made their presentations and had their confrontations with the actors on each day, the actors were dismissed and the entire group of officers, audience and participants, engaged in a general discussion and critique led by a project staff member. In the course of the three afternoons devoted to Laboratory Demonstrations, all nine pairs of patrolmen had an opportunity to "learn by doing" in actual practice interventions with professional actors.

The final week of intensive training was largely concerned with referrals. In order that social agencies be more than an abstraction, field visits were arranged, with the men reporting back to the group as a whole the nature of each field visit. During the final week, there were continued group discussions in the afternoon and an effort at evaluation of the experience.

It was the staff's impression that the officers found

most of the training useful, but, as in all educational settings, the impact of the material was often related to the skill of the teacher. It was, therefore, difficult to evaluate the relative importance of different content areas. There was further evidence in support of an old collegiate axiom—"You take the teacher, not the course." In any case, the officers felt that the intensive training had significance for them.

At the conclusion of the project, almost two years later, the consensus among the FCIU officers was similar to the impression of the project staff. There was general agreement that four weeks of intensive training was overly long, that two weeks of training would have served as well. This view is probably a valid one, although it should be noted that the eighteen officers had an attendance record of 100% during the four-week intensive training period, despite a number of minor illnesses during that time.

On the final day of intensive training, a graduation ceremony was held, during which each patrolman was presented with a Certificate of Completion. This document was also intended to be used as evidence of completion for those men who would later seek credit for the course at the John Jay College of Criminal Justice of The City University of New York.

On the evening of the last day of intensive training and after certificates had been awarded, there was a graduation party and, in effect, this was the last time all eighteen would be together. On the following day, July 1, 1967, the Unit became operational and, hence, according to the specially devised duty chart, each group of six men would be working a different tour. The specially created chart also provided for each group of six to be on campus for consultation on a different day of the week.

THE OPERATIONAL PHASE

THE FAMILY CRISIS RADIO MOTOR PATROL

The radio car was the central structural feature of the project's operational phase (7/1/67—5/30/69). In a departure from usual New York City Police Department practice, one 30th Precinct radio car was assigned to the FCIU for use in processing all family disturbances in the precinct. Typically, family disturbances are processed by the cars assigned to the sectors in which they occur. The FCIU car was usually assigned to a specific sector, but was authorized to leave the sector when dispatched on a family disturbance anywhere in the precinct, regardless of the sector in which it occurred.

While this feature of the plan ensured FCIU access to all family difficulties in the study area, it had other objectives as well. For one thing, it aided in the reinforcement of professional identity. That is, *the Unit officers were generalists performing all police functions and not specialists devoted to one function alone.* When not engaged in a family intervention, Unit patrolmen provided the same patrol services as other members of the command. This style of specialization avoids the problem common to all fields—professional rejection of those performing exclusively specialized functions. For example, general physicians often regard psychiatrists as not being “real” doctors, just as policemen often regard the Youth patrolman or community relations officer as not being “real” policemen. Because they were charged with general functions, it appeared that Unit officers were accepted by other members of their command and were aided as well in not becoming confused about the fact that they were, first and foremost, police officers.

It was difficult to devise a duty chart which would enable the FCIU car to be manned by Unit members 24 hours a day. With six of the eighteen men assigned to each tour, theoretically it should have been possible

always to have two men in the car. Actually, the specially created chart had to make provision for vacations, days off and on-campus training time. The New York City Police Department, after considerable difficulty, did construct a suitable chart which served quite effectively.

However, absences for illness, vacation, and court appearances necessitated occasional but infrequent use of non-Unit patrolmen to ride with a member of the Unit. On those tours when all six patrolmen were available, two of the men occupied another sector car and functioned as a back-up family car.

The Unit of eighteen patrolmen remained intact for the first year of the project until, unfortunately, one of the Unit members (Ptl. Glover) was suddenly and inexplicably transferred to a special confidential assignment. It was later learned that an administrative oversight had been responsible, and the nature of the assignment made it impossible for Ptl. Glover to be reassigned. A replacement (Ptl. Monroe) was obtained, and he was given an accelerated orientation and assigned to Ptl. Glover's partner (Ptl. Castagna). On-the-job training with Ptl. Castagna, individual consultations, and group meetings saw Ptl. Monroe's rapid integration into the Unit and his subsequent excellent performance.

INDIVIDUAL CONSULTATION

After the summer of 1967, when summer staff performed individual consultative functions, consultations were conducted by advanced doctoral students (3rd year) in the clinical psychology program at The City College. There were nine students in the third-year class during the project's first year, each student serving as consultant for a pair of patrolmen. The consultations, however, were conducted individually, thus affording an opportunity to identify individual differ-

ences in perceptions by each patrolman when they occurred. During the second year of the program (beginning September 1968), when the third-year class had twelve students, six students from two other educational institutions were afforded the opportunity for training in providing consultation to police officers. Three of the students were advanced doctoral students from the clinical psychology program at Teachers College, Columbia University, and three were residents in community psychiatry at The College of Physicians and Surgeons of Columbia University. Thus, with eighteen individual consultants, each Unit officer had an individual consultant during the second year of the project.

The individual consultations were successful from an educational standpoint. Both officers and student-consultants reported distinct advantages in the experience. The students learned how to translate highly complex abstractions about human behavior into practically-oriented terms which could be useful to people called upon to take specific action. The officers, on the other hand, learned how to "think through" and conceptualize about human behavior, thus being enabled to take more effective action.

Our impression that mental health professionals must receive specific consultative training experience early in their careers was confirmed in this project. For the clinical psychology students, it forced self-confrontation on deeply held prejudices and opened to them a world of the psychological "front lines" which would have remained an abstraction at best. For the policemen, it caused some reexamination of attitudes about "intellectuals" and students; it demonstrated, too, the value of thought as well as action.

SUPERVISORY SESSIONS: STUDENT CONSULTANTS

Because the project began between academic years, from June through September 1967 three salaried assistants, students between their second and third years of doctoral training, served as consultants. Since these assistants had also participated in the initial month of on-campus training along with the officers, their orientation to police and police work was unusually facilitated. They benefited from the presentation of material on the role of police in society; particularly telling was their observation of the dramatized family conflict interventions. Their reaction was similar to that of most civilians when they have an opportunity to observe police at work. Not only did they have the response, "I had no idea how difficult the policeman's job is"; they also could appreciate more than most lay-

men what the police function entailed in clinical terms. "A clinician," one of them exclaimed after a dramatization, "would take days of tests and interviews to make the kind of judgment that these guys have to make under pressure, often at the risk of their own skin." This kind of enthusiastic appreciation greatly simplified the supervisory burden with the first three consultants. Also, the month of classroom contact with the officers afforded an opportunity to bridge the cultural and educational gaps between the students and the police before consultations got under way. But this first group of consultants, just as all those who followed, needed to work through in supervision feelings of inadequacy. On the one hand, everyone associated with the project—Director, Supervisor, group leaders and consultants—were awed by the magnitude of the task. Each knew relatively little of police family crisis intervention, and there was such a vast body of behavioral science information to be somehow distilled and brought to bear on the problem. On the other hand, there was the hazard faced by all consultants of being invited to accept the role of authoritative infallibility. Supervisory sessions afforded a weekly opportunity for the consultants to review the working relationships they were building, as they negotiated the middle-ground between "know-it-all" and "what-do-you-know?" During July-September 1967 the three student-consultants, meeting with six patrolmen each, were supervised by the group leader who conducted weekly group sessions with the same six men. Thus the leader was able to gather impressions of the interaction between consultant and consultee from both participants. This rather unusual opportunity made for a rich learning experience for the students and enhanced the service afforded the officers by consultants and leaders. The skepticism the officers may have been expected to feel in this academic environment was largely mitigated by the cohesive effect of the spirit of pioneering and discovery that marked the inception of the project.

For the first full academic year of the project (September 1967—June 1968), the three who had served during the summer were joined as consultants by six more third-year students, each of whom met individually with a pair of officers. Supervision was in groups of three consultants meeting with the group leader of the same six men who were their consultees. The feeling of newness had worn off for the leaders as well as for the three students who had served as consultants during the previous summer. The latter were assigned, as a kind of leavening, to each of the three supervisory groups. However, the six new consultants were handicapped in not having shared the classroom experience

and the shake-down period of the project. They were also handicapped in that theirs was an assigned experience in community consultation, whereas the first three consultants had been voluntarily adding to their income and training by summer employment on the project. Concentrated orientation in the fall of 1967 could not quite serve to bring the six new people to the level of the initial three. The fall of 1967 was also the time of the beginning of serious campus disturbances at Berkeley, California, marked by violent encounters between police and students. The consultants, all graduate students, were all vocationally oriented and not militant undergraduates. But the six new consultants had not had sufficient time to overcome their stereotyped and predictable attitudes toward police. Fortunately, the leaders in the supervisory sessions, with the help of the "experienced" consultants, were able to deal with the feelings the news stories evoked in the students. The leaders' task was facilitated in some instances by the officers themselves, who discussed the students' reactions in their group sessions and talked things out with their respective consultants. The patrolmen were afforded an unexpected community relations opportunity and the students received an added educational dividend. Although disturbances continued to sweep campuses in this country and abroad, in some cases coming close to the College, by spring, 1968, close bonds of understanding and respect existed between student-consultants and police-consultees. This relationship was severely tested during the disturbances on the Columbia University campus. Some of the officers of the FCIU were assigned as part of the police detail, and they identified completely with the police point of view. Most of the student-consultants, on the other hand, shared prevailing campus abhorrence of police tactics and behavior, although they did not completely endorse what the Columbia students had done. For a while, some of the consultants could not face their consultees, and it appeared the project would be seriously threatened. An intensive round of meetings with the students, and the supervisory sessions, served to resolve the difficulty. Although some of the students had personally witnessed incidents of overreaction, they could be helped to discriminate and individualize, rather than to lump all police in stereotyped fashion. They could appreciate, after their initial emotionally charged reactions, that the police response had been deliberately provoked in order to radicalize student sentiment. The entire experience on the Columbia University campus provided a vivid and sobering example of the unenviable difficulties of dealing with a studied intent to provoke violence. Consultations and good working relationships were resumed.

The group leaders, in the group sessions with the officers and in group supervision with the students, helped make the consultations meaningful and fruitful. At the year-end party which the patrolmen arranged and paid for in honor of the Director and the Supervisor, the warm relationship with the students was evident. One student spoke for many others when she said, "These cops are really hep. I don't know what next year's students will be able to teach them. But the students will get a lot from the cops." The sentiment was not only warm, but also prophetic.

The fall of 1968 presented new problems for supervision which might be summarized as "too many, too late." The third-year doctoral candidates for 1968-69 numbered twelve. This number was supplemented by the three graduate students from Teachers College and the post-doctoral Fellows from Columbia University College of Physicians and Surgeons. The one-to-one ratio of consultants to patrolmen provided individualized and, in the case of the psychiatric Fellows, more highly trained, consultation at a point when it was least needed. The impression of the previous spring, that the officers had more to teach than to learn, was largely borne out. Every new consultant must learn before he can teach, but soon, or later he can expect to be in a position to make a contribution. In the fall and winter of 1968-69, the consultants learned a great deal, and the officers experienced that reinforcement of learning that comes through teaching. The supervisory task was to deal with the feelings of the consultants that they were not making a sufficient contribution, beyond seeing to the systematic collection of data. Their restiveness was a tribute to the degree of training the officers had achieved. But the challenge of the first year was missing.

The arrival of student disturbances at The City College helped make it clear that the consultants were not disaffected with the project or with the police. When The City College SDS chapter turned on the project in search of an issue, in the spring of 1969, many of the student-consultants were indignant. Despite bitter denunciation in the student press, leaflets and picket-lines chanting about "Pigs Off Campus," the militants could not use the project to strike the kind of spark that would enflame any substantial number of undergraduates. In part, this was due to the respect the officers and the project enjoyed on campus. In part, it was due to the spontaneous efforts on the part of the graduate student-consultants. They defended the project and the officers in spirited exchanges and quiet conversations with militants, pickets and those on the fence. Their efforts culminated in a meeting at which the consultants convincingly allayed the fears of those who could be reached

in rational discourse. This event marked the end of the attempt to use the project as an issue, despite later events which paralyzed the College and shut it down. That this group of liberal-intellectual graduate students (the psychiatric Fellows were no longer serving as consultants in the spring semester of 1969) should so actively and effectively defend a police enterprise was due to their first-hand contact with the police officers and to the supervisory group discussions of their relationships with their consultee-teachers.

It is clear that this dual-purpose training program—police and graduate students—benefited significantly from the arrangement that placed group leader and supervisor functions with the same set of persons. In the more routine, but important, aspects of teaching and coordinating, as well as in connection with the crises that befell the project at times, the structure of the project, and the leaders who staffed it, served well. The next section describes the meetings at which the leaders pooled their experiences, resolved their own doubts, and learned together.

GROUP LEADERS' MEETINGS

The group leaders each brought impressive credentials to their task and had the benefit of two months' preparation to orient them to the specifics of the project before it became operational. But the small discussion group has its own "entrance requirements." Particularly in a police setting, the "outsider," no matter how qualified, must patiently earn the right to be counted as "insider." Each of the leaders, though experienced and qualified, was facing new challenges of a sometimes very personal nature. The monthly leaders' meetings, chaired informally by the project Supervisor, and usually attended by the project Director, provided the forum for airing experiences and observations, and for drawing conclusions. The meetings provided an opportunity to take the pulse of the project and keep it on course. The issues and crises of the preceding sections of this chapter were all brought into the leaders' meetings for discussion and clarification. Not all crises and issues could keep for scheduled meetings, but the unpressured periods provided time for reflection on the meaning of the project and its impact and demands on the leaders. The leaders had to face their own hesitations. While their training and experience was in understanding human behavior and finding the underlying causes and meanings, they did not know much about dealing with violence or how police were accustomed to dealing with it. They, therefore, had to admit to themselves and to their groups that they were on unfamiliar ground.

In the group leaders' meetings, the leaders shared their experiences. As one of the leaders (Meaders) described it, a good group meeting is similar to an excellent "bull session." But, before the leader can be privileged to participate in talk of this quality, he must, in a sense, earn the right to become a member of the group. As Meaders puts it in referring to his work with the group in this project, "As a leader in this type of training group, I tended to talk rather freely about my own feelings, about my professional work, and about personal issues that affect my perception of other people." In this manner, the leader could provide a role model of personal openness. This was one of the ways to decrease the apprehension of the members of the group that they were subjects for analysis, rather than co-workers who were trying to understand themselves in relation to other people. The leaders had to avoid anything resembling either analytic objectivity or a highly structured student-teacher relationship. By being an active participant who shared his own feelings and experiences with the group, as well as providing information about his own particular area of expertise and knowledge, the leader could hope to encourage an identification with his own curiosity about how the officers could do their work better.

The leaders' meetings discussed the various ways of viewing the leaders' role. If the officers were to be seen as full partners and professionals in their own right, then a highly structured format, set out by the leader would be impossible. Otherwise the professions of partnership would be just empty language that would breed distrust. On the other hand, the leader could not be led by the group and abdicate his own professional responsibility. Passivity on the leader's part only served to increase anxiety in the group. Each of the leaders had his own personal style as he carefully found his way between the extremes. The discussions in the leaders' meetings helped clarify these issues.

In addition to demonstrating that they could honestly talk about their own feelings, "show their cards," the group leaders were subjected to varying amounts of "cop talk" that at first was not easy to understand or to accept. Gradually it became clear that some kind of hazing or testing process was taking place. Police are exposed to the seamier aspects of life; the vividness of some descriptions, however, seemed related to their shock value. In the warm weather, the usually unseen pistols became intrusively apparent—and an uncomfortably new experience for the leaders. At times, it seems that the casual display of weaponry and the descriptions of violent encounters (not related to family crises) were intended to impress the leader,

test his courage, and perhaps allude obliquely to the dangers experienced by the police. Some of these behaviors, new and somewhat unsettling to the leaders, are not uncommon in locker-room sessions, and were to be regarded as much as signs of acceptance as of testing. The different leaders reacted in terms of their own personalities, as well as in terms of their theoretical orientation. A variety of styles was evolved, including variations in degrees of structuring and different points on the activity-passivity continuum.

Many meetings were devoted to consideration of the "counter-transference" problem, or how to promote understanding by the officers of attitudes and reactions which facilitate or impair their functioning—without invading their personal preserves. The concept of "the public vs. the private counter-transference" proved useful in guiding the discussions (2). Simply put, the leaders have not attempted to analyze the officers or to explore their personal lives or their histories. Instead, they have attempted to help the officers to understand what they feel, to use the feelings induced in them by others as a source of information about the family and the other person, and to avoid letting their feelings interfere with their understanding and effectiveness (18).

In summary, the group leaders' discussions helped to identify and clarify their own experiences and professional postures; helped define what was occurring in the officers' and the supervisory groups; and provided a forum for considering strategies to deal with emerging situations. Matters of theoretical interest and professional contributions were also considered in this setting.

GROUP SESSIONS

Learning to think psychologically, to read the language of behavior was, perhaps, the major task of the group sessions. The concept of self-esteem is easily grasped as an abstraction, but to see its operation as a precipiator of violent emotions requires repeated reviews of specific manifestations. As one group leader reports:

These were all men raised and educated in an ethic in which behavior is viewed as either good or bad, and is to be responded to accordingly. In the first month of training, the men were confronted by actors letting them know how they experienced these moralistic attitudes. This was the first time many of them realized the effect of a "right or wrong" attitude on a disputant.

I saw my first objective as training the men to see behavior as being purposive, having a cause or motivation and a comprehensible objective. I attempted to teach the

men that emotions have a language of their own where neither right or wrong, or even logic, prevails. . . .

Officer G., at the beginning of the project, felt strong urges to retaliate when cursed. Near the end of the project, he saw that when a father called him a m-f, that was a sign of that man's frustration and feeling of impotence. To retaliate out of the officer's own injured feelings would only serve to make the man feel smaller. Mature, reasonable behavior couldn't be expected from someone who sees himself as so little. Pointing out to the man in a few simple words that the officer could see he was up against a tough situation helped rebuild self-esteem and eventually helped the man to look good before his family. In my opinion, this kind of outcome won the kind of good will for the police that no amount of public relations gimmicks could ever achieve. All of this was achieved through frequent discussions of case material in which the focus was on the meaning of words and behavior, rather than on the goodness or rightness.*

The small group proved to be an ideal setting for such learning, for it provided the "binocular" vision of the professional psychologist and the professional police officer. The officers reporting on an intervention were helped over their blind spots by peer judgments and reactions to a greater extent than by the leader alone. Listening to another officer's report and helping him to deepen his understanding constantly interchanged teaching and learning roles. Interactions between members of the group could sometimes illustrate the material with incomparable vividness and immediacy.

A. The Effects of Psychological Understanding

Police training places great emphasis on respecting the public to be served. The project has helped put this respect on a more knowledgeable basis:

A major goal of the group process has been to increase the police officers' understanding of their own feelings in dealing with a variety of other people. They have come to recognize that people who seem very different at first are similar to themselves in having similar feelings, needs and concerns to deal with in their lives. . . .

Usually, police officers understandably hate to be called in on family fights because the situations are upsetting emotionally, and because they do not have concepts for understanding what is going on with the family or for coping with their own feelings and responses. Through open discussion in the groups, the officers have learned to know what they are feeling, and to accept it. They have become more comfortable dealing with "upsetting topics," such as sexuality, money, parent-child conflicts, alcoholism and feelings of fear and depression (18).

Until and unless it is experienced, it is difficult to illustrate the subtle interplay between self-knowledge

* Henry Sindos, M.S. Group Leader, Concluding Report, May, 1969.

and the ability to understand others. One of the officers found that he "turned off" and let his partner take over whenever they had to deal with a man who had been drinking. Even if the man was not drunk, he couldn't interest himself in trying to communicate or relate, except in the most perfunctory ways. The effect was one of indifference or contempt, so that the partner's task was made more difficult. During one of the sessions, the other members of the group observed that the officer in question always took the side of the woman in such instances. As he talked about his feelings of irritation with men who had drinking problems, he connected his reaction to a family experience with alcoholism. The experience was not pursued in depth, but it served to illustrate how his personal prejudice had interfered with his effectiveness in family crisis intervention. While he had subscribed to the principle of "impartiality," he could not have attained the ability to refrain from taking sides without such group sessions.

The experience of another officer illustrates the technique of using his own responses to help him understand a family situation and help the disputants. An eminently respectable, middle-class father who had succeeded by his own efforts in rising from humble beginnings evoked the antipathy of the officers toward his rebellious teenage daughter. The girl refused to study or go to college, to the dismay of her ambitious, industrious father. She has the ability, and her refusal to apply herself puzzled the officers. As one of the officers was talking to the father, he experienced a feeling of irritation in himself. The father could not seem to relate to what the officer was saying but kept repeating a catalogue of all he had sacrificed for his daughter. The officer exclaimed that he could understand what the girl might be feeling. Perhaps she, too, wanted to be listened to, to be regarded as a separate person, and not just an extension of the father's ambitious hopes. It was apparently an eye-opening experience for both father and daughter.

B. Preventing Assaults on Police

One of the aims of the project was to reduce injuries to police responding to family disputes. It had been assumed at the outset of training that the patrolman's self-esteem was an important element in his ability to avoid the kind of interchange which leads to violence. The training program, and particularly the group sessions, enhanced the officers' sense of adequacy.

What they acquired during the course of the project gave them the confidence to sit down and explore com-

plicated interpersonal issues with the feeling that they could orient themselves to what they heard and could structure the information in a way that could make sense to them. This process of making sense out of interpersonal relationships has been significantly heightened for all the men. They have come to acquire some faith in the power of understanding as a means of dealing with potentially explosive situations, and to rely less and less on outbursts of their own feeling and various forms of pressure to effect the outcome of the intervention. . . . Most of the officers came away from the training program feeling that people made more sense than they had realized. They also found out that the officers' understanding of what was going on could be communicated to the disputants. The latter could come to understand some of the emotional causes of their family fights and do something about their relationships with each other.*

The group session restructured the value system of the officers. It has been possible to deal with the "masculine mystique" which has helped make police so malleable at the hands of those who have been interested in provoking violence. Group pressures and sanctions have served to afford recognition to the skillful and effective officer who can "cool" a situation to the point where the the disputants can begin to communicate with each other. The men were encouraged to develop their own style for restructuring the initial perceptions of the disputants toward police. The response repertoire of the officers has been expanded, and their sense of mastery enhanced (5).

These concepts are remarkably consistent with those of Hans Toch:

Violent men play violent games because their non-violent repertoire is restricted. . . . Often the role taken by persons representing the controlling authority may trigger the playing out of a game that ends in violence. This role, which emphasizes physical and social distance, minimal communication, and a we-versus-they attitude, makes it all too easy . . . to view them [the authority figures] in terms of preconceived stereotypes, and to justify his behavior in terms of the stereotype. (23, p. 234 *passim*)

Everyone connected with the project kept uppermost in mind the awareness that the officers of the Unit were policemen first and foremost, and they were not to be confused as to their role-identity. In one instance which came to the attention of the project staff, a pair of officers were in an apartment interviewing a family. Someone reported that the teenage friend of one of the family was in the hall with a shotgun. The report proved to be erroneous, but the men went into action with holsters loose.

The men of the Unit appreciated the need to communicate quickly to enraged disputants that they were people as well as policemen and that they regarded

* Wilson E. Meaders, Ph.D. Group Leader, Concluding Report, May, 1969.

the combatants as people. They reported back to the group sessions the ways they used to accomplish these ends. One officer, an inveterate cigar smoker, would at times ask for permission to smoke. Others, depending on the season, would ask for a glass of water or a cup of coffee. Another, noticing a fishing rod in a corner, stunned an enraged husband out of his temper by speaking of his own interest in fishing and asking for advice on likely places and lures.

The group discussions of the language of behavior focused on the visible signs of tension. The men learned to observe posture and muscular tension, throbbing blood vessels, clenched teeth and hands, breathing and pupillary contraction and dilation. One officer described a man seated like a coiled spring, nostrils flaring, eyes darting suspiciously, obviously ready to attack or defend. Very elaborately, the officer also sat down. He put his night stick on the floor, took off his hat, slowly unbuttoned the top of his shirt and loosened his tie. He sighed, shook his head, and without a word gave every sign of being hot and tired. As the suspiciously watching man slowly relaxed, the officer smiled and started to talk in a measured way about the heat and the long flights of steps leading to the apartment. It was an effective demonstration of non-verbal suggestion. The description of the scene in the group session was obviously relished. In the underlying competitive group situation, others contributed accounts of keen observation and effective counter-measures against tension.

C. Interlocking Patterns of Conflict and Intervention

The following excerpt from the concluding report of one of the group leaders shows how the group discussions helped the men to understand more deeply what was meant by "seeing both sides":

My goal in training the officers was to teach them that fights between people, couples, parents and children, had mutual causes, that their patterns were interlocking, and that in a crisis perhaps they would be even more highlighted. The team of officers coming in could have strong reactions to what was going on but they were not to get personally involved. By personally involved I mean they were to learn how the disputes came about, what each person's part was, how the parts meshed to make the problems worse, and to share this information with the family. On the basis of this information the next step was for the officers to see if the couple could respond to the comments made by the officers about what they had observed. If there was discussion and agreement and the couple came to some understanding of what each was doing, the officers could make suggestions about how the problems could be resolved by the disputants or to get the couple to accept a referral to a social agency. Towards

the end of the project, my approach changed to having the officers help the disputants understand the problems and then to get the couples to try to come up with their own solutions rather than the officers' suggesting them to the couple. . . .

By focusing on case material and pointing out that, while each officer might have a different impression of what was going on, each could nevertheless be valid and even complementary and that there was a connection between . . . what they felt and what the families they worked with felt . . . it wasn't a question of good or bad but . . . of different points of view which had to be reconciled. Getting the officers as much as possible away from the concept of "good" and "bad" . . . was the most challenging part of the work. . . .

A list of the steps in most effective interventions would probably read as follows:

- 1 Prevent violence by separating the disputants.
- 2 Allow only one person to talk at a time.
- 3 Take the disputants into separate rooms.
- 4 Switch officers so that the stories can be checked out.
- 5 In listening to the stories, try to find out in each case what each individual contributed to the conflict.
- 6 If one of the disputants holds himself to blame, find out in what ways the other shares the blame.
- 7 Ask questions so as to get the details as clear as possible.
- 8 Find out if there has been a previous history of this kind of behavior.
- 9 See if the history goes back to before the marriage to other relationships or similar relationships in the present.
- 10 Give each person the opportunity to speak in detail.
- 11 Bring the couple together to tell their stories to each other. Again, make sure only one person speaks at a time.
- 12 Point out similarities and discrepancies in the stories.
- 13 Point out the part that each is playing.
- 14 Get a reaction from both about what the officers say they see is going on.
- 15 Ask what the couple plan to do in response to what has transpired and to the officers' reactions. If they seem to understand and say they want to try to work it out, accept it.
- 16 If you disagree with their response, suggest that they seek other help. If necessary, make the referral.
- 17 Tell them that if there is another dispute and they see that they are coming close to violence or to repeating the same pattern they should go again for counseling or contact the FCIU.
- 18 While noting that there will be further difficulties, assure them that if they sit down and talk at least they can come out in the open and try to resolve it.
- 19 If not in the beginning, then before you leave, make sure that they know your name.*

* Selwyn Lederman, Ph.D. Group Leader. Concluding Report, May, 1969.

AGENCY LIAISON

What appeared at the outset to be one of the most promising features of the project proved to be one of its most consistent frustrations. The officers were delighted to learn of the variety of social resources available in New York City, and they started out making many referrals. The agencies, for their part, seemed to welcome the creation of the FCIU and offered their help. But, despite their unquestioned interest and intentions, the realities of the organization of the family and social welfare enterprise resulted in disappointment and frustration. The agencies are geared to serve the middle-class client who will travel to the office, go through an application process, accept and keep appointments, sometimes after long waiting periods. Their work loads and clerical problems were such that it was impossible to learn with any degree of accuracy how many referrals resulted in visits to the agencies, how many of these received agency services, and what the outcomes were.

In an attempt to find some solution to the frustrating impasse with the agencies, three kinds of liaison efforts were made. After the initial field trips by the officers during the first month of training, the Psychological Center staff social worker (Mrs. Bain) undertook to maintain contact with the agencies. Since the response was not satisfactory, it was thought that a more personalized liaison than the social worker's time would allow might be more fruitful. As a part of their training experience, the student-consultants were each assigned an agency. Finally, the officers themselves were urged to see if their personal requests for information and service would improve agency responsiveness. With minor exceptions, the agencies could not adapt their policies and practices to the demands made on them by the FCIU.

ONE-WAY SCREEN AND GROUP INTERVIEWS

One of the outcomes of the disappointment with agency services was pressure from the officers that The Psychological Center offer direct help to some of the families where the need was acute. Eight families were seen by the Center social worker. In three instances, the group leaders volunteered time to demonstrate family counseling while the officers observed (with client permission) behind the one-way screen. On two occasions, the families preferred the officers to be present at the interview rather than behind the screen. Both arrangements proved instructive to the officers and quite helpful to the families.

HOME VISITS

One of the very early designs for the project provided for home visits by the students to provide service to selected families. Police Department policies modified this aspect of the plan, which would have had the students in the field sharing the work and its hazards with the officers. At that stage when the Center was seeking to pick up the slack left by other agencies, The Psychological Center sent out its social worker and student-consultants when their services were requested by families who could not visit the Center. Three families received help from student-consultants who volunteered to provide home visits over a period of time. This kind of "reaching out" was much appreciated by the officers involved and points the way for new family crisis projects.

SPOKEN SPANISH INTRODUCTION

Another way in which the Center responded to the suggestion of the officers was to organize Spanish language classes. The officers felt they would be somewhat less completely at the mercy of interpreters in dealing with Spanish-speaking residents of the precinct if they had some instruction in the colloquial idiom. In cooperation with the Romance Language Department of The City College (Prof. Taffel), a faculty member (Dr. Ramirez) recruited a corps of undergraduate language majors native to Latin America. These students and their faculty advisor developed a specialized vocabulary of highly idiomatic words and phrases and were able to bring most of the officers to a point of proficiency. The officers were all able to indicate some familiarity with the language as a means of establishing contact. Some reported that they had reached the point where they could elicit all the information needed for the data collection purposes of the project.

The cost of this aspect of the project was not borne by OLEA. Faculty time was contributed by the College and the undergraduate instructors were paid from Federal Work-Study funds. The Vernacular Vocabulary (Appendix H), with pronunciation indicated, useful phrases for police, and other teaching aids, represents a useful by-product of the project.

DISSEMINATION OF INFORMATION

As the project became better known, there was a marked increase of interest in it. Public interest was reflected in the number of hours devoted to mass media reporters by project staff members. Professional

interest was marked by numerous requests for specific information by visitors and observers, as well as by requests that project staff members address professional law enforcement and mental health groups.

A. Mass Media

Early public interest in the project continued virtually unabated throughout its duration. Newspaper and radio coverage was, in the main, thorough and accurate in describing the project. Naturally, each mass media representation resulted in further expressions of interest and the escalation required increasing commitment of time by staff members.

Mass Media

Medium	Date
The New York Times	6/ 4/67
The New York Post	6/ 8/67
The New York Daily News	6/ 9/67
Canadian Broadcasting Co. interview	7/24/67
City University Graduate Newsletter	11/67
The New York Times	2/12/68
The Record, Bergen County, N.J.	4/18/68
Long Island Press (syndicated)	5/12/68
This Week Magazine (syndicated)	5/26/68
The New York Times	5/31/68
National Broadcasting Co. interview	6/ 9/68
The New York Times	7/ 7/68
The New York Times	11/24/68
The New York Times Magazine	11/24/68
The New York Times Magazine	12/15/68
New York Amsterdam News	12/28/68
Toronto (Can.) Star	2/ 1/69
	2/ 3/69

B. Professionals

During the course of the project, there were more than 200 written requests for specific information regarding the project. Most of the requests received were from law enforcement agencies ranging from large urban police departments (Chicago, Los Angeles, Cincinnati, etc.) to small town departments and sheriff's departments. A large number of requests were received from university psychology and sociology departments, community mental health centers, departments of psychiatry of medical schools, and law schools.

In a number of instances, requests were honored for observational visits. Police administrators were most searching in their inquiries as they considered instituting the program in their own areas. It was somewhat

surprising that these law enforcement officials were interested in the program even before its results were known. Mental health professionals, on the other hand, appeared struck by the primary preventive mental health implications of the experiment. In addition, most saw in the project a model for meaningful and cooperative engagement between mental health and law enforcement. The interest of legal authorities was primarily motivated by growing concern about certain inadequacies in the system of criminal justice. In each instance the project was of interest because it acknowledged an aspect of law enforcement which exists in some kind of twilight zone in the existing criminal justice system.

Among the more than 25 visitors who came to observe and discuss the project were the directors of training of both the Chicago and New Haven (Ct.) Police Departments, an Inspector of the London (Eng.) Metropolitan Police, noted psychiatrist Dr. Karl Menninger, Raymond Parnas, of the University of Arkansas Law School, and Floyd F. Feeney, of the Center on the Administration of Criminal Justice, University of California at Davis.

Project staff members made more than 75 oral presentations to professional groups locally and throughout the country. The project was described at meetings of the American Psychological Association, the New York State Psychological Association, and the American Orthopsychiatric Association; Michigan State University School of Police Administration and Public Safety, University of Chicago School of Social Service Administration; Columbia University, University of California at Berkeley, Harvard University, Adelphi University, University of Wisconsin, etc. On a number of occasions, patrolmen of the FCIU participated in educational programs as instructors. For example, Patrolmen Bryan and Timmins participated with Drs. Bard and Berkowitz at the Inter-University Forum for Educators in Community Psychiatry, University of Chicago; Patrolmen Ellsworth and Timony, at the Forum at the University of Vermont; Patrolmen Beatty and Halfhide, at New York University Law School. On June 26, 1968, the project hosted a National Institute of Mental Health workshop from the University of Colorado. The group was comprised of leading social and clinical psychologists from eight major universities.

A number of articles describing the project and its implications have appeared in the professional literature or are currently in press:

Bard, M. and Berkowitz, B. Training police as specialists in family crisis intervention. *Community Mental Health Journal* 3(4), 1967, 315-317.

Bard, M. and Berkowitz, B. Family disturbance as a police function. *Law Enforcement Science and Technology II*. (ed. S.I. Cohn). Proceedings of the Second National Symposium on Law Enforcement Science and Technology, Chicago, Illinois: IIT Research Institute, 1968, pp. 565-568.

Bard, M. Extending psychology's impact through existing community institutions. *American Psychologist* 24(6), June 1969, 610-612.

Bard, M. Family intervention police teams as a community mental health resource. *Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science* 60(2), 1969, 247-250.

Bard, M. and Berkowitz, B. Community as Laboratory. To be published in the *Proceedings* of the Conference on Psychoanalysis and Community Psychology, Adelphi University, N.Y.

Berkowitz, B. Alternatives to Violence. To be published in the *Proceedings* of the Symposium on Violence and Its Regulation, Amer. Orthopsychiatric Assn., N.Y.

Bard, M. and Berkowitz, B. A community psychology consultation program in police family crisis intervention. To be published in *Int. J. of Social Psychiatry*.

EVALUATION

STATISTICAL FINDINGS

The findings to be presented are, in each instance, those specifically described as evaluative criteria in the original project plan.

Changes in the total number of family disturbance complaints in the demonstration precinct as compared with the comparison precinct.

The 30th Precinct FCIU intervened on 1,388* occasions with 962 families during the project's operational phase. The 24th Precinct (comparison) recorded 492 interventions with 484 families (Table 1). The total number of family disturbances reported by the FCIU of the 30th Precinct is about three times that reported by the regular patrol force of the 24th Precinct. This finding is not consistent with expected incidence. While the population of the 24th Precinct is larger and while regularly reported crime statistics are proportionally similar in both precincts, it is unlikely that the real numbers of family disturbances would be so disparate. Ethnic differences in the two precincts (30th, largely Negro; 24th, largely Puerto Rican) would not appear to explain the lower incidence in the 24th Precinct.

Table 1
Comparison of Differences (X²)
in Total Family Crisis Interventions
30th Pct. FCIU and Patrol Force 24th Pct.
7/1/67-4/30/69

Time Period	Total Calls		X ²	p
	30th	24th		
July 1967	107	63	10.88	.001
Aug 1967	117	44	32.20	.001
Sept 1967	76	30	19.10	.001
Quarter	300	137	60.15	.001
Oct 1967	89	29	29.5	.001
Nov 1967	92	32	28.07	.001
Dec 1967	74	24	24.50	.001

Quarter	255	85	84.0	.001
Jan 1968	83	25	30.1	.001
Feb 1968	82	22	33.47	.001
Mar 1968	75	18	33.72	.001
Quarter	240	65	99.27	.001
Apr 1968	42	15	11.86	.001
May 1968	55	24	16.86	.001
June 1968	65	15	30.01	.001
Quarter	162	54	53.0	.001
July 1968	59	18	20.78	.001
Aug 1968	68	17	29.41	.001
Sept 1968	49	11	22.82	.001
Quarter	176	46	74.96	.001
Oct 1968	37	14	9.49	.01
Nov 1968	43	13	15.02	.001
Dec 1968	33	18	3.84	.05
Quarter	113	45	28.4	.001
Jan 1969	41	20	6.56	.01
Feb 1969	44	11	18.62	.001
Mar 1969	32	18	3.38	n.s.
Quarter	117	49	27.04	.001
Apr 1969	25	11	4.69	.05
Total	1,388	492	426.07	.001

The demonstration precinct (30th) engaged in a significantly greater number of family crisis interventions than did the comparison precinct (24th) during the project ($p = <.001$). This was reflected in each quarter ($p = <.001$) and during each month except March, 1969, when the difference approached a significance of .05 by the Chi-Square Test.

Comparing the two precincts in terms of the cumulative total of interventions over time reflects the

* This figure includes interventions made on 57 occasions by non-FCIU patrolmen but which were recorded and maintained in the FCIU data bank as well as in the family car file.

FIG. A. Total Family Crisis Interventions
30th Pct. and 24th Pct. (7/1/67-3/31/69)

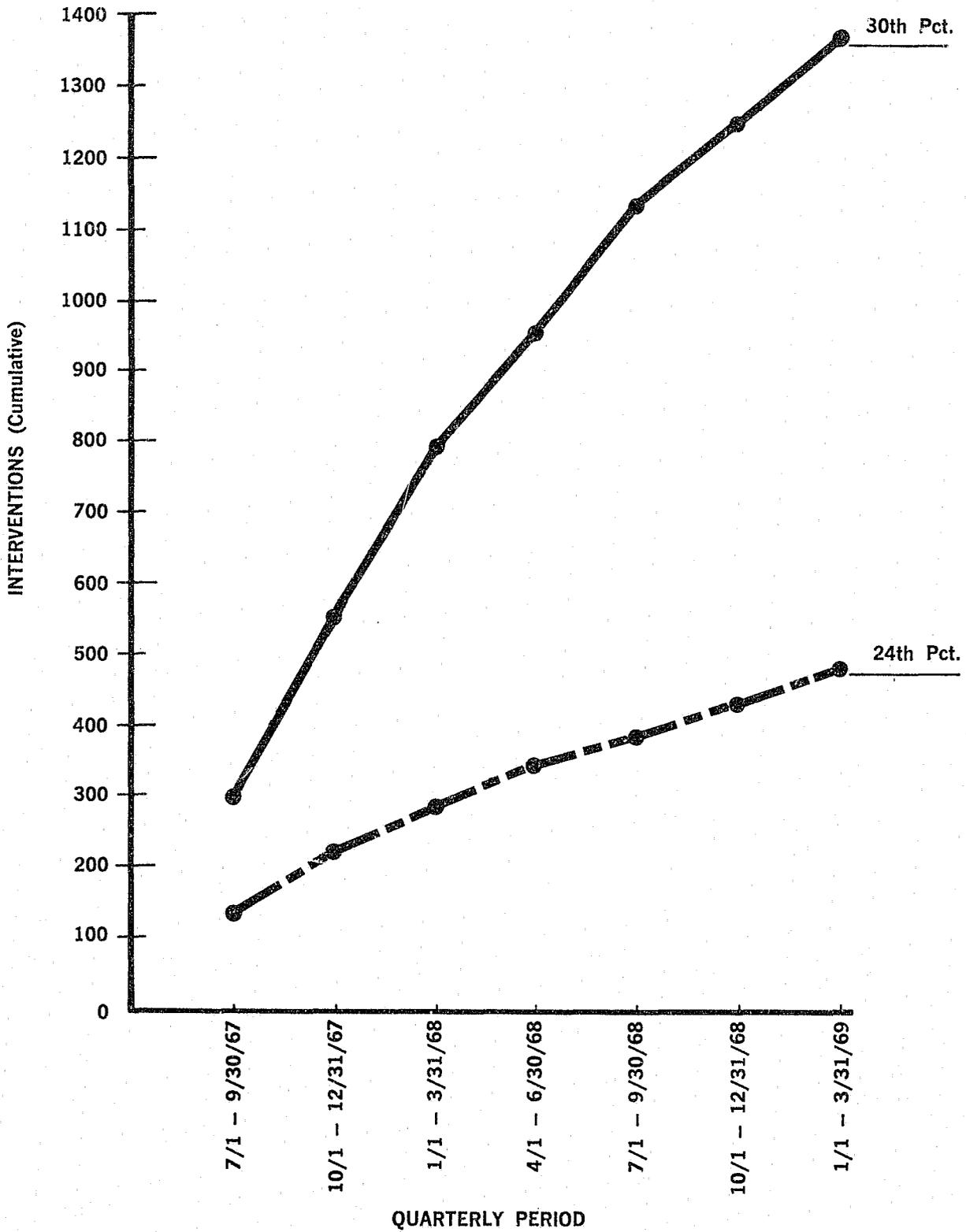


Table 2
 Number and Percentage of Repeat Interventions 30th Pct. FCIU and Patrol Force 24th Pct.
 7/1/67-4/30/69

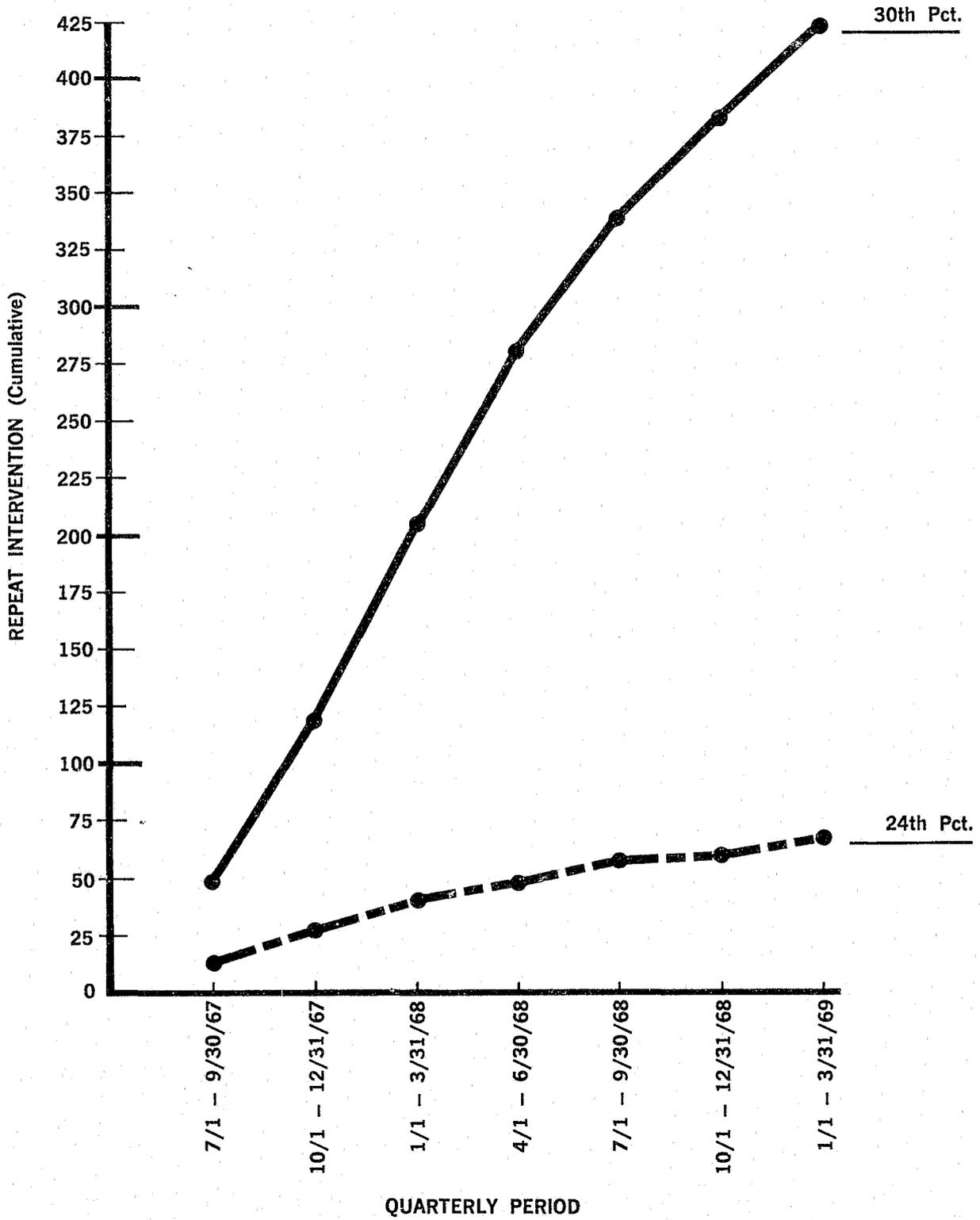
Time Period	Number Repeat Calls				% Repeat Calls				
	30th	24th	X ²	p	30th	24th	X ²	p	p
July 1967	11	1	6.75	.01	10.3	1.6	4.98		.05
Aug 1967	22	5	9.48	.01	18.8	11.4	1.34		n.s.
Sept 1967	17	6	4.35	.05	22.4	20.0	0.05		n.s.
Quarter	50	12	22.1	.001	16.7	8.8	2.21		n.s.
Oct 1967	18	5	6.26	.05	20.2	17.3	0.1		n.s.
Nov 1967	28	6	12.97	.001	30.4	18.7	2.33		n.s.
Dec 1967	22	4	11.12	.001	29.7	16.7	3.10		n.s.
Quarter	68	15	32.6	.001	26.7	17.6	1.48		n.s.
Jan 1968	25	3	15.75	.001	30.1	12.0	6.95		.01
Feb 1968	29	5	15.56	.001	35.4	22.7	2.36		n.s.
Mar 1968	33	4	21.19	.001	44.0	22.2	6.54		.01
Quarter	87	12	55.3	.001	36.2	18.5	5.10		.05
Apr 1968	18	1	13.47	.001	42.9	6.7	24.98		.001
May 1968	29	5	15.56	.001	52.7	20.8	12.99		.001
June 1968	28	2	20.83	.001	43.1	13.3	14.71		.001
Quarter	75	8	52.48	.001	46.3	14.8	15.2		.001
July 1968	22	2	15.04	.001	37.3	11.1	13.12		.001
Aug 1968	19	3	10.23	.01	27.9	17.6	1.9		n.s.
Sept 1968	16	5	4.76	.05	32.7	45.5	1.78		n.s.
Quarter	57	10	31.58	.001	32.4	21.7	1.74		n.s.
Oct 1968	17	0	15.06	.001	45.9	00	43.92		.001
Nov 1968	1	1	6.75	.01	25.6	7.7	8.57		.01
Dec 1968	16	1	11.53	.001	48.5	5.6	32.45		.001
Quarter	44	2	36.54	.001	38.9	4.4	25.92		.001
Jan 1969	15	3	6.72	.01	36.6	15.0	8.22		.01
Feb 1969	10	0	8.10	.01	22.7	00	20.74		.001
Mar 1969	15	4	5.26	.05	45.6	22.2	7.40		.01
Quarter	40	7	21.79	.001	34.2	14.3	7.36		.01
Apr 1969	5	2	0.57	n.s.	20.0	18.2	0.02		n.s.
Total	426	68	257.99	.001	30.7	13.8	5.68		.05

dramatic difference in both total number of interventions and the rate at which such interventions occurred. (Fig. A). In this figure, one can see that the 30th Precinct FCIU made interventions at a consistently greater rate than did the 24th Precinct.

One possible explanation of the difference in totals could be the motivation to record incidents as they occurred. The FCIU obviously had high motivation to record each incident despite the abundance of "paper work" ordinarily required of patrolmen. It may be that the demands of "paper work" on the patrol force of the 24th Precinct resulted in the

expedient of not completing a family disturbance report where, in the judgment of the officers, the incident was not sufficiently serious to so require. Although explicit instructions to the regular patrol force of the 24th Precinct required their completion of a report on each family incident, it would appear that the comparison precinct patrolmen established their own "expedience priority system." It is interesting to note that, during a three-month pilot experience in the 30th Precinct, before the onset of the present project, there were 91 family incidents reported. This attests to the common tendency in all police departments to under-report this particular event.

FIG. B. Total Repeat Family Crisis Interventions
30th Pct. and 24th Pct. (7/1/67 - 3/31/69)



Repeated interventions in the demonstration precinct as compared with the recurrence rate in the comparison precinct.

The 30th Precinct FCIU clearly demonstrated consistency in recording repeated interventions with the same families. The FCIU recorded a significantly greater number of repeat cases ($p = <.001$) than did the 24th Precinct during each quarter and throughout the project. While 30.7% of all FCIU interventions (1,388) were repeats, only 13.8% of all 24th Precinct interventions (492) were repeats. The difference in percentages between the two is significant at the .05 level of confidence (Table 2). The difference between the two precincts when their cumulative repeat interventions over time are plotted in graph form is even more dramatic (Fig. B). In this figure one can see that the 30th Precinct FCIU made repeat interventions at a consistently greater rate than the 24th Precinct.

The significantly greater percentage of repeat interventions by the 30th Precinct FCIU probably reflects the greater attention to family disturbance as a police function which was inherent in the project. However, the more rigorous data collection in the 30th Precinct undoubtedly reveals a more nearly accurate estimate of family disturbance as it affects police manpower utilization than has been available through traditional recording practices.

On the other hand, the availability of a more effective police service in this connection may have resulted in greater and more effective community utilization of the FCIU. While the 30th Precinct showed a smaller percentage of "once-only" calls (30th, 75.7%; 24th, 89.4%), the difference was not statistically significant. (Table 3.) However, the *tendency* for the 30th Precinct to have a smaller percentage of "once-only" interventions may be mute testimony to the unreliability of comparison precinct data. That is, if initial cases went unreported and the same families were later visited, they would erroneously be reported as initial cases rather than as repeats. By the same token, the FCIU percentage of repeat interventions would have to be greater as a result of greater accuracy of recording. However, it should be noted that a significantly greater percentage of 30th Precinct repeat interventions could indicate that chronically disordered families may have become better able to utilize the police as an acceptable alternative to violent acting out.

Changes in the total number of homicides in the demonstration precinct as compared with changes in the comparison precinct.

In order to establish some base-line statistics on

Table 3
Distribution of Family Crisis Interventions
30th Pct. FCIU and Patrol Force 24th Pct.
7/1/67-4/30/69

Percentage of all families seen a total of:	30th Pct.	24th Pct.
1 time	75.7%	89.4%
2 times	16.2	7.3
3 times	3.5	2.3
4 times	1.8	0.5
5 times	1.0	0.2
6 times	0.5	0.2
7 times	0.4	none
8 times	0.2	none
9 times	0.1	none
10 times	0.3	none
11 times	0.2	none
12 times	none	none
13 times	none	none
14 times	none	none
15 times	0.1	none
	100.00%	99.9%

homicides and assaults, the number of such crimes for the two-year period preceding the demonstration was computed. Total homicides increased considerably (three and one-half times) in the demonstration precinct, while there was a one-third reduction in homicides in the comparison precinct (Table 4).

Clearly, the operation of the FCIU failed to effect any change in overall homicide incidence in the demonstration area. Also, it is difficult to explain the reduction of homicides in the comparison precinct. It should be noted, however, that there has been a general homicide increase city-wide during the period covered by this study.

Table 4
Comparison of Homicides and Assaults
30th Pct. FCIU and Patrol Force 24th Pct.
7/1/67-4/30/69

	30th Pct.		24th Pct.	
	7/1/65-4/30/67	7/1/67-4/30/69	7/1/65-4/30/67	7/1/67-4/30/69
Homicides	12	42	48	32
Family Homicides	1	5	2	2
Assaults	1,837	1,900	2,981	2,719
Family Assaults	n.a.	368	n.a.	506

Changes in the number of homicides among family members in both the demonstration precinct and the comparison precinct.

The number of family homicides increased in the

demonstration precinct and remained constant in the comparison precinct (Table 4), when compared with the period preceding the operational phase of twenty-two months. However, in at least two instances of family homicide in the 30th Precinct, the victim and the perpetrator were not residents of the precinct but were transients at the time of the slaying. More important, too, it should be noted that *not one of the five families had previously been known to the FCIU.*

This finding has at least two possible implications. One, it may be that family homicides are a phenomenon which occurs with such suddenness as to preclude any warning that a fatal outcome is imminent. That is, families who solicit police intervention may, in fact, be less inclined to violent and homicidal acting out than those who do not ask for police intervention. On the other hand, it may be that there would have been an even greater number of family homicides in the 30th Precinct had the FCIU not been available as a resource. Skillful police intervention may have presented families in conflict with an option which served as an alternative to violence.

Changes in total number of assaults in the demonstration precinct as contrasted with assaults in the comparison precinct.

The total number of reported assaults in the demonstration precinct is less than that reported in the comparison precinct over the project period (Table 4). However, as contrasted with the base-line data of the previous twenty-two months, the 30th Precinct shows a slight and non-significant increase in the total number of assaults, while the 24th Precinct shows a decrease in assaults. Changes in rate of reported assaults do not appear to have been affected by the operations of the FCIU.

Changes in family assaults in the demonstration precinct as contrasted with such assaults in the comparison precinct.

No base-line data are available for the twenty-two month period prior to the demonstration project's onset due to the fact that family assaults were not separately recorded during the 1965-67 period.

During the project's duration there were about one-third more family assaults in the comparison precinct than in the demonstration precinct. Family assaults in both precincts comprised about 19.5% of total assaults. Arrests for assault in family disturbances were 2.5% less in the demonstration precinct than in the comparison precinct. The significance of this difference is difficult to interpret, because there is no as-

surance of uniformity of the data from each precinct. However, there is the suggestion that the FCIU may have maintained a lower arrest rate in family disputes through the use of mediation and referral techniques. This, in turn, may have reduced the burden on the courts of cases wherein, as is commonly found, the complainant ultimately drops the charge. This finding would tend to support questions which have been raised concerning the appropriateness of existing judicial processes in dealing with family conflict.

Changes in the number of injuries to patrolmen responding to family disturbances within the demonstration precinct and in comparison with the comparison precinct.

During the entire period of the demonstration project, *no injuries were sustained by members of the FCIU.* Two members of the regular patrol force of the 30th Precinct and one member of the 24th Precinct patrol force sustained injuries while intervening in family disputes.

This finding is particularly striking in that the FCIU patrolmen had a much greater probability of being injured in view of their greater individual exposure to family disturbance. The absence of injury despite the greater likelihood of injury would have to be attributed to the skill acquired by Unit officers in moderating family disputes. The implications of this finding are profound. The injuries sustained by three *non-FCIU* patrolmen in the 30th and 24th Precincts can be projected for the New York City Police Department as a whole. Although exact numbers are not a matter of public record, there are approximately 30,000 members of the New York department. Estimating the *average* complement of officers in each of 77 precincts at about 200 men, it would appear appropriate to estimate that about 18,000 men might be involved in police duties which include family disputes. Given the validity of these estimates and based upon the experience in this project, a projection of 135 patrolmen injured city-wide in a similar twenty-two month period would not be unrealistic. The absence of injury to the eighteen men of the high-risk FCIU becomes even more significant in light of this projection.

Follow-up visits to determine outcome in families served by the FCIU as compared with families served by the comparison precinct.

As previously noted, follow-up visits were precluded by the concern of the New York City Police Depart-

ment for the civil and individual rights of the families visited by the FCIU.

SUMMARY OF STATISTICAL FINDINGS

The demonstration in Police Family Crisis Intervention was evaluated primarily in relation to a police function as it affects certain categories of crime. Over the life of the project, the demonstration precinct reported a significantly greater number of interventions; there was an increase in total homicides (significantly) and in total assaults (not significantly); there was an increase in family homicides but there were no homicides in any of the 962 families previously seen by the FCIU; family assaults decreased; and there were no injuries to any officer in the Family Crisis Intervention Unit. In addition to the formal evaluative criteria, there were a number of impressions and observations bearing upon the demonstration project.

OBSERVATIONS AND IMPRESSIONS

A. Implications for the Community

Community acceptance of the FCIU can be inferred in a number of ways. Unit members reported an increasing number of referrals of families by other families previously served. In addition, there has been an increase in the number of families entering the station house to ask for specific Unit patrolmen. The Unit patrolmen reported community acknowledgment of their status by such comments as, "Oh, you must be those special cops."

After a time, it became apparent to the officers that the family radio motor patrol was known in the community; residents apparently learned the family car number. The officers commented on the noticeable absence of "freezing" when the car rolled into a block. The men reported an unusual absence of tension in most instances of interaction with the citizenry. There were any number of personal expressions of interest and support by community leaders and by ministers, educators, etc.

One of the most telling signs of a positive community response to the FCIU was a negative one—that is, in the absence of a reaction. In these times of community organization for action, a program like this one would have been the natural target for attack if the community felt it to be inimical to its interests. The fact that a law enforcement agency was involved makes this an even greater likelihood. However, in no instance did a community organization, regardless of

its militancy, object to the service provided by the FCIU. In fact, it is particularly noteworthy that a personal attack on Dr. Bard and the project by The City College Students for a Democratic Society and Youth Against War and Facism failed to rally any community support. There is every reason to believe that this form of tacit community acceptance speaks as loudly as would the most strident expression of opposition.

B. Implications for Law Enforcement

The initial reaction of most policemen to the experiment (including some Unit patrolmen themselves) was one of cynicism and skepticism. The regular patrol force of the 30th Precinct were initially overtly cool to the experiment largely because they saw the Unit as functioning in an exclusively specialized manner which would remove its members from "real" police duties. As the operational phase progressed and the other officers became aware of the generalized patrol functions of the FCIU, there was a noticeable change in attitude, particularly among the younger members of the command. FCIU patrolmen were approached by other officers and queried about what they did and how they did it. Apparently it was the younger officers who showed the greatest interest; more senior policemen tended to minimize the significance of the project throughout.

Police Department statistics give every indication that the basic professional identity of the Unit officers remained intact. One measure of this is to be found in the favorable disciplinary record of the Unit and in the fact that non-family enforcement activity of the FCIU was on a par with other members of the command (e.g., summons enforcement for parking, moving and other violations, arrests for burglaries and robberies, etc.).

Superior officers at the precinct level made repeated references to the high morale of the Unit. It is our impression that increased professional responsibility increased job satisfaction. Mastery of technical skills and the challenge of decision-making responsibility are conducive to high morale in all occupations.

It is our impression also that policemen themselves feel more secure and less defensive generally when they have professional skills equal to the increasing complexities of their role. To lessen the gap between community and the police, law enforcement personnel can generate respect and trust by performing their complex order-maintenance functions in ways that are consistent with the citizens' hopes. It would appear that the FCIU members demonstrated to some extent the viability of such an outlook.

C. Implications for Mental Health

As a community mental health resource, the police are an agency without parallel. In the interlocking network of helping agencies, the police have stood in a unique position in the psychological front lines. By increasing the sensitivity and professional perceptiveness of policemen, an unusual early warning mechanism for identifying psychological and social pathology is made available to the community.

While the intent of this project was to deal with domestic disturbances, the FCIU became a resource for a range of human problems. Their trained ability to discriminate among the problems and their knowledge of the options open to them permitted the officers to move in helpful directions and yet to remain faithful to their basic peace-keeping mission.

In many instances, what appeared on the surface to be a domestic disturbance turned out to be a problem of a very different nature. For example, a husband and wife dispute might have been precipitated by the frustrations and desperation produced by three weeks of the husband's unemployment. Stereotypical management of the dispute might have prevented discerning the underlying cause of the friction in an otherwise good relationship. With such knowledge, patrolmen can foster rational insights in the disputants and, if necessary, make an appropriate and helpful referral. In a sense the patrolmen becomes a "case-identifier," but, even more important, an initial screening or intake professional. And it must be emphasized that this level of performance in no way compromises police authority or responsibility.

An unexpected impression gained from the experience of the FCIU is the wide range of human difficulties which are masked by the designation "family dispute." Health problems, social difficulties, housing problems, and mental illness all came within the purview of the FCIU, yet in each instance the complaint was originally designated as a "family dispute." In a number of instances, for example, the domestic disturbance was a thin veneer for a helpless father's or mother's request that the police act as a father surrogate to regulate the behavior of an adolescent out of control. ("Officer, you talk to her! I can't do a thing with her!")

It became quite clear during the course of the project that police officers are in a unique position to identify emotional disorder at its earliest stage. Often summoned to deal with bizarre behavior, they are summoned just as frequently to deal with situations in which subtle behavioral changes may connote an incipient or decompensating mental illness. For exam-

ple, the ability to detect an agitated depression and deal with it appropriately has far-ranging potentials.

If primary prevention has any validity as a mental health concept, there is no helping agency in a better position to put it to the test than the police. However, it is important to emphasize that by so doing the police need not be identified as psychiatrists or social workers. Indeed, to confuse the professional identity of the policeman would in itself constitute a violation of the concept's validity. The aims of community mental health can be served within the framework of the peace-keeping mission of law enforcement.

Social Agencies as Resources The role of community social and mental health agencies in supporting the efforts of the FCIU is particularly worthy of note. In the early months of the project, the Unit members referred a high percentage of cases to other agencies. Insecurity about their experimental role and unrealistic expectations regarding community agency potentials contributed to this early tendency to excessive referral. However, as the men gained a sense of mastery, they tended to rely on their own mediative skills and to make referrals only when the outside agency could be enlisted to provide a service outside the arbitrator's limited crisis role.

On the other hand, the officers experienced a growing disenchantment with social agencies. Much disappointment was expressed that agencies appeared to be overburdened and seemed unable or unwilling to provide flexible crisis services often required in support of a front-line operational group like the FCIU. On many occasions, the men expressed the wish for a social agency to be available 24 hours a day; one to which they might refer people at any time of the day or night.

The officers of the FCIU were encouraged to exercise their own judgment in the matter of referrals. The preferred outcome of course was one in which resolution of the conflict was brought about through the officers' intervention . . . the theory being that skillful intervention at the height of the crisis is more meaningful than even extensive treatment when the situation has cooled and defenses are again intact. It was impressive, however, that the Unit referred to a wide range of agencies (Table 5), indicating their learned ability to discriminate the special needs of each case.

Over the course of the project, one-quarter of all interventions were processed without referral (Table 5). Of the 74.8% of all the families seen in the project who were referred, 34.8% were referred to Family Court. Indeed, Family Court referrals comprised almost one-half (48.7%; Table 6) of all referrals.

Table 5
Families Referred to Community Resources By the 30th Pct. FCIU
7/1/67-4/30/60

Agency	Number of families referred	Percent of	
		All families served	Families referred only
Catholic Charities	128	13.3	17.8
Hamilton Grange	43	4.5	6.0
A.A.	14	1.5	1.9
Psychological Center	30	3.1	4.2
Family Court	335	34.8	46.6
S.P.C.C.	2	.2	.3
Criminal Court	2	.2	.3
Civil Court	2	.2	.3
Dept. of Welfare	21	2.2	2.9
Hosp. (physical)	48	5.0	6.7
Hosp. (psychiat.)	9	.9	1.3
Legal Aid	8	.9	1.1
Private physician	6	.6	.8
Other public agency	71	7.4	9.9
Total	719	74.8	100.0

Table 6
Referral Patterns in the 30th Pct. FCIU and the 24th Pct.
7/1/67-4/30/69

Agency	Number of Referrals*				% of All Referrals			
	30th Pct	24th Pct.	X ²	p	30th Pct.	24th Pct.	X ²	p
Cath. Char.	137	0	135.0	.001	17.4	0.0	15.5	.001
Hamilton Grange	43	0	41.0	.001	5.5	0.0	3.7	n.s.
A.A.	20	2	13.1	.001	2.5	0.7	0.2	n.s.
Psych. Cntr.	32	0	30.0	.001	4.1	0.0	2.3	n.s.
Fam. Ct.	383	237	33.9	.001	48.7	88.4	10.9	.001
S.P.C.C.	2	1	0.0	n.s.	00.3	0.4	0.0	n.s.
Crim. Ct.	2	3	0.0	n.s.	00.3	1.1	.03	n.s.
Civil Ct.	2	1	0.0	n.s.	00.3	0.4	0.0	n.s.
Dept. Welfare	21	0	19.0	.001	2.7	0.0	1.07	n.s.
Hosp. (phys.)	48	1	43.2	.001	6.1	0.4	3.4	n.s.
Hosp. (psych.)	9	0	7.1	.01	1.1	0.0	0.0	n.s.
Legal Aid	8	0	6.1	.05	1.0	0.0	0.0	n.s.
Private Lawyer	0	4	2.2	n.s.	0.0	1.5	0.0	n.s.
Private physician	6	2	1.1	n.s.	0.8	0.7	0.7	n.s.
Clergyman	0	1	0.0	n.s.	0.0	0.4	0.0	n.s.
Other pub. agcy.	71	11	43.3	.001	9.2	4.1	1.3	n.s.
Other priv. agcy.	0	5	3.2	n.s.	0.0	1.9	0.0	n.s.
Total	785	267		.001	100	100		

*There was a total of 785 referrals to 719 families in the 30th Precinct by the FCIU. There was a total of 268 referrals to 263 families in the 24th Precinct.

This rate of referral to Family Court may be because Family Court services are extensive (psychiatric, social and family counseling) and the Court's interest in the project ensured a continued and reliable referral resource. Another frequently utilized resource was the local Catholic Charities Family Counseling Unit

(17.4% of referrals; Table 6). It was a frequent choice for referral primarily because it is located centrally in the 30th Precinct.

Closer examination of the referral patterning in both precincts reveals additional significant findings (Table 6). Family Court referrals by the 24th Pre-

cinct patrol force was 88.4% of all referrals made. The significantly greater percentage of such referrals by the 24th Precinct may signify less discrimination in the use of the Court. However, the 30th Precinct FCIU made a significantly greater number of referrals to hospitals for both physical and psychiatric reasons and a significantly greater number of referrals ($p = .05$ or better) to at least six other welfare or social agencies.

Given the difficulties mentioned earlier in this report regarding follow-up, it was particularly important to attempt to learn if individuals or families referred actually took action upon the referral. Table 7 presents these data. It is somewhat discouraging to note the large numbers for whom *no information* is available. Except in relatively rare instances, routine inquiries were made each month by form (Appendix E). Either the form was not returned or, if it was, it may have contained no entries. The cooperation of some agencies was clear, most agencies were either unwilling or unable to cooperate.

Our efforts to ascertain outcome in cases referred yielded the data in Table 7. It is important to note that about 20% of all families referred (and about whom we have information) actually did apply for assistance at the agency recommended by the FCIU. It is interesting that these data indicate the greatest likelihood of acting upon the referral occurs when concrete or tangible services are expected of the agency (e.g., hospital or welfare agency) by the applicant. The more abstract or intangible the service offered, the less likely the person is to apply to the agency. This finding is consistent with previous experience in social service.

D. Implications for Education

In many ways, the project constituted an experiment in education as well as one in law enforcement and mental health. On the one hand, it attempted to provide technical skills usually associated with the helping professions to a group of police officers whose personal safety has been traditionally thought to be associated with a very different kind of professional identity and personal performance. On the other hand, the project attempted to broaden the scope of professional training for clinical psychologists by exposing them to a world usually alien to them.

Police Education The major educational departure in this project was the rejection of the traditional military training model. Most police instruction is devised to conform to a model in which disciplinary control is overriding and in which technical information

Table 7
Actions Taken on Referral by Families
Served by the 30th Pct. FCIU
7/1/67-4/30/69

Agency	Number of Families Referred	Families Who		No Verification*
		Applied	Didn't Apply	
Cath. Char.	128	2	3	123
Hamilton Grange	43	7	26	10
A.A.	14	0	8	6
Psych. Center	30	8	22	0
Family Ct.	335	24	190	121
S.P.C.C.	2	0	0	2
Crim. Ct.	2	0	1	1
Civil Ct.	2	1	0	1
Dept. Welfare	21	4	2	15
Hosp. (phys.)	48	12	10	26
Hosp. (psych.)	9	2	2	5
Legal Aid	8	0	0	8
Private physician	6	0	0	6
Other pub. agcy.	71	9	13	49
Total	719	69	277	373
% of 719	100	9.6	38.5	51.9

*In most of these cases, no reply was provided by the agency in response to routine inquiry.

is conveyed "by the numbers." Much of the instruction is provided by lecture (with or without audio-visual aids) in conjunction with instructional manuals. The approach is conducive to rote learning for automatized functions; it may well be inimical to functions which require analysis, discrimination, decision-making, and flexibility.

A major assumption in this project was that many of a policeman's functions are service-oriented, and hence learning them should be developed by "educational" means rather than by disciplined "training" methods. The distinction between education and training is nowhere as clear as when one carefully examines the objectives of the program or course involved.

In this project, we eschewed typical and traditional training to some extent. We added new techniques of individual and group interaction with an emphasis upon self-understanding, in order to increase the capacity for flexibility in selecting appropriately from among an increased repertoire of response options. We also assumed that education of this kind could not be accomplished immediately but, rather, that it required reinforcement over time.

The educational program for the FCIU contained elements of the traditional training model and the newer educational model. The intensive training period was essentially concerned with informational

input in an accelerated form. But, even during the intensive training period, the officers were engaged in the early stages of enlarging their cognitive experience through interpersonal experiencing. The subsequent weekly consultations were calculated to permit growth and change over time; to allow for the gradual absorption of knowledge not on an intellectual level alone, but on an inner-experience level as well.

We believe that our approach has been successful. The most telling finding in this connection is in the absence of injury to the officers of the FCIU. Traditional police training leaves the law-enforcement officer unprepared for the subtle complexities of human conflict. His limited response repertoire and his lack of personal insight lead to fear and a rigidity which often prompts inappropriate behavior leading to a tragic outcome. None of the FCIU was injured despite a high probability that they would be, by the very nature of the project. That they were not injured testifies, in some measure, to their successful educational experience and consequent personal and professional growth.

Psychology Education The traditional process by which students of behavior are produced leaves much to be desired. Rooted in disciplined scholarship, much of the method of developing psychologists who specialize in *human* behavior is astonishing in its exclusiveness. A clinical psychologist, for example, may acquire his professional identity having been exposed almost exclusively to laboratories populated by experimental rats or experimental sophomores; or, if his experience has extended beyond the campus, to the sterile and highly disciplined hospital or clinic environment.

There is a growing realization in psychology and elsewhere that "life is with people." The psychological professions have come slowly to understand the importance of altering traditional training procedures to make them more appropriately educational. This approach requires immersion of the professional psychologist in the world of real people who live as real people live. This kind of education requires the enlargement of purely cognitive learning by procedures which enhance self-confrontation and the development of insight. It should ideally increase the range of adaptive alternatives to permit the psychologist to "know" human behavior on an emotional as well as a purely intellectual level.

This project has sought to achieve this kind of enlargement in the education of clinical psychologists. The project afforded an opportunity to learn techniques of consultation by providing consultations to an "atypical" professional colleague. It assured the con-

frontation with issues of authority often engendered by policemen. More than anything, perhaps, in exposing them to life as it really is, it may have helped our doctoral students to relinquish some of the omnipotence and grandiosity that is often a by-product of training in the helping professions.

It is our impression that the experience in this project provided our psychology doctoral students with a foundation which cannot help but serve them well in the future. In addition, many of them have altered their understanding of law enforcement, being enabled to perceive the myriad and complex professional responsibilities the officer has thrust upon him by society. And, finally, in the process of consulting and interacting, the students were exposed to rich case material from real life—the kind rarely seen in the restricted middle class and highly verbal world from which most students come and with which they are so comfortable. For the foregoing reasons, it was our impression that the project was successful as an educational experience for our doctoral students.

E. Implementation and Institutionalization

The primary problem of institutionalizing the demonstration in family crisis intervention relates to the enormous size of New York City, its complexity, and to the large numbers involved in its policing. The educational and logistical problems associated with extending the approach developed in this project are staggering. Indeed, these problems cannot be minimized when considering the implications inherent in the methods of the project.

Earlier in this report, reference was made to the fact that traditional methods of police training parallel those of the military. Much of this attitude is probably directly traceable to the repeated necessity for rapidly training large numbers for para-military functions. And, as with the military, the attitude prevails that the training function can be effectively discharged only by those who are themselves a part of the system. While understandable, this is an attitude which militates against effective extension of the methods and the approach embodied in this project.

If past experience is any guide, there will be a tendency to legitimize family crisis intervention as a police function by curriculum insertions in present training programs (recruit and in service) and by developing a "how-to" instructional manual. Such an approach, while both predictable and understandable, represents a rejection of the basic contribution of the present demonstration. What is more, it implies the illusion of change where no change in fact occurs.

Extension of the approach to an aspect of law enforcement developed in this demonstration must be considered in the light of the setting in which the experiment was conducted. As a limited demonstration in a circumscribed area, it may have been regarded as manageable; as a limitless operation in the distant reaches of a vast institution, it may appear mind boggling in complexity. But, regardless of the awesome complications involved, the validity of the demonstration effort can be maintained only if its integrity is preserved.

The approach undertaken in this project demonstrated a viable method for accomplishing collaboration between professionals in law enforcement and in mental health. Usually operating in mutually exclusive isolation, these two groups have, in this project, demonstrated the capacity to collaborate successfully to their mutual advantage and to the advantage of the community as well. For each to retreat to traditional positions of isolation violates one of the most vital aspects of the demonstration. The measure of the demonstration's effectiveness will be reflected in the extent to which such collaboration continues. National and international interest in this project by both professional groups suggests efforts at "action-collaboration" will indeed be carried forward.

Any institution must move with caution in extending an innovative program. When the innovation involves collaboration with those outside the institutional system, past experiences with "outsiders" is a critical determinant in the process of implementation and institutionalization. The police have learned

through bitter experience that most "intellectuals" and "do-gooders" fail to understand their problems, that such individuals tend to be critical and fault-finding, and that they frequently fail the most fundamental tests of trust. These reality experiences may stand as a primary barrier in the process of institutionalization.

Whether in relation to large urban centers or to small towns, however, the project has succeeded in highlighting what may well be a most significant but unheralded aspect of law enforcement. Traditional police training and the very organizational structure of most police departments fail to acknowledge or to reward the intricate web of interpersonal services performed by policemen. The necessity for developing organizational means for accomplishing human conflict resolution; the development of a system of incentives and rewards in relation to "order-maintenance" as well as to "enforcement"; the introduction of educational methods appropriate to functions to be performed; and the abandonment of a stance of exclusive isolation are the implicit requirements of institutionalizing the methods of this demonstration.

Finally, in encouraging and providing exceptional cooperation for this experiment, the New York City Police Department evidenced remarkable depth of understanding of the problems of modern law enforcement. The Department's commitment to the program is an expression of its sensitivity to the needs of a changing society. Its willingness to undertake the risks inherent in this project speak well for its ability to meet the challenges of the future.

CONCLUSIONS

It is our impression that the experimental project in police family crisis intervention demonstrated the following:

- 1 Sensitive and skillful police intervention in family disturbances may serve to reduce the occurrence of family assaults and family homicides.
- 2 The presence of trained police specialists in family crisis intervention may have a positive effect upon police-community relations.
- 3 Personal safety of police officers can be greatly increased through the use of psychologically sophisticated techniques in dealing with highly charged human conflict situations.
- 4 The professional identity of police officers can remain intact despite their acquisition of the skills and techniques usually associated with the helping professions.
- 5 Policemen are in an unusual position for early identification of human behavioral pathology and, if trained, can play a critical role in crime prevention and preventive mental health.
- 6 Police officers can function as generalists and, at the same time, and according to personal capability, can acquire highly specialized capacities within their law enforcement role.

7 Professionals in law enforcement and in psychology can successfully collaborate; each group can realize its primary mission and yet improve its service to the community.

8 Psychological education directed at specific police functions can enhance law enforcement in general and order-maintenance in particular.

It is recommended that:

- 1 Efforts be made in a variety of settings to replicate the program developed in this project.
- 2 Attention be given to the refinement of the generalist-specialist model as it applies to the range of interpersonal services policemen are expected to perform.
- 3 Universities be encouraged to collaborate with law enforcement agencies as a method for greater community involvement and as a means for extending knowledge of human behavior in the laboratory of the real world.
- 4 Law enforcement agencies acknowledge their communality of interest with both the learned and helping professions and thereby reduce their traditional isolation.

REFERENCES

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- 12 *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*. January 1963, p. 27.
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- 19 New York City Police Department. Press Release #30, March 31, 1966.
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- 21 Reiff, Robert and Riessman, Frank. *The Indigenous Non-Professional: A Strategy of Change in Community Action and Community Mental Health Programs*. U.S. Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare, Report No. 3, November 1964.
- 22 Rioch, M. *et al.* National Institute of Mental Health pilot study in training mental health counselors. *Amer J. Orthopsychiatry* 33, 1963, 678-1969.
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APPENDIX A

side 1

FAMILY DISTURBANCE REPORT

Please Print
Use Pen

1) Via CB TS PU 2) Time AM PM 3) Date _____ 196__ S M T W Th F S (Circle One)
4) Address _____ Apt. _____ 5) Tel. No. _____ 6) Pct. _____
7) Complainant's Statement (Actual words, if possible):

8) Who is Complainant? Disputant No. ____: Child Neighbor Other in/out of Household

9) Disputant No. 1—Name _____ 10) Address _____

11) Sex 12) Ethnic Id. 13) Age 14) Birthplace 15) Occupation

16) Disputant No. 2—Name _____ 17) Address _____

18) Sex 19) Ethnic Id. 20) Age 21) Birthplace 22) Occupation

23) Disputants' relationship: Married Com-Law Par/child Sibs Other _____

24) Others involved _____ 25) Present, not involved _____ 26) Others in home, not involved _____

27) Children: Present 28) No. in home 29) Approx. age range _____ to _____
Yes No

30) Whose are the children? _____

Pct. Serial No. _____ (Supplied by C. U.) Ptl. _____ Command _____
Time resumed patrol a.m. _____ p.m. _____

side 2

OFFICER'S EVALUATION

31) What happened IMMEDIATELY before your arrival?

32) What do you think led up to the immediate crisis? (Changes in family patterns?) (Environmental changes, etc?)

33) Impressions of Family: a) How long has this family been together? _____

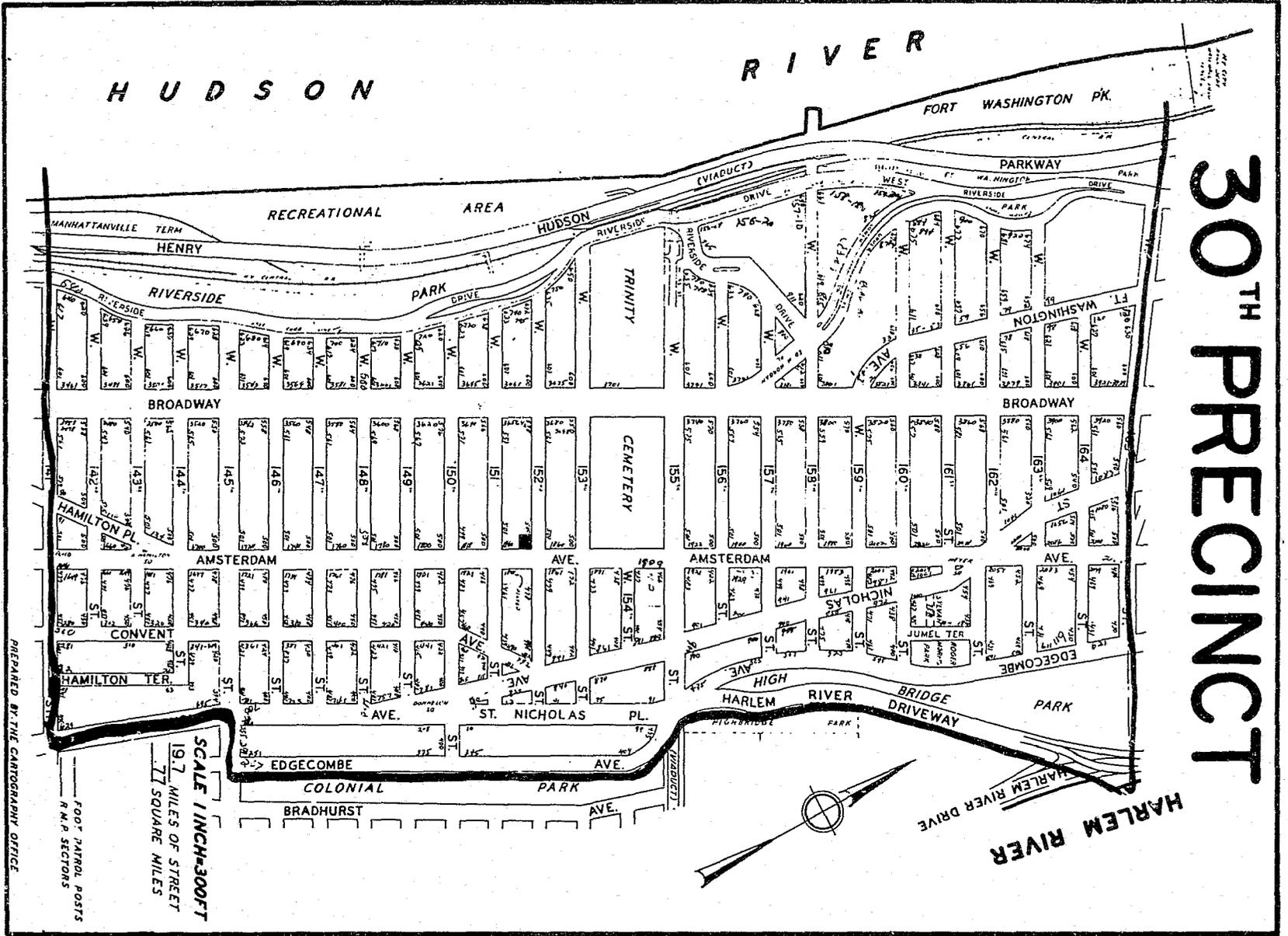
b) Who is dominant? _____ c) What is the appearance of the house? _____

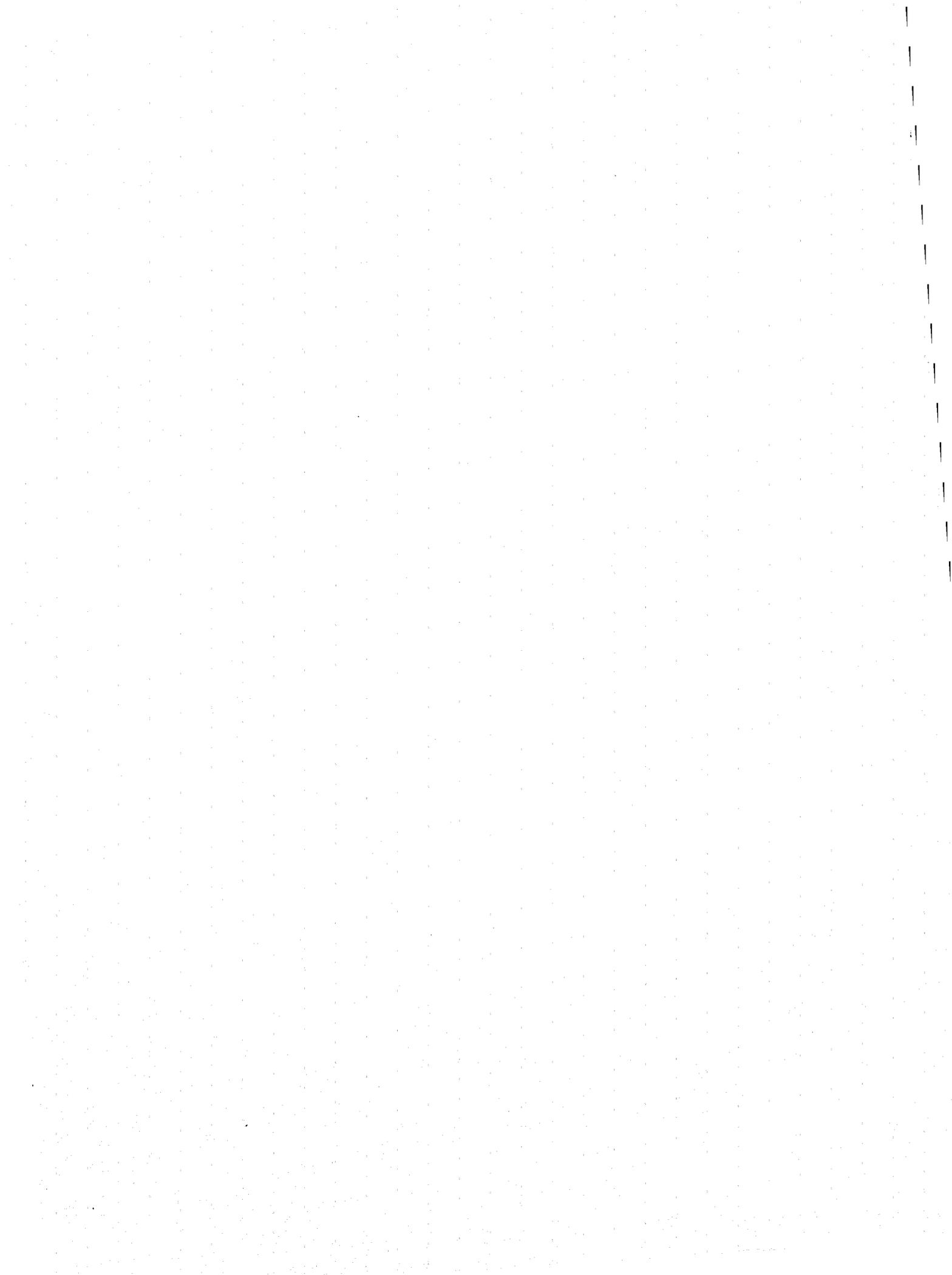
d) Appearance of the individuals? _____ e) Other Impressions:

34) What happened after your arrival? (How did each disputant respond?)

35) How was dispute resolved? Mediation Referral Aided Arrest

Summarize the crisis situation and its resolution:





APPENDIX C

**The City College
of
The City University of New York
Department of Psychology**

The Psychological Center and the New York City Police Department

**FAMILY CRISIS INTERVENTION UNIT *
TRAINING SCHEDULE**

*** A project supported in part by Training Grant #157,
Office of Law Enforcement Assistance, U.S. Dept. of Justice**

First Week

Family Crisis Intervention Unit Training Schedule

Monday, June 5	Tuesday, June 6	Wednesday, June 7	Thursday, June 8	Friday, June 9
<p>8:45-12:00 INITIAL ORIENTATION WITH REMARKS BY: John F. Walsh, First Deputy Commissioner, N.Y.C. Police Dept. Birell G. Gallagher, Ph.D., President The City College Prof. Morton Bard Director, Psychological Center Bernard Berkowitz, Ph.D., Adj. Asst. Prof. of Psychology, The City College</p>	<p>9:00-9:30 FEEDBACK 9:30-10:30 THE POLICE AND THE COMMUNITY Robert J. Mangum Northeast Regional Director, Office of 10:30-11:30 THE POLICE AND CONCEPTS OF MENTAL HEALTH Bernard Locke, Ph.D. Dean of Students John Jay College of Criminal Justice</p>	<p>9:00-9:30 FEEDBACK 9:30-11:00 FAMILY VIOLENCE AS A POLICE PROBLEM Sgt. Bernard Wease Instructor, Police Academy, N.Y.P.D. 11:00-12:30 THE VIOLENT PERSON: ASSESSING RISKS Thomas L. Brayboy, M.D. Asst. Prof. of Psychiatry, N.Y. Medical College</p>	<p>9:00-9:30 FEEDBACK 9:30-11:00 SELF-DESTRUCTIVE ACTING OUT Arthur Arkin, M.D. Staff Psychiatrist Psychological Center 11:00-12:30 CRITICAL INCIDENT STUDY: POLICE & THE DISORDERLY PERSON IN DISPUTES Leo Eilbert, Ph.D. Chairman, Dept. of Beh. Sciences, N.Y. Inst. of Technology</p>	<p>9:00-12:00 SUMMARY and REVIEW Dr. Berkowitz</p>
<p>12:00-1:00 LUNCH</p>	<p>11:30-1:00 LUNCH</p>	<p>12:30-1:30 LUNCH</p>	<p>12:30-1:00 LUNCH</p>	<p>12:00-1:00 LUNCH</p>
<p>1:00-3:00 THE HISTORICAL EVOLUTION OF THE POLICE ROLE IN SOCIETY Prof. Jack Marks Rutgers University</p>	<p>1:00-3:00 WORKSHOP: FORMATIVE INFLUENCES OF EARLY CHILDHOOD Daniel I. Malamud, Ph.D., Adj. Asst. Prof., NYU Div. of Continuing Education</p>	<p>1:30-3:00 FILMS: "Roots of Criminality" "Emotions & Crime"</p>	<p>1:00-3:00 FILMS: "Depression" "Cry for Help"</p>	<p>1:00-5:00 ASSIGNED READINGS</p>
<p>3:00-5:00 DISCUSSION Dr. Berkowitz</p>	<p>3:00-5:00 ASSIGNED READINGS</p>	<p>3:00-5:00 GROUP DISCUSSION Selwyn Lederman, Ph.D. Training Group Leader Psychological Center</p>	<p>3:00-5:00 GROUP DISCUSSION Henry Sindos, M.S.W. Training Group Leader Psychological Center</p>	<p>INDIVIDUAL STUDENT- FACULTY CONFERENCES</p>

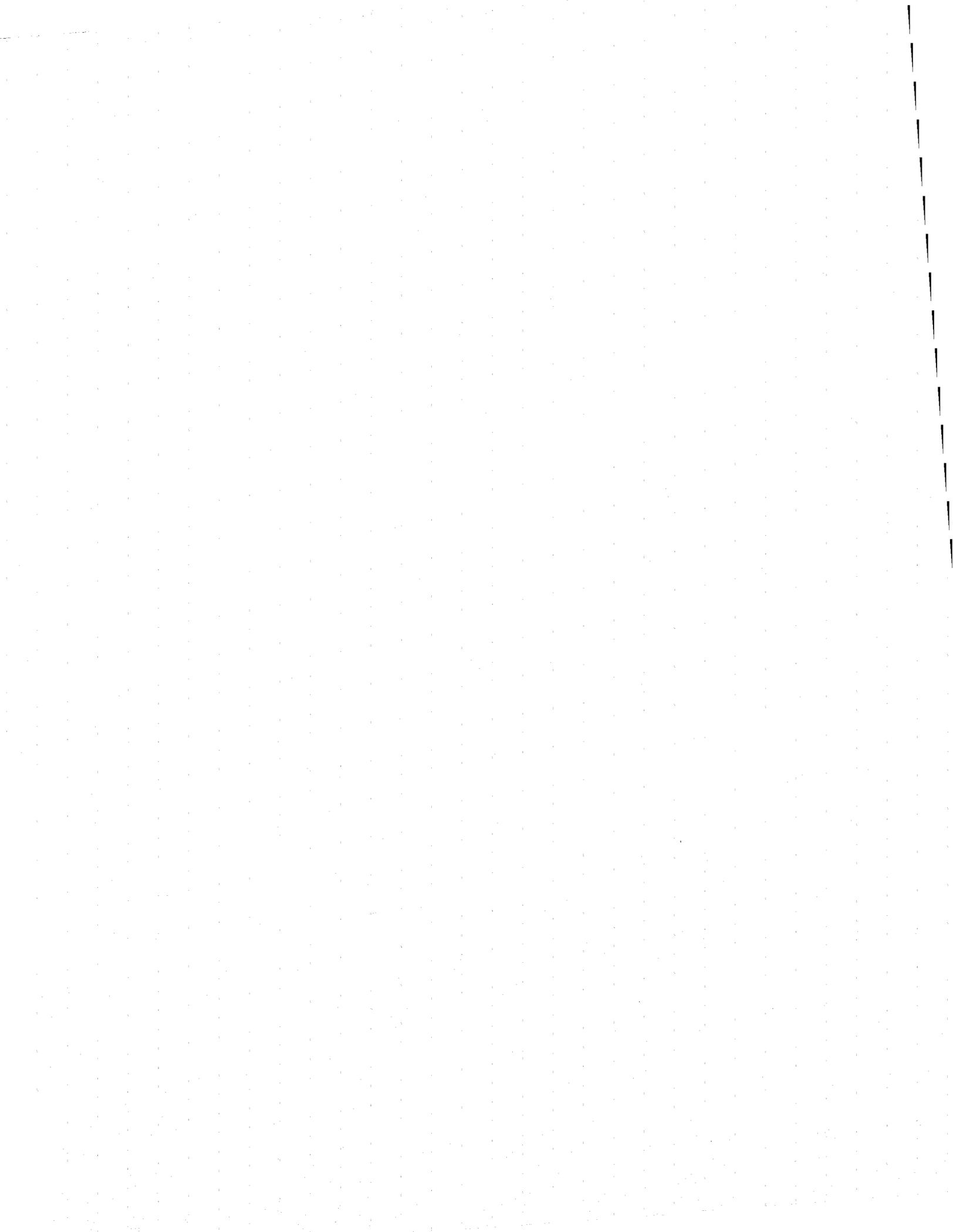
Monday, June 12	Tuesday, June 13	Wednesday, June 14	Thursday, June 15	Friday, June 16
9:00-9:30 FEEDBACK	9:00-9:30 FEEDBACK	9:00-9:30 FEEDBACK	9:00-9:30 FEEDBACK	9:00-11:00
9:30-11:00 FAMILY ORGANIZATION AND INTERACTION Herbert Bernstein District Supervisor Jewish Family Service, Bronx	9:30-11:00 THE DISORDERED FAMILY Hugh Butts, M.D. Associate Director Dept. of Psychiatry Harlem Hospital	9:30-11:00 FRUSTRATION AND AGGRESSION Ferdinand Jones, Ph.D. Chief Psychologist Westchester County Mental Health Board	9:30-11:00 FAMILY COURT AND MARRIAGE Hon. Florence Kelley Presiding Justice Family Court	SUMMARY and REVIEW Dr. Bard
11:00-12:30 SOCIAL STATUS AND PSYCHOLOGICAL Barbara Dohrenwend, Ph.D., Asst. Prof. of Psychology The City College	11:00-12:30 PUERTO RICAN FAMILY PATTERNS Ruben Mora, Ph.D. Project Coordinator Psychological Services College Discovery Program, The City College	11:00-12:30 MARRIAGE & FAMILY AMONG NEGROES Dr. Brayboy	11:00-12:30 DISCUSSION Dr. Berkowitz	11:00-12:30 FAMILY AND THE LAW Mary B. Tarcher, LL.B. Asst. Attorney in Charge, Legal Aid Society
12:30-1:30 LUNCH	12:30-1:00 LUNCH	12:30-1:00 LUNCH	12:30-1:30 LUNCH	12:00-1:00 LUNCH
1:30-3:00 WORKSHOP: FAMILY VALUES Dr. Malamud	1:00-3:00 FILM: "El Barrio"	1:00-3:00 FILM: "Marked for Failure"	1:30-3:00 APPEARANCE AND REALITY IN FAMILY CONFLICT Gerald Bauman, Ph.D. Dir. Psychological Services, Lincoln Hosp.	1:00-5:00 ASSIGNED READINGS
3:00-5:00 ASSIGNED READINGS GROUP DISCUSSION Dr. Lederman	3:00-5:00 ASSIGNED READINGS	3:00-5:00 ASSIGNED READINGS GROUP DISCUSSION Mr. Sindos	3:00-5:00 ASSIGNED READINGS GROUP DISCUSSION Wilson E. Meaders, Ph.D. Training Group Leader Psychological Center	INDIVIDUAL FACULTY- STUDENT CONFERENCES

Third Week

Family Crisis Intervention Unit Training Schedule

Monday, June 19	Tuesday, June 20	Wednesday, June 21	Thursday, June 22	Friday, June 23
9:00-9:30 FEEDBACK 9:30-11:00	9:00-9:30 FEEDBACK 9:30-11:00	9:00-9:30 FEEDBACK 9:30-12:00	9:00-9:30 FEEDBACK 9:30-11:00	9:00-9:30 FEEDBACK 9:30-10:30
FAMILY CRISIS INTERVENTION	CULTURE AND MARITAL STYLES	TECHNIQUES OF INTERVENTION IN MARITAL CONFLICT	ALCOHOLISM AND THE MARITAL RELATIONSHIP	POLICEMEN UNDER STRESS
Andrew Ferber, M.D. Director, Family Study Section, Bronx State Hosp.	Mirra Komarovsky, Ph.D. Prof. and Chmn., Dept. of Sociology Barnard College	Yvon Masters, M.S.W. Psychiatric Social Worker, Family Treatment Unit, Dept. of Psychiatry, N.Y. Med. College, Metropolitan Hospital Center	Ruth Fox, M.D. Medical Director National Council on Alcoholism	Steven McCoy, M.D. Chief Surgeon N.Y. Police Dept. 10:30-11:30 THE POLICEMAN'S VALUES Dr. Arthur Niederhoffer John Jay College
11:00-12:30 CONFLICT RESOLUTION	11:00-12:30 TECHNIQUES OF EMERGENCY INTERVENTION	Ruth Miles, A.C.W.S. Partial Hospitalization Center, Metropolitan Community Mental Health Center	11:00-12:30 NARCOTICS ADDICTION	11:30-12:30 GROUP DISCUSSION
Harvey Hornstein, Ph.D. Asst. Prof. of Psychology, Teachers College, Columbia University	Leonard Small, Ph.D. Consulting Psychologist Altro Health and Rehabilitation Services		Charles Winick, Ph.D. Prof. of Sociology The City College	Drs. Bard & Berkowitz Film: "Under Pressure"
12:30-1:30 LUNCH	12:30-1:30 LUNCH	12:00-1:30 LUNCH	12:30-1:30 LUNCH	12:30-1:30 LUNCH
1:30-3:00 WORKSHOP: TYPICAL FAMILY CRISES	1:30-5:00 LABORATORY DEMONSTRATION	1:30-5:00 LABORATORY DEMONSTRATION	1:30-5:00 LABORATORY DEMONSTRATION	1:30-3:00 SUMMARY & REVIEW
Dr. Berkowitz GROUP DISCUSSION	GROUP DISCUSSION Dr. Lederman	GROUP DISCUSSION Dr. Meaders	GROUP DISCUSSION Mr. Sindos	Drs. Bard & Berkowitz
3:00-5:00 ASSIGNED READINGS				3:00-5:00 ASSIGNED READINGS INDIVIDUAL FACULTY-STUDENT CONFERENCES

Monday, June 26	Tuesday, June 27	Wednesday, June 28	Thursday, June 29	Friday, June 30
9:00-9:30 FEEDBACK 9:30-11:30	9:00-9:30 FEEDBACK 9:30-11:30	9:00-11:00	9:00-9:30 FEEDBACK 9:30-11:00	9:00-11:00
THE MULTI-PROBLEM FAMILY	DEPARTMENT OF WELFARE	DEBRIEFING ON FIELD TRIPS	THE FAMILY AGENCY	DEBRIEFING ON FIELD TRIPS REPORTS
Mrs. Jane W. Robinson Director, Interdepart- mental Neighborhood Service Center	Mrs. Phyllis Simmons Bureau of Public Assistance		John Hughes, M.S.W. Asst. Supervisor Family Services Catholic Charities	
		11:00-12:30 THE FAMILY OFFENSE COURT AS A REFERRAL SOURCE	11:00-12:00 HARLEM HOSPITAL AS A REFERRAL SOURCE	11:00-12:00 POLICEMAN AS PHILOSOPHER, GUIDE & FRIEND
		Max Pawl, Principal Probation Officer Family Offense Term	Maurice V. Russell, F.J.D., Director of Social Service, Harlem Hosp. Center; and Asst. Prof. of Social Work, Col. Univ. Sch. of Social Work	Elaine Cumming, Ph.D. N.Y. State Dept. of Mental Hygiene, Albany
11:30-1:00 LUNCH	11:30-1:00 LUNCH	12:30-1:30 LUNCH	12:00-1:00 LUNCH	12:30-1:00 LUNCH
1:00-3:00 HOW TO INTERVIEW	1:00-5:00 1:30-3:00 FIELD TRIPS	1:00-5:00 EMPLOYMENT & TRAIN- ING RESOURCES: A KEY TO SELF-ESTEEM	1:00-5:00 FIELD TRIPS	FINAL SUMMARY & OVERVIEW
Prof. A. Tricomi Fordham University	Eugenia Bain, MSW Staff Social Worker Psychological Center	Cecil Forster, Ph.D. Assoc. Prof. of Psychiatry, N.Y. Medical College	Mrs. Bain	REVIEW AND PREP- ARATION FOR OPERATIONAL PHASE
3:00-5:00 GROUP DISCUSSION		3:00-5:00 GROUP DISCUSSION		



FAMILY CRISIS INTERVENTION UNIT

ASSIGNED READING

Week I: Orientation

Cumming, Elaine, Cumming, Ian, and Edell, Laura. "Policeman as Philosopher, Guide and Friend," **Social Problems**, Vol. 12, Winter 1965, 276-286.

Matthews, Robert A. and Rowland, Loyd W. **How to Recognize and Handle Abnormal People**. Natl. Assn. for Mental Health, Inc., N.Y., N.Y.

Ch. 1 How to tell when a person is mentally ill

Ch. 2 How to handle a disturbed or violent person

Ch. 3 How to handle a depressed person

Supplementary Reading

Wolfgang, Marvin E. **Patterns in Criminal Homicide**. Univ. of Pennsylvania Science Editions, 1966.

Stergel, Erwin. **Suicide and Attempted Suicide**. Pelican Books.

ASSIGNED READING

Week III:

Peck, Harris B. and Kaplan, Seymour R. "Crisis Theory and Therapeutic Change in Small Groups: Some Implications for Community

Mental Health Programs," **Int. J. of Group Psychotherapy**, XVI (2), April 1966, 135-149.

Ogg, Elizabeth. **Psychotherapy—A Helping Process**. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 329. Public Affairs Committee, 1962.

Hall, Edward T. **Silent Language**. Fawcett.

Supplementary Reading

Epstein, Charlotte. **Intergroup Relations for Police Officers**. Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins, 1962.

Parad, Howard J. (ed.) **Crisis Intervention: Selected Readings**, 1965.

ASSIGNED READING

Week IV

Public Affairs Pamphlets:

#250: Mace, David R. **What Makes a Marriage Happy?**

#356: Thorman, George. **Family Therapy**.

Supplementary Reading

HANA Directory of Social Welfare and Health Services.

Pettigrew, Thomas. **A Profile of the Negro Americans**. Van Nostrand, 1964.

Public Affairs Pamphlets:

#FL397: **Sexual Adjustment in Marriage**.

#FL380: **Divorce**.

#FL113: **Building Your Marriage**.

#FL157: **Making the Grade as Dad**.

APPENDIX D

**FAMILY UNIT
30th Pct.**

Date:

To:

Agency _____

Address _____

Telephone: _____

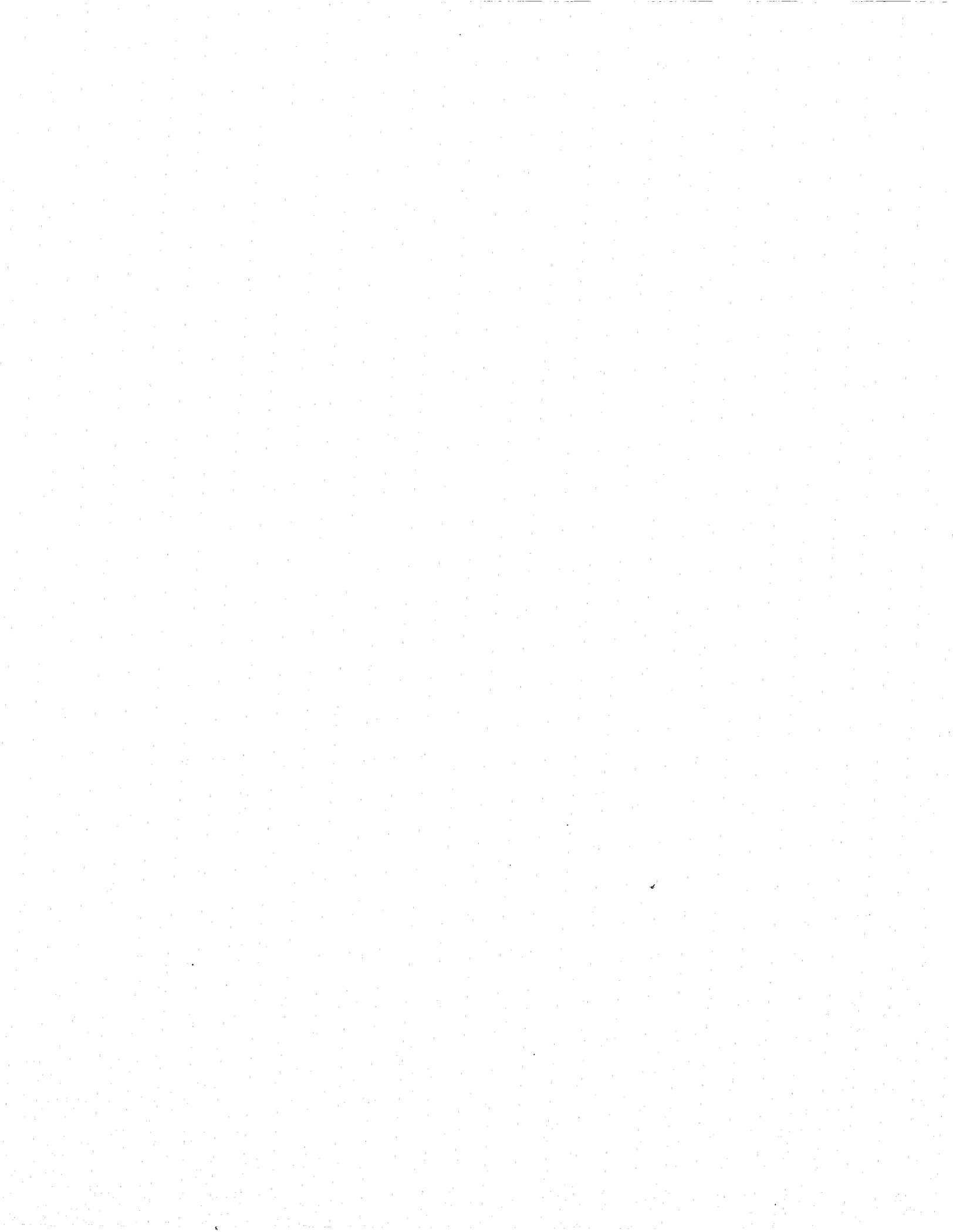
This will introduce:

Mr.(s) _____

Address _____

who has expressed interest in learning about the services offered by your agency.

Ptl. _____



CONTINUED

3 OF 4

APPENDIX F

The City College
The City University of New York
Department of Psychology
The Psychological Center
Police Family Crisis Unit

CONSULTATION DEBRIEFING FORM

Disputants:

Disputants' Relationship:

Date of Dispute:

Officers:

Consultant:

1. *Precipitating circumstances:* What circumstances led up to and caused current dispute? (Why did the dispute occur now?) What is the nature of the conflict? History of the problem, if available.
2. *Previous patterns of violence:* If the cause of dispute is violence, when and how often did it happen before? Under what circumstances did it occur? If no current violence, has there been any in the past? What is the nature of the violence, i.e. slap across the face, beating with the fists?
3. *Relevant social unit:* Who are the members of the social unit involved in the dispute? What is the nature of the relationship between the various members of the group? What is the history of the relationship between the disputants? Are there significant outside influences not living in the immediate household, i.e., father, mother, etc.? Are there children or third parties in the household? What is their perception of the situation?
4. *Officers' approach:* How did the policemen approach the disputants? What techniques of intervention did they employ? Were they authoritarian, gentle, sympathetic, etc.? We are trying to determine what kinds of cues the teams are responding to. We would also like to know what particular approaches are most effective with particular types of situations. Since it is difficult for the police to verbalize just why they respond to certain situations the way they do, the consultants must try to help them as much as possible in this regard.
5. *Disputants' response:* How did the disputants respond to the intervention? Favorably, unfavorably? If excited initially, did they calm down or remain the same? If they were excited initially, did they flare up again after being calmed down? What was their personal response to the police? Were they satisfied with the way the police handled the problem?
6. *Alternative approaches:* In this category are all the possible ways the policeman would have handled the case differently. Very often, after thinking about a case and discussing it with someone, they decide that a case might have been handled differently. Indicate also the rationale for the different approach.
7. *Difficult or novel aspects:* Was there any particularly difficult aspect to this case, i.e. did the disputant refuse to talk to either policeman? Was there anything novel that is worth noting?
8. *Dynamic formulation:* What psychological dimensions did the policeman think were contributing to the present difficulty? This is a good place for conjecture on the part of the police.
9. *Topics for discussion:* Topics which are worthy of group discussion should be referred to T-group leader or individually handled by the consultant, i.e. psychological manifestations of senility.

APPENDIX G

FAMILY CRISIS INTERVENTION STUDY

Names _____

Case # _____

Coded on Keydex _____

SOURCE OF INFORMATION (VIA)

- [1] CB
- [2] TS
- [3] PU
- [4] SH

TOUR OF DUTY

- [5] 12:00 midnight – 8:00 a.m.
- [6] 8:00 a.m. – 4:00 p.m.
- [7] 4:00 p.m. – 12:00 midnight

TIME OF DISTURBANCE

- [8] midnight – 12:59 a.m.
- [9] 1:00 a.m. – 1:59 a.m.
- [10] 2:00 a.m. – 2:59 a.m.
- [11] 3:00 a.m. – 3:59 a.m.
- [12] 4:00 a.m. – 4:59 a.m.
- [13] 5:00 a.m. – 5:59 a.m.
- [14] 6:00 a.m. – 6:59 a.m.
- [15] 7:00 a.m. – 7:59 a.m.
- [16] 8:00 a.m. – 8:59 a.m.
- [17] 9:00 a.m. – 9:59 a.m.
- [18] 10:00 a.m. – 10:59 a.m.
- [19] 11:00 a.m. – 11:59 a.m.
- [20] 12:00 noon – 12:59 p.m.
- [21] 1:00 p.m. – 1:59 p.m.
- [22] 2:00 p.m. – 2:59 p.m.
- [23] 3:00 p.m. – 3:59 p.m.
- [24] 4:00 p.m. – 4:59 p.m.
- [25] 5:00 p.m. – 5:59 p.m.
- [26] 6:00 p.m. – 6:59 p.m.
- [27] 7:00 p.m. – 7:59 p.m.
- [28] 8:00 p.m. – 8:59 p.m.
- [29] 9:00 p.m. – 9:59 p.m.
- [30] 10:00 p.m. – 10:59 p.m.
- [31] 11:00 p.m. – 11:59 p.m.

DATE OF DISTURANCE (MONTH)

- | | |
|---------------|----------------|
| [32] January | [38] July |
| [33] February | [39] August |
| [34] March | [40] September |
| [35] April | [41] October |
| [36] May | [42] November |
| [37] June | [43] December |

DATE OF DISTURBANCE (DAY OF MONTH)

- | | |
|---------|---------|
| [44] 1 | [59] 16 |
| [45] 2 | [60] 17 |
| [46] 3 | [61] 18 |
| [47] 4 | [62] 19 |
| [48] 5 | [63] 20 |
| [49] 6 | [64] 21 |
| [50] 7 | [65] 22 |
| [51] 8 | [66] 23 |
| [52] 9 | [67] 24 |
| [53] 10 | [68] 25 |
| [54] 11 | [69] 26 |
| [55] 12 | [70] 27 |
| [56] 13 | [71] 28 |
| [57] 14 | [72] 29 |
| [58] 15 | [73] 30 |
| | [74] 31 |

DATE OF DISTURBANCE

DAY OF WEEK

- | | |
|----------------|-------------|
| [75] Sunday | YEAR |
| [76] Monday | [82] 1967 |
| [77] Tuesday | [83] 1968 |
| [78] Wednesday | [84] 1969 |
| [79] Thursday | |
| [80] Friday | |
| [81] Saturday | |

PRECINCT

- [85] 30 (experimental)
- [86] 24 (control)
- [87] 26 (out of command)
- [88] 34 (out of command)
- [89] other precinct (out of command)

Names _____

Case # _____

**PLACE OF OCCURRENCE
OF DISPUTE**

[90]
[91]
[92]
[93]
[94]
[95]
[96]
[97]

**PLACE OF POLICE
INTERVIEW
REGARDING DISPUTE**

[98]
[99]
[100]
[101]
[102]
[103]
[104]
[105]

Home or apts. of disputant(s)
Home or apt. of other than disputant(s)
Street
Restaurant or bar
Public facility (park, stadium, etc.)
Station house
Other
Information not available

COMPLAINANT'S STATEMENT

**Behavior of
Disp. #1**

[106]
[107]
[108]
[109]
[110]
[111]
[112]
[113]
[114]
[115]
[116]

[117]

[118]
[119]
[120]
[121]
[122]
[123]
[124]
[125]

[126]
[127]
[128]
[129]
[130]
[131]
[132]
[133]

**Behavior of
Disp. #2**

[141]
[142]
[143]
[144]
[145]
[146]
[147]
[148]
[149]
[150]
[151]

[153]

[154]
[155]
[156]
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[158]
[159]
[160]
[161]

[162]
[163]
[164]
[165]
[166]
[167]
[168]
[169]

Physical violence
Threats of physical violence
Drunkness
Drug addiction
Infidelity
Gambling
Promiscuity
Homosexuality
Refusal to admit complainant to house/apt.
Refusal to allow complainant to leave house/apt.
Refusal to allow complainant to remove child/children
from home
Refusal to allow complainant to remove possessions from
apt./house
Refusal to enter house/apt.
Refusal to leave house/apt.
Removing child/children from house/apt.
Removing possessions, personal belongings from home
Removing complainant's belongings from house/apt.
Violation of order of protection
Annoying, bothersome behavior
Passivity: neglecting complainant, not taking c. out socially,
not helping with household chores, etc.
Spending too little time at home
Making sexual advances toward complainant
Unresponsive to comp. sexual advances
Neglecting or improperly caring for children
Non-support; not enough support
Money problem other than non-support
Physical illness
Mental illness

Names _____

Case # _____

COMPLAINANT'S STATEMENT (cont'd.)

[134]	[170]	Argumentativeness
[135]	[171]	Dispute over property or money
[136]	[172]	Wants man to marry pregnant woman
[137]	[173]	Rebellious, uncontrollable behavior of child
[138]	[174]	Assault with weapon
[139]	[175]	Forcible entry
[140]	[176]	Glue sniffing, etc.

**Request that
Disp. #1**

[177]
[178]
[179]
[180]
[181]
[182]
[183]
[184]

**Request that
Disp. #2**

[185]
[186]
[187]
[188]
[189]
[190]
[191]
[192]

Be told/made to stop behaving in manner complained of
Be hospitalized for physical illness
Be hospitalized for mental illness
Be committed to narcotics center
Be treated for alcoholism
Be arrested
Be made to leave house or apartment
Be made to return child to house or apartment

Request that police:

[193]	Accompany complainant to remedy grievance/fulfill above request
[194]	Trace missing individual(s)
[195]	Give advice, mediate, talk with disputant(s) or subject of dispute
[196]	Correct behavior by physical means
[197]	Give aid and assistance in emergency situation
[198]	Just listen to complainant, serve as sounding-board

Other:

[201]	Feeling of existential despair
[202]	No complaint, police just passing by
[203]	Information not available

Names _____

Case # _____

IDENTITY OF
COMPLAINANT

IDENTITY OF
FIRST DISPUTANT

IDENTITY OF
SECOND DISPUTANT

[209]
[210]
[211]
[212]
[213]
[214]
[215]
[216]
[217]
[218]
[219]
[220]
[221]
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[326]
[327]

Female

Wife
Ex-wife
Common law wife
Ex-common law wife
Girlfriend
Mother
Mother-in-law
Grandmother
Daughter of this union
Daughter not of this union
Sister
Step-sister
Half-sister
Sister-in-law
Daughter-in-law
Granddaughter
Aunt
Niece
Cousin
Friend
Neighbor
Boarder
Employee

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Male

Husband
Ex-husband
Common law husband
Ex-common law husband
Boyfriend
Father
Father-in-law
Grandfather
Son of this union
Son not of this union
Brother
Step-brother
Half-brother
Brother-in-law
Son-in-law
Grandson
Uncle
Nephew
Cousin
Friend
Neighbor
Boarder
Employee
Public Agency
Private Agency

Names _____

Case # _____

ETHNIC IDENTIFICATION

Disp. #1	Disp. #2	
[353]	[360]	Caucasian
[354]	[361]	Negro
[355]	[362]	Puerto Rican
[356]	[363]	Latin American
[357]	[364]	Oriental
[358]	[365]	Other
[359]	[366]	Information not available

AGE

Disp. #1	Disp. #2	
[367]	[379]	Under 15 years
[368]	[380]	15-19
[369]	[381]	20-24
[370]	[382]	25-29
[371]	[383]	30-34
[372]	[384]	35-39
[373]	[385]	40-44
[374]	[386]	45-49
[375]	[387]	50-54
[376]	[388]	55-59
[377]	[389]	60 yrs. and above
[378]	[390]	Information not available

BIRTHPLACE

Disp. #1	Disp. #2	
[391]	[408]	New York City
[392]	[409]	New York State other than N.Y.C.
[393]	[410]	Northeastern states other than N.Y. State
[394]	[411]	Southern states
[395]	[412]	Mid-western states
[396]	[413]	Western states
[397]	[414]	Puerto Rico
[398]	[415]	West Indies
[399]	[416]	Cuba
[400]	[417]	Dominican Republic
[401]	[418]	Central America
[402]	[419]	South America
[403]	[420]	Europe
[404]	[421]	Africa
[405]	[422]	Asia
[406]	[423]	Other
[407]	[424]	Information not available

Names _____

Case # _____

LENGTH OF RESIDENCE IN N.Y.C.

Disp. #1	Disp. #2
[425]	[429]
[426]	[430]
[427]	[431]
[428]	[432]

Under 1 year
1-3 years
Over 3 years
Information not available

OCCUPATION

Disp. #1	Disp. #2
[433]	[450]
[434]	[451]
[435]	[452]
[436]	[453]
[437]	[454]
[438]	[455]
[439]	[456]
[440]	[457]
[441]	[458]
[442]	[459]
[443]	[460]
[444]	[461]
[445]	[462]
[446]	[463]
[447]	[464]
[448]	[465]
[449]	[466]

White-collar
Professional, technical, kindred, clergy
Manager, official, proprietor
Clerical, kindred worker
Sales worker
Government employee
Policeman, fireman, etc.
Postal, transit, sanitation worker
Blue-collar
Craftsman, foreman, kindred
Operative, kindred
Laborer
Service
Private household worker
Service worker, except private household
Student
Primary school
High school
College
Unemployed
Retired
Information not available

**AGE DIFFERENCE
BETWEEN DISPUTANTS**

[467]	1 year
[466]	2 years
[469]	3 years
[470]	4 years
[471]	5 years
[472]	6-10 yrs.
[473]	11-15 yrs.
[474]	16-20 yrs.
[475]	21-25 yrs.
[476]	26-30 yrs.
[477]	31-35 yrs.
[478]	36 yrs. and more
[479]	Information not available

DISPUTANTS' RELATIONSHIP

[482]	Adulterous relationship
[483]	Married
[484]	Common law
[485]	Former common law
[486]	Divorced
[487]	Separated—living apart
[488]	Other love relationship
[489]	Brothers
[490]	Sisters
[491]	Brother/sister
[492]	Parent/child
[493]	Grandparent/grandchild
[494]	Grandparent/parent
[495]	Other relative relationship
[496]	Non-relative relationship

OLDER OF THE TWO DISPUTANTS

[480]	Disputant #1
[481]	Disputant #2

Names _____

Case # _____

**OTHERS INVOLVED
IN DISPUTE**
Relationship to
Disp. #1-Disp. #2

**OTHERS PRESENT
NOT INVOLVED**
Relationship to
Disp. #1-Disp. #2

**OTHERS IN
HOUSEHOLD,
NOT PRESENT**
Relationship to
Disp. #1-Disp. #2

[497] [545]
[498] [546]
[499] [547]
[500] [548]
[501] [549]
[502] [550]
[503] [551]
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[711] [759]
[712] [760]

Female
Wife
Ex-wife
Common law wife
Ex-common law wife
Girlfriend
Mother
Mother-in-law
Grandmother
Daughter of this union
Daughter not of this union
Sister
Step-sister
Half-sister
Sister-in-law
Daughter-in-law
Granddaughter
Aunt
Niece
Cousin
Friend
Neighbor
Boarder
Employee/er
Information not available

[521] [569]
[522] [570]
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[732] [780]
[733] [781]
[734] [782]
[735] [783]
[736] [784]

Male
Husband
Ex-husband
Common law husband
Ex-common law husband
Boyfriend
Father
Father-in-law
Grandfather
Son of this union
Son not of this union
Brother
Step-brother
Half-brother
Brother-in-law
Son-in-law
Grandson
Uncle
Nephew
Cousin
Friend
Neighbor
Boarder
Employee/er
Information not available

Names _____

Case # _____

IDENTITY OF BREADWINNER IN HOUSEHOLD

[785] Disputant #1
[786] Disputant #2
[787] Other
[788] Information not available

RECEIVING PUBLIC ASSISTANCE

[789] Disputant #1
[790] Disputant #2
[791] No assistance being received
[792] Information not available

CHILDREN PRESENT AT DISTURBANCE

[793] Yes
[794] No
[795] Information not available

NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN HOUSEHOLD

[796] None [801] 5
[797] 1 [802] 6
[798] 2 [803] 7
[799] 3 [804] 8 or more
[800] 4 [805] Info. not available

APPROXIMATE AGE RANGE OF CHILDREN

Low point	High point	
[806]	[826]	Less than 1 yr.
[807]	[827]	1
[808]	[828]	2
[809]	[829]	3
[810]	[830]	4
[811]	[831]	5
[812]	[832]	6
[813]	[833]	7
[814]	[834]	8
[815]	[835]	9
[816]	[836]	10
[817]	[837]	11
[818]	[838]	12
[819]	[839]	13
[820]	[840]	14
[821]	[841]	15
[822]	[842]	16
[823]	[843]	17
[824]	[844]	18
[825]	[845]	Info. not available.

PARENTAGE OF CHILDREN LIVING IN HOUSEHOLD

[846] From existing relationship
[847] From male's previous relationship
[848] From female's previous relationship
[849] From both the existing and a previous relationship
[850] Other
[851] Information not available

REPORTING OFFICERS

[852] Timony
[853] Ellsworth
[854] Bryan
[855] Timmins
[856] Mulitz
[857] Edmonds
[858] Beatty
[859] Halfhide
[860] Bodkin
[861] Anderson
[862] Donovan
[863] Mahoney
[864] Harnett
[865] Robertson
[866] Glover
[867] Castagna
[868] Madewell
[869] Richardson
[870] Not FCU officer

ELAPSED TIME OF POLICE INTERVENTION

[871] 1-15 minutes
[872] 16-30 minutes
[873] 31-45 minutes
[874] 46-60 minutes
[875] 61-75 minutes
[876] 76-90 minutes
[877] 91-105 minutes
[878] 106-120 minutes
[879] Information not available

Names _____

Case # _____

RELIGIOUS AFFILIATION

Disp. #1	Disp. #2	
[880]	[889]	Protestant
[881]	[890]	Catholic
[882]	[891]	Jewish
[883]	[892]	Buddhist
[884]	[893]	Hindu
[885]	[894]	Islamic
[886]	[895]	Other
[887]	[896]	None
[888]	[897]	Information not available

FREQUENCY OF RELIGIOUS ATTENDANCE

Disp. #1	Disp. #2	
[898]	[904]	Daily
[899]	[905]	Weekly
[900]	[906]	Monthly
[901]	[907]	Rarely
[902]	[908]	Never
[903]	[909]	Information not available

EVENTS TRANSPILING IMMEDIATELY BEFORE OFFICER'S ARRIVAL: TYPE OF OCCURRENCE

[910]	Dispute and physical assault
[911]	Dispute and threat of physical assault
[912]	Verbal dispute; screaming, abusive language
[913]	Sexual assault
[914]	Damage to property
[915]	Individual(s) under influence of alcohol
[916]	Individual(s) under influence of drugs
[917]	Individual wishes to leave household; refuses to return to home
[918]	Individual refuses admittance to another into household
[919]	Individual demands that another leave household; evicts another
[920]	Individual missing from household
[921]	Individual became physically ill
[922]	Individual behaved in irrational manner
[923]	Suspicion or discovery of another's extra-marital relationship
[924]	Suspicion or discovery of another's use of drugs
[925]	Suspicion or discovery of another's homosexual relationship
[926]	Threat with weapon
[927]	Assault with weapon
[928]	Suicide threat
[929]	Suicide
[930]	Homicide
[931]	Information not available

Names _____

Case # _____

OFFICER'S OPINION REGARDING CAUSATIVE FACTORS OF CRISIS: TYPE OF CASUALTY

- [932] Infidelity
- [933] Boasting of or reviewing to past mates, extra-marital partners
- [934] Money or possessions given to extra-marital partner or ex-family member
- [935] Refusal of sexual advances
- [936] Incest or sexual relations with children or step-children
- [937] Question of paternity of child/children
- [938] Homosexuality
- [939] Problem regarding up-coming divorce and/or custody rights
- [940] One partner wishes to reconcile after divorce or separation
- [941] Maturation crisis: emancipated child
- [942] Maturation crisis: change of life, aging
- [943] Lack of communication; attention; understanding
- [944] Neglecting family responsibility; helping around house, etc.
- [945] Excessive time spent away from home
- [946] Complaint regarding another's outside friends or activities
- [947] Intrusion in marital life by outsiders
- [948] History of constant arguments and/or assaults
- [949] Financial difficulties
- [950] Non-support or not enough support
- [951] Destruction or pawning of possessions
- [952] Disagreement regarding location of residence
- [953] Alcoholism
- [954] Drug addiction
- [955] Gambling
- [956] Problem in controlling children
- [957] Negligence, improper care of children
- [958] Dislike of child's friend(s), fiance(s), etc.
- [959] Child demands greater freedom and independence
- [960] History of physical illness
- [961] History of mental illness
- [962] New member introduced into household
- [963] Loss of member of household: death, divorce, etc.
- [964] Unemployment
- [965] No love in marriage
- [966] No conception of marital roles
- [967] Found another mate
- [968] Injured pride
- [969] End of extra-marital affair
- [970] Refusal to marry pregnant woman
- [971] Simple verbal disagreement got out of control
- [972] Child fears loss of position and love due to third party
- [973] Difference over property or money
- [974] Information not available

DOES OFFICER'S OPINION COINCIDE WITH COMPLAINT?

- [975] Yes
- [976] No
- [977] Information not available

Names _____

Case # _____

OFFICER'S OPINION REGARDING CAUSATIVE FACTORS OF CRISIS: INDIVIDUAL(S) INVOLVED

[978]	Husband	[989]	Siblings
[979]	Former husband	[990]	Other relative
[980]	Wife	[991]	Boyfriend
[981]	Former wife	[992]	Girlfriend
[982]	Child	[993]	Friend/neighbor
[983]	Father	[994]	Other
[984]	Mother	[995]	Information not available
[985]	Father-in-law		
[986]	Mother-in-law		
[987]	Grandmother		
[988]	Grandfather		

LENGTH OF TIME FAMILY HAS BEEN (OR WAS) TOGETHER DOMINANT HOUSEHOLD MEMBER

[998]	1-6 months	[1017]	Husband
[999]	6 months-1 year	[1018]	Wife
[1000]	1-2 years	[1019]	Grandmother
[1001]	2-3 years	[1020]	Grandfather
[1002]	3-4 years	[1021]	Child
[1003]	4-5 years	[1022]	Other
[1004]	5-10 years	[1023]	Information not available
[1005]	10-15 years		
[1006]	15-20 years		
[1007]	More than 20 years		
[1008]	Information not available		

CURRENT MARITAL STATUS

[1009]	Legally married
[1010]	Common law
[1011]	Divorced
[1012]	Legally separated, less than 6 mos.
[1013]	Legally separated, more than 6 mos.
[1014]	Living apart, less than 6 mos.
[1015]	Living apart, more than 6 mos.
[1016]	Information not available

APPEARANCE OF HOUSE

[1024]	Neat, clean
[1025]	Fair
[1026]	Unkempt, dirty
[1027]	Information not available

APPEARANCE OF INDIVIDUALS

[1028]	Neat, tidy
[1029]	Fair
[1030]	Unkempt
[1031]	Information not available

Names _____

Case # _____

OTHER IMPRESSIONS

Disp. #1 appeared	Disp #2 appeared	
[1032]	[1068]	Aloof, distant, remote
[1033]	[1069]	Cold, defensive
[1034]	[1070]	Overwrought, agitated, highly emotional
[1035]	[1071]	Despondent, unhappy
[1036]	[1072]	Excessively angry, explosive, unable to control temper
[1037]	[1073]	Angry, but anger controlled, contained
[1038]	[1074]	Brash, flirtatious, provocative
[1039]	[1075]	Disoriented, confused, vague communication
[1040]	[1076]	Sensitive about masculinity or femininity
[1041]	[1077]	To act childishly, immaturely
[1042]	[1078]	To have no conception of responsibility, of adult role
[1043]	[1079]	To enjoy being the center of attention
[1044]	[1080]	To display poor adjustment to aging
[1045]	[1081]	Intoxicated
[1046]	[1082]	Under the influence of drugs
[1047]	[1083]	Physically ill
[1048]	[1084]	Warm, loving, affectionate toward other disputant
[1049]	[1085]	To have little regard or affection for other disputant
[1050]	[1086]	To fear other disputant
[1051]	[1087]	Belittling, mocking, teasing or nagging other disputant
[1052]	[1088]	Jealous, suspicious of other disputant
[1053]	[1089]	To be unable to communicate with other disputant
[1054]	[1090]	To ignore other disputant
[1055]	[1091]	To degrade other disputant's masculinity or femininity
[1056]	[1092]	To have different cultural or religious background from other disputant
[1057]	[1093]	To have different interests, enjoy different activities from those of other disputant
[1058]	[1094]	To be of different social classes
[1059]	[1095]	Anxious about physical illness
[1060]	[1096]	In need of love
[1061]	[1097]	Very passive, docile
[1062]	[1098]	Very independent
[1063]	[1099]	Mentally ill
[1064]	[1100]	Information not available

Names _____

Case # _____

OCCURRENCE AFTER POLICE ARRIVAL: OFFICER'S APPROACH

[1104] Discussed problem with disputants separately
[1105] Discussed problem with disputants together
[1106] Discussed problem with disputants both separately and together
[1107] Physically separated disputants
[1108] Reprimanded disputants to end argument, prevent further outburst
[1109] Calmed disputants to end argument, prevent further outburst
[1110] Attempted to verify veracity of complainant's statement
[1111] Observed bruises allegedly inflicted by other disputant
[1112] Accompanied disputant to home so that belongings could be removed, entry made, etc.
[1113] Gathered information, as only one disputant was present
[1114] Spoke to other family members or other non-relatives
[1115] Neither disputant present
[1116] Information not available

RESPONSE TO POLICE INTERVENTION

Disp. #1	Disp. #2	
[1124]	[1152]	Satisfied, grateful for police handling, intervention, suggestions
[1125]	[1153]	Cooperative, favorable response, spoke freely and openly
[1126]	[1154]	Admitted presence of problems
[1127]	[1155]	Admitted to being at fault in dispute
[1128]	[1156]	Calmed down in presence of police
[1129]	[1157]	Passive agreement with police suggestions
[1130]	[1158]	Wished only to air complaint; not willing to speak freely or openly of own role in dispute
[1131]	[1159]	Dissatisfied with police handling, intervention, suggestions
[1132]	[1160]	Reluctant to talk of dispute, unresponsive
[1133]	[1161]	Resented presence of police
[1134]	[1162]	Ignored police, continued dispute in their presence
[1135]	[1163]	Refused to cooperate, gave no information, unwilling to speak
[1136]	[1164]	Became belligerent toward police, arrogant, antagonistic
[1137]	[1165]	Became enraged at police, cursing, throwing, hard to control
[1138]	[1166]	Suspicious of officers and their suggestions
[1139]	[1167]	Unwilling to accept officers' suggestions
[1140]	[1168]	Refused police admittance to home
[1141]	[1169]	Could not respond, drugged state
[1142]	[1170]	Could not respond, intoxicated
[1143]	[1171]	Could not respond, language barrier
[1144]	[1172]	Could not respond, wounded or dead
[1145]	[1173]	Not present
[1146]	[1174]	Felt police could not understand one of different race
[1147]	[1175]	Information not available

Names _____

Case # _____

RESOLUTION OF DISPUTE

- [1180] Mediation
- [1181] Referral
- [1182] Aided
- [1183] Arrest
- [1184] Officers to return at later date for consultation
- [1185] Not resolved

IDENTITY OF INDIVIDUALS INVOLVED IN RESOLUTION

- [1186] Disp. #1
- [1187] Disp. #2
- [1188] Other person involved in dispute

OUTCOME OF REFERRAL

- [1209] Applied for assistance
- [1210] Did not apply for assistance
- [1211] Information not available

AGENT OR AGENCY TO WHICH REFERRED

- [1189] Catholic Charities
- [1190] Hamilton Grange
- [1191] Alcoholics Anonymous
- [1192] Psychological Center
- [1193] Narcotics center
- [1194] Family Court
- [1195] Juvenile Court
- [1196] PINOS
- [1197] SPCC
- [1198] Criminal Court
- [1199] Civil Court
- [1200] Department of Welfare
- [1201] Hospital for physical treatment
- [1202] Hospital for psych. treatment
- [1203] Legal Aid Society
- [1204] Private lawyer
- [1205] Private physician
- [1206] Clergyman
- [1207] Other public agency
- [1208] Other private agency

Names _____

Case # _____

RESOLUTION OF DISPUTE: DETAILS

Disp. #1	Disp. #2	Agreed to contact agent or agency to obtain:
[1221]	[1260]	Marriage and family counseling
[1222]	[1261]	Aid with budget
[1223]	[1262]	Legal separation
[1224]	[1263]	Order of protection
[1225]	[1264]	Order to claim belongings, personal property from house
[1226]	[1265]	Divorce
[1227]	[1266]	Visitation rights
[1228]	[1267]	Non-support warrant
[1229]	[1268]	Financial aid, welfare
[1230]	[1269]	Protection against abuse from parents
[1231]	[1270]	Job, employment
[1232]	[1271]	Legal advice in order to take other disputant to court
[1233]	[1272]	Help with alcoholism
[1234]	[1273]	Help with drug addiction
[1235]	[1274]	Help with physical illness
[1236]	[1275]	Help with mental illness
[1237]	[1276]	Information regarding adult activities
[1238]	[1277]	Occupational training
[1239]	[1278]	Contraceptive information
[1240]	[1279]	Warrant for assault
[1241]	[1280]	Paternity suit action
[1242]	[1281]	Information not available

Agreed to:

[1246]	[1285]	Sleep separately from other disputant
[1247]	[1286]	Leave house temporarily
[1248]	[1287]	Leave house permanently
[1249]	[1288]	Cease contact with other disputant
[1250]	[1289]	Try to understand, communicate
[1251]	[1290]	Pay more attention to spouse, go out socially, entertain, etc.
[1252]	[1291]	Fulfill own responsibilities: provide support, stop drinking, etc.

SUMMARY OF RESOLUTION

[1299]	Dispute resolved through discussion with police	[1306]	Dispute not resolved—one disputant absent
[1300]	UF61 filed	[1307]	Dispute not resolved—both disputants absent
[1301]	Disputant arrested	[1308]	Dispute not resolved—one intoxicated
[1302]	Disputant taken to hospital	[1309]	Dispute not resolved—both intoxicated
[1303]	Disputant committed for psychiatric treatment	[1310]	Dispute just not resolved
[1304]	Disputant committed to narcotics center	[1311]	Information not available
[1305]	Referral made		

PREVIOUS PATTERNS OF VIOLENCE

[1312] Yes
[1313] No
[1314] Information not available

PREVIOUS ARRESTS

Disp. #1 Disp. #2

[1315] [1320]
[1316] [1321]

[1317] [1322]
[1318] [1323]
[1319] [1324]

For violence:
Yes
No
For other causes:
Yes
No
Information not available

NUMBER OF PRECEDING CALLS MADE BY POLICE TO SAME DISPUTANTS OR SAME FAMILY

[1325] One
[1326] Two
[1327] Three
[1328] Four
[1329] Five
[1330] Six
[1331] Seven
[1332] Eight
[1333] Nine
[1334] Ten
[1335] More than ten
[1336] Information not available

APPENDIX H

SPANISH HELP PHRASES

ENGLISH

1. What is your name?
2. What is your problem?
3. What do you want?
4. I will speak with you.
5. He will speak with you.
6. Where do you live?
7. What is her name?
8. Your wife?
9. Who hit you?
10. Are you married?
11. How long are you married?
12. Do you have any children?
13. What's the matter here?
14. Let's speak, but speak slowly.
15. Do you want help?
16. We want to help you.
17. What's the number of this Apt?
18. What is your telephone number?
19. How old are you?
20. Where were you born?
21. What is your occupation?
22. When did it happen?
23. Whom do you want to notify?
24. I want certain information.
25. Are you armed?
26. What street?, avenue?
27. Give me the pistol.
28. In what church were you married?
29. Do you go to church?
30. Have you seen a priest?
31. Are you sick?
32. Are you hurt?
33. Who did it?
34. Did you see who did it?
35. Do you know who did it?
36. Who robbed you?
37. Do you want an ambulance?
38. Do you want a doctor?

SPANISH

1. ¿Cómo se llama usted?
2. ¿Cuál es su problema?
3. ¿Qué quiere?
4. Yo hablaré con usted.
5. Él hablará con usted.
6. ¿Dónde vive usted?
7. ¿Cómo se llama ella?
8. ¿Su mujer, esposa?
9. ¿Quién le dio?
10. ¿Está casado?
11. ¿Cuántos años está casado?
12. ¿Tiene niños?
13. ¿Qué pasa aquí?
14. Hablemos, pero hable despacio.
15. ¿Quiere ayuda?
16. Queremos ayudarle.
17. ¿Qué número tiene este apartamento?
18. ¿Cuál es el número de su teléfono?
19. ¿Cuántos años tiene usted?
20. ¿Dónde nació usted?
21. ¿En que trabaja usted? ¿Cuáles su oficio?
22. ¿Cuándo pasó?
23. ¿A quién avisar, notificar?
24. Quiero cierta información.
25. ¿Tiene arma? ¿Está armado?
26. ¿Qué calle? avenida?
27. Deme la pistola.
28. ¿En que iglesia se casaron?
29. ¿Va usted a la iglesia?
30. ¿Ha visto a un padre?
31. ¿Está enfermo? Está malo?
32. ¿Está herido?
33. ¿Quién lo hizo?
34. ¿Vió quien lo hizo?
35. ¿Sabe quien lo hizo?
36. ¿Quién le robo?
37. ¿Quiere una ambulancia?
38. ¿Quiere un doctor?



APPENDIX 6

"FAMILY CRISIS INTERVENTION:
FROM CONCEPT TO IMPLEMENTATION"



FAMILY CRISIS INTERVENTION: FROM CONCEPT TO IMPLEMENTATION

By

MORTON BARD

This project was supported by Grant No. NI-70-068, awarded by the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U.S. Department of Justice under the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, as amended. Points of view or opinions stated in this document are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of the U.S. Department of Justice.

December 1973

**U.S. DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE
Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice**

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CONTENTS

	<i>Page</i>
FOREWORD	v
INTRODUCTION	vi
THE CONCEPT	1
Crisis Intervention	1
Interpersonal Conflict Management	3
ORGANIZATIONAL AND OPERATIONAL CONSIDERATIONS	7
Ambivalence and Ambiguity	7
Models of Implementation	9
Training	10
Relationships With Other Agencies	11
REFERENCES	13



FOREWORD

One of the most hazardous assignments police officers face is dealing with family quarrels and disturbances. In 1972, 13 percent of all policemen killed in the line of duty died while responding to disturbance complaints. Twenty-seven percent of the assaults on police officers occurred in the same setting.

The risk is even greater for the participants in these quarrels. Of all murders reported in 1972, 24.3 percent occurred between family members, 7.1 percent during a "lover's quarrel," and 41.2 percent as the result of other arguments. The vast majority of all aggravated assaults involve relatives, neighbors or acquaintances.

Despite these dangers, techniques for dealing with such crises are rarely included in police recruit and inservice training programs. Research, however, indicates that police trained in crisis intervention are less likely to be injured or assaulted when handling fights and disturbances. Some researchers believe well-trained officers also serve to reduce homicide and assault rates.

The feasibility of training police as specialists in family crisis intervention was first tested by the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance in 1967. The National Institute has continued to support this work, expanding the training focus from a small group of selected volunteers to a broad range of officers and refining the experience of earlier projects.

The Institute believes that crisis intervention training can enhance police safety and make police service more responsive to community needs.

From a broader perspective, this sophisticated training technique changes the police function in concrete and positive ways. Success is measured in terms of police ability to solve disputes rather than piling up felony arrests. As the police begin to view themselves as skilled conflict managers capable of defusing potentially explosive situations, beneficial effects are felt throughout the department.

Successful intervention in family disputes also can result in many economies, eliminating the time and expense involved in bringing a case to court.

This monograph explains the concept underlying the training and discusses some guidelines and problems in organizing such a program.

We hope it will be useful both as an introduction to crisis intervention techniques and as an aid to those agencies interested in adopting this training method.

Gerald M. Caplan
Director
National Institute of Law
Enforcement and Criminal Justice

INTRODUCTION

Police administrators today are constantly seeking to improve the quality and delivery of police services. However, because these services have become so diversified and complex, their improvement must involve certain new organizational strategies.

An important idea to consider in determining these organizational strategies is the concept of policing as a "person profession," that is, one which requires a facility in interpersonal relations. If one accepts this assumption, it follows that the training of police officers in the acquisition of interpersonal skills should occupy a high priority in the police system.

One area of police work that requires a skill in interpersonal relations is that of family crisis management. Although processing family disturbances constitutes an important aspect of police work, and although a significant proportion of injuries and fatalities suffered by police occurs in this area, police administrators have generally not addressed themselves to the realities of this problem.

Some years ago, however, a study indicated that the training of police officers in specific interpersonal skills could improve and facilitate the management of domestic disturbances (1). Utilizing resources from both the behavioral and social sciences, this project in crisis intervention training demonstrated that there were more effective, safer, and more satisfying ways for police officers to handle family crises than the traditional means. What is more, there were some indications that skillful performance of family crisis intervention was viewed as a valuable service by the community. Given the frequency with which police departments are confronted by family disturbances, and given the limited competence of and unclear mandate for police officers in such situations, it was natural to find police administrators responding quickly to the implications of that initial study.

Unfortunately, however, enthusiastic implementation of family crisis programs often went forward with too little understanding of the underlying concept and with even less appreciation of the organizational pitfalls which can result from adopting these programs.

It is the intent of this monograph to help correct that situation by briefly explaining the concepts undergirding police family crisis intervention and by exploring some of the organizational implications inherent in a "go" decision by a police department. It is not expected that this discussion will be an exhaustive one; it is only intended to alert the interested police administrator to some of the important issues involved.

THE CONCEPT

The use of the term "family crisis" in our original demonstration study was intended to broaden the view of what was involved in the usual family fight. Typically, police officers have regarded the event as an alcohol-inspired "nothing" about which little could be done. The term crisis was intended to communicate a sense that a dispute is usually a tip-of-the-iceberg phenomenon, that is, a spontaneous and obvious expression of some deeper difficulty in the family. It was assumed that broadening an officer's perception of a family disturbance was a necessary first step to acquiring the skills for dealing more effectively with these events.

While the original study's results supported that assumption, in most police departments the term "family crisis" merely became a new and perhaps more professional way of saying "family fight." A namechange alone, therefore, is insufficient. The new name should reflect new knowledge and new understanding. If it does not, implementation of both training programs and organizational changes may be compromised.

In order to explain the importance of the term "family crisis intervention" as originally defined, two areas of human behavior which relate to this police function will be discussed. They are interpersonal conflict management and crisis intervention theory and practice.

CRISIS INTERVENTION

During the past three decades crisis intervention has occupied an increasingly important place in mental health applications. Lindemann (11), an early contribution to crisis theory, posited that early skillful and authoritative intervention in critical personal events could forestall the possibly more

serious, long-term consequence of such events. The logic of this formulation was subsequently supported by others (1, 2, 4, 5, 7) mostly in settings that lent themselves to his approach, that is, in hospitals and in clinics.

But intervention approaches based upon this theory posed an enormous challenge to mental health institutional practices. Long accustomed to operating by requiring people to "come in" for help, professionals were, and continue to be, hard put to develop methods of intervening at times of crisis when people are more susceptible to being influenced by others (3, p. 13). A variety of efforts have been made by institutions to achieve some outreach capability, including twenty-four hour walk-in clinics, telephone hot lines, mobile crisis units and local storefront clinics. These methods, intended to reduce the time interval between the crisis event and "laying on the hands," have brought to light some inherent flaws. For one thing, crisis services were usually secondary to the more central concerns of the mental health enterprise, namely diagnosis, treatment and training. Crisis intervention as a preventive strategy received little more than peripheral attention. (This phenomenon is no different essentially than the feat of preventive medicine in the priority system of the medical profession). Indeed, a crisis became virtually indistinguishable from an acute psychiatric emergency. And so, just as ideas tend to conform to institutional constraints and practices, crisis intervention became only a new term and was tantamount to putting old wine into new bottles.

Early efforts to deliver crisis services surfaced other difficulties as well. Often, the use of the service was determined by the prior knowledge

or experience of the person in crisis, that is, by his recognition of need for the service or even by his knowledge of the service's existence. More important, perhaps, the methods employed rarely reached those who, by virtue of lack of education or impoverished circumstances, were unlikely to recognize their need and to reach out for help at the time of crisis. Further, since crisis services usually are a part of mental health facilities, they may not be positioned close enough to the site of a critical event to be of use to the victims. Finally, even when in crisis, many people are apprehensive about the implications of any psychiatric contact.

Those who have worked with the crisis concept have emphasized the importance of the *earliness* of the intervention in taking advantage of the openness of the person in crisis. However, the speed with which intervention can be accomplished is strongly influenced by how predictable the crisis was. As McGee (12) has suggested, crises fall on a continuum of predictability. There are those that can be seen coming, so to speak. They range from the normal developmental crisis to such events as a new job, a school examination or elective surgery. And then there are those crises precipitated by wholly unforeseen events such as natural disasters, serious accidents, or crimes. It would seem logical that crises that can be anticipated lend themselves to planning and that therefore earliness of intervention can be assured. But the unanticipated or sudden crisis event presents an extraordinary challenge. Since it cannot be predicted, how is it possible to plan for immediacy of intervention?

Leaving aside the answer to that question for the moment, let us consider the importance of authority. The perceived power of the care-giver has always been a secret weapon of the helping system. This phenomenon of power is even more important in the management of people in crisis—particularly those under the impact of a sudden, arbitrary and unanticipated crisis. The crisis has a chaotic effect; coping mechanisms are severely taxed and a sense of helplessness ensues. In a sense, the individual is, to a lesser or greater

extent, so reduced in his ability to cope that his behavior may be regarded as regressed. Either actively or passively, he seeks help or direction. And, those in the environment who are perceived as powerful are apt to be seen as the source of order and stability in an otherwise suddenly chaotic world.

For the surgical patient undergoing the crisis of a sudden change in body form or function, only the surgeon is seen as having almost magical powers to order, to restore, to facilitate adaptation. What he says, what he does, how he says it and how he does it may be endowed with significance far beyond the real. Similarly, seeking the helpful power of authority is extremely important for a person in a crisis-induced emotional state.

Recognizing the significance of authority provides a context for answering the question about how it is possible to plan for prompt intervention in all crises. Clearly it is not possible to plan for the sudden, unpredictable and arbitrary stressful event. But it is possible to enlist the participation of an existing service delivery system whose domain is crisis, whose mode is immediacy and whose very essence is authority. These three attributes are all essential for effective crisis intervention. The irony is that they should be absolutely unique to an agency not usually identified as part of the helping system... the police (10). Police officers usually are the first summoned when a sudden crisis occurs (appeal for help), they have a highly organized mobile response capability (immediacy), and they have the legal and symbolic power to "do something" (authority). The crises with which they commonly deal are natural disaster, crime and serious accident... events that can have shattering impact. These factors, when taken together, attest to the unique potentials of the police as a primary crisis intervention resource.

In effect then, the half-million police officers in this country constitute an untapped natural resource for the management of the unpredictable crisis event that so defies the mental health institutional capability. Indeed, it can be argued that this group is already delivering crisis services, however

grudgingly and ineptly at the present time. This grossly inadequate service delivery is only the natural consequence of the dual role the police occupy in society. As the instruments of power, the police are encouraged to view themselves simplistically as "dirty workers" whose essential mission is to clean up or control the human flotsam and jetsam of society. At the same time, they have increasingly fallen heir to a vast array of helping functions, estimated to be between 80% and 90% of manhours.

The range of unpredictable crisis events that come within the purview of the police is almost infinite. Members of that service delivery system are positioned in time and place for an array of crisis intervention roles. The following typify the kinds of events that lend themselves to skillful crisis intervention as a preventive strategy by police officers:

1. *Crime victimization.* The victims of crimes, particularly those against the person, experience extraordinary stress reactions. A policeman trained in crisis intervention techniques can have the dual effect of helping the victim in stress while at the same time eliciting information necessary for the successful investigation of the crime.

2. *Natural disaster.* In this category are included such events as fire, flood, explosion, earthquake, tornado, etc. The suddenness and impact of the event leads to a "disaster syndrome." The dimensions of this syndrome and specific techniques for combatting it are essential knowledge for the police who must restore order after such an event.

3. *Notification.* A frequent police activity with little recognition by laymen, this involves informing the family or next of kin of the death or injury of a family member. In this circumstance the police officer himself both causes the crisis and can act as an agent in its resolution.

4. *Accident.* Ranging from vehicular homicides to falling objects, these events differ somewhat from the "disaster syndrome" in that the chaos is personal and exists in an otherwise ordered and intact environment.

5. *Psychotic reactions.* These reactions have

profound effects upon others, particularly family members.

6. *Suicides and attempted suicides.* As with psychotic reactions, these occurrences profoundly affect others. Skillful intervention by police may offer significant preventive opportunities.

Even a cursory examination of these crises communicates the unique potentials for crisis intervention in the police service delivery system. Further, it is suggested that the kind of immediacy in time and place that can be achieved by the police cannot be achieved by any other element in the helping system. In fact, given institutional constraints, the preventive mental health objectives of crisis intervention theory are unlikely to be realized by existing mental health operations. Ultimately it may be more rational, and indeed more economic to utilize the police system for the achievement of the objectives of crisis intervention. It really remains for the mental health professions to acknowledge that fact and to develop means by which the police may be used in an outreach capacity. It will require that mental health professionals conceive of new ways of "giving knowledge away" to those who are not trained in mental health theory but who are in a position to be more effective than theorists. If there is a commitment to prevention in mental health, then there must be a challenge to develop means for utilizing the immediacy and authority of the police system.

INTERPERSONAL CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

The management of interpersonal conflict is probably the most time-consuming aspect of the police function. Cumming (8) monitored 82 consecutive hours of telephone calls to the Syracuse (N.Y.) Police Department and found that almost twenty percent of them were for disputes and fights in public and private places and among family members, neighbors, and total strangers. The police departments of Dallas (Texas), Kansas City (Mo.), New York (N.Y.), and Cambridge (Mass.) report similarly high percentage of time

allocated to interpersonal conflict. Cumming concluded that although the "apprehension of law breakers may stand in the public mind as the crux of police work, most of a policeman's day is spent in more mundane matters such as . . . acting as an outside mediator in situations of conflict" (p. 170).

The word *mundane*, in this connection, has interesting implications. For one thing it is a reflection of the policeman's denigration of a dangerous and disagreeable function. For another, it reflects the television and detective-novel inspired public fantasy of what it is that occupies dramatic primacy in police work. However, the incredibly complex role of mediation is anything but mundane and the consequences of incompetent third party intervention are very serious; it can and often does contribute to violence rather than to pacification. A significant percentage of those police officers killed and injured in the line of duty were involved at the time in efforts to manage a human conflict. Both the dire effects on officers and the high homicide and assault rate among citizens may be traceable to the persistent neglect of the significance of the third party intervention role of the police.

The reluctance of both the public and the police to acknowledge the role of the police in conflict management is a costly misrepresentation of an important reality. More and more, the police, who are our most immediate representatives of a remote governmental authority, find it difficult to separate their duties in social regulation and public security from the day-to-day management of complex human problems. Conceptions of the police role which emphasize remoteness of authority by downgrading human services contribute to public disorder and insecurity, alienate the police from those they are charged with protecting, and, in a circular sense, negatively affect their crime control objectives. It can be reasoned that the goal of delivering human services can be regarded as an objective that, because of its profound effect upon public trust and cooperation, is equal with the objective of crime control.

The usual role of a policeman is one which

leads naturally to his becoming involved as a third party in interpersonal conflicts. This function is one which can neither be readily delegated nor ignored. Both the urgency and destructive potential of interpersonal conflict requires the kind of timely and authoritatively lawful third party response capability that is absolutely unique to the police function.

Certainly it is no secret that when push comes to shove, the police enforce the political, economic and social views of the establishment. If the delivery of human services was acknowledged as being consistent with those views, policemen would be given the training and the encouragement necessary to deliver those services competently. Such training would serve not only to change potentially dangerous ways of reacting to a conflict, but also would result in a more satisfying job performance. Indeed, a recent study demonstrated that the performance of policemen trained in conflict management improved significantly as measured by traditional police criteria (14).

Furthermore, a general sense of security in a community is not only the product of a lower crime rate. There is mounting evidence that citizens feel secure when they are convinced that government is responsive to their needs. The policeman is both the most visible and the most immediately available extension of governmental authority. As a crucial service which communicates responsiveness, conflict management goes far toward generating a sense of security.

Many of these observations result from a number of years spent directing action research programs that have sought, among other things, to test the feasibility of training police for third party intervention in interpersonal conflict (3, 5). During the course of these studies in New York City, it was possible to collect data on more than 1,500 cases of police management of conflicts among people. However, it should be noted that because of the nature of the original study involving family conflicts and the nature of the subsequent study's setting, (low income housing projects) most of the data relate to family disputes. Nevertheless it

may be useful to touch briefly upon some of the findings.

Since training was a critical variable in these studies, a number of methods were used to assess training effects. Most striking was the finding that policemen, even when randomly selected, can learn and practice relevant interpersonal skills to affect their performance as conflict managers. What is more, the evaluation suggested that the changes in police behavior which are necessary for effective third party performance do not require a corresponding change in the attitudes and beliefs of the policeman. That is, despite changes in behavior our measures suggested that the changes occurred while attitudes remained constant.

It was our impression that the behavioral changes observed were related to the nature of the training. We call the training methods which we used "affective" and "experiential" methods. The methodology of such training differs considerably from the more traditional methods of the military-vocational training and from the academic model as well. In the military-vocational, instruction is along "how-to" lines and encourages the application of formulae to ensure job performance. In the academic, learning is highly abstract, verbal and passive; it rarely requires translation of knowledge into operational application. While the military-vocational admirably serves the purposes of mass troop movement or of assembly-line production, and while the academic model is ideally suited to contemplative and precise scholarship, neither can possibly serve the needs of a policeman who must make very rapid decisions in highly variable situations involving complex human interactions.

What then, given these needs, did our "affective" and "experiential" training program consist of? Most of the course content focused upon behavior within an actual social situation. The methods employed ranged from specifically prepared police social science information (communicated in a context which encouraged discussion) to real life simulations and video-taped role plays. A short period of intensive classroom training was

followed by a period of field training over time. And the major thrust of the training was to encourage the kind of self-criticism which permits the practitioner to learn from his mistakes. Regularly scheduled case conferences were used which permitted the officers to continue the process of learning as they practiced in the field.

Perhaps it would be useful to take a closer look at the kinds of changes experiential training methods brought about in the officers in our studies. The following were among the training effects noted: 1) the officers were better able to regard both parties in conflict as contributing to the situation rather than to see the dispute as the responsibility of one "crazy person"; 2) the officers were able to maintain objectivity in the way they behaved as well as in the way they perceived the conflict; 3) the response toward the police of those in conflict was positive; 4) there was little evidence of the need to employ force; 5) there was absence of injuries to officers; 6) the officers more frequently employed techniques other than arrest and/or court referral.

In one of our studies we attempted to determine whether conflict management training produced any measurable effects on the residents of a community (5). An independently conducted community attitude survey revealed that the residents of the housing projects in which officers had been trained in interpersonal conflict management evidenced a greater sense of security after one year than residents in two control projects. It should be emphasized that the sense of security did not appear related to reported crime. It was our impression that the improved quality of police services (i.e. more sensitive interpersonal behavior by the police) communicated to the residents a greater sense of responsiveness by the authorities upon whom they were dependent for their security and welfare.

Our studies to date have confirmed the President's Commission (6) finding that in most disputes "often the parties really want (the officers) only to 'do something' that will settle things" rather than make an arrest (p. 291). It appears to us

that people in conflict want an objective, skillful and benign authority who can successfully negotiate, mediate or arbitrate a constructive outcome. The passions of the moment require a "here and now" legally sanctioned intervention which no other agency of the helping system is capable of delivering. Indeed, it can be shown that the police are even summoned to offices of psychiatrists, to social and welfare agencies and to hospital clinics for the purpose of managing disputes in those settings.

Also, our experiences to date have convinced us that we have only just skimmed the surface phenomena in third party intervention. We are aware that much of a policeman's behavior results from a mix of understanding, insight, knowledge and intuition. But exactly what is the full range of approaches used by officers in dealing with disputes? In order to learn the answer to that question and others, we must build bridges between the practitioner in the field and the researcher in the laboratory. A recently designed approach which we plan to put into effect soon is an elaboration of a strategy suggested by R. E. Walton (13). The model proposed an active and intimate collaboration between police practitioners in the field and university based social scientists. The suggested collaboration would result in an instrument for knowledge-building for the police system and for social science as well. The opportunities for studying aspects of human aggression in an actual social situation are limitless.

Finally, society's capacity for coping with the

kind of violence that originates in interpersonal conflict can be enhanced by the use of a previously unacknowledged human resource. In a departure from the traditional view of their function, it is suggested that the police have a unique potential for delivering a service which can alleviate or prevent violence. Indeed, it is suggested that given their symbolic and lawfully authoritative role, the police, if provided with skill, competence and institutional support, can better serve the need for third party intervention in human conflict ("here and now") than any other agency of the helping system. Important functions related to training, to research, and to knowledge-building have been defined for social science in the achievement of these kinds of service roles by the police.

For society to encourage excellence of police performance in conflict management is one way of removing the stigma which we place on conflict in human relations. As Deutsch (9) recently said, "... the issue is *not* how to eliminate or prevent conflict but rather how to make it productive or at least, how to prevent it from being destructive." In providing a clear sanction for the police to deliver this much needed third party intervention service, we are acknowledging that conflict is not only a realistic and inevitable part of relationships among people, but can also present us with inherently constructive opportunities. In addition, by legitimating a human need whose traditional closet status has been so costly in terms of human life and social disorder, we are expressing our concern for and respect of the individuals in need.

ORGANIZATIONAL & OPERATIONAL CONSIDERATIONS

AMBIVALENCE AND AMBIGUITY

An organization can undertake changes in its operations for any number of reasons. Often the implicit and explicit reasons underlying the effort to change are closely related to the success or failure of the operation. Indeed, perhaps even more than the "nuts and bolts" of implementation, it is the underlying commitment that determines the outcome of organizational change. It is useless if not self-defeating, to pretend that ambivalence is not a factor inherent in change efforts. But failure to recognize and confront this ambivalence results in policies that are ultimately destructive to the success of an effort to change. It may be useful, therefore, to identify some of the sources of policy-making ambivalence that have subtle and corrosive effects upon the implementation of the family crisis concept by police organizations.

The social work myth. Even the most well-intentioned and best informed police executive may have difficulty in including helping services as an important function for a policeman. There somehow remains a residue of conviction that helping people is essentially a social work function that is discrete from the "real" work of the police. This attitude, while historically understandable, is associated with the belief that any helping function requiring the use of interpersonal skills diminishes the masculine authority image of the police. If this feeling of ambivalence exists in a police executive, it can wreak havoc with policy decisions and with administrative arrangements. It can result in him giving double messages and otherwise conveying his uncertainty to his sub-

ordinates, which can effectively subvert the most efficiently designed plan.

Before instituting a family crisis component, the police executive would be well-advised to expect this subtle form of unintentional subversion on the part of other policemen and deal with it openly. There is sufficient evidence by now that family crisis intervention is police work and not social work. Police have been doing the job grudgingly (and in most cases ineptly) to their own disadvantage, as police homicides and assaults will attest. Acknowledgement of the function does not make it social work; training for the function does not make it social work; and, organizational restructuring does not make it social work.

It must be understood that the family crisis approach to police training does not in any way alter the basic identity of the police. Instead, its major objective, as established by research, is for family crisis intervention to enable the policeman to do his job with greater effectiveness, with greater personal safety and with greater personal satisfaction. Unless that issue is clearly understood, successful implementation is endangered.

The community relations myth. In most cases the term community relations is a euphemism for public relations. Quite commonly, police officials regard a concept like family crisis primarily in terms of its value in changing the public's perceptions of the police in a positive direction. That is, it is seen as a concept which would appeal to the community in general and to "do-gooders-who-do-not-understand-real-police work anyway" in particular. If this motivation is the primary one for instituting a family crisis program, then the pro-

gram can be expected to flounder. What is more, a program which is merely a short-term commitment to achieve a questionable public relations payoff contributes not only to cynicism within the police, but also to cynicism of the general public.

Community sophistication about public relations gimmickry is now at a point where even subtle expressions of it are quickly detected. More than that, the ambivalent policy-maker whose primary concern is to sell the public fails to grasp a vital reality—to mount a program essentially to improve image is to condemn it to failure. The image of any organization, and particularly that of a helping agency, is defined by the quality of functions performed; it is measured by the day-to-day activities of each of its practitioners. No amount of verbal game playing can convince a person that the actions he perceives are other than they appear. As with the "social work myth," any vestige of the "community-relations myth" as a source of ambivalent feelings about family crisis intervention, dooms it to failure.

The funding game. Society has recently begun to appreciate more fully the importance of law enforcement, and has become increasingly generous in supporting its efforts to upgrade itself. When increased public support first materialized, almost any reasonably designed "experiment" or "demonstration" program was looked upon favorably. Programs were usually undertaken on a trial basis using funds that were "added on" to existing budgets. This "soft-money" approach was particularly well-suited to organizational ambivalence in program policy-making. Often, without awareness, the decision to implement a new approach was taken without reallocating any existing budget dollars, thus denying any commitment or permanence to a new program.

Given experience and research to date, the work "experiment" is no longer justified with respect to the significance of family crisis as a viable policing strategy. Organizational policy makers may still require add-on funds to launch such a program but any planning should acknowledge the need for reallocation of existing funds to

ensure the long-term continuation of the change. Failure to do this is yet another expression of the subtle feelings of ambivalence which communicate themselves throughout the organization and are certain to be a factor leading to failure of the change.

Recommendations. The foregoing discussion was not intended to be comprehensive . . . only illustrative. It has only attempted to touch upon some of the subtle and hidden factors that may be at work when a decision is made to implement a new approach in a time-honored traditional system. Yet, unless these factors are understood, articulated and confronted, their influence in determining outcome is quite predictable. To undertake to implement family crisis as a police function requires, as a first step, recognition that ambivalence is a natural consequence of change in any organization. Inevitably, ambivalence leads to ambiguity which ultimately defeats the change effort.

The following recommendations may be helpful in countering the destructive potential of ambivalence:

- 1) The executive decision to "go" with family crisis, whether derived unilaterally by the Chief or by him in concert with his executive staff, must be reinforced by direct efforts to surface the sources of ambivalence. This means that a chief cannot just assign responsibility for this new program to a subordinate staff member and then treat the strategy as if it was the sole responsibility of that individual. Instead, we suggest that the Chief hold executive group meetings with responsible staff on a regularly scheduled basis in order to tease out and confront those ambivalences that figure prominently in the organization. This paradoxically simple yet difficult exercise has a multiple payoff. It reinforces executive commitment and communicates readiness and willingness to confront any organizational ambivalence. Further it serves to reduce the isolation of responsible staff and reassures such staff that the commitment to this program is deep and not merely the product of executive whim.

2) Whatever the ultimate operational design might entail, it must have clearly defined incentives and rewards. Traditional rewards in police organizations are geared almost entirely to functions that constitute the smallest proportion of man-hours. For example, promotion to detective (as a reward) may be based on a particularly dramatic holdup arrest. This serves to reinforce the policeman's conviction that rewards are most likely to be related to crime-control functions. Means must be found to reward those myriad functions which require as high a degree of competence as do family crisis intervention techniques. One of the most telling statements of unequivocal commitment to an organizational change is through a reordering of reward priorities. Incentives and rewards can serve most effectively to reduce organizational ambivalence and its resultant ambiguity.

MODELS OF IMPLEMENTATION

The execution of any idea requires a model which contains all of the important elements of the concept and which can serve as the means for achieving the desired goal. Given the general structure of police organizations, three models will be discussed; the choice of a specific model, however, will depend upon the nature of each situation.

Generalist-Specialist Model. This was the model used in the original family crisis demonstration project. In essence, a selected group of general patrol officers processed all family disturbance calls in a specified area. These officers operated in uniform and on all tours of duty; when not engaged in the management of a family disturbance, they provided general patrol services in an assigned sector. This model has the following advantages:

1) Professional identity of the officer is preserved. In the eyes of his colleagues and of the public the officer charged with family crisis responsibilities is still a "real cop."

2) In a large organization, it appears to be an efficient way of delivering a needed service without sacrificing general uniformed patrol coverage.

3) It has implications for other generalist-specialist roles (e.g., youth, rescue, etc.) in which each officer has a specialized area of expertise. It avoids the need for each patrolman to be all things to all people.

4) It enhances the morale of patrolmen in that their area of special expertise is respected by both their colleagues and the public. Further, it defines a specific function for the exercise of professional discretion while maintaining general patrol capability.

5) It can take advantage of natural or latent talents of patrolmen.

Generalist Model. An alternate model, more suitable to small organizations is for all patrol personnel to be given training in family crisis theory and practice. This was the model employed in the housing study; as the research findings indicate, it can be useful as a strategy. The advantages of this model are:

1) It is suitable for small organizations that turn out too few men to have the luxury of a generalist-specialist on each tour.

2) It ensures involvement of all personnel in acquiring special knowledge.

3) While the quality of service delivered will show greater variance than it would with selected generalist-specialists, it will tend to maximize the impact on the department itself and on the public.

4) It minimizes the tendency to delegate all family intervention functions to a small unit; it reinforces family crisis as the ongoing responsibility of all patrol personnel.

Specialist Model. In contrast to the preceding models, we have not had any experience with the specialist model. However, our impressions gained in studying police operations and theory suggest that this may be the least desirable model. Indeed, assigning exclusive specialization for family intervention to selected officers who have no general patrol responsibilities appears to have few, if any, redeeming virtues. Therefore, the following disadvantages should be weighed before proceeding with this model:

1) This is the model through which organiza-

tional ambivalence is most likely to be expressed. The delivery of the service becomes the exclusive responsibility of the specialist and satisfies only the policy decision with no reference to the broader operating responsibilities of the organization.

2) It tends to create two classes of citizenship within the organization; those who do "real" police work and those who do social work. This encourages the public to think of the police as being either "bad guys" or as being "good guys;" that is, those who are aggressive enforcers and those who are benevolent authorities.

3) It is ultimately destructive to morale and hence destructive to the function of the specialist. The specialist feels alienated from his colleagues and confused in his identity as a policeman if his functions are restricted to a single dimension of service. Consider, for example, the derisive designation of "kiddie cop" for juvenile specialists in many departments.

TRAINING

It must be clear by now that preparing policemen to deliver a highly complex human service requires unusual training for specific skills. Indeed, it requires a kind of training that is a synthesis of that which is traditional in police work and that which is found in fields which concentrate exclusively on human services. Once again, there are different training models that must be considered.

Intensive Training. In police organizations, the characteristic way of preparing personnel with specific skills is to run them through a brief and intensive training program. The methods of instruction are usually of a "how-to" nature, largely by lecture augmented by audio-visual aids. At the conclusion of the training experience, the patrolman returns to the field. There is usually little if any follow-up evaluation and even less likelihood of ongoing training in the field.

Field Training. Usually unsystematic, fragmented and methodologically questionable, field training can be found to range from the roll call exercise to informal "rap" sessions. It is this form

of training that breeds the greatest cynicism since it comes across as "lip service" or "going-through-the-motions." This approach is most likely to communicate organizational ambivalence about the training itself, not to speak of the lack of commitment to the content of the training.

Combined Intensive and Field Training. This model, if properly conceived and employed, holds the greatest promise for human service functions. The brief and intensive training must be carefully designed to be consistent in content with the ultimate objectives of the program. But even more important, the intensive training should be regarded as *orientative* rather than conclusive. It should be the foundation upon which training in the field will build. Naturally, the methods employed in that training should also set the tone and prepare the officer for the kind of methods to be used in the field. It is unlikely, for example, that the exclusively lecture/audio-visual format will be feasible in the field.

At the conclusion of the brief intensive and orientative training, it is essential that there be follow-up in the field. It is here that the bulk of training occurs, in the human service professions . . . that is, in "learning-by-doing." In medicine the basic orientation afforded by the medical school is followed by years of continuous training in the clinic and hospital geared to practice. The methods used are essentially those of case study and self-critical analysis of practical applications of theory. If field training is possible in the kind of life and death emergency-oriented field that medicine represents, it is equally possible and necessary as an adjunct to the basic training of policemen.

A final word on training. Given the present transitional state of police training, and given its movement to a broader model than the traditional military-vocational one, few police organizations have the in-house capability to conceptualize or implement the kind of training that successful family crisis intervention entails. Hence, as much assistance as possible must be obtained from outside resources, that is, from the academic and professional communities. While it is true that

most previous efforts at collaboration have been found wanting, it is also clear from recent developments that committed police leadership can inspire successful input from such outside resources.

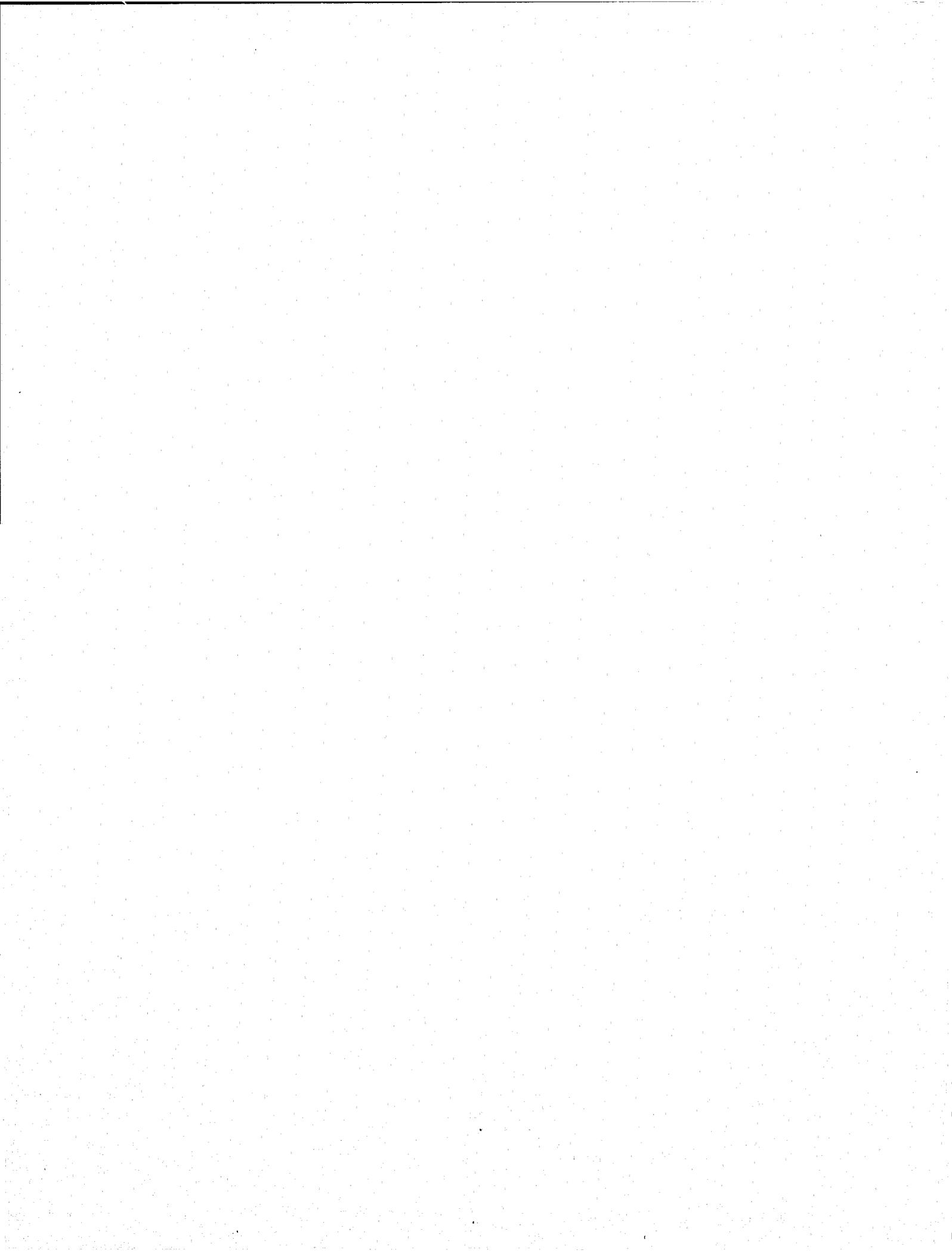
RELATIONSHIPS WITH OTHER AGENCIES

A critical variable in making family crisis intervention a successful strategy is the establishment of working relationships between the police and other agencies of the helping system. However, given the fact that many of these agencies are already overburdened, it would be foolhardy to have unreasonable expectations of their ability to be of service. In order to ensure maximum participation though, agency representatives should be included as part of planning very early.

It should be noted that because a policeman is involved in a crisis when emotions are at their height, and is perceived as someone with authority, he may be in the best possible position to effect a constructive outcome. Because of this, a skilled policeman may be preferable to a community agency. But there will be cases which require services beyond the ability of the officer. In those instances, resources should be available and responsive. With proper training and judicious referring, these agencies can be effective backups. It is vital

that the police executive ensure interagency liaison from the outset so that the necessary resources will be available.

Some final words are in order with respect to police family crisis intervention. This document has only touched upon some of the issues relevant to the implementation of such a program by police organizations. Acknowledgement of the highly complex functions performed by the police is inherent in the decision to develop such a program. It has been the position of this monograph that the questions of social regulation and public security are inseparable from the day-to-day management of complex human problems. The police are our most immediate representatives of a remote governmental authority. Conceptions of their role that reinforce remoteness contribute to public insecurity, alienate the police from those they are supposed to protect and, in a circular sense, negatively affect the objective of crime control. If citizens are to cooperate in the process of crime control they must trust the police. Such trust is engendered by the competent delivery of those human services that occupy so much of a policeman's time. It can be said, therefore, that the delivery of services like family crisis has parity with crime control as an objective of police organizations.



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APPENDIX 7

"EFFECTS OF CONFLICT MANAGEMENT TRAINING
ON POLICE PERFORMANCE"

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Zacker, Joseph, and Bard, Morton. "Effects of Conflict Management
Training on Police Performance." Journal of Applied Psychology,
v. 58 n. 2, pp..202-208. 1973.

APPENDIX 8

"CRISIS INTERVENTION AND INVESTIGATION
OF FORCIBLE RAPE"



Crisis Intervention
And
Investigation
Of
Forcible Rape

By
Morton Bard
and
Katherine Ellison

Crisis Intervention And Investigation Of Forcible Rape

By
Morton Bard
and
Katherine Ellison



MORTON BARD is professor of social psychology at the Graduate School and University Center of the City University of New York. His interest in human crisis began with extensive research on the psychological impact of cancer and radical surgery. Dr. Bard has directed a number of innovative community-oriented projects and organized the first Family Crisis Intervention Program within the New York City Police Department. His current focus is on crisis intervention and interpersonal conflict management in the police function.

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THE TRADITIONAL FOCUS of the police has been on law enforcement: the solution of crime and the apprehension of offenders. However, it has become almost a cliché to point out that analyses of the police function reveal that they have increasingly fallen heir (estimated to occupy between 80 and 90 percent of their time) to an increasing array of important human service functions. Traditional training gives them few tools to aid them in performing these functions. If the police are to provide these human services in the manner most satisfactory both to the public and to the officer, it is essential to draw upon the knowledge in other fields related to human behavior. This does not mean that police officers should be made over into psychologists or social workers, rather it means that they should combine knowledge from these fields with their own unique experiences and expertise to perform all aspects of their job with maximum effectiveness, safety, and satisfaction.

Both law enforcement and human service functions are combined in an officer's dealings with a victim of forcible rape. This paper will deal with ways in which the police can use psychological knowledge both to benefit rape victims and at the same time to enhance their ability to apprehend offenders and close their cases satisfactorily.

The handling of rape investigations with psychological insight not only benefits the victim in terms of future psychological functioning, but also results in greater job satisfaction for the officer. In addition, it has ramifications in a larger sphere: "the word gets around," and an image is projected to the public of an authority with psychological and technical competence. This must lead not only to greater public cooperation but also to a greater sense of security for the public at large.

CRISIS THEORY: THE BACKGROUND

The body of psychological knowledge known as crisis theory is particularly useful in enlarging an officer's understanding of the victim's psychological state and reactions, of the way the victim views the situation, and of the officer's role in relation to that event.

Modern crisis theory had its origins in 1942 when a Boston psychiatrist, Erich Lindemann, and his colleagues from the Harvard Medical School, became involved with the victims and the families of victims of the Coconut Grove fire.¹ This terrible nightclub conflagration, in which almost 500 lives were lost and many more people were badly hurt, had a major impact on the city of Boston.

Lindemann's work with survivors, their relatives, and friends, produced many ideas about how to deal with victims in crisis. This work has been enlarged and elaborated on by other researchers in the field. Much of the work that has been done has dealt with people in psychiatric crises, while practical applications in other areas have been slower to develop. This paper will suggest that crisis intervention theory has particular relevance to the police especially in their interactions with the victims of crimes against the person, particularly the crime of forcible rape.

CRISIS AND ITS ASPECTS

Crisis may be interpreted in a wide variety of ways, but common to most definitions is the idea that it is a turning point in a person's life. *It is a subjective reaction to a stressful life experience, one so affecting the stability of the individual that the ability to cope or function may be seriously compromised.* Crisis comes in many kinds and degrees. An event that may be of crisis proportions for

¹ Lindemann, E. Symptomatology and Management of Acute Grief, *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 101, 1944.

one person may have less effect on another, but there are some situations that may be considered crisis inducing for any individuals who experience them.

Crime victimization is one of the most stressful events in life. While it is not usually seen in crisis terms, it has all of the qualities that make for crisis. People tend to react to crime with the behavior that one sees in other, more obvious, crisis-inducing situations.

As every officer realizes, people respond differently to having been victims of crime. While highly personal reactions to stress make it difficult to suggest a formula approach to people in crisis, it is possible to define some aspects of a situation that will typically be perceived and reacted to as a crisis. It may be useful to discuss important characteristics of stressful situations that result in a crisis reaction.

A. Stress

1. *Suddenness.* Stressful life events that are sudden tend to have a crisis impact. When a situation comes on slowly, people are able to readjust their psychological defenses slowly to cope with it. The death of a loved one who has been dying slowly over months or years usually has less crisis impact than a sudden, unexpected death.

2. *Arbitrariness.* A situation that is arbitrary usually is experienced as a crisis. This is the sort of situation that seems unfair, capricious, and highly selective; it seems to happen in a no-fault, "out of the blue" way, resulting in the "why me?" phenomenon. An out-of-control auto selectively hitting one pedestrian in a crowd is an example of arbitrariness.

3. *Unpredictability.* Closely tied to arbitrariness and suddenness is unpredictability. In everyone's life there are normal and predictable developmental crises for which one can plan: marriage, a new job, a school examination, elective surgery, or any number of other events that are stressful but that can be predicted as being such with greater or less accuracy. Crises that can be anticipated lend themselves to planning so that some of the severity of the impact may be reduced. On the other hand, there are those crises which cannot be predicted. They are precipitated by wholly unforeseen events such as natural disasters, serious accidents, or crimes. It is the unpredictable that further confounds and complicates the stressful event leading to a crisis reaction.

B. Reactions to Stress

1. *Disruptiveness.* A crisis reaction has the characteristic of disrupting normal patterns of adaptation. Normally all of us have defenses which operate all the time to preserve the sense of "self," that is, to protect the self against the normal ebb and flow of life's events. We stay on a pretty constant course that way. But under the impact of a crisis-inducing situation, those defenses are disrupted and functioning suffers. Sleeping and eating patterns may become disturbed, work inhibitions may develop, attention and concentration become difficult.

2. *Regression.* Often individuals regress, that is, emotionally they revert to a state of helplessness and dependence that characterizes an earlier stage of development. When in a crisis, an otherwise mature and effective person behaves almost like a child in seeking support and nurturance, guidance, and direction from those regarded as strong and dependable.

3. *Accessibility.* With characteristic defenses disrupted in a state of helpless dependency, individuals in crisis are extraordinarily open and suggestible. This provides a unique opportunity to affect long-term outcomes.

One of an individual's most basic needs at this time is to ventilate feelings—to be able to talk about what has happened, to "get it out of your system." At this point sensitive intervention can help the person work through turbulent feelings about the experience and can minimize the long-term damage to psychological functioning.

If there is insensitive intervention that discourages ventilation, the individual quickly regroups his defense mechanisms and attempts to use them, often in extreme forms, to deal with the crisis. The defenses, instead of being appropriate reactions to a crisis situation, might harden into inappropriate habit patterns. For example, a common defense mechanism found in victims of crime is repression; they "forget" what has happened to them and can give only the barest, most confused details to the investigating officer. (One psychological theory tells us that this forgetting is only apparent and that the events continue to influence behavior.) Victims may tend to become paranoid and to feel someone is following them, or that the environment is dangerous, or that the offender is lurking nearby, even when this is not possible. They may develop nightmares, compulsions, or excessive, unreasonable phobias. Such defensive reactions often hinder not only the initial investigation, but also the successful legal pursuit of the case when the offender is apprehended and the case comes to trial. The person who "can't remember," who refuses to leave his or her room, and who fears all strangers can hardly be an ideal witness.

The disruption that occurs with crisis may become apparent immediately or there may be a delayed reaction. A police officer often will see a victim of serious crime, such as rape, who seemed calm and unconcerned at the time, but who, three or four weeks later, will need psychiatric treatment or be hospitalized. She may even call the officer who investigated the case and complain of acute or chronic insomnia, or phobias, or that she is depressed and cannot stop crying, and the like. Because crisis-symptoms might not be evident immediately but may show up after some period of time, the officer must act as though the situation is of crisis-proportions.

CHARACTERISTICS OF SUCCESSFUL INTERVENTION

Given the elements that make for crisis, the question then becomes, what are the basic elements that contribute to dealing successfully with a person in crisis? Specifically, what should a police officer do to help the person in crisis regain equilibrium while, at the same time, furthering his own work?

Police have several advantages as crisis intervention agents. Those who have worked with the crisis concept have emphasized the importance of earliness of the intervention. Being on the scene early allows one to take advantage of the period when the victim's defenses are down, when he/she is open and accessible to authoritative and knowledgeable intervention. The police officer is there early simply because people in crisis turn first to the police, especially when the crisis is precipitated by crime. Because the officer is on the scene first, actions taken can critically affect, either positively or negatively, the victim's subsequent behavior.

Almost as important as the immediacy is the question of authority. Most professionals in our society are seen as authority figures and their ability to perform their duties is enhanced by this aura of authority. Professional people are expected to be competent, to be able to do their jobs well. Because professionals are expected to be competent, those seeking their services act in ways that will facilitate this competency; for example, people listen and follow directions.

Some professionals have learned to take advantage of the public confidence that comes with authority. In the field of medicine, it is common knowledge that most of what a doctor cures has nothing to do with anything that is specifically wrong with people. At least 70 percent of the time of a general practitioner is devoted to functional disorders, i.e., with ailments that are basically psychological in origin. (Not unlike the 80 percent of police time being concerned with non-crime functions.) What people are cured by is a kind of laying on of hands. The doctor has come to have enormous authority in the eyes of people, and they turn to him for the satisfaction of psychological as well as physical needs. In the course of his training he learns how to use this authority in helping patients feel better.

Similarly, a police officer has considerable authority, both real and symbolic. The officer is the symbolic representation of everything from parent to the state. This is especially so when people are in trouble; people turn to the police to help in all sorts of difficulty, from a cat on the roof, to disputes with landlord or spouse, to emergency illness, to rape and robbery. Trouble is the business of the police, and society grants them much authority to help them deal with it. They must learn to use this authority. Because the police, by the nature of their job, have immediacy and authority, their behavior toward the individual in crisis must have impact upon both short and long-term adaptations of such people.

IS RAPE A SEX CRIME?

It is common to regard rape as sex crime. However, there is reason to question this view. Indeed, looking at it in the traditional way may well create a set in the police investigator's thinking that is dysfunctional. That is, to regard the act primarily as sexual in nature may distort the view of investigating officers, giving them a sense that they are dealing with something that really belongs in the area of morality. If one looks upon rape as a crime against the person, one may be more disposed to see it as one would view other aggressive crimes, such as robbery, assault, etc.

The difference in point of view may have a significant effect on the investigator's handling of the case. Despite the new morality, in our society sex is still a subject that is highly charged emotionally, and is difficult to deal with coolly and objectively. Even the most hardened officer, for example, often reports difficulty in dealing with the case of a child who has been sexually molested. The special feelings in our culture about sex are revealed by the fact that, in many states, laws dealing with sex crimes differ significantly from laws dealing with other crimes against the person. For example, a woman carrying a purse is ordinarily not considered to be "asking for" a mugging, but a woman in a short dress is often accused of "asking" to be raped. No other crime has such stringent corroboration rules or requires such blameless character and conduct on the part of the victim.

Recent research on rape² suggests that the intent of the offender is more often aggressive than sexual to prove his own masculinity and invulnerability by scapegoating and degrading the victim. Contrary to popular belief, the average rapist probably is not someone for whom normal sexual outlets are unavailable. Often too, the crime may follow a fight with a mother, a girlfriend or wife, and be a displacement of hostility against that woman.

RAPE IN THE CONTEXT OF CRIMES AGAINST THE PERSON

To understand the impact of rape, it would seem appropriate to examine it in the context of other crimes against the person as they are experienced by the victim. All crimes against the person can be said to be violations of the self³ and, as such, precipitate crisis reactions.

A burglary is such a crisis-inducing violation of the self. People usually regard their homes or apartments as representative of themselves. In an important symbolic sense, their homes are extensions of themselves. It is, in the most primitive sense, both nest and castle. Particularly in a densely populated, highly complex environment it is the place that offers surcease and security. Each nest is constructed uniquely; each is different, just as individuals are different. When that nest is befouled by a burglary, it is not so much the fact that money or possessions have been taken, but more that a part of the self has been intruded upon or violated.⁴

In armed robbery, a somewhat more complex violation of self takes place. While in burglary, the victim is not directly involved, here the violation of self occurs in a somewhat intimate encounter between the victim and the criminal. In this crime, not only is an extension of the self (property, money, etc.) taken from the victim, but he or she is also coercively deprived of independence and autonomy, the ability to determine one's own fate. That is, under threat of violence, the victim surrenders autonomy and control, and his or her fate rests unpredictably in the hands of a threatening "other." This kind of situation must have a profound ego impact.

Now let us go a step further on the scale of violation of self to assault and robbery. Here there is a double threat: the loss of control, the loss of independence, the removal of something one sees symbolically as part of his "self," but now with a new ingredient. An injury is inflicted on the body, which can be regarded as the envelope of the self. The external part of the self is injured, and it is painful, not only physically, but internally in ego terms as well. Victims are left with the physical evidence reminding them that they were forced to surrender their autonomy and also of the fact that they have been made to feel like less than adequate people . . . a visible reminder of their helplessness to protect or defend themselves.

In this discussion we have moved from considering the implications of the violation of self as it relates to the extension of a person (burglary), to the loss of control and autonomy as well as part of the self (armed robbery), then to, considering the insult to the envelope of the self as well as the loss of autonomy (assault and robbery). Now to the ultimate violation of self (short of homicide⁵), forcible rape. In the crime of rape, the victim is not only deprived of autonomy and control, experiencing manipulation and often injury to the envelope of the self, but also intrusion of inner space, the most sacred and most private repository of the self. It does not matter which bodily orifice is breached. Symbolically they are much the same and have, so far as the victim is concerned, the asexual significance that forceful access has been provided into the innermost source of ego.

² Amir, Menachim. *Patterns in Forcible Rape*. University of Chicago: Chicago, 1971.

³ The self is an abstract concept; sometimes called ego. It is the sum of what and who a person feels he is. A large part of the concept of self involves the body and the way one feels about the body, but it also includes such extensions of the self as clothing, automobile, and home. For example, this may be expressed in such ways as: "That's just the sort of house I'd expect him to have."

⁴ This explains the sense of feeling "dirtied" often expressed by burglary victims. The intent to degrade is borne out by the fact that many burglars leave behind wanton destruction, and even, sometimes, deposits of f

From an ego-psychological point of view, this kind of forceful intrusion into interior space would have to be one of the most telling crises that can be sustained, particularly since it occurs in the context of the moral taboos which traditionally have surrounded the sex function. Indeed, to view rape as purely a sex crime encourages the search for possible sources of satisfaction in the experience for the victim. Actually, there is little opportunity for gratification in the context. For example, if one focuses only on the sexual, one would be tempted to minimize the effects of rape on women with considerable sexual experience. This is not the case. That is why promiscuous women or prostitutes, for whom sexual activity is certainly part of their normal adaptive pattern, will experience rape as a crisis. For all women the focus is upon the intrusion and the violation of self; even prostitutes, for whom sex is a commodity, there is a need to have a sense of control, a sense of autonomy. When this is taken from any woman, her defenses will be incapable of protecting her ego.

Adding to the victim's distress over violation is her awareness of cultural myths about rape, leading to fears of how friends and relatives will react toward her, and perhaps guilt feelings that she surrendered under duress, to a "fate worse than death." In this fearful, disrupted state, she sometimes comes to the police.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE INVESTIGATOR

The implications of all this for police investigators are truly profound. If officers realize the crisis significance of rape and have an understanding of their role, particularly in terms of its immediacy and authority, they can be considerably aided in achieving a successful outcome of the investigation. Remember that an individual in crisis may be in a state of regression, and it is natural in such a state to try to defend the self by repressing the noxious experience. While regression provides an opportunity for fostering a relationship with the victim, repression may inhibit the communication of significant information.

A CASE HISTORY OF A RAPE SITUATION

Let us examine an example of a more-or-less typical rape case⁶ and the way it was handled. Of particular interest are some of the crucial situations, how the police in this case handled them, what they did consistent with our understanding of crisis theory, and how they might have responded differently.

One Saturday afternoon an eleven year old girl, living in a large apartment complex in New York City, was accosted by a sixteen-year-old boy as she went into an elevator, was forced at knife point to the top of the building, and raped in the stairwell for half an hour. She was injured rather badly. When he left, she went down to the playground where she had been playing table tennis, picked up her racket, in a stunned manner, commented on the experience to two of her little girl friends, then went to her own building, took the elevator to her family's apartment, and told her mother about it. Her mother called the police. The police arrived quickly, questioned the family and the child with official demeanor, took the facts, and advised the family that detectives would be there shortly to conduct an investigation. They then advised a hospital examination and, indeed, took the child and her mother to the hospital which was not far away.

About two hours later, two detectives arrived, asked essentially the same questions that the original officers had asked, told the parents they would in touch again, and left.

Then the problems began. The child tried to talk about the event as the evening went on and both mother and

father conspired to keep her from talking about it. The mother's guilt was operating; she experienced the event as having somehow been her fault. She had not protected her child, did not go down to the playground with her, did not keep an eye on her, etc. The father was enraged and guilty because he too had somehow failed to protect the child. There was a fifteen-year-old brother in that family who was also thrust into a state of crisis, and was being ignored. Why was he in a state of crisis? It was an event that had involved sex, an issue about which adolescents are particularly concerned. There was not much age difference between the two children; they were of different sexes, and there must have been some feelings. After all, incest taboos operate strongly in all families. And, additionally, the victim had reported that the rapist was about the same age as her brother. Thus the situation must have had serious implications for him.

What we see here is an incident in which the crime of rape has produced a crisis not only for the victim but for the entire family as well.⁷ The impact of the crisis, its shattering effects, the regressive tendency of all members of this family cry out for a firm, gentle but knowledgeable authority who, by his actions, can satisfy the need for support and strength. And if this authority is a police officer, he can at this time set the basis for furthering his investigation.

For example, the parents might be approached in the following way: "Look, we're police officers; we've had experience with this sort of thing, and we understand. So let's talk about what our experience tells us is going to happen as a result of what's gone on here. You're going to feel more guilt than you may realize about what's happened to your little girl. You're going to ask yourselves, 'What could I have done to prevent this?' Well, in reality, you didn't do anything wrong, and neither did she, and there probably was nothing you could have done to prevent it. But we realize that knowing this is so doesn't keep you from feeling guilty all the same, and we understand that."

Just such a simple statement gives the message that this person with authority is knowledgeable and understanding and can actually predict and give voice to the gnawing internal experiences of these parents. Somehow this process is not only reassuring but encourages trust and an openness with the officer.

From there the investigators might go on to anticipate their future reactions so that the family and/or the victim can recognize them and deal with them as they occur. At the same time, they may set the basis for furthering the investigation. They might say something like, "We know that this is painful for the family, too. You're probably going to have a tendency not to want to hear about it, to feel that it would be best for everybody if your child didn't talk about it. But our knowledge in these situations tells us that people have a compulsive need to talk about what has happened to them, to 'get it out of their system,' to share it with someone who understands and who won't judge her or be harsh with her or blame her and says in effect, 'We still love you.'

⁶ Homicide, of course, is the ultimate violation of self. However, witnesses of the homicide or relatives of the victim are usually in a crisis state. The intervention techniques useful with the victims of crimes against the person are appropriate for use with these individuals.

⁷ Contrary to public expectations, the majority of victims of rape are in their teens, and younger victims are common. Parenthetically, young male victims of sodomy are not uncommon either.

⁸ This must be so in all cases; even if the victim does not tell her family about the crime, the changes that will almost inevitably be produced in her behavior as a result of the crisis will become obvious to those close to her. They will wonder what is wrong and be upset by these changes for which they can see no reason.

"Now, I want you to do a job for us. I would like you to listen to what she has to say, and if at any time in the retelling of the story there is a new piece of information you didn't hear before, write it down, and call us immediately."

In other words, these officers would not only be demonstrating to the family that they know what they are doing, but they have also given them a job to do in relation to the event. They have made them partners in apprehending the offender. The family members can feel that they can do some good in the apprehension, and at the same time they are doing the most helpful thing they can for the victim.

From the viewpoint of the investigating officers, this may seem the long way around. It implies that they should not try to get more than the barest facts at first, that the original report by the patrolman first on the scene probably is enough to begin with, and that probing at this point, especially aggressive probing, is more likely to be harmful and impede the flow of information than to be helpful.

So we would suggest that the first interrogation or interview be a very general one, a helpful one, one that demonstrates to the victim and her family that the officer is concerned about them. The emphasis is on the victim and on her family, not on the offender . . . not yet. First the victim must be allowed to "pull herself together," then she will be willing and able to deal with cooperating in the process of apprehending the offender. A realization of this priority establishes a relationship that will serve as a basis for gaining information. The investigators might even set up an appointment and say, "We'll be back next Wednesday, and we'd like to talk to you then and see how things are going. Maybe then you'll feel a little differently, and will want to go into the matter a little more." The situation is defined as one of helpfulness, not force, and the victim will repay with information and cooperation because the officers gave her and her family the support they needed in crisis.

In the long run, then, more information is likely to be gained with a little increase in time spent by the investigators. They have established a relationship of trust with the victim and with her family. Their desire to help reciprocally will also lessen the likelihood, so frustrating to the investigators, that if a suspect is arrested, the victim will refuse to cooperate, or that her family will put pressure on her to forget the whole incident.

FURTHER GUIDELINES FOR INVESTIGATION

We have attempted to present here a broad outline of how the theory of crisis intervention may be related to work with victims of rape. This outline has emerged from a blend of psychological theory and the practical experience of officers with whom it has been discussed. In discussing this outline with police officers who have dealt with rape cases, several more specific questions about the best procedures have arisen. In answer to the most common questions, some general guidelines may be presented that seem appropriate for the majority of cases. It is up to investigators, however, to realize that each situation differs and to use their discretion and intuition in determining when these suggestions are appropriate.

1. It is critical that the investigator scrupulously avoid any suggestion of force. This is especially true if the officer is male (and of course, most officers *are* male). Often, in his zeal to complete an investigation, because he is committed to what he is doing and really involved, the officer may be perceived by the victim as aggressive and forcible. In a sense, he is acting toward her essentially as

the rapist had acted. The implication is obvious.

2. It is crucial that an authoritative investigator present himself in a benign, nonjudgmental way. This is especially true for the male officer. He must have patience and attempt to create a climate that will allow the individual to bring to the surface the information willingly and naturally. The extra time that this seems to take in the short run will yield more information in the long run because it tends to short-circuit repression.

3. The officer should encourage the victim to talk about what has happened, even though he may find it painful and threatening to have to listen. He may want to probe gently in a later interview for information that may be particularly shameful to the victim or that she may not know how to express. This is particularly true if some form of sexual abuse or sodomy, has or may have, occurred. The officer may say something like, "Very often women tell us other things happened to them, too, things they consider unnatural or find hard to talk about. Did anything like this happen to you?" The officer must be careful, at the same time, not to suggest things to a victim who may lie or remember incorrectly in an effort to please him. A very gentle approach, perhaps a bit off-handed, not intense probing, may prevent the tendency to induce suggested conformity.

4. The most appropriate place for interrogation differs with the circumstances. No relationship or encounter occurs in a void. It happens in a setting and the setting often determines what happens in it. Generally, the home is the best place for an interrogation, especially if the rape did not occur there and the victim has not expressed a desire that her family not know about the crime. The home is the extension of the self, and if the interview can be done privately, within the home, it often adds to the victim's sense of safety and security. If the officer is in doubt it often is appropriate to ask, "Where would you feel most comfortable talking about this?" The station house usually is the worst place. It is an environment that is conducive neither to the sense of comfort nor of ease.

5. The question of place leads to the problem of the presence of others, and the necessity, often, of dealing with the family as well as with the victim. Most victims are part of a social network, and their reactions to a crisis will necessarily affect the way they relate to others, whether the others are told directly about the crisis or not. A victim may be afraid to tell her husband about the rape, but he cannot help but notice that her behavior has changed, that something is wrong, and this will, in turn, influence his behavior toward her, often in ways that make the crisis worse for her.

6. The victim always should be seen privately. Even the most well-meaning relative or friend will be upset by the situation and will tend to try to cut off the victim's need to ventilate. If the interview is in the home and the family members seem particularly anxious, it is sometimes helpful to interview the other members of the family first. This should be done without the victim in the room and for the purpose of assuring family members that both they and the victim are blameless. It is important that the authority make clear that the victim acted correctly because she is still alive. It is important, too, to reflect for them something of what they are feeling. They then may be enlisted as helpers in the investigative process.

7. If the victim comes to the station house alone to report the crime, she may want and need support in dealing with her family. It is appropriate to ask if she would like to be taken home and have the officer help her explain the

situation to her family. At any rate, given the nature of the social view of this crime, the meaning the crime has for the victim (i.e. violation of self), and the effect upon the person, it is very important that the privacy of the relationship with that immediate authority be uncomplicated by any other relationship. It should be developed in the context of confidentiality and closeness. If the officer establishes a good relationship with the family so that they understand the crime and its significance to the victim, then they have a way of dealing with the situation. This enables them to relate to the victim with the same sense of compassion and understanding that they have just received.

8. In later interviews, the officer assigned to the case may help the victim by de-mystifying the court procedure to her in a supportive way. He may also give her the names of organizations that have been formed to help the victims of rape. In New York City, for example, members of women's organizations familiar with the court procedure are available to supportively accompany the victim through the complexities of the legal process.

9. A frequently asked question is whether the officer assigned to the victim of a rape should be male or female. The reality in most police departments in this country is

that the bulk of work is done by male officers. Even if one wanted to refer the victim to a female investigator such an officer may not be available. If the victim specifically and spontaneously requests a female officer, every attempt should be made to provide one for her. However, there is some feeling that there are advantages to having a sensitive male officer deal with the case. An understanding, supportive male at this time may help the victim overcome a natural aversive reaction to men. That is, she sees, at a time when such an experience is vital, that not all men are aggressive and harmful. This may ease her job of relating to the other men in her life. In any case, more important than the sex of the investigator is the individual officer's crisis intervention and investigative competence.

SUMMARY

In this brief presentation we have attempted to place the crime of forcible rape in the context of crisis theory. An understanding of human crisis and of crisis intervention techniques by an investigating police officer can immeasurably aid the rape victim in preserving her psychological integrity and also aid the investigating officer in the apprehension of the offender and in the preparation of a case that will stand up in court. ★



APPENDIX 9

"THE ROLE OF LAW ENFORCEMENT
IN THE HELPING SYSTEM"

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Bard, Morton. "The Role of Law Enforcement in the Helping System."
Community Mental Health Journal, v. 7, n. 2, pp. 151-160. 1971.

APPENDIX 10

STATEMENT BY GERALD M. CAPLAN, DIRECTOR,
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
LAW ENFORCEMENT AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE
REGARDING BATTERED CHILDREN

STATEMENT BY GERALD M. CAPLAN, DIRECTOR,

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REGARDING BATTERED CHILDREN

The statement ". . . more children die each year as a result of attacks by parents than from any single childhood disease" is a quotation from Hearings Before the Subcommittee on Children and Youth of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, United States Senate, page 126, of March 26-April 24, 1973. It was made by Rep. Biaggi of New York. His source is Dr. Vincent Fontana, Director of the Foundling Hospital of New York City. The quote is found also in Public Affairs Pamphlet #508 "To Control Child Abuse and Neglect." The issue is discussed extensively in Dr. Fontana's book, Somewhere a Child is Crying, McMillan and Co., 1973.

The Uniform Crime Report for 1972 shows over 540 cases of this kind. These are only the obvious cases of primary cause, however. The National Center for Prevention and Treatment of Child Abuse and Neglect at Denver, Colorado, notes that child abuse is a significant cause of childhood deaths in at least twice as many cases - conservatively estimated at 1,200 cases per year. (Childhood deaths caused by abuse in schools, institutions, babysitters, and others acting in loco parentis are not included in this figure.)

The National Center for Health Statistics, an arm of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, confirms Dr. Fontana's assertion by concluding that, among diseases particular to children, the leading cause of death is the group known as Interitis and Diarrheal. The latest figure attributable to that group is the 1969 total of 1,181 deaths among children under 14 years.

The figure of 1,200 childhood deaths attributable to parental attack is particularly interesting when reviewed against the number of wife-husband murders. In 1972, there were 1,140 cases of wife-killing husband, and 1,240 cases of husband killing wife. The literature is in agreement, by the way, that no social-economic group is exempted from these statistics.

An editorial in the Journal of the American Medical Association said recently that assaults on children, if complete statistics were to become available would show that perhaps more children die of maltreatment than of infectious diseases, automobile accidents and cancer combined.

Dr. Ray Helfer, consultant pediatrician to the National Center for Prevention of Child Abuse and Neglect states that ". . . if nothing

further is done within the next ten years, it is clear that the - cumulative data in ten years will result in 1.5 million children who have been reported of suspected child abuse, approximately 50,000 deaths, and 300,000 permanently injured children, most of whom will be brain damaged . . ."

All of us at the National Institute are concerned about this tragic matter. We have added the subject to our family crisis intervention training program for police officers, in the hope that we can prevent these homicides of children from happening.

APPENDIX 11

TO COMBAT CHILD ABUSE AND NEGLECT

By

Theodore Irwin

PUBLIC AFFAIRS PAMPHLET #508

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Irwin, Theodore. To Combat Child Abuse and Neglect. Public Affairs
Committee. New York, 1974.

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