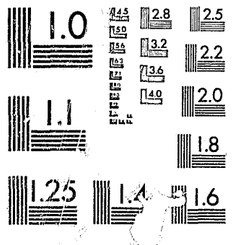

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Research Utilization Program

Managing Patrol Operations

Trainer's Handbook

a program of the **National Institute of Justice**

United States Department of Justice
National Institute of Justice
Office of Development, Testing and Dissemination

MANAGING PATROL OPERATIONS

A TRAINER'S HANDBOOK

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For

The National Institute of Justice

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Program Manager

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PREFACE

The Managing Patrol Operations Trainer's Handbook has been written as a guide to assist the staff of municipal police departments in the local use and adaptation of the Managing Patrol Operations (MPO) training program which was designed and delivered nationwide by the Criminal Justice Research Utilization Program (CJRUP).

This MPO Trainer's Handbook is to be specificially used in conjunction with other materials developed and used by CJRUP in the delivery of these national workshops. These other materials are: (1) The MPO Participant Handbook; (2) The MPO Manual; (3) The MPO Videotape; and (4) two Prescriptive Packages prepared by the National Institute of Justice (Improving Patrol Productivity, Volume I: Routine Patrol and Improving Patrol Productivity, Volume II: Specialized Patrol.) These source materials plus the MPO Trainer's Handbook constitute The MPO Program Resource Package which has been prepared by CJRUP as part of its responsibilities to the National Institute of Justice, Department of Justice, Washington, D.C. Copies of sets of the MPO Program Resource Packages are available to municipal police departments and other interested law enforcement training institutions from the National Criminal Justice Reference Service, PO Box 6000, Rockville, Maryland 20850.

This MPO Trainer's Handbook is written for the staff member of a police department who is interested in using and adapting the MPO Program Resource Package as part of his or her department's training program--particularly executive development training for first line, mid-level and senior supervisors of the department. The materials and the training program can also be used by other law enforcement training or educational institutions, including Police Officers Standards and Training Commissions (POST), colleges, universities, or specialized institutes.

Chapter one of the MPO Trainer's Handbook is an Introduction which summarizes the purpose and activities of the Criminal Justice Research Utilization Program and describes the development of the Managing Patrol Operations training program. Included in the Introduction are some guidelines about the use of the MPO Trainer's Handbook and its relationship to other documents and materials contained in the MPO Program Resource Package.

The rationale, development and logic of the MPO program is discussed at length in chapter two. This chapter describes the problems to be addressed and explains the specific goals, objectives and curriculum used in the MPO training program as one means of attempting to resolve some of the issues currently to be found in the management of the patrol service in municipal police departments. This chapter concludes with a discussion of the meaning of Directed Patrol and a review of the various meanings associated with the term productivity.

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*A description of the Criminal Justice Research Utilization Program may be found in the appendix of this Trainer's Handbook.

The third chapter offers some suggestions--derived from actual experiences in designing and delivering the MPO training program nationwide--which need to be followed in order to prepare for the delivery of this training program in local departments. Instructions and guidelines to be followed in the actual delivery of this training program are proposed in chapter four.

Succeeding sections of chapter four treat each of the sessions of the MPO training program. Each session contains two sets of instructions or guidance for the person who is responsible for delivering the session: (1) for each session there is a summary explanation of the objectives, time requirements, audio/visual equipment needs, MPO Resource Package references, methods of presentation and training, room arrangements, and sequence of sessions activities; and (2) for each session there is a presentation outline which can be used by the trainer or instructor responsible for the particular session. This presentation outline is cued to page references and visual references found in the MPO Resource Package.

Finally, an appendix lists various diagrams of how space used in the training is to be arranged. Sample evaluation forms which can be used at the conclusion of each day of training are provided in order to assess the effectiveness of the event and to assist the department improve or alter the MPO training program for future use. The concluding portion of the appendix contains a detailed description of the Criminal Justice Research Utilization Program and a description of the current efforts to test, in three police departments, the MPO program as a management improvement system for these departments.

It is our hope that this MPO Trainer's Handbook used in conjunction with the MPO Program Resource Package can enable municipal police departments to examine some of the innovative approaches to the improved management of the patrol service.

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Chapter One

INTRODUCTION

Criminal Justice Research Utilization Program

The National Institute of Justice (NIJ), part of the U.S. Department of Justice, supports wide-ranging research in criminal justice, including the testing and evaluation of innovative programs. As new knowledge is gained, the Institute follows through with the essential step of communicating what has been learned and any related policy, program, and research implications.

The Criminal Justice Research Utilization Program, administered by NIJ's Office of Development, Testing, and Dissemination, makes research and evaluation results accessible to criminal justice officials, other government executives, community leaders, and researchers. The goal is to influence crime control and criminal justice improvement efforts and map out future research strategies.

The Criminal Justice Research Utilization Program (CJRUP) consists of three elements: Research Utilization Workshops, Special National Workshops, and Field Test Support. The MPO training program was originally developed and delivered nationwide as part of the Research Utilization Workshop component of CJRUP.

Research Utilization Workshops (RUWs)

These are series of workshops held for criminal justice practitioners, government executives, and community leaders on the application of research and evaluation results to public policy and programming.

Research Utilization Workshops address subjects where a body of research findings suggest new program approaches. They are oriented to action or operations and address important needs of state and local governments. The topics chosen are generally based on NIJ Field Test Program Models that outline potential program options and the advantages and disadvantages of each, or research and evaluation studies sponsored by NIJ.

Now in its fourth year, RUP has presented 12 workshop series covering various topics related to the entire criminal justice system across the country. Four new topics are scheduled for 1979-80. Each 3-day workshop is devoted to one topic and attended by 50 to 90 top criminal justice policymakers from the larger jurisdictions in a multistate area. To date, more than 15,000 criminal justice executives have participated in these workshops.

Participants in RUWs receive summary findings of relevant research, comprehensive bibliographic references, individual program planning guides, self-instructional materials, handbooks, and selected readings.

For each RUW topic, replication of the workshop related to a particular topic is possible by a local agency through the use of a multi-media package for that topic. This package is entitled a Program Resource Package and includes a videotape, participant handbook, manual, and selected National Institute of Justice publications suitable for a deeper understanding of the topic.

Managing Patrol Operations Workshops (MPO)

In January, 1977, the National Institute of Justice (NIJ) designated the topic of Managing Patrol Operations as the police-related research utilization topic for the year 1977-1978.

Three considerations influenced the choice of this topic. Surveys conducted by the NIJ indicated that police executives, State Planning Agency (SPAs) Directors, Police Officers Standards and Training (POST) Commission members ranked the topic as an extremely high priority need. Secondly, the NIJ had recently completed several experiments, studies, and evaluations of various aspects of the management of the operations of the patrol services ranging from the use of a "split-force" concept of patrol operations to an analysis of the determinants and impact of response-time on the planning and operation of the patrol force. Finally, the successful acceptance by police executives of a previous workshop series conducted in 1976-1977, on the topic, Managing Criminal Investigations (MCI), indicated that municipal departments were both ready and anxious to examine alternative management approaches to the operation of the patrol function in their departments.

This combination of high priority needs, available new knowledge derived from research and study, and a state of readiness manifested by police executives themselves converged to support the decision made by NIJ in choosing Managing Patrol Operations (MPO) as the workshop topic for the period 1977 - 1979.

From January to September, 1977, extensive developmental work was conducted by the MPO Team of the CJRUP. This effort included an review and analysis of most of the relevant literature on the topic, surveys of police agencies, and planning conferences with researchers, evaluators, and practitioners who were experimenting with alternative approaches to the management and deployment of patrol services. Findings and suggestions derived from this phase of development were incorporated into a lengthy training strategy paper which was then reviewed and critiqued by peers and by NIJ staff.

Training goals and objectives for the MPO program emerged from this process and were used to guide the construction of the curriculum content, the process of the training, and materials to be used.

The final stage of development resulted in the production of two major texts: The MPO Participant Handbook which was to be used as a workbook during the actual delivery of the training and The MPO Manual which was to serve as a basic text and reference book in which each chapter was keyed to each workshop session. The combination of a Participant Handbook and Manual insured that a participant would possess a structured blueprint for use in the workshop as well as a reference text which could be used after the workshop, through self-study, to reinforce and clarify learning or insights acquired in the workshop itself.

Following this development phase, the entire workshop was presented as a pilot or test version to a representative audience which the workshop was intended to reach. Intensive critique and review of the workshop was done in this pilot version. Based on recommendations received, the MPO training program was slightly modified and, subsequently, approved for nationwide delivery by NIJ. Between September, 1977 and December, 1978, twenty-five, 3-day MPO workshops were conducted throughout the United States. More than 1200 Chiefs of Police, Chiefs

of Patrol, and other police executives representing more than 400 municipal police departments participated in these workshops. Evaluations of these workshops were conducted during these workshops and several months after each training event. Findings from these evaluations indicated that participants not only rated the workshop very high on issues like completeness, utility, and clarity but also later evaluations reported that more than 55% of the participants implemented suggested approaches (e.g., workload studies, or changes in resource allocation, etc.), or were in the process of implementing new approaches (e.g., directed patrol planning, establishment of crime analysis capabilities, etc.) in their home agency.

As in other CJRUP topics, the NIJ requires that the materials developed and used in workshops be packaged and made available to those criminal justice executives who would be interested in replicating, locally, the original national workshop. This has been done for the MPO topic. Included in the MPO Resource Package is a copy of the original MPO Participant Handbook, The MPO Manual, selected documents from the National Institute of Justice, and a 60:00 minute color video-tape cassette which outlines the overall purpose of the MPO program and summarizes component parts and sessions of the training program.

Use of MPO Resource Package in your Agency for Local Training

It is important to recognize that the effective use of the MPO Resource Package will require study and review by the person who intends to use these materials to design and conduct a local version of the MPO training program. This MPO Trainer's Handbook is intended to assist in this process of study.

The materials in the MPO Resource Package serve two purposes. The first is to assist a local training officer to become reasonably familiar with both the content and the process used in the MPO training program as a necessary precondition for the preparation and delivery of training. Secondly, these resource materials are to be used by participants and trainers in the actual delivery of a local MPO training event. Later chapters will discuss how to use the materials in the actual delivery of the training. Here, however, we wish to suggest some steps the training officer could follow in his/her own review of these materials in order to prepare for designing and delivering a local version of the MPO program.

Step One: Read and review carefully the next chapter of this Trainer's Handbook: The Rationale and Logic of the MPO Program. This chapter seeks to summarize the logical argument and conceptual framework which supports, undergirds, and frames the entire design of the MPO workshop.

Step Two: Review the MPO color video-tape. This review coupled with the reading suggested in step one will reinforce and clarify the overall purposes and content of the MPO program.

Step Three: Read and review, in the order in which they are written, the chapters in The MPO Manual.

Step Four: Read and review the remaining chapters, in sequence, of this MPO Trainer's Handbook, beginning with Chapter 3: Preparations for MPO Training.

Step Five: Organize your staff and trainers in order to prepare your own MPO workshop.

Step Six: Conduct the workshop.

Step Seven: Evaluate the results of your workshop and use the findings to develop your own improved version of the MPO program.

Chapter 2

RATIONALE AND LOGIC OF THE MANAGING PATROL OPERATIONS TRAINING PROGRAM

Dimensions of the Problem to be Addressed

The management of police departments in the United States is entering a new decade characterized by change from a growth economy to one in which new economic pressures have created shrinkages in the resources needed for effective delivery of police services. Although the past ten years have witnessed the discovery and application of important innovations in police management, today, police executives are facing a new situation which will test their ability to maintain many of the improvements that have begun to be achieved in the delivery of effective police services.

At least four interrelated factors have converged in the past ten years to create this new situation.

- Increases in the public demand for effective police services have risen at an unprecedented rate each year and in every department. Rises in crime reported to the police, increases in non-crime calls-for-service, new statutes, ordinances, and mandated standards for training, support services, and operations as well as other factors have contributed to an ever heavier workload imposed on police departments and police executives.

- Responses to such increases in demands have resulted in greater costs for police services. Law enforcement expenditures by local governments alone, were over $13.0 billion in 1978 and represented almost a tripling of the 1970 total of $3.8 billion. Expressed in another way, in many localities if a police department were to create one more round-the-clock position it would require adding five officers to the force at a total cost that may exceed $140,000 per year. In a period characterized by inflation, recession, tax and expenditure limitations and rising fuel costs, many governments have recognized that the demand for police services cannot be met simply by expanding the police force.

- The emphasis in departments has shifted from acquiring more manpower and equipment systems to making better use of existing resources. This shift in emphasis has been heavily influenced by the development of police productivity improvement programs largely as a result of over ten years of research and demonstration sponsored by the National Institute of Justice and the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration.

- The rapid increase of public interest in the police whether measured by greater demands or fiscal concerns about the cost of policing, or the renewed emphasis on increasing police productivity, have, however, far surpassed our knowledge about how to implement and maintain needed changes in the management and operations of police departments. Change in the manner in which organizations and individuals behave is always a difficult and time consuming process; changing the organizational

behavior of a complex organization like a police department, particularly in this decade, compounds this difficulty.

These four factors alone--increases in public demands for effective service, the need to control the spiraling costs of such services, the existence of new knowledge about ways to increase police productivity, and an awareness of the difficulty of directing the process of changing the manner in which police organizations operate and behave--converge, focus upon, and directly affect the managers of police departments. Indeed, these factors challenge old assumptions about how police departments were managed, and require that new management roles be adopted by police executives at every level in the organization.

The Managing Patrol Operations training program is but one of many attempts sponsored by the National Institute of Justice to provide to police executives knowledge and skill in order to meet these challenges and requirements.

This training program specifically focuses on the management of the patrol function in a municipal police department both because patrol acts as the personification of police service in a community and because this function is the largest consumer of police department resources. Between 60 and 70 percent of the sworn personnel of a typical department are assigned to this function which may amount to approximately three-fifths of police expenditures.

In developing and designing this program, the MPO team was guided by a simple question: Given the importance of the factors which currently affect the management of police departments, what specific knowledge, information and skill would police executives need in order to meet the new challenges? In attempting to obtain answers to this question, the MPO team followed a developmental process which was sketched out in the previous chapter. Throughout this process we sought for workable, important, and practical answers. We knew that different answers would be available but we believe that some answers should be expressable in a logical format so that participants, throughout the training event, would be able to understand a reasoned approach to improving the management of patrol operations.

Given these self-imposed criteria, the MPO team was forced to make several strategic choices about the type of knowledge, information and skill which patrol managers would need. These choices were further constrained by the fact that the training program itself was to be less than three-days in duration. Thus, not every important issues about the current problems of the management of the patrol force is treated in this program nor is every recent innovation discussed.

The Target Audience and Objectives of the MPO Training Program

In order to understand the objectives and logic of the program, one should realize that the principle audience to whom this program is addressed is the police executive. The objectives of the program were selected and written with this person in mind and the logic and flow of the training approach is directed at him or her. Choices about specific kinds of knowledge and information presented in the program were made with the view that they were useful, important, and needed by the manager.

We adopted the following operational definition of the police manager: That person who, as a result of being invested with formal authority, is placed in

charge of the police organization or one of its subunits. Moreover, we reasoned that the purposes for which police managers are given authority and responsibility is because they must ensure that the organization or its subunits delivers its services efficiently, they must serve the ends for which the organization exists and they must act as the key communication link within the organization and its units and between the organization and its external environment. These basic and fundamental purposes are carried out in the daily work and activities of such managers and are the principle justifications for the authority, status and rewards they are given. They are also the standards by which such managers--and the organization or unit they represent--are judged or held accountable by others.

Ten training objectives were selected to set the boundaries for the training program and to evaluate the success or failure of the program. By the end of the training event, participants would be able:

(1) to understand the various roles performed by a police manager in carrying out his/her daily work and activities and to understand the importance of the decision-making roles of the manager;

(2) to understand and apply an analytic approach to decision-making particularly in decisions about the allocation and deployment of patrol units*;

(3) To understand that there is a logical process by which the police manager can identify, recover and reallocate a specific patrol resource, namely, patrol time;

(4) to understand the assumptions, advantages, disadvantages, and implementation requirements of five patrol allocation and deployment decision-making techniques;

(5) to understand how to review and critique current policies regarding the dispatch of patrol units which respond to demands for service and to review alternative responses, other than a mobile patrol unit response, to selected service demands;

(6) to understand the purpose, components, reporting procedures, and performance criteria of a crime analysis unit and to understand the use of such a unit as a means for the development and evaluation of efficient and effective patrol strategies and tactics;

(7) to understand the meaning and importance of the concept of directed patrol and the purpose, advantages, disadvantages, and current implementation plans of four types of directed patrol experiments;

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*The expression "patrol unit" means the mobile vehicle used by patrol officers. Typical names given to patrol units by police departments are: patrol car, crusier, RMP unit, black-and-white, and squad car. In addition, some officers may be deployed on scooters or other vehicles that can be considered patrol units.

(8) to understand the purpose, organization, tactical options, operational requirements and evaluation of selected specialized tactical patrol programs;

(9) to understand that various roles performed by the community and its citizens directly impact the success or failure of the crime control functions of the patrol service;

(10) to design a local strategy for implementing one or more of the approaches suggested in the MPO training program in order to improve the productivity of the patrol service.

The training curriculum and the flow of the training was purposely integrated and linked together in order to accomplish the last objective, namely, to enable participants to produce a written document which would outline how they would implement a local plan of action aimed at adopting one or more of the approaches suggested in the previous other objectives. Thus, the training program is product-oriented.

The Logic of the MPO Program

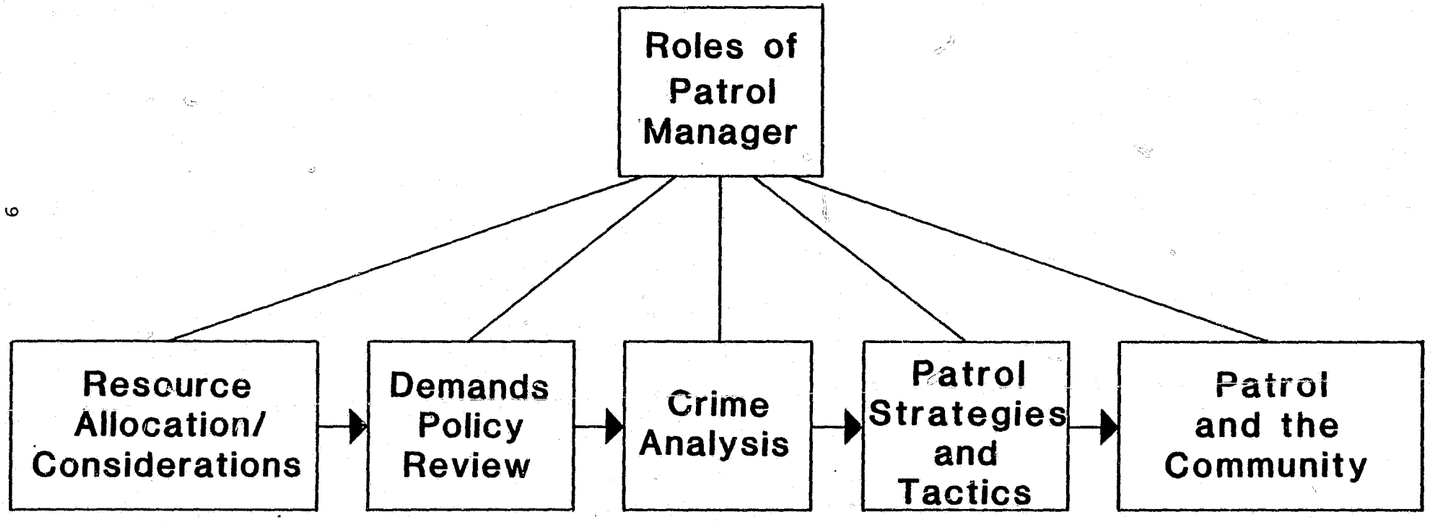
The logic of this program is derived from these objectives and proceeds on two separate but interdependent levels: an analysis of the roles of the police manager and the application of these roles--particularly the decision-making roles--to five separate but linked parts of the patrol management cycle. Figure 1 displays the relationship of these two concepts.

If productivity improvements are to be made in the management of the patrol service, such improvements will need to be initiated, planned, implemented and maintained by the activity of patrol managers. Therefore, it is imperative, on one level, that police managers understand more clearly, and in a self-conscious and reflective manner what the nature of their job-as-manager really is--what are its purposes, how these purposes are operationalized in daily work, how their daily activities can be identified in a useful manner and what is expected of them as a consequence of the performance of these roles.

Moreover, certain types of management activities or roles have a more direct bearing on decisions made by the manager to initiate and maintain productivity improvements in the organization than do others. Thus, the first two objectives of the training program discuss the roles of the patrol manager and direct special attention to the decision-making roles of such a manager. This first phase of the training curriculum also forces the manager to examine a very specific new challenge: what types of decisions are now required to improve police services by making more and better use of existing and available resources.

Since the operations of a patrol service are fundamentally labor-intensive, time consuming operations, the one available existing commodity or resource which the manager can examine--and to a large extent control--is the time which is allotted to the patrol service. If the patrol manager were able to identify and maximize this resource called patrol time, and, if he or she were able to redirect or reallocate such time into the accomplishment, by patrol units, of management directed activities--defined as a result of crime and problem analysis--then the manager may be in a better position to justify more rationally the work of

Figure 1


Roles of Patrol Manager
Resource Allocation/ Considerations
Demands Policy Review
Crime Analysis
Patrol Strategies and Tactics
Patrol and the Community

the patrol service as well as to hold accountable the work and efforts of others in the patrol service. Figure 2 displays this emphasis of the MPO program.

This second level of the logic of the MPO program examines five separate but interdependent patrol management issues which need to be reviewed and analyzed by the manager if he/she is to make better decisions about the use of an available resource termed patrol time. In this second level, the MPO training program directs the attention and work of the manager to very specific interrelated questions and issues:

- What does the manager need to consider if he/she were to identify how time is currently spent in the patrol service and to identify the availability of real, but relatively unproductive, patrol time? Insights into this broad ranging question are provided in that component of the MPO training program described as Resource Allocation/Considerations. The third and fourth objectives of the training program are treated in this session.

- Assuming that the manager were able to identify available patrol time as a result of the first MPO component, then the next question flows logically. How can the manager increase--or maximize--this available time? Approaches to this question are discussed in that component of the MPO training program entitled Demands Policy Review and the fifth objective of the training program guides this session.

- If the manager were able to identify and maximize available time in the current operations of the patrol force, the next question raised is: What could be done with this "new" resource? How could it be used productively? Answers to this question will vary. However, the MPO program argues that decisions about the use of this time is the principle responsibility of managers and no other person. Moreover, such decisions can and should be made by police managers on the basis of an analysis and definition of specific crime and service problems. Redirecting available time into activities designed and controlled by management in order to solve previously analyzed crime or service problems offers the best hope for improving the productivitiy of the patrol service. Insights into the manner in which police managers can organize their staff in order to develop the capacity for crime and service problem analysis are discussed in the next logical component of the MPO program, Crime Analysis. Objective six of the MPO program guides this component.

- When managers redirect available patrol time so that it is used in order to address specific crime and service problems, of necessity, the manager will be changing the traditional meaning (and management) of the practice of Peventive Patrol. This change, which is the logical consequence of the insights and objectives of the previous components of the MPO program, is the most important part of the MPO program and has profound implications on the role of the manager, on the role of patrol units, and on the present organization of the patrol service. This change is more than a change of concept or theory: it is a change in the practice and operations of the patrol force. Because it is such a different way of managing and operating the patrol service, a new term, Directed Patrol, is used to replace the previous historic term,

Figure 2

MANAGEMENT OF PATROL TIME

IDENTIFY	MAXIMIZE	ANALYZE	UTILIZE	IMPACT
• Resource Allocation Considerations	• Demands Policy Review	• Crime Analysis	• Patrol Strategies and Tactics	• Patrol and the Community

Preventive Patrol. Insights into the differences and contrasts between Preventive Patrol and Directed Patrol and four examples of recently developed Directed Patrol experiments are provided in the component of the MPO program entitled: Patrol Strategies. Objective seven guides the development and presentation of this component.

- The next component of the MPO program is a companion component to the previous component and is termed: Specialized Patrol Operations and Tactics. This component focuses on selected types of very specialized crime-control tactics which can be used by the patrol manager in order to design, administer, control and operate selected Directed Patrol activities or programs. Management issues regarding such activities and programs are presented in this component and objective eight guides the presentation and discussion.

- The final component of the MPO training program examines the new relationships and interactions which are now possible between the community served by patrol and the framework of patrol management suggested by this training program. This component, entitled Patrol and the Community is not a discussion of police-community relations. Rather, the focus of this component is on how the community (or individual citizens or groups of citizens) can be seen as integrally related to the meaning and practices of Directed Patrol and how Directed Patrol management needs to involve the community in the improvement of the productivity of patrol. Such issues as the role of citizens in reporting of crime, crime prevention, criminal investigations, and the role of citizens as victims and witnesses to crimes--all will affect the manner in which the patrol service operates. Insights into these issues are provided in this component and objective nine guides the presentation and discussion.

Outcome of the MPO Training Program

As noted previously, the final objective of this training program is directed at the production of a written plan of action by the participants in the training event. The outcome of the training is to begin to produce changes in the manner in which police executives plan and manage the patrol service. Specific points of view and a specific way of organizing and presenting information and knowledge have guided the development of this training program in order to accomplish this outcome. The real test of the program is not merely whether information and knowledge is logically and clearly presented but, rather, whether the logic of the MPO program moves executives to action. Such actions as they initiate--at least within the context of this training program--will, hopefully, enable police executives not only to cope with the factors influencing and affecting their organizations but, more importantly, such actions will begin to develop a less reactive and more proactive process of patrol management.

A Note About the Terms: Preventive Patrol and Directed Patrol

The MPO program adopts a specific point of view about the role of managers in the management and operations of the patrol service by examining the use of patrol time. Further, we indicated that when patrol managers redirect identified available patrol time so that it is used to address specific crime and service problems that had been analyzed by the manager, we stated that the manager will

also be changing the nature and practice of Preventive Patrol. Finally, instead of Preventive Patrol as a term to describe a traditional operational theory of patrol management, we opted for a different term--and by implication--a different theory of patrol management, namely, Directed Patrol. The MPO program attempts to explain and justify the concept of Directed Patrol through a set of logical presentations supported by specific examples of how Directed Patrol planning and operations have occurred in various police departments.

Since this shift in theory and practice is one of the more important aspects of the MPO program, it seems advisable at the outset, to examine and contrast, in a simplified manner, the differences between the terms Preventive and Directed Patrol. Such an examiniation will assist the trainer to understand more clearly the objectives and outcomes of the MPO program and, thereby, will enable him/her to prepare for the actual delivery of this training program more carefully.

Preventive Patrol

This term appears and is used in most of the patrol management and administration literature in a variety of ways. However, the common use of the term is to explain the manner in which patrol units are assigned by a department and to justify this allocation and assignment by delineating the work which such units are to perform. Several operational principles and assumptions are used, in the literature on Preventive Patrol, to characterize the explanation and justification of the term.

- Patrol units are assigned by territory, usually fixed boundaries,--variously termed areas or beats--which were designed to correspond to workload conditions in the area or beat. Usually, such workload was determined, principally, by an analysis of the history of the calls-for-services occurring in these geographic territories.

- Patrol units, once assigned by territory (and according to different shifts in a twenty-four hour schedule of work) were to move randomly within these boundaries, generally, for two reasons: (1) to promote a sense of visibility and omnipresence in the area and, thereby, to create a deterrent effect on potential offenders and to instill a sense of security on the part of citizens residing or working in the area; and (2) to be available for rapid mobile response to a call-for-service which would be radioed to the unit by a patrol dispatcher. In accomplishing these two purposes by random movement, patrol units were said to be "in service", i.e., available for a service-dispatch by the dispatcher. The time expended on this block of activitity was usually referred to as Preventive Patrol time, and, depending on the time of day (shift) or the location (beat or area) such time could be measured in minutes or hours. However, this time was, generally, never constant; it could be interrupted, randomly, by a call-for-service from the police dispatcher.

- A unit would respond as quickly as possible to a call; the unit was to provide the appropriate required service, complete the call, and return to patrolling the territory as quickly as possible. During the time spent in responding to the call for service and in completing the call, the patrol unit was said to be "out of service", i.e., unavailable for a service-dispatch by the dispatcher. Moreover, the portion of time

spent on this call-for-service activity was often called "committed" time, i.e., time committed to the tasks required by the call-for-service.

- Between the time spent by patrol units on Preventive Patrol and on handling a call-for-service, a third block of time was expended on what we prefer to call, for purposes of this program, "non-calls-for-service time". This block of time actually is expended by the patrol unit in performing certain activities and tasks; it is not "down-time" or time spent doing nothing. However, it is time spent doing something different than Preventive Patrol or handling calls-for-service. Generally, this time is catagorized by police administration textbooks as either time spent on administrative activities (e.g., car maintenance, reporting writing, court appearances, bookings, etc.) or officer initiated activities (field interrogation stops, traffic stops, on-view activities, etc.). The definition of what constitutes a specific type of administrative or officer-initiated activity may vary from department to department and may be a matter of some debate within departments. However defined, it is better to consider this block of time as time spent on other than Preventive Patrol or calls-for-service. Conceptually, we favor calling it "non-calls-for service" time. Often, depending on the nature of the tasks performed during this block of time, patrol units may be said to be "out of service" or unavailable for a service-dispatch by the dispatcher--except, in some instances, in very important emergency calls.

These principles, together, constituted the management principles which guided the planning and operation of Preventive Patrol for most of this century. The law enforcement community generally shared the view that the basic goals of police patrol--crime prevention and deterrence, the apprehension of criminals, the provision of non-crime-related services, the provision of a sense of community security and satisfaction with the police, and the recovery of stolen property--were served by these principles. Furthermore, if these principles were to work, then the manager had to act in such a way that his or her supervision and administration was directed at reinforcing certain notions or norms of behavior imposed by these principles on patrol units. Such norms were: (1) individual patrol units were to be available for response to calls-for-service; (2) calls-for-service were to be responded to as quickly as possible; (3) calls were to be completed as quickly as possible so that units would be able to return to a status of being available for the next call; (4) uncommitted time was to be used in performing Preventive Patrol or conducting administratively approved actions or performing generally acceptable self initiated activities. In effect, the application of these principles defined the job of the patrol manager. The good patrol manager was, generally, one whose units performed in such a way that few calls were delayed or backed up in communications and all calls were answered during the work shift. When not engaged in a response or not performing acceptable administrative or self-initiated activities, such units were to move randomly around in their beats.

Efforts made by managers to improve the use of these principles generally were towards the goal of improving upon certain measures of efficiency, that is, how to decrease the response time of patrol units so that calls-for-service could be dispatched within seconds and so that the mobile unit responses to the call could be done within minutes; or, how to minimize the need for cross-beat

dispatching through the use of improved communication technology or by the use of better dispatching and supervision practices; or, how to equalize the predictable workload of calls to be handled by patrol units, at various times, in various territories or brats.

In essence, the Preventive Patrol principles, described above, required that patrol managers organize the activities of the patrol function so that the calls-for-service patrol-unit response would be optimized. Other patrol unit functions such as random visible presence, self-initiated activities, and the performance of prescribed administrative functions were, in effect, to compete for the remaining time of the patrol unit's tour of duty.

Until quite recently, few questions were raised about the validity and utility of these principles. Save for those instances of improvements in the efficiency and optimization of the patrol unit's calls-for-service response mechanisms--such as reducing response time, improving radio communications, etc.--most patrol managers were comfortable with these principles and the manner in which these principles were applied to the organization and functioning of the patrol service.

The Concept of Directed Patrol

Within a reasonably short period of time--roughly in the past seven years--the combination of the findings of a growing body of empirical research coupled with the results of demonstration projects implemented in various police departments, have raised serious doubts about the overall efficacy of these Preventive Patrol management principles.

For instance, the Preventive Patrol management principles implied that patrol units were to respond to calls-for-service as quickly as possible and, therefore, it is necessary to optimize only mobile patrol unit responses in order to improve the efficiency of service delivery.

However, recent analyses of the calls for service workload in many departments have revealed that as much as 30 percent of the call workload represents incidents about which the patrol can do little or nothing. These include a variety of minor non-criminal complaints as well as certain reported crimes where there is neither suspect nor evidence. Faced with the need to use existing resources more productively, certain departments have, as a result of the implications of these analyses, adopted new policies and procedures in order to manage these types of calls-for-service in a way other than by optimizing the dispatch of a mobile patrol unit. Call screening procedures adopted by patrol managers have been used to divert or refer these types of calls to other non-police agencies; alternatives other than the use of a mobile patrol unit have been used to handle such calls, for example, by telephone, or by mail, or by the use of walk-in-station-house reporting by complantants.

Moreover, it is now known that not every call needs to be serviced as quickly as possible. Various analyses of the types of calls traditionally assumed to require an immediate dispatch of a mobile patrol unit (even in calls relating to the commission or discovery of some Part I crimes) have indicated that as much as 50 percent of such calls were of crimes (or other non-crime incidents) that had occurred more than fifteen or thirty minutes before the police are notified. In these cases, a mobile response may be appropriate but it does

not necessarily have to be an immediate response. Various response time studies have now shown that there are calls which citizens, for a variety of reasons, delay in reporting to the police. This citizen delay may be significant in terms of the police management of the calls-for-service workload. Response time studies have indicated that citizens are willing to let dispatchers schedule a delayed response to calls of this nature. Several departments have developed and implemented call-prioritization schemes that include guidelines for immediate or delayed patrol unit mobile responses as well as guidelines for non-mobile responses.

Generally, in analyzing citizen satisfaction with such newer types of responses, it has been found that dissatisfaction results almost exclusively when the patrol unit does not arrive at the designated time or when instructions are not clear as to the nature of the non-mobile response to the particular call.

Studies and projects in police departments as diverse as those in St. Louis and Kansas City, Missouri, South Central Connecticut, Wilmington, Delaware, Sacramento, California, Albuquerque, New Mexico, and Charlotte, North Carolina have indicated that new arrangements at managing the calls-for-service workload, particularly in the adoption of prioritization schemes and non mobile response alternatives can be used more productively without sacrificing either community satisfaction or the efficiency of the type of response to a call.

A second feature of the Preventive Patrol management principles discussed earlier implied that actual preventive patrol--that is random moving around in a visible manner in a territory--was to be performed during uncommitted time and that self-initiated activities, whether of a crime or service-oriented nature, were to be done in response to observations made by patrol units performing such preventive or random patrol. This random feature of preventive patrol implies that there is little systematic relationship between the location of a patrol unit at any given time and the location and time of crime or other problem occurrences.

Recently, however, various analyses of the relationship between the time and placement of patrol and the time and location of patterns of crime or other problems have demonstrated that more productive use of the patrol unit's time can be achieved by directing that the unit perform specific prescribed types of tasks which are to be focused on particular crime and problem patterns and trends. This line of reasoning has been supported by the findings of the Kansas City Preventive Patrol experiment conducted in the early part of the 1970's in the sense that rates of reported crime, arrest patterns or citizen fear of crime were largely unaffected by changes in the level of the intensity of random patrol. On the other hand, changes in the use of uncommitted patrol time from a random style of patrol to a more directed problem oriented patrol activitiy or task have had positive impacts on rates of reported crime, arrest patterns and fear of crime.

The development of crime and problem analysis techniques have made it possible to replace random patrol with pre-planned or directed activites. These activities can be aimed at identified and analyzed crime patterns, trends and problems or other non-crime problems associated with order maintenance, community-interaction, crime prevention, or traffic management and enforcement. Such directed activities insofar as they are pre-planned and prescribed activities, may, indeed, lessen or limit the amount of self-initiated activities

previously performed by patrol units during preventive or random patrol. However, two important management considerations influence the trade-off between self-initiated activities and directed activities: (1) some self-initiated activities may indeed serve one or more of the goals of patrol, yet the total resources such activities actually consume may not, and often do not, represent the most efficient allocation of the total available police resources; (2) knowledge about what the overall crime pattern and problems of a territory are not readily available or apparent to individual patrol units because, by definition, these individual units do not patrol everywhere and at every time--they engage in preventive, random patrol only in shifts and only during uncommitted time in that shift. Thus, because patrol units do not clearly know what are the actual problems and patterns or trends of crime in their territory they may not know what to do to resolve such problems even if they, individually or collectively, had the desire and motivation to perform self-initiated activities.

Studies in Kansas City, Missouri, South Central, Connecticut, San Diego, California and Wilmington, Deleware--as well as more recent on-going experiments in several agencies which are field-testing the MPO program--suggest that Directed Patrol is contributing more to the achievement of these department's particular patrol performance than did Preventive Patrol theories or practices.

Directed Patrol operations replaces random, self-initiated activities performed during uncommitted patrol time and, as such, Directed Patrol is replacing not only the term but the principles associated with Preventive Patrol.

In effect, new principles of patrol management have begun to emerge. Not every call must be responded to as quickly as possible; not every call requires the dispatch of a mobile patrol unit; non-mobile responses are available and work for the benefit of both the patrol and the citizen caller; managers can idendity and analyze problems and can develop and implement new policies and procedures aimed at improving the productivity of police responses without sacrificing certain service values or efficiency.

However, these new principles also require that certain more critical roles be performed by managers particularly those decision-making roles which now require more information and analysis and more structured types of decision-making processes. Managers must now allocate resources on the basis of an analysis of more than the aggregated number of calls-for-service; the allocation must also be based on an analysis of the types of calls and the availability of types of mobile responses as well as the availability of alternative responses other than the dispatch of a mobile patrol unit. While the patrol manager's tasks may now seem more complex, this complexity can be reduced by the manner in which the manager receives and uses information and analytic reports and by the style of decision-making which the manager adopts.

In summary, the MPO program is defined by three separate but interacting processes. These include <u>allocating resources of patrol</u> or the process of matching resources to <u>true</u> workload conditions and managing the calls for service workload in a more productive manner; <u>undertaking directed patrol activities</u> or the process of analyzing crime and service-oriented problems and through such analysis directing that activities be done by patrol units in order to address those problems; and <u>changing the role of both the patrol manager and the patrol unit officer</u> or the process of emphasizing the information gathering and problem analysis roles of managers and emphasizing the problem-solving roles of the

patrol officer. Guiding all three processes is the fact that the new situation facing police executives today requires a less reactive and more proactive form of American police management and organization. This proactive form of management may be found in the concept and practice of Directed Patrol as a replacement for and an evolution of an older theory and practice, Preventive Patrol.

A Note About Police Productivity

When present-day police managers are told that they must learn to use more effectively the personnel and resources currently available to them and when governments are sounding the tocsin of "doing more with less", the message that is really being given is: increase police productivity. The alternatives proposed by the research of the past decade do actually challenge a number of long-held working assumptions about patrol operations and do suggest novel or even difficult-to-implement programs--in the sense that there will be resistance either to the concept or the practices implied by these alternatives. Such alternatives also require, as a condition for successful implementation, that new managerial arrangements be made within the department by the police manager in planning for the insertion of these alternatives into the life of the police organization. Because such alternatives have been portrayed as approaches which can improve police producitivity, it would be well to clarify what is meant by the term "productivity" as part of our treatment of the issue of Preventive Patrol and Directed Patrol.

In its simpliest sense, productivity means the return received for a given unit of imput. To increase or improve productivity means to get a greater return for a given investment. The concept is most often used in reference to the production of manufactured goods or other tangible goods, e.g., more automobiles are produced (output) this year at the same cost of production (input) as last year, or more potatoes are harvested this year (output) at a cost (input) which was lower than last year. Specialists in micro-economics argue over the precise definition (and application) of the term "productivity" but it is generally assumed to be a <u>ratio</u> of "output" (or what results from an activity) to "input" (or the resources--money, time, energy, personnel, equipment, etc.) committed to the activity.

The process of designing and delivering police services--whether such services be crime or noncrime related--is not as easily defined as the process of designing and producing automobiles. Indeed, police services are not easily defined in ways that can accomodate the classic definition of productivity, i.e., return received for a given unit of input. Attempts to define <u>productivity gains</u> in police services will also suffer from this inherent difficulty of defining police services. Thus, the first caveat which a police manager--and others--must recognize is that the concept of productivity cannot simply be transferred in its raw form from the economics of production to the operations of a local police department. Rather, the term and the concept of productivity is used in a derived and analogous sense when applied to police departments. Thus, when one speaks of "improving or increasing productivity in policing", this phrase can mean different things to different people. When one examines the literature of police experimentation and research which describes efforts at increasing police productivity, it seems that there are <u>four</u> basic meanings attached to or associated with this phrase.

First, increasing police productivity means improving current police practices to the best level known, to get better performance without a proportionate increase in cost. In its simplest form, this means doing the things that are considered to be a necessary part of good police work, but doing them as well or efficiently as the best current practices permit. For example, officers assigned to patrol spend a great deal of time on such activities as filling out unnecessarily long reports, or on activities that are important but that would require less time if better coordinated, such as the long hours spent waiting to testify at a trial. These activities could be minimized through better administrative procedures, thus increasing the time available for more important assignments.

Of course, freeing up more police officer time--or improving upon other practices--will not guarantee that the force will be more effective in deterring crime, apprehending criminal offenders, or providing noncrime services. But it is a first step in making the force more effective, and can be accomplished at little or no cost to the department.

Second, increasing police productivity means allocating resources to activities which give the highest return for each additional dollar spent. A police department carries out a range of activities, many of which are non-crime-related and most of which are necessary to its overall capability and its responsibility to the public. Beyond a given scale, however, expanding certain activities will give the force less value than initiating or expanding others. For example, some experiments have tended to support the contention of some criminal-justice analysts that random patrol has a limited effect in deterring driminals, Thus, it may be possible to take, say, 10 percent or more of the patrol force off random patrol without any significant negative effect and shift those officers to directed activities that focus on specific crime patterns and trends, the resolving of which may provide a higher payoff.

Or, to give another example, would a 500-man force get more value from adding a few more officers than from providing the existing 500 men with mobile radios? These are the kinds of decisions--rarely so simple in reality--that continually confront police managers, but that are often made with insufficient understanding of the options available or of their true costs and potential values. They require asking not just whether the force is doing things right, but also whether it is doing the right things.

Third, given the uncertainties of police work, increasing productivity means increasing the probability that a given objective will be met. The professional police officer--from the chief to the patrolman--must deal constantly with many unknown or ambiguous factors. He/she is continually assessing the likelihood that this or that may happen, and consequently the more skillful he/she becomes at increasing the probability that each activitiy will result in useful accomplishment, the more productive the overall operation will be.

The clearest example of increasing the probability of achieving an intended impact is having personnel assigned when and where crime is highest or calls for service are heaviest or problems are severest. Simple observation can indicate the "when and where" in general terms; careful analysis of available data can more accurately pinpoint likely times and places of crime occurrence, thereby significantly increasing the probability of putting units where they are needed.

Fourth, increasing productivity in police work means making the most of the talents of police personnel. Sworn officers are better trained and more expensive than ever before. This means that they are capable of higher performance, that economy requires they be used more effectively, and that they expect to be treated with greater respect and intelligence. Too often the individual talents of sworn officers are overlooked or suffocated by rigid organizational procedures. This represents both a squandering of public resources and a stifling of human potential. Our system should not--and increasingly will not--tolerate either.

Examples of better human resource development and management abound and can be expected to become increasingly important to police mangers. They may include making patrolmen responsible for following through on investigations; permitting senior patrolmen to refuse promotion but receive a higher salary and prestige as a patrolman; and developing alternative career paths for professional police officers.

Throughout the MPO program, you will notice that each one of these meanings of productivity is employed. This is not only due to the intrinsic equivocal nature of the term "productivity" when it is applied to police operations, but it is also due to the fact that there are abundant opportunities for improving productivity in police operations. Experienced police executives and patrol officers know that such opportunities exist; there is no mystery here.

What seems to be lacking is a systematic way of looking for these opportunities and a logical manner of considering the trade-offs implicit in choosing one possible opportunity over another. Furthermore, there is the need to know what has been tried and what has worked elsewhere in police efforts to improve any one of the meanings of productivity described above. The MPO program attempts to provide this sytematic way of looking at and considering alternatives; it also tries to describe what other police departments have done or are doing. In this sense, this training program seeks to help you become a better, more informed police manager. If it succeeds in assisting you to try a new or better approach to your job then the MPO program and you have succeeded.

Chapter 3

PREPARING FOR AN MPO TRAINING EVENT

Several decisions need to be made by the local police department trainer prior to the actual delivery of this MPO training program. These decisions relate to questions about who will be invited to the training program, how many will be trained, what will the schedule be for the event, where will the event be, how many rooms will be needed, what visual aids will be required in each room, and, what will be the size and make-up of the training team. Each of these issues will be briefly addressed in this chapter.

Participants

In chapter two, we indicated that the principle audience to whom this MPO program is directed is the police execuitve or police manager. We defined this person as one who, as a result of being invested with formal authority, is placed in charge of the police organization or one of its subunits.

In our series of national workshops, we identified and invited to these workshops the following types of police executives: Police Chief, Chief of Patrol (or Director of Field Operations) and the Director of Research and Planning. This specific selection was done for two reasons: (1) budget considerations precluded CJRUP from inviting each and every police manager in each and every police agency; and (2) these specific types of managers were seen as the principle audience which we wanted to reach through a series of national workshops.

By contrast, a local department has the opportunity to reach a larger and more diverse set of police managers--those from their own department as well as those from nearby police departments.

Therefore, in the local use of this MPO training program, one can still use the definition of manager in order to select appropriate participants to this program and still accomplish the objectives for which the program was designed. Examples of such appropriate managers are: those who are in charge of the organization--that is, senior executives including the Chief of Police and his/her operation and staff Directors, Chiefs, or Assistants, and those who are also in charge of operational sub-units, including Sergeants, Lieutants and Captains with either staff or line responsibilities which affect directly or indirectly the operations and management of the patrol service.

Selecting and inviting participants from such a pool of managers will, of course, have to be made by the trainer in consultation with others.

The important point, however, is that the MPO program, as designed, can be of use to any of these local departmental managers.

The number of participants who were invited to our national workshops was normally fifty to sixty persons. A principle reason (aside from budget considerations) for our decision about the actual size of the audience was based on the fact that the MPO design and schedule periodically requires that participants work together in small groups. Thus, the size of the audience was partially

affected by the number of trainers available to assist these small groups. We used a team of four trainers in order to provide a ratio of one trainer to fifteen participants for these small groups. Each of these four trainers was assigned to guide and facilitate the work of participants in small groups; these trainers were also required to deliver one or more of the plenary, large group, lecture sessions.

By contrast, the size of the audience to be trained in the local application of the MPO program may be smaller because of the difficulty of scheduling the various types of police managers to be present for one MPO event. Therefore, we offer the following suggestions:

- Try to keep the size of the participant audience small in order to make best use of the information and group work;
- Schedule more than one MPO training event in order to reach as many managers as possible every time;
- The logic of MPO is presented in and through a series of sessions--both plenary and small group sessions--and, because of the manner in which one session builds upon a previous session, one trainer alone cannot adequately conduct the entire program. A team of trainers who are knowledgeable about the content and the logic of the MPO program as well as skilled in the guidance of small groups must be used.
- Generally, a team of three to four trainers working with a group no larger than thirty with each trainer responsible for seven to ten participants in small groups will probably be the best mix.

Schedule

Figure 3 on the next page displays the three-day schedule adopted by CJRUP in the delivery of the national workshop series on MPO. The only reason for our choice of this peculiar schedule was budget and cost of delivering a series of national events to which participants from various states and locales were invited. In order to restrict the cost of travel and overnight accomodations for these participants, we choose to begin the program in the early afternoon in order to accomodate those who would be travelling by car from surrounding states or locales. Moreover, we wanted to limit the cost of rooms and meals to no more than two nights. Finally, we felt that the audience, because of their busy schedules, could not be absent from their departments more than three full days including the time needed for travel to and from the national workshop.

By contrast, a local department wishing to use the MPO program may not be restricted by these considerations and, thus, they need not be bound by the specific three-day schedule used in the national workshop.

In fact, our experience in delivering the national workshops strongly suggests that more time is needed to deliver the workshop effectively. The principle recommendation given to the MPO training team throughout the country by national workshop participants was that "more time was needed" in both the delivery of each plenary session (in order to accomodate a variety of questions and discussion at the session) and, particularly, in the small group sessions (again, in order to accomodate the discussion and debate about issues raised in these sessions).

Figure 3

MANAGING PATROL OPERATIONS
NATIONAL WORKSHOP SCHEDULE

	DAY I	
	Registration	10:00 - 1:00 p.m.
Session 1	Welcome and Orientation	1:00 - 1:30 p.m.
Session 2	Overview	1:30 - 1:45 p.m.
Session 3	Roles of Patrol Manager	1:50 - 3:00 p.m.
Session 4	Resource Allocation/Considerations	3:15 - 5:30 p.m.
Session 5	Closure of Day I	5:30 - 5:40 p.m.
	DAY II	
Session 6	Demands Policy Review	8:45 - 10:45 a.m.
Session 7	Crime Analysis	11:00 - 1:00 p.m.
Session 8	Patrol Strategies: Generalist	2:15 - 4:30 p.m.
Session 9	Closure of Day II	4:30 - 4:40 p.m.
Session 10	Peer Group	4:40 - 6:00 p.m.
	DAY III	
Session 11	Specialized Patrol	8:45 - 9:45 a.m.
Session 12	Patrol and Community	10:00 - 11:15 a.m.
Session 13	Synthesis	11:20 - 11:50 a.m.
Session 14	Strategy Outline	11:50 - 12:45 p.m.
Session 15	Closure of Day III and MPO Workshop	12:45 - 1:15 p.m.

Therefore, we offer the following suggestions:

- If you choose to deliver the entire workshop as designed, then adopt a schedule that will begin in the morning and end in the afternoon for each day and double the amount of time allotted (in the original national schedule) for each major plenary session and each group session;

- A full four-day schedule for the delivery of the entire workshop would be an appropriate schedule if one were to accept the suggestion listed above. An example of such a schedule is given in Figure 4. It is based on the session titles of the national schedule; where appropriate, changes are noted.

- However, you could experiment, after your first use of this MPO program, and develop other types of schedules. For instance, you could break up the schedule into a series of one day events spread out over a few weeks.

Whatever schedule you do devise for your local use of the MPO program, the one overriding suggestion we would offer is that, when in doubt about the amount of time to use, use as much time as you can get for the schedule.

Figure 4
POSSIBLE FOUR-DAY MPO SCHEDULE
FOR LOCAL USE ADAPTED FROM NATIONAL SCHEDULE

	DAY I
Session 1	Welcome and Orientation
Session 2	Overview
Session 3	Roles of Patrol Managers Lunch Roles of Patrol Managers (continued)
Session 4	Resource Allocation/Considerations Small Group Exercise
Session 5	Closure/DAY I
	DAY II
Session 6	Demands Policy Review Small Group Exercise Lunch
Session 7	Crime Analysis Small Group Exercise Closure/DAY II
	DAY III
Session 8	Patrol Strategies Small Group Exercise Lunch
Session 9	Omitted in Local Schedule
Session 10	Peer Group (Optional)
Session 11	Specialized Patrol Small Group Exercise Closure DAY III
	DAY IV
Session 12	Patrol and Community
Session 13	Synthesis of Program Lunch
Session 14	Strategy Outline
Session 15	Closure of MPO Workshop

Training Site

The training site--main training room for plenary sessions and suitable rooms for small group sessions--will, clearly, be determined by whether such rooms are available. Normally, in the delivery of the MPO national workshops, we used a main room large enough to accomodate all participants comfortably seated at tables and chairs and arranged in what is known as classroom style. Further, separate rooms--smaller in size and arranged in conference style--were used for each of the small group exercises and small group teams. Prior to the training event, participants were assigned to a particular group or team of approximate size based on the total number of participants divided by the number of trainers. The appendix lists various diagrams which display these room arrangements.

In adapting this MPO program to your local agency, we suggest that, in general, you try to separate the main training room from the small group rooms. There is a psychological benefit that can accrue to participants and that can assist the training itself, when participants move from one place to another--in essence, such movement and work in different rooms can reduce boredom and increase participation.

Ideally, if the training program can be delivered outside the normal place of work, participation in the training will be more productive. Participants will be free from the interruptions of their daily work when the training is held in a place away from the department.

Visual Aids

Two principle types of visual aids are used in this program as means of reinforcing the presentations and the logic of the program. The first is a 60:00 minute color video-cassette playable on a 3/4 inch player and monitor. This video-cassette provides an overview of the logic and content of most of the MPO program. It can be not only used to prepare the training team to understand the program more carefully, as suggested in chapter one, but it also is to be used in Session 2 of the training program: The Overview, and can be repeated toward the end of the training program in Session 13, Synthesis of the Program. Furthermore, with experience in delivering your own type of MPO program, this video-cassette can be used, where appropriate in the 60:00 minute tape, to introduce specific components or sessions of the MPO program.

The second type of visual aids are acetate visuals of selected charts, graphs, or text which are used as overlays with an overhead projector. These visuals can act as reinforcement to the text of the Participant Handbook--in fact, all the visuals used are reprinted in the Participant Handbook. Producing these acetate overlays is simply done by xeroxing the visual from the Participant Handbook and re-xeroxing this copy onto blank acetate pages. The text or graph will reproduce clearly and these can then be used with an overhead projector.

Training Team Composition

We indicated earlier that no one trainer is able or available to deliver, alone, this training program. There is too much information to be delivered and too many separate group exercises to be managed for one person. Therefore, the design of the training program presupposed a team of trainers, each of whom is

responsible for the content and delivery of certain sessions and each of whom is assigned to assist a small group.

Selecting and training such trainers is an important preparatory step--some would say that it is the most important step. We offer suggestions about this step.

- Identify and train persons who will be comfortable with their dual role of presenter and facilitator;
- Train them to understand the information they are to present; require that they study and consult with others; work tobether as a team to assist and reinforce each others efforts; use the materials contained in the MPO Resource Package;
- As a team, try to anticipate as many questions or objections or issues which could be raised by participants either in the plenary session or in group sessions. The later chapters of this Trainer's Handbook will assist in this effort;
- Practice with each other the delivery of each session and the facilitative skills needed in small group sessions prior to the actual delivery of the workshop;
- Enjoy this work. It may sound difficult and even awkward but it can be enjoyable--after all, trainers are presumed to know what they are discussing and know how to assist others to learn;
- Finally, if you need further assistance, call us.

Suggestions for Small Group Facilitation

a. Each trainer should review the list of members assigned to his/her group in order to know who is in the group.

b. Know to which group you are assigned.

c. Be sure you understand the objectives and content of the topic which has been presented and the relationship of the presentation to the small group task.

d. Be sure you understand the assigned task.

e. Know the room you are to work in and be sure it is properly set up (properly lighted, flip chart, magic marker, adequate seating, ash trays, clean table, and well ventilated).

f. List the task on the flip chart.

Processing the Small Group Task By the Trainer

a. Assemble the group.

b. Repeat the task and clarify it if necessary. If the group is to report back, a volunteer should be recruited to make a report of the group's work to the plenary session.

c. Begin the self-introduction process. This is especially important for the first and second time the group meets. Ask each person to introduce himself or herself by name, title, years of service, and current responsibilities.

d. Ask the participants to take five to six minutes to identify their own answers to the task and list these in their handbooks.

e. Ask someone to identify their responses to the first part of the task and you begin to record these on the flip chart.

f. Record the listing and encourage others in the group to offer their listing.

g. Encourage general discussion of listed items.

h. Repeat for each part of the task. Tape lists to walls.

i. Guide the group to discuss prioritized items on these lists.

j. Stop the process and review the products of the discussion.

k. Give participants time to write the products in their own workbooks.

l. Assist the volunteer recorder to prepare for his/her report of the group's activity to the large group.

Chapter 4

DELIVERING AN MPO TRAINING PROGRAM

This chapter and the remaining sections of this chapter will provide the local police trainer with instructions about how to conduct each session of the MPO training program. Each session of the program is entitled and instructions are provided in two ways: (1) a set of instructions will be given for each session in which the objectives of the session, materials needed for the session, and an outline of the activities of the session will be presented in summary form; (2) a more detailed set of instructions and guidelines will then be offered for each session so that the trainer responsible for the session can have a working script or outline of the presentation for the session. This dual set of instructions will be repeated for each of the fifteen sessions of the MPO program.

These instructions are to be considered as guidelines or a working script for the trainer. Do not hesitate to alter or modify them if another approach seems more suitable to you.

Finally, each set of instructions will be keyed to various pages and visuals presented in either the MPO Participant Handbook or the MPO Manual. The instructions will also note what type of visuals to use in the presentation and the page number in appropriate texts where such visuals may be found for reproduction and use by the trainer.

Abbreviations used in these instructions are as follows:

PH = Participant Handbook
Man. = Manual
PP/I = Prescriptive Package, Volume I
PP/II = Prescriptive Package, Volume II

SESSION 1: WELCOME TRAINER'S SUMMARY

Objectives:	1. To welcome participants 2. To enable participants to introduce themselves 3. To enable training team members to introduce themselves 4. To explain the schedule of the program and the materials to be used in the program 5. To explain that the design of the training requires their active participation and that the trainers are to assist them in such participation 6. To prepare participants for the next session
Time required:	As needed; approximately 20 minutes
References:	Participant Handbook (PH) page 13 and 14
Method:	Lecturette by trainer with individual introductions by each participant and each trainer
Room Arrangement:	Classroom style (See Appendix for diagram)
Visuals:	None
Materials:	Each participant should have a copy of the PH, the MPO Manual and the Prescriptive Package.
Sequence:	1. Initial welcome by lead trainer 2. Self-introduction of participants: name, title, years of service, current responsibilities 3. Self-introduction of training team members: name, title, years of service, responsibilities, time spent in preparing for this workshop 4. Review of schedule 5. Review of materials 6. Transition to next Session.

SCRIPT	REFERENCES
1. Initial welcome statement: • Welcome to the Managing Patrol Operations workshop • Workshop is an adaptation of a national program, a description of which is contained in your Participant Handbook • The training team has worked together in order to adapt this program to our local department • You have been selected because of the important role you play as managers in our department. Before we describe the purposes of this workshop, we would like you to introduce yourselves.	PH, page 13 PH, pages 1-8
2. Self-introduction of participants: • Would you please identify yourself and tell us something of your current work; we can start with--	
3. Self-introduction of training team: • At completion of participant introductions-- Now that we know something about you, I would like to introduce myself and then each member of the training team will introduce himself or herself.	
4. Review of schedule: • As you can see from the schedule, this workshop will last days; we promise to begin and end on time; we hope that you will help each other stick to this schedule so that we can begin promptly; • Please note that certain sessions are listed as small group sessions. When you registered, you were also assigned to a group. We shall inform you when and where these groups will meet and what they will do. In the meantime, all plenary sessions will be held in this room.	PH, page 11 NOTE: YOU MAY HAVE CHANGED THE SCHEDULE: IF SO, USE A HAND-OUT OF THE NEW SCHEDULE

5. Each of you has a set of materials in front of you. Please note again that we are now on page 13 of this Participant Handbook. • This Handbook will be used throughout the workshop and it is intended to be used as a working text. Do not hesitate to make notes in it; indeed, there is room to do so on practically every page. Of all the materials you have, this one is the principle one we will use during the workshop. • There are other texts--an MPO Manual which was specifically written as a background text for each of the plenary sessions of the workshop. During the next sessions, as appropriate, we will reference the particular chapter in the MPO Manual which refers to the session in the workshop. This MPO Manual is also intended to be used by you as a reference or reading text after the workshop-- in order to refresh your understanding of the workshop and in order to enable you to go deeper into the subject of patrol management. • Finally, the last set of materials is a two-volume work entitled Improving Patrol Productivity. Volume I is entitled Routine Patrol and Volume II is called Specialized Patrol. These texts will also be referenced in our presentations. They represent a national study of over 300 police departments and a review of how these departments are attempting to improve the productivity of the patrol service. Much of the research references in our presentations in this workshop are examined more completely in these two texts. Like the MPO Manual, these texts are also intended to be used by you in further reading and study after this workshop.	MPO PH, MPO Manual, 2 volumes of the Prescriptive Package; Routine Patrol and Specialized Patrol
6. Transition to next session; Before we go on to the next session, in which we will describe the objectives and logic of the MPO program, let's take a brief 10 minute break. Coffee is available. Please return here at ____ o'clock promptly for Session 2.	

SESSION 2: OVERVIEW

TRAINER'S SUMMARY

Objectives:	1. To describe the assessment process used to design the MPO program 2. To outline the goals and objectives of the MPO program 3. To review the videotape of the MPO program 4. To describe the MPO training flow 5. To describe the outcome of the MPO program.
Time required:	As needed; to accomplish these objectives, particularly, in showing and reviewing the videotape, approximately 75 minutes may be required.
References:	PH, pages 15-23; Man., pages vii-xiii; TH, chapter 2; PP, Volume I, pages 1-18.
Method:	Lecturette; use of videotape; questions by participants and responses by trainer.
Room Arrangement:	Classroom style; overhead projector; monitor and video player;
Visuals:	As noted in Trainer's Script
Materials:	PH, visuals, videotape, monitor, player, flip chart
Sequence:	1. Background of the MPO design 2. Showing of videotape 3. Description of goals and objectives of workshop 4. MPO training flow 5. Schedule 6. Outcome of training: written product 7. Transition to next session

TRAINER'S SCRIPT

1. Background of MPO Design

PH, page 15
TH, chapter one

- This program was originally developed by the National Institute of Justice as a national workshop series for police executives. It was designed and delivered in 1977-1978. We are adapting this program to our local needs and we are using the materials developed and tested by the National Institute of Justice.

- In developing this workshop, an organized process was followed:

PH, page 16
TH, chapter one

  - Management needs of police executives were analyzed and assessed so that the final program would be realistic.
  - Analysis of existing literature and practices was done by the team which developed the program.
  - Page 16 of the PH outlines this dual process and I would like to comment, very briefly, on each.

DISPLAY VISUAL OF PAGE 16, PH

- The needs assessment process incorporated the several items listed on the visual:

  - More than 40 reports, studies, and demonstration programs were read, analyzed and reviewed in preparation for this program. Lists of these are identified on pages 17-19, PH.

PH, page 17-19

  - Note that the dates on most of these publications are in the 1970's--which indicates how much new information and knowledge about patrol management has been developed and published in the past few years alone.
  - This new information is important since some of it calls into question the way that patrol operations have been managed in American police departments.

TRAINER'S SCRIPT

- Along with a literature review, a national survey of 91 police departments was conducted. A list of these departments is given in the PH, pages vi and vii; lists of practitioners whom the team interviewed are listed on page viii of the PH.

PH, pages vi-viii

- Of 66 police departments who responded to our survey, the following rank order of important issues about patrol management were identified:

PH, page 16
VISUAL

  1. Deployment
  2. Measures of police performance
  3. Resource allocation
  4. Workload analysis
  5. Motivation
  6. Crime Analysis
  7. Directed Patrol
  8. Mission of police
  9. Service Demands and their impact

- Based on the analysis of the literature, the needs of police practitioners and the advice and suggestions of researchers and practitioners, the MPO team designed this program to meet some of the issues currently affecting police management.
- However, before we define more clearly how the program addresses current issues--particularly, in how the goals and objectives of the training program are used to identify issues and structure the training program, we would like to show you a summary videotape of the MPO program which will be helpful to you in understanding the purposes of our program.

2. Videotape

SHOW VIDEOTAPE
The tape is approximately 60:00 minutes; you may want to stop midway for a short break for the participants.

3. Goals and Objectives — PH, page 20 VISUAL

- The videotape has tried to identify some of the problems associated with the management of patrol operations--particularly with the management of the time allotted to the patrol, and the management of calls-for-service.
- These particular types of management issues have been used to structure the goals and objectives of this program; these goals and objectives are listed on page 20. — PH, page 20 VISUAL
- The trainer should review these goal and objective statements in the context of the discussion presented in chapter 2 of this Trainer's Handbook--The Rationale and Logic of the MPO Program. — TH, chapter 2

4. MPO Training Flow

- The focus and flow of the training program begins with the roles you, as police managers, perform in your work of managing the operations of the patrol. The chart on page 21 attempts to show the relationship of your roles to five specific issues about patrol management. — PH, page 21 VISUAL
- The chart on page 22 identifies the principle issues we shall examine during the workshop. In its simpliest terms, we shall be examining the specific decision-making roles you actually perform, we will look at the fact that you need information in order to make decisions, and, finally, we shall review specific types of information and decision-making you need to consider in order to make good decisions. — PH, page 22 VISUAL
- A third chart, page 23, tries to show the interaction or "ripple-effect" of your roles on the decisions you make, the systematic (or non-systematic) nature of the decisions you make, the relationship of decisions to patrol strategies and operations and the impact of such strategies and operations on the community and citizens we serve. — PH, page 23 VISUAL

5. Schedule — Handout

- We have adapted a schedule which we think is adequate to present this workshop.
- Please note the times of various sessions. We shall begin and end on time. Various small group sessions will be conducted in break-away rooms. We shall identify these rooms later.

6. Outcome

- Note that the next-to-last session of the schedule is entitled Strategy Outline; this session is described on page 173. — PH, page 173
- This workshop is to produce a written product--an outline of a plan of action which our department can use in order to adapt any of the ideas presented in this workshop. Therefore, during this workshop, please make notes in your PH about any ideas you think are practical and useful. At the end of the workshop, during session 14, we will have ample time to work together in order to produce this plan of action.

7. Transition to Next Session

- The next session looks at the roles of police managers and, in such an examination, tries to set the stage (and foundation) for the MPO program.
- Before we begin the next session, we shall take a brief break. Please be back in this room by _____ o'clock.

SESSION 3: ROLES OF THE MANAGER — TRAINER'S SUMMARY

Objectives:	1. To summarize and describe the purposes of this session; 2. To review the myths and realities of the job of the manager; 3. To understand that the job of a manager involves three specific functions and ten roles--all of which are interrelated with one another and are actually observable to others. 4. To review the critical roles of decision-making. 5. To understand the importance of a systematic approach to decision-making. 6. To examine how decision-making roles of the patrol manager can be improved.
Time Required:	As needed; normally, approximately 60:00 minutes
References:	PH, pages 25-50; Man., pages 1-47; TH, chapter 2
Methods:	Lecture with large group discussion;
Room Arrangement:	Classroom style; same as Session 2
Visuals:	As noted in Trainer's Script
Materials:	PH, visuals, flip chart, hand-out material
Sequence:	1. Introduction to Session 2. Myths and Realities about Manager's Job 3. Definition of Manager's Job: Purposes, Functions and Roles 4. Roles of Police Managers 5. Manager and Information Roles 6. Decision-Making Roles: Issues 7. Systems Approach to Decision-Making 8. Transition to Next Session

1. Introduction To Session	PH, page 25-27
• This session will explore the simple question: What do patrol manager's actually do when they perform the job of manager?	
• The question is difficult to answer because the literature on police management discusses what patrol managers should do rather than what patrol managers actually do. If we knew what patrol manager's actually did, we could look at what needs improving.	
• To examine the actual work of patrol managers, we will be guided by research and by the work of a particular management analyst, Dr. Henry Mintzberg, who looked at many different managers and . . . executives and devised a way of cataloging what the manager--including the police manager--actually does.	
• The focus of this session will therefore be on you, the manager: What do you do?	
• We will look at a particular set of roles performed by you as a manager and, later in the session, we will talk about one set of roles, the decision-making roles, which you perform.	
• Finally, we shall see how the decision-making roles of a police manager directly impact on the important parts of the patrol management cycle that this entire MPO program is interested in improving.	PH, page 26 VISUAL
• To begin this session, would you take a few minutes and review the questions listed on page 27 of the PH. How would you answer any of these questions? What are your responsibilities? What is your role?	PH, page 27, 15 minutes open discussion with participants about the questions listed on page 27.

2. Myths and Realities	PH, page 28 Discuss these statements and questions.
• Myths	
• Page 28 lists three statements taken from textbooks on police management. They state what manager's should do.	
• Do you, in your job, actually do what these statements suggest? Are you a systematic planner? Can you list your regular defined duties? Do you use written documents or reports, as the basis for making your decisions?	
• Observation by trainer:	
◦ Your job is so varied and time-consuming that it seems you never have enough time to do what the text books say you should do.	
◦ The textbooks may not be accurate	
◦ Let us examine more carefully, what you actually do. Let's look at the reality of your job.	
• Realities	PH, page 29
• Page 29 lists a few of the most obvious realities you must face in doing your job. Each statement is important because, together, these statements characterize what you actually have to contend with each day.	
• "Unrelenting pace" refers to the fact that your job is never finished. You, as a manager, are either always doing something or preparing to do something. An architect for example, can say "This building is done" and he can move on to another construction problem. By contrast, the manager cannot say, "My job is finished"; the manager is always busy.	

- "Brevity, variety and fragmentation" refers to the fact that managers have to deal with many issues, events and people--all of which are different and most of which are of brief duration. For instance, patrol managers whom we interviewed reported that, on any given day, their time was spent on handling an average of 38 different events ranging from participation at meetings to answering phone calls, to reviewing memos and correspondence, to conducting interviews. Each event consumed time ranging from a few minutes to over an hour. Few events were similar in topic to each other. Some were scheduled and routine, many were unscheduled and non-routine. The common theme for all events, however, was that the manager had to handle them.

- "Live action, face-to-face, verbal communication" refers to the fact that managers prefer the spoken word to the written report, and prefer to deal with real-time problems, as they occur, and not later, when the problem is reported to him/her through others. In a real sense, managers meddle.

- "Internal and external contacts" refers to the fact that managers do spend time communicating with others outside the organization. Not everything the manager does is within the organization or done through the organization's chain-of-command--even in police departments.

- "Open-ended job" refers to the fact that when we examine the things that we do, we find that our job is open-ended, never finished, involves highly verbal transactions, requires that time be spent on a variety of events, and, in summary, places us at the beck and call of others. We, as managers, are not conductors of an orchestra; a better image would be a puppet--pulled and swayed by a variety of different masters.

- The critical question is how can I even begin to control my job rather than be controlled? How can I, rationally and responsibly, allocate and control my time, my work, my responsibilities?

- <u>A First Step</u>

  - A first step is to obtain a clear understanding of a definition of the job of manager, an understanding of the purposes of the job, and, most importantly, an understanding of the roles you actually perform, daily, in carrying out the purposes of your job.

  - The Manager's Job: Definition, Purpose, Roles.

    The trainer should hand-out the sheet marked <u>The Manager's Job</u>.

Handout #1
Discuss with participants

HANDOUT #1

THE MANAGER'S JOB

DEFINITION:

The manager is that person in charge of a formal organization or one of its subunits. He/she is vested with formal authority over his/her organization or unit. Such authority is the foundation for the accomplishment of at least four basic purposes of the job of the manager.

PURPOSES:

The manager must ensure that the organization or sub-unit produces its specific services or goods efficiently. He/she must design and maintain the stability of its basic operations, and must adapt the organization, in a controlled way, to its changing environment.

The manager must also ensure that the organization or sub-unit serves the ends of those persons who control it, and must interpret their particular preferences and combine these to produce statements of organizational preference that can guide the process of decision-making in the organization.

The manager must act as the key communication link between his/her organization or its sub-unit and its environment.

The manager must also assume responsibility for the operation of the organization's status system--who has authority to do what--and its reward system--who is accountable and why.

OPERATIONAL ROLES:

These basic purposes are operationalized in the daily work and activity of the manager through ten interrelated roles performed by all managers. The roles fall into three groupings--three interpersonal roles, which derive from the manager's authority and status, three informational roles, which derive from the interpersonal roles and the access they provide to information, and four decisional roles, which are derived from the manager's authority and his/her access and use of information.

4. Roles of Police Managers • Page 30 displays the ten roles of a manager. • Pages 31-33 discusses, in general, the description and activities of the manager associated with each role. • Page 34-37 applies each of these roles to some of the daily activities of a police manager. • The trainer should discuss, in order, these ten roles beginning with the general description, to the more specific police-related descriptions. Encourage participants to give their own examples for these roles which relate to their own job. Ask participants to estimate how much time is spent on certain roles.	PH, pages 30-37 Man., C.2 VISUAL, page 30
• Handout #2 • Distribute Handout #2 to participants. Have them complete it. Ask them to share their results and have them discuss their ideas or answers to the questions listed at the bottom of Handout #2.	Handout #2 Discuss with Participants
• Handout #3 • At the end of the discussion, distribute Handout #3. They can use this latter Handout #3 to compare their personal results with those of 100 other police executives and managers. • Note that the hours spent by these 100 managers are averages; at least 50% of these managers spent twice as much time on certain activities.	Handout #3 Discuss with Participants

HANDOUT #2

A SIMPLE DIAGNOSTIC INSTRUMENT FOR MANAGERS

As a manager, how much of your typical work week is spent on each of the following activities: (Please circle the appropriate number after each activity statement.)

	ACTIVITY	NUMBER OF HOURS SPENT	TOTAL
1.	Acting as a representative of the organization in ceremonial or social meetings.	1 2 3 4 5 6	____
2.	Motivating and activating the work of subordinates.	1 2 3 4 5 6	____
3.	Maintaining a self-developed network of outside contacts who provide information, ideas and trends about organization's work.	1 2 3 4 5 6	____
4.	Receiving non-routine information, much of it verbal and current, in order to develop an understanding of the organization and its environment.	1 2 3 4 5 6	____
5.	Disseminating information from outsiders or from other subordinates to members of the organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6	____
6.	Transmitting information to outsiders on the organization's plans, policies, results.	1 2 3 4 5 6	____
7.	Transmitting information as an expert in the organization to others outside the organization in speeches, conferences, meetings, etc.	1 2 3 4 5 6	____
8.	Examining the organization and its environment in order to discover opportunities for change or to initiate improvements in the organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6	____
9.	Supervising the design of "improvement" projects within the organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6	____
10.	Taking important action when the organization faces important, unexpected disturbances.	1 2 3 4 5 6	____
11.	Making or approving significant organizational decisions, particularly in the allocation of organizational resources (time, money, materials, manpower, reputation of organization).	1 2 3 4 5 6	____
12.	Representing the organization at major negotiations with other organizations.	1 2 3 4 5 6	____
		TOTAL	____

Add up the number of hours for all activities. Compare the total number with the number of hours spent on: #1-3: Interpersonal Roles; # 4-7: Informational Roles: and # 8-12: Decisional Roles. What do these comparisons suggest about the nature of your job? What you mostly do? What knowledge or skill do you need to improve on what you actually do? What can you stop doing? What can you get others to do?

HANDOUT #3

WORK ACTIVITY ANALYSIS OF 100 RANDOMLY SELECTED POLICE EXECUTIVES

The following analysis is based on self reported activities of executives and managers in municipal police agencies. The specific executives were: Chief of Police, Chief of Patrol, and Director of Planning and Research.

This analysis is used as part of the Managing Patrol Operations workshop of the Executive Training Program in Advanced Criminal Justice Practices.

	ACTIVITIY	MINIMUM/MAXIMUM HOURS PER WEEK *
1.	Acting as a representative of the organization in ceremonial or social meetings	1 to 2 hours
2.	Motivating and activating the work of subordinates	3 to 4
3.	Maintaining a network of outside contacts, i.e., outside the organization and obtaining information and ideas about police related activities from this network	2 to 3
4.	Searching for and receiving information from within the organization	3 to 4
5.	Disseminating information to members of the organization	3 to 4
6.	Disseminating information to those outside the organization	2 to 3
7.	Scanning the organization in order to identify opportunities for improving the organization or to initiate changes in the organization	3 to 4
8.	Supervising and delegating responsibility over the design and development of new programs or projects in the organization	3 to 4
9.	Taking action when disturbances, problems or crisis occur	2 to 3
10.	Making or approving significant organizational decisions, particularly in the allocation of organizational resources, i.e., time, money, materials, manpower, or reputation of organization	3 to 5
11.	Acting as a negotiator for resolution of disturbances or acting as the principle negotiator with outside organizations	1 to 2
	TOTALS:	26 to 38 Hours per Week

* A "week" was defined as "...the respondent's average or normal work week"

5. Manager and Information Roles	PH, page 38 VISUAL Man., p. 5
• These ten roles actually are performed--or should be performed--to enable the manager to obtain information, and use it for making decisions.	
• Page 38 displays the relationship of various roles to (a) the activity of obtaining information and (b) to activities for using information. In this display, it is apparent that you are a "nerve center" in your unit or organization. How efficiently and effectively you act to obtain and use information is the major criteria for judging how well (or poorly) you perform as a manager.	
• Discuss with participants what aids or inhibits their access to or use of information?	
6. Decision-Making Roles	PH, p.39
• Page 39 lists five reasons why the decision-making roles of a manager are the most important and crucial roles to be performed--or actually performed--by you as managers	
• The trainer should review and discuss each reason with participant	Man.c.2
• The bottom of page 39 lists an issue--a series of questions--which specifically highlights the relationship of the use of information to decision-making.	
• Discuss this issue with participants	
• Page 40-41 summarizes what the management literature says, generally, about how individual managers and organizations make decisions.	PH, page 40
• Discuss these decision-making styles with the participants. How would they, as individuals, characterize themselves? How would they characterize the decision-making style of the department? Have them give examples?	
• Note that our bias, in MPO, is toward the use of information and analysis as the basis for decision-making.	

TRAINER'S SCRIPT

7. Systems Approach to Decision-making

PH, page 42

- The MPO program is designed to encourage the use of a systematic approach to decision-making.
- Our discussion of the job and the role of the police manager has focused on the importance of the informational and decisional roles.
- The top part of page 42, generally, describes what is meant by systems analysis or a systematic approach to decision-making. The third point indicates that systems analysis is a practical aid for decision-makers who are faced with complex problems.
- The second part of page 42 gives our definition of systems analysis--our understanding of this practical aid.
- Carefully review and discuss with participants the operational definition of systems analysis. It is important that participants recognize that this definition has been used to guide the development of the MPO program.
- Page 43 displays the systems approach--an aid to practical decision-making. The visual shows the various phases of analysis which begins with the current status of the organization

PH, page 43
VISUAL

- Pages 44-48 explains each interconnected phase of a systematic approach to obtaining and using information in order to make practical decisions about the operations of patrol.
- Discuss with participants each phase of this systems approach. Ask them to cite examples which can fit into each phase.
- Page 49 is an example of a nine-step process similar to our systems approach. The process focuses on one specific issue: A Patrol Mission Statement.

TRAINER'S SCRIPT

- Page 50 is a repeat of a visual we used in the Overview session. This visual summarizes the argument we have tried to develop thus far in the workshop. In this session, we have examined the realities of the job of the manager and have focused on the decision-making roles of the manager. If a more systematic approach can be taken to patrol decision-making, then better patrol strategies and better patrol operations will result.

8. Transition to Next Session

In the next session we shall discuss some approaches to more effectual decision-making particularly decisions about patrol unit allocations, workload studies, and deployment of personnel. These issues will be the first series of critical decisions that the patrol manager must address if improvements in the operation of patrol are to occur.

- Before we begin this next session, we shall take a brief break. Please return to this room at _____ o'clock.

SESSION 4: RESOURCE ALLOCATION/CONSIDERATIONS TRAINER'S SCRIPT

Objectives:	1. To understand the importance and benefits, to the manager, of resource allocation decisions 2. To be able to understand the definition of resource allocation planning 3. To understand the meaning of workload analysis or workload study 4. To review the advantages and disadvantages of a workload study based solely on the count of calls-for-services 5. To review other important considerations which need to be addressed in the conduct of a workload study--beyond the mere counting and analysis of calls-for-service 6. To review the advantages and disadvantages of five types of resource allocation models
Time Required:	As needed
References:	PH, pages 51-78; Man. pages 49-69; PP,Vol I, pages 1-59; TH, chapter 2.
Method:	Lecturette and small group exercise by participants
Room Arrangement:	For lecturette, same arrangement as in Session 3. For small group exercise, see Appendix .
Visuals:	As noted in Trainer's Script
Materials:	Each participants uses PH, pages 51-78
Sequence:	1. Introduction to Session 2. Data Collection and Workload Categories 3. Temporal and Geographic Distribution/Analysis 4. Other Considerations 5. Five Patrol Distribution Models Based on Five Types of Analysis 6. Summary and Transition to Next Session 7. Small Group Exercise: Instructions/Reporting Back

1. Introduction to Session — PH. pages 51-55

- In this session we shall examine some of the most important considerations which the manager must review in order to make effective judgments or decisions about resource allocation.

- By resource allocation we mean the process which the manager must follow in order to (a) identify information and data needs so that the manager can know what are the demands for service which are being placed on the patrol force; (b) analyze this information and data so that a true representative picture of real workload can be objtained; and (c) use this information and analysis in order to make decisions about deployment and scheduling of patrol units.

- By the term "patrol units", we mean the mobile vehicle used by patrol officers; in addition, some officers may be deployed in scooters, or other vehicles that can also be considered patrol units.

- The importance of resource allocation decision-making has been underscored by the work of the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals. Note that on page 51, PH, the need to develop a patrol deployment system is described by the Commission. — PH. page 51

- This issue of resource allocation decision-making has also been examined by the National Commission on Productivity. In 1973, this commission published a brochure and distributed it to all mayors, county executives, city managers and police chiefs. Several key questions are related to the overall issue of how to improve productivity in policing and, specifically, in patrol operations. — PH. page 54

- How would you answer any and all of these questions? What do your answers to these questions suggest to you and to us about how our department allocates its personnel resources, i.e., patrol units and sworn officers? — Discuss these questions with participants

- Our purpose in this session will be to examine some of the issues relating to these and other questions about resource scanning. Moreover, we will be looking at the specific process of patrol (resource) allocation planning and deployment. We cannot, because of time, examine every issue; we will not be going through the actual mechanics of doing a workload study which is a critical part of patrol allocation planning. However, the mechanical techniques often used in a workload study are available for you and the literature on this special topic is noted on page 51, PH. — PH. page 51

- Before we begin our discussion, however, we would like to make two observations about patrol allocation planning. One observation relates to the complexity of such planning; the second observation refers to how such plans are evaluated or judged by others.

- Complex features of patrol allocation plans: A complete plan for allocating or deploying patrol units to "cover" a specified jurisdiction usually deals with all of the following issues

  - number of officers on duty
    - one-man cars
    - two-man cars
    - scooters or motorcycles
    - foot patrols
    - other (e.g., canine, evidence collection)
  - number of units in each geographical region
  - design of patrol districts (beats) for each unit
  - radio communications police including channel allocation by function and geographic area

- number of units dispatched to an incident
  - variation with location
  - variation with type (priority) of call
- which units dispatched
  - type
  - closest unit?
  - district car?
  - across region boundaries?
- redeployment as unavailabilities occur
- personnel scheduling (duty shifts, days off, shift rotation, etc.)
- scheduling of certain types of unavailabilities which can be postponed
- alternative uses of priorities assigned to calls for service
  - whether or not priorities are assigned to calls
  - if queue forms, dispatch free unit to oldest high priority call
  - hold one or two units (regular or special units) in reserve for high priority calls
  - screen out all low priority calls for non-car service, or only when busy (an "adaptive" dispatch policy), or schedule them for handling at a more convenient time
  - use backup service units to avoid delaying service to calls (either for high priority calls only, or for all calls)
  - first-come-first-served dispatching police regardless of call priorities
- policies regarding patrol initiated activities
- policies regarding directed patrol activities.

It is reasonably clear that, as a manager, you will need to obtain a great deal of information and data in order to prepare and construct a reasonable plan which will accomodate these features.

- Evaluating a patrol plan:

  How will you know that a patrol allocation plan is reasonable? This is the most difficult part of patrol allocation planning because police managers, police patrol officers, and members of the public all use a wide range of criteria in assessing and evaluating patrol allocations. Ths most commonly used criteria include any one, some, or all of the following:

  - length of time a caller must wait until a unit is dispatched
  - travel time to the scene of the incident
  - dispatches of patrol units out of their assigned areas
  - balance of workload among units
  - time available to patrol units for patrol initiated, free, and directed patrol activities
  - cost
    - labor costs including salaries and overtime
    - equipment costs (e.g., vehicles and communications equipment)
  - ability to manage patrol manpower based on:
    - unity of command
    - team integrity
    - neighborhood integrity
    - simplicity of geographic deployments
    - simplicity of work schedules
  - officer safety considerations
    - availability of backup assistance
    - availability of vehicle location information

- officer morale considerations
- arrest productivity
- crime rates
- adequacy of patrol coverage of "hot spots" and areas having special crime problems
- impact of the patrol allocation plan on other services required of the police department (e.g., investigations, records, etc.)
- adequacy of radio communication system (ease of communications between cars and communications center)
- citizen expectations regarding speed and level of police response
- related to services demanded by active public interest groups and influential citizens

With these two observations in mind, let us look at some of the more important considerations you, as managers, need to examine in order to prepare for your role as a resource allocation or decision-maker.

2. Data Collection/Workload Categories

PH. page 56

- Identifying, collecting, and, analysing data about the demands on workload placed on patrol units is a first step in resource allocation planning.
- Before identifying some of the workload categories, it is important to remember that collection of information and data is, itself, an important and difficult process. Some of the concerns you should have about data collection are listed on page 56, PH.

Identifying Workload Categories:

PH. page 57

- As a general rule, the more workload categories-i.e., work-activities performed by patrol units-you can identify and document the more precise your understanding of the real workload will be and the more complete and reasonable your resource allocation plan will be. Two examples of workload categories are displayed on page 57, PH. For purposes of our training, one category is called basic generic and it is a category commonly used by many departments; the second, termed refined generic is a more precise listing.
- Basic refers to four categories of work or workload which is imposed on, or carried out by, the patrol:
  - calls for service refers to any dispatched service call given to a patrol unit;
  - personal and administrative activities refers to non-calls-for-service work such as meal breaks, roll-call, maintenance, report writing and processing, court appearances, etc.
  - preventive patrol refers to random riding (or positioning) of the unit in order to create a sense of visible presence and in order to be available for a call-for-service
  - Officer-initiated activitiy refers to those activities (often of a discretionary nature) which the patrol unit may perform when it is not performing any of the above listed three categories.

These basic generic categories are used to direct the first phase or step of data collection. Data about the amount of time spent by patrol units (by time of day, or week or month, and by location of activity) in performing activities within each category is either counted and analyzed or estimated.

- Refined generic categories refers to a listing of categories which represent a more precise refinement than suggested in the basic categories. For example, in the refined categories, a distinction is made between non-crime calls-for-service and other calls-for-service; personal relief activities are separated from administrative; statutory demands refer to certain activities which, at various times, the patrol must do, because new ordinances or statutes require that a sworn officer perform them.

- Examples of Results of Analysis Using these Categories — PH. page 58-59 VISUAL

  - Examples of workload analyzed by agencies which have used these categories in order to identify the total percentages of work done by patrol are displayed on the pie chart (for basic) on page 58, PH and the pie chart (for refined) on page 59, PH. The reference for each chart is listed at the bottom of the page.

- What do you think of these percentages? How do they compare with our department? What do you think of the similarity of 40% preventive patrol time in each chart? Too high? Too low? — DISCUSSION

- Page 60, PH, lists more specific categories of work which, also, could be analyzed based on our rule that the more pre-use you can get in analyzing work, the more real will be the picture of the workload actually imposed on patrol. — PH. page 60

- Page 61, PH displays source workload percentages by time of day. Note that this chart displays only the average percentage of calls-for-service workload by three shifts. (Note that the night shift should read: 12AM-8AM; there is a typographical error in your PH, page 61)

  This chart suggests that the calls-for-service work is different by shift. The analysis would suggest that the deployment of patrol units should be numerically different for each shift if deployment and scheduling is to be matched only with the calls-for-service rate.

3. Temporal and Geographic Distribution

- Page 62, PH points out two major concerns you need to address in conducting a workload study as part of your resource allocation plan. These concerns are based on an analysis of the calls-for-service rate which you have identified. Your analysis should present the distribution of these calls-for-service by (a) where they come from--geographical distribution and (b) when they occur--temporal distribution. — PH. page 62

- Examples of techniques used in several departments to conduct both temporal and geographic analysis of calls-for-service--as a workload category--are given in Volume I, Chapter 2 of the Prescriptive Package, Improving patrol Productivity. — PP. I Chapter 2

- Page 63, PH summarizes the major decision-steps followed by many police managers in their analysis of workload. Many use only the calls-for-service category (basic general) as the principle category for making judgements about deployment of patrol units by time (shift) and place (beats or areas). — PH. page 63

- However, recent patrol studies and resource findings suggest that this approach to workload analysis is not complete or adequate. There are other important considerations which the manager must examine besides the simple analysis of geographic and temporal distribution of the calls-for-service workload. There are other inputs needed for a workload analysis in order that the manager can have an adequate understanding of the real nature of patrol work.

- These other considerations are displayed on the chart on page 64, PH and each is explained on pages 65-71.

4. Other Considerations

- The chart on page 64, PH. summarizes the relationship of the basic calls-for-service workload analysis to other issues about workload which need to be considered by you in preparing for a patrol allocation study. There are five important issues:

PH. page 64
VISUAL

  - How much time is to be spent in providing a patrol service to a call-for-service?
  - How important is response time?
  - Are all calls-for-service of equal weight or importance?
  - How much time is spent by patrol making an arrest, processing an arrest, and appearing in court after the arrest?
  - Can computer-assisted patrol allocation planning programs help the manager to construct a better allocation, deployment and scheduling plan?

We shall examine each of these questions.

- Time Consumed Issue

- Page 65, PH lists some ideas and information about the relationship of calls-for-service and time expended on calls.

PH. page 65

- The National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and goals makes the point that using calls-for-service alone as your data base--without regard for time expended--is of little value in determining workload.

- In examining the time span between the receipt of a call and the clearance of that call, we can identify three segments of time over which the police manager has some control:
  - time received to time dispatched;
  - time dispatched to time of arrival;
  - time of arrival until time cleared.

- This time continuum is deployed on page 65, PH

PH. page 65

- Dispatch cards, when time stamped, can identify, by type of category of call, the amount of time expended in each segment.

- An example of various categories of calls analyzed on the basis of how much time is used to complete the call after arrival is noted on the bottom of page 65, PH.

- Note the variations in time expended of this sample analysis from the Denver Police Department. This example reinforces the statement made earlier by the National Advisory Commission about the need to conduct "time consumed" studies as part of your planning for resource allocation.

- This is an important point because most departments allocate personnel on the basis of calls-for-service workload and make an assumption that each call requires an average of 45:00 minutes to service the call after arrival on-scene. This averaging may be too excessive with the result that a personnel allocation and deployment scheme may use more patrol units than may be actually required in order to provide adequate service to calls.

Response Time Issues

- Response time is usually described as the length of time from the moment the caller reaches the police department until the patrol unit arrives at the scene. Normally, long delays in responding to even minor incidents will not be considered satisfactory in most communities. Therefore, in conducting resource allocation and deployment studies, police analysts use response time as measured in average minutes, as a critical factor to develop an allocation plan and to establish a standard of performance for several patrol operations and procedures. For example:

PH. page 66
Man., page 62-62; page 194-198

  - The response time chosen by a department may be used as part of the rationale in beat design in order to distribute cars throughout a geographic area so as to minimize the distance--and time--an officer must travel to a call.

  - Communication and dispatching policies and procedures may require that the car nearest the scene be dispatched in order to minimize the distance--and time--traveled.

  - Since many patrol units have only one-officer, two one-officer cars may generally be dispatched to potentially hazardous calls. However, a two-officer unit may be dispatched in order to minimize the time delay waiting for a back-up car.

  - A department may have a set of priority response codes selected and used on the assumption that rapid police response time is essential to produce a favorable outcome for certain instances like Part I crime calls or non-crime life and death emergency calls.

It is clear that each of these procedures--all partially at least based on response time--will be affected by a resource allocation study. How many units need to be deployed? When to deploy? What dispatching procedures to follow? etc., are but a few of the many questions whose answers are often dependent on another overriding question: How quickly does the department want its units to respond to calls-for-service that are dispatched to a given patrol unit.

In the past decade, several studies have been conducted in order to identify the determinents and effects of response time. The bibliography cited on page 15, PH, references several of these studies. At this time, we wish to examine only one study--Response Time Analysis, Volumes I - III, Kansas City, Missouri Police Department, September, 1978, National Institute of Justice, Washington, D.C. This study was initiated to evaluate assumptions regarding rapid police response to Part I Crimes only and to examine the problems and patterns which account for citizen delay in reporting crimes to the police.

PH. page 15

  - Response time was conceptualized as consisting of three time intervals: citizen reporting time, communications dispatching, and patrol unit travel time.

- 949 Part I crimes reported to the police in a given precinct between March 1975 and January, 1976 were used as the data base for analysis.
- These 949 crimes were divided into three overlapping categories: type of crime, violent and non-violent, and discovery and involvement.

- Crimes were classified as "involvement" if a citizen saw, heard or became involved at any time during the commission of the offense.
- "Discovery" crimes were those crimes detected by a citizen after the crime occurred, unobserved or unreported.
- The analysis study was done in order to identify the relationship between each of the response-time intervals (citizen-reporting, dispatch and travel time) and selected issues associated with the police handling of these 949 crimes.
- These seven issues were:
  - relationship of response time to arrest
  - relationship of response time to patrol procedures
  - relationship of response time to witness availability
  - relationship of response time to citizen injury
  - relationship of response time to citizen reporting
  - relationship of response time to the process of reporting
  - relationship of response time to citizen satisfaction.

- Some of the findings of this study are of importance to the planning of effective use of patrol resources.
- Findings regarding the relationship of response time intervals for all 949 Part I crimes are stated on page 66, PH and are listed in the Handout marked Handout A.

PH. page 66
VISUAL

Handouts

- Findings regarding the relationship of response time to arrests in these 949 crimes are listed in the handout marked Handout B.
- Findings regarding the relationship of response time to witness availability in these 949 crimes are listed in the handout marked Handout C.

HANDOUTS A

RELATIONSHIP OF RESPONSE
TIME INTERVALS TO ALL
949 PART I CRIMES

Response Time Analysis. Volumes I-III. Kansas City, Missouri Police Department. September, 1978. National Institute of Justice, Washington, D.C.

Table A-7.-- Time statistics for response time intervals.

Crime Category		Reporting	Dispatch	Travel	Total
All Part I Crimes	Md	6:17	2:50	5:34	18:50
	$\bar{X}$	3:46:42	4:56	6:11	3:57:50
	SD	38:15:28	6:23	3:53	38:15:41
	Min.	1:04	0:16	0:06	2:24
	Max.	*999:00:10	53:48	30:13	999:10:58
	N	918	931	948	918
	%	48.1	21.0	30.9	100.0
Involvement Crimes	Md	5:09	2:16	4:00	12:53
	$\bar{X}$	41:38	3:38	4:56	50:04
	SD	4:07:28	4:49	3:26	4:07:12
	Min.	1:04	0:16	0:06	2:24
	Max.	48:00:53	43:31	30:13	48:05:13
	N	338	344	352	339
	%	44.5	22.3	33.2	100.0
Discovery Crimes	Md	10:11	3:19	6:14	22:41
	$\bar{X}$	5:34:33	5:42	6:56	5:47:47
	SD	47:57:07	7:03	3:57	47:59:41
	Min.	1:05	0:32	0:26	3:52
	Max.	999:00:10	53:48	30:07	999:10:58
	N	580	587	596	579
	%	50.2	20.2	29.6	100.0

* Actual reporting delay exceeded 999 hours in one incident of discovery larceny. 999 was used for computational purposes.

Table A - 8.-- Time statistics for response time intervals.

Crime Category		Reporting	Dispatch	Travel	Total
Crimes Discovered By Citizens	Md	10:13	3:24	6:21	23:09
	$\bar{X}$	5:43:24	5:47	6:58	5:56:48
	SD	48:34:36	7:07	3:57	48:37:15
	Min.	1:05	0:32	0:26	3:52
	Max.	*999:00:10	53:48	30:07	999:10:58
	N	565	572	581	564
	%	51.2	20.0	28.8	100.0
Crimes Detected By Alarms	Md	—	1:57	4:42	—
	$\bar{X}$	—	2:03	5:29	—
	SD	—	0:39	3:49	—
	Min.	—	0:46	2:01	—
	Max.	—	3:24	14:37	—
	N	—	15	15	—
	%	—	—	—	—

* Actual reporting delay exceeded 999 hours in one incident of discovery larceny. 999 was used for computational purposes.

Table A-9.-- Time statistics for response time intervals.

Crime Category		Reporting	Dispatch	Travel	Total
Discovery Burglary (no alarms)	Md	10:11	3:14	6:37	23:21
	$\bar{X}$	4:06:19	5:55	7:13	4:19:31
	SD	22:34:00	7:33	4:08	22:34:16
	Min.	1:05	0:35	1:04	3:52
	Max.	248:23:13	53:48	30:07	248:38:58
	N	295	298	302	295
	%	50.0	19.7	30.3	100.0
Discovery Larceny (no alarms)	Md	10:18	3:03	6:12	22:18
	$\bar{X}$	9:47:24	5:13	6:45	9:59:26
	SD	76:38:34	6:27	3:37	76:38:40
	Min.	1:07	0:32	0:26	5:31
	Max.	*999:00:10	43:14	20:36	999:10:58
	N	201	203	206	201
	%	54.6	18.5	27.0	100.1
Discovery Auto Theft (no alarms)	Md	10:11	4:31	5:40	24:46
	$\bar{X}$	47:42	6:52	6:35	1:01:36
	SD	2:52:20	7:00	4:01	2:54:21
	Min.	1:09	1:06	0:45	7:42
	Max.	20:00:13	35:43	22:01	20:17:45
	N	69	71	73	68
	%	46.4	25.8	27.9	100.1

* Actual reporting delay exceeded 999 hours in one incident of discovery larceny. 999 was used for computational purposes.

Table A-10.-- Time statistics for response time intervals.

Crime Category		Reporting	Dispatch	Travel	Total
Violent Involvement	Md	5:06	2:00	3:31	11:58
	$\bar{X}$	28:25	3:12	4:11	35:44
	SD	1: 56:25	4:15	2:50	1: 56:59
	Min.	1:04	0:23	0:06	2:24
	Max.	15: 56: 10	34:42	18:20	16: 07:18
	N	211	214	221	212
	%	47.3	21.3	31.4	100.0
Nonviolent Involvement	Md	5:11	2:46	5:48	14:48
	$\bar{X}$	1: 03:34	4:22	6:10	1: 14:01
	SD	6: 14:44	5:33	3:57	6: 14:16
	Min.	1:06	0:16	0:11	4:06
	Max.	48: 00:53	43:31	30:13	48: 05:13
	N	127	130	131	127
	%	39.9	23.8	36.3	100.0

Table A-11.-- Time statistics for response time intervals.

Crime Category		Reporting	Dispatch	Travel	Total
Rape	Md	6:11	3:46	4:10	13:42
	$\bar{X}$	34:02	3:30	4:42	42:15
	SD	1:17:46	1:48	2:37	1:17:58
	Min.	1:08	1:01	1:51	6:29
	Max.	4:00:06	6:07	10:36	4:08:05
	N	9	10	10	9
	%	48.9	20.0	31.1	100.0
Robbery	Md	4:18	1:55	3:27	11:34
	$\bar{X}$	18:12	3:05	4:04	25:15
	SD	1:10:16	3:52	2:52	1:10:47
	Min.	1:04	0:23	0:06	2:24
	Max.	12:01:07	25:42	18:20	12:10:57
	N	122	122	127	123
	%	46.2	21.6	32.2	100.0
Aggravated Assault	Md	5:06	2:00	3:34	12:17
	$\bar{X}$	43:23	3:20	4:19	51:06
	SD	2:45:43	4:58	2:49	2:46:40
	Min.	1:05	0:38	1:03	3:25
	Max.	15:56:10	34:42	13:17	16:07:18
	N	80	82	84	80
	%	48.8	21.1	30.1	100.0

Table A-12.-- Time statistics for response time intervals.

Crime Category		Reporting	Dispatch	Travel	Time
Involvement Burglary	Md	2:29	2:35	2:49	11:44
	$\bar{X}$	4:45	3:02	4:11	11:57
	SD	4:09	2:07	4:57	6:45
	Min.	1:08	0:49	0:11	4:06
	Max.	15:09	10:40	30:13	34:51
	N	35	35	35	35
	%	37.7	29.3	33.0	100.0
Involvement Larceny	Md	5:14	2:50	6:31	17:07
	$\bar{X}$	1:15:26	4:50	6:56	1:27:06
	SD	7:10:24	6:27	3:20	7:09:20
	Min.	1:06	0:16	1:04	4:56
	Max.	48:00:53	43:31	20:09	48:05:13
	N	88	90	91	88
	%	40.8	21.7	37.6	100.1
Involvement Auto Theft	Md	1:48	3:54	6:02	14:40
	$\bar{X}$	5:17:07	5:06	6:16	5:29:15
	SD	10:28:51	3:38	1:25	10:32:56
	Min.	1:13	1:57	4:27	9:01
	Max.	21:00:23	10:34	7:41	21:18:38
	N	4	5	5	4
	%	40.7	23.7	35.7	100.1

CONTINUED

1 OF 3

HANDOUTS B

RELATIONSHIP OF RESPONSE
TIME INTERVALS TO
ARRESTS

Response Time Analysis. Volumes I-III. Kansas City, Missouri Police Department, September, 1978. National Institute of Justice, Washington, D.C.

Table 3-1.-- Part I crime data base with number of incidents, incidents with arrests, incidents with response-related arrests, and percentages of each by type of crime.

Type of Crime	Data Base		Incidents with Arrests		Incidents with Response-related Arrests	
	N	Percent	N	Rate*	N	Rate*
Involvement Crimes	352	37.0	100	28.4	27	7.7
Violent Involvement	221	23.3	45	20.4	12	5.4
Rapes	10	1.1	3	30.0	1	10.0
Robberies	127	13.4	10	7.9	6	4.7
Aggravated Assaults	84	8.9	32	38.1	5	6.0
Nonviolent Involvement	131	13.8	55	42.0	15	11.5
Burglaries	35	3.7	16	45.7	12	34.3
Larcenies	91	9.6	38	41.8	2	2.2
Auto Thefts	5	0.5	1	20.0	1	20.0
Discovery Crimes	597	62.9	13	2.2	8	1.3
Citizen Discovered	582	61.3	6	1.0	1	0.2
Burglaries	302	31.8	5	1.7	1	0.3
Larcenies	206	21.7	1	0.5	0	0.0
Auto Thefts	74	7.8	0	0.0	0	0.0
Alarm Detected	15	1.6	7	46.7	7	46.7
Burglaries	15	1.6	7	46.7	7	46.7
All Part I Crimes	949	-	113	11.9	35	3.7

*Percent of all cases by crime type.

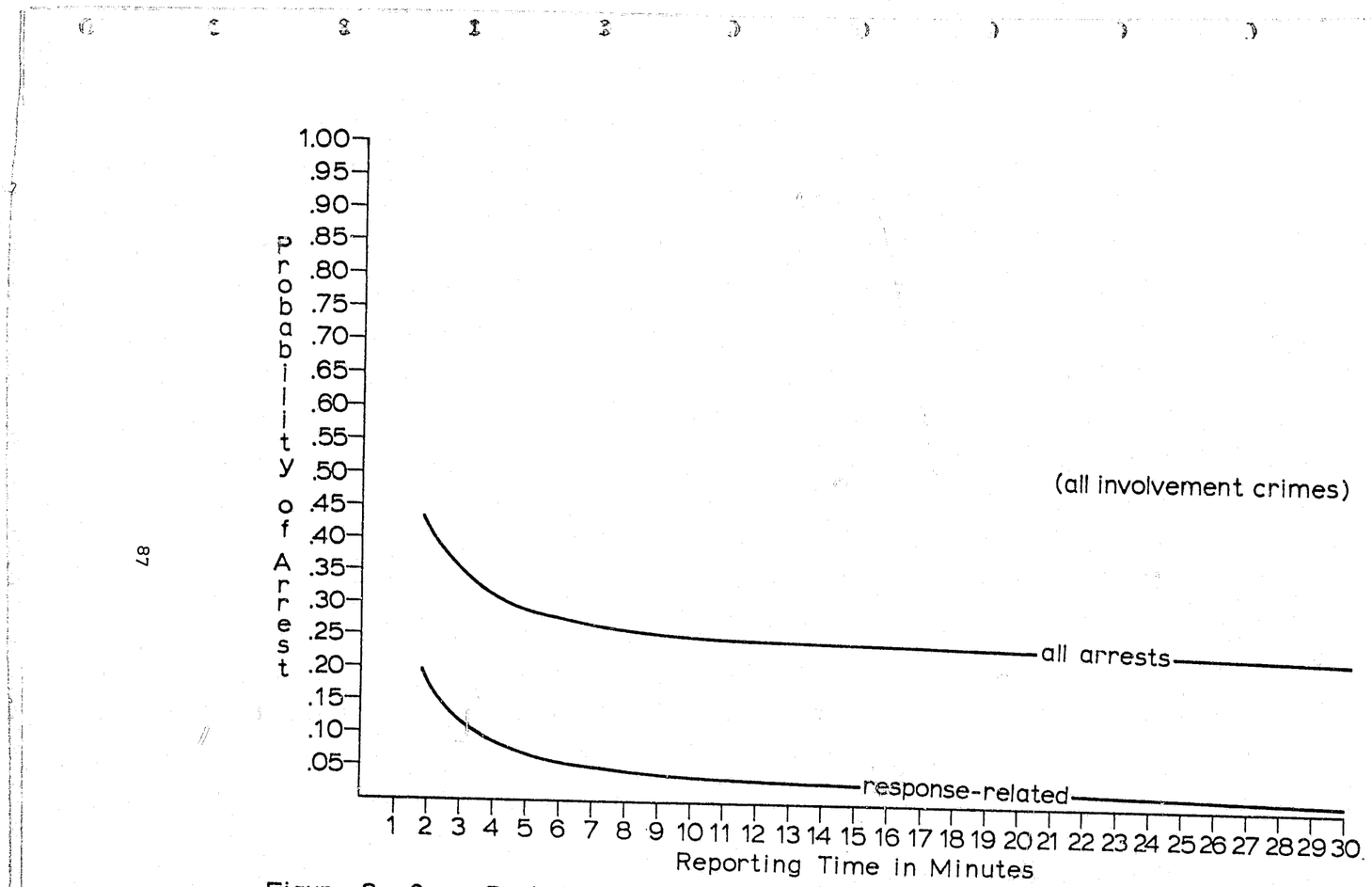


Figure 3 - 2.-- Probability of an arrest or a response-related arrest for Part I involvement crimes at reporting times of 0 to 30 minutes.

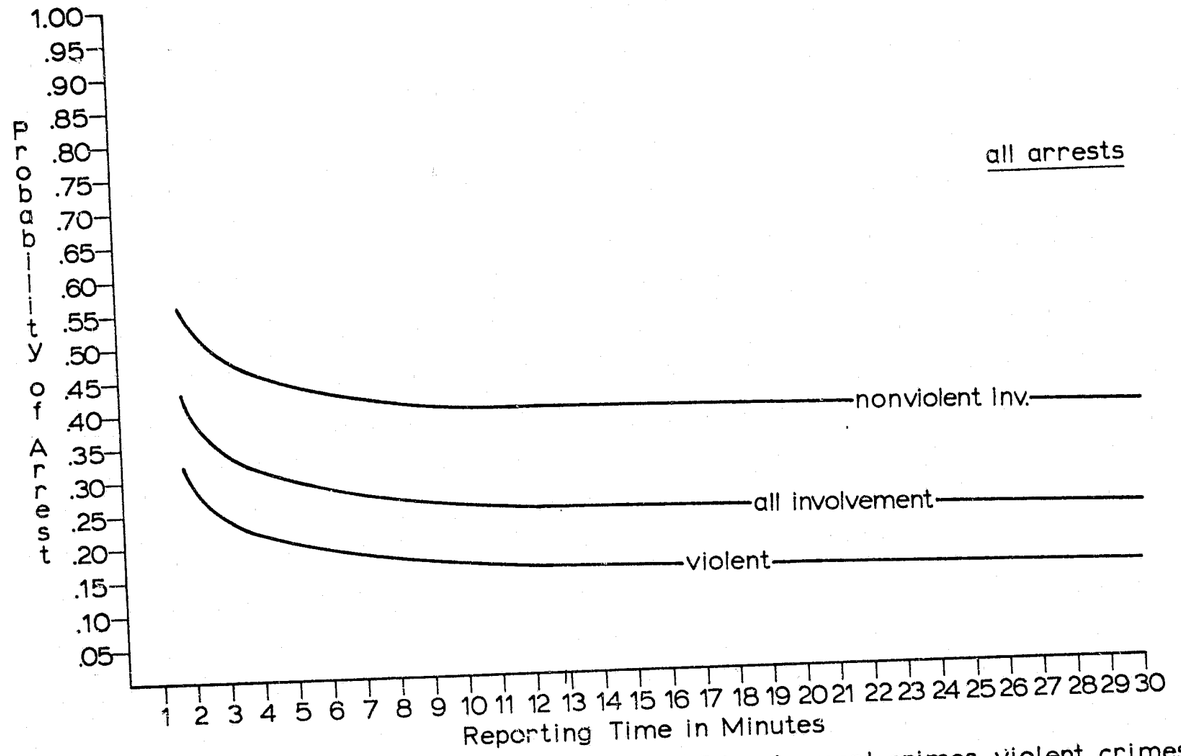


Figure 3-3.-- Probability of an arrest for Part I involvement crimes, violent crimes, and nonviolent involvement crimes at reporting times of 0 to 30 minutes.

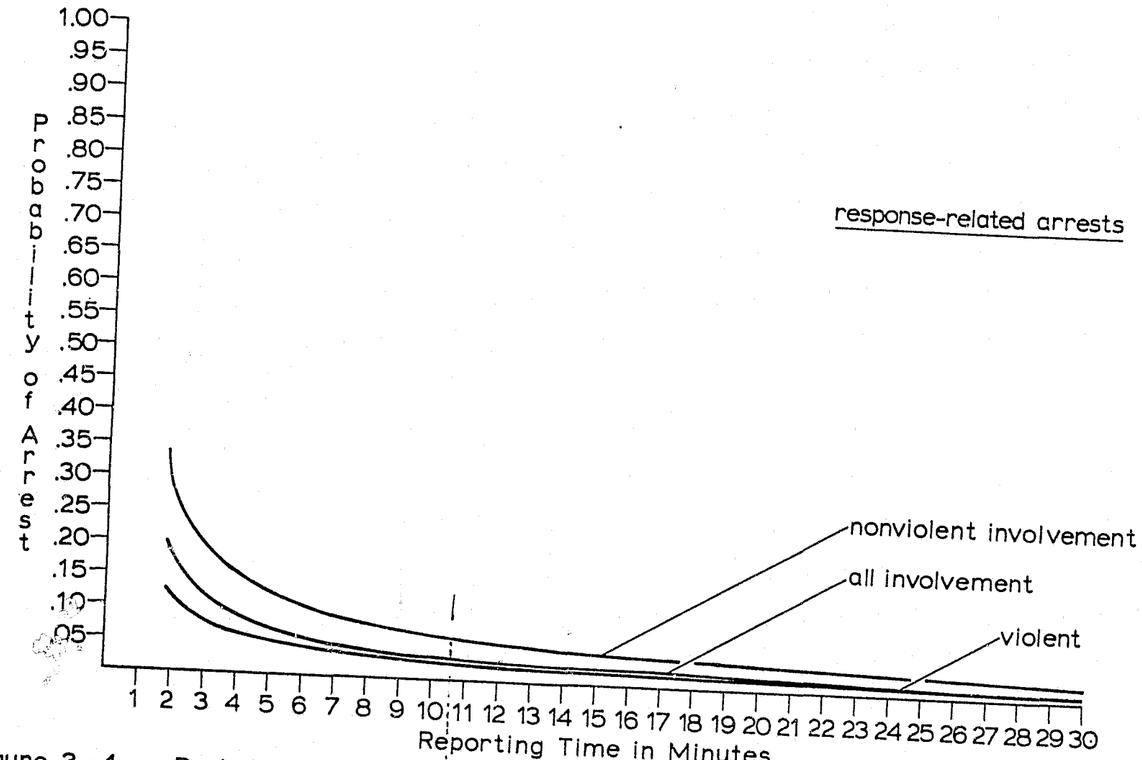


Figure 3-4.-- Probability of a response-related arrest for Part I involvement crimes, violent crimes, and nonviolent involvement crimes at reporting times of 0 to 30 minutes.

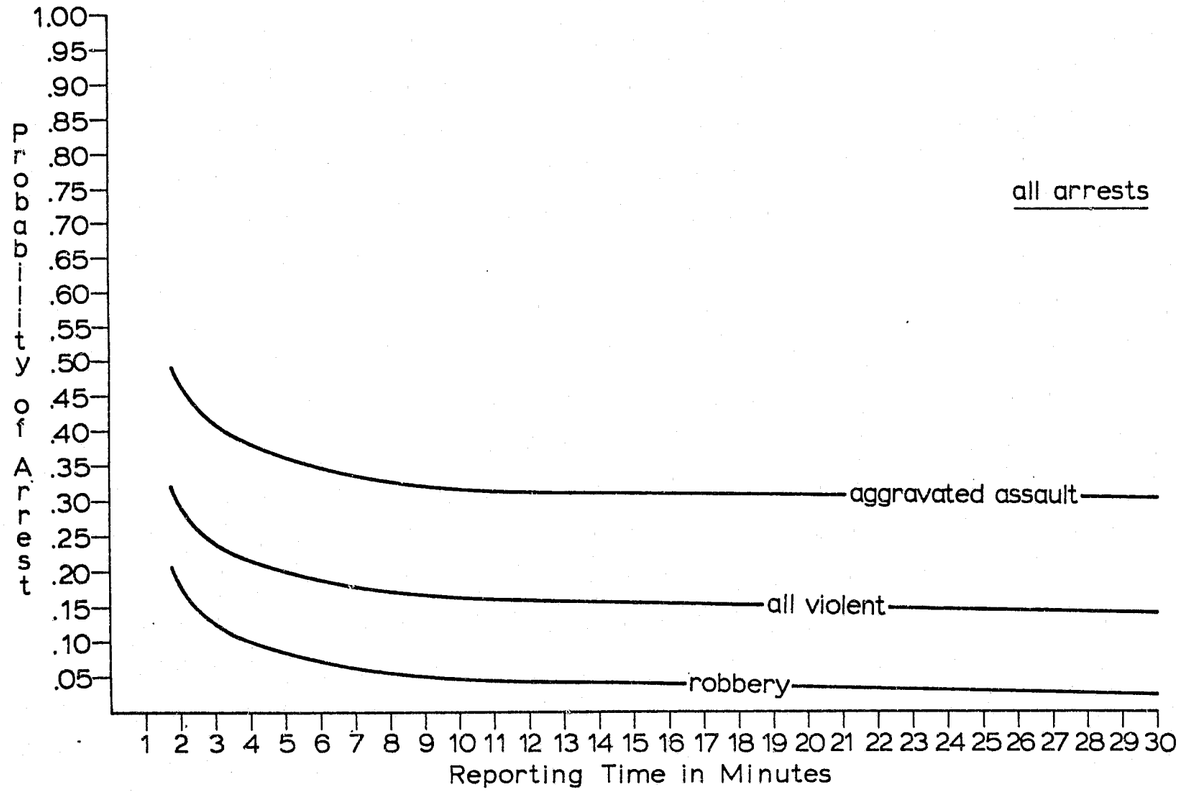


Figure 3-5.--Probability of an arrest for all violent crimes, robbery, and aggravated assault at reporting times of 0 to 30 minutes.

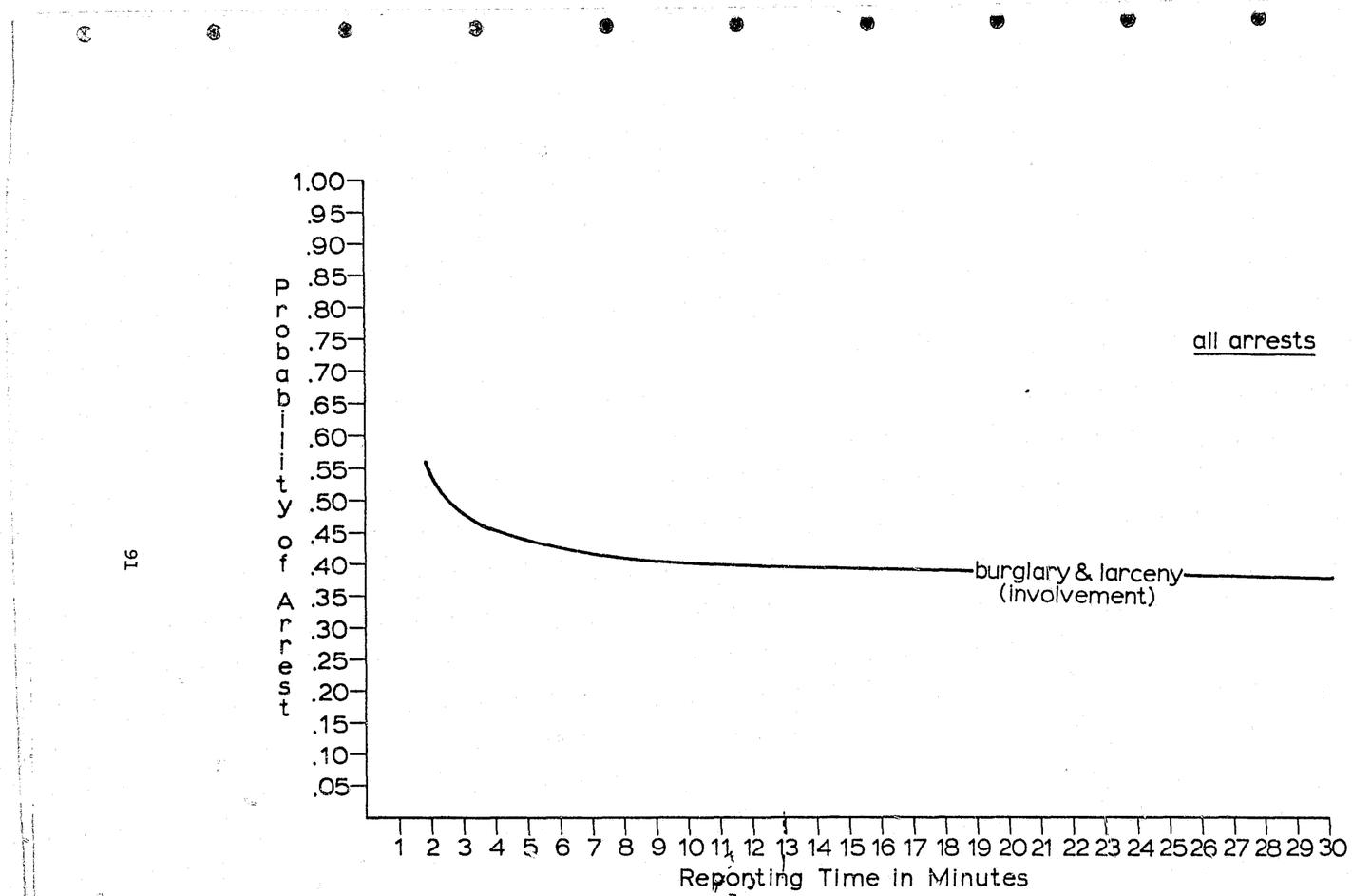


Figure 3-6.-- Probability of an arrest for involvement burglary and involvement larceny at reporting times of 0 to 30 minutes.

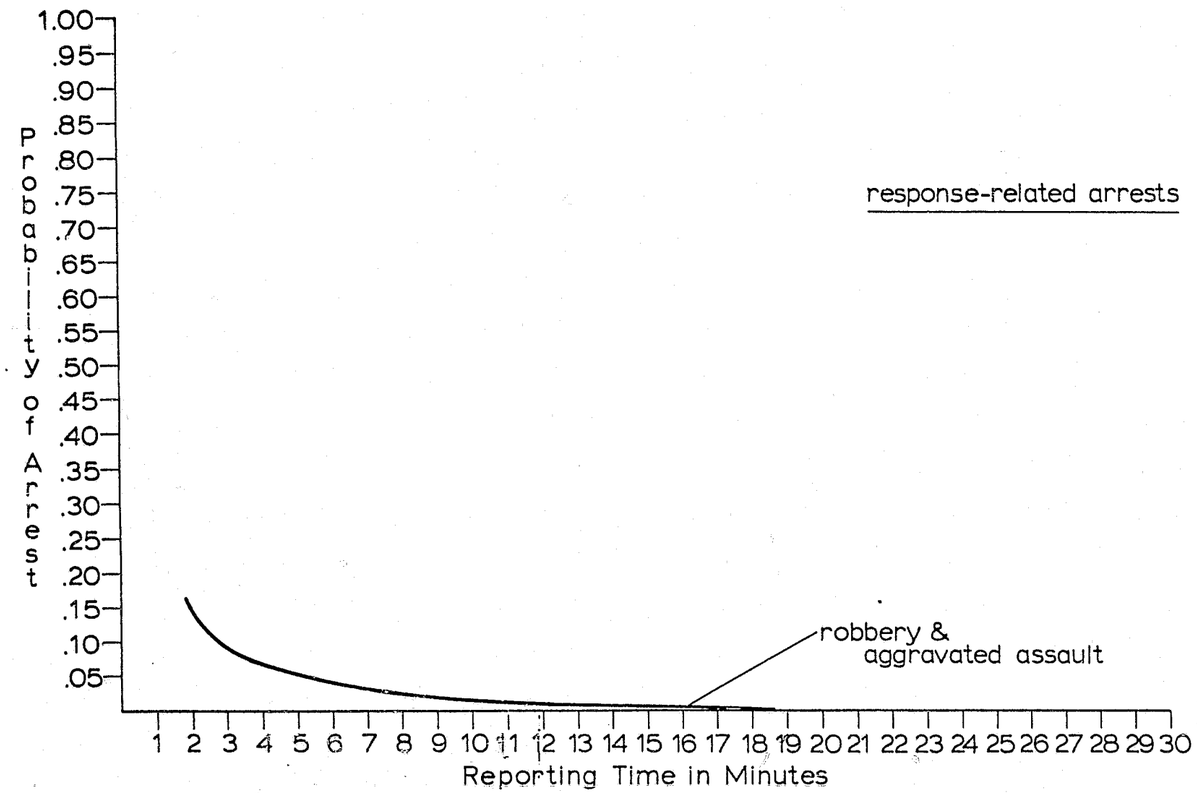


Figure 3-7.-- Probability of a response-related arrest for robbery and aggravated assault at reporting times of 0 to 30 minutes.

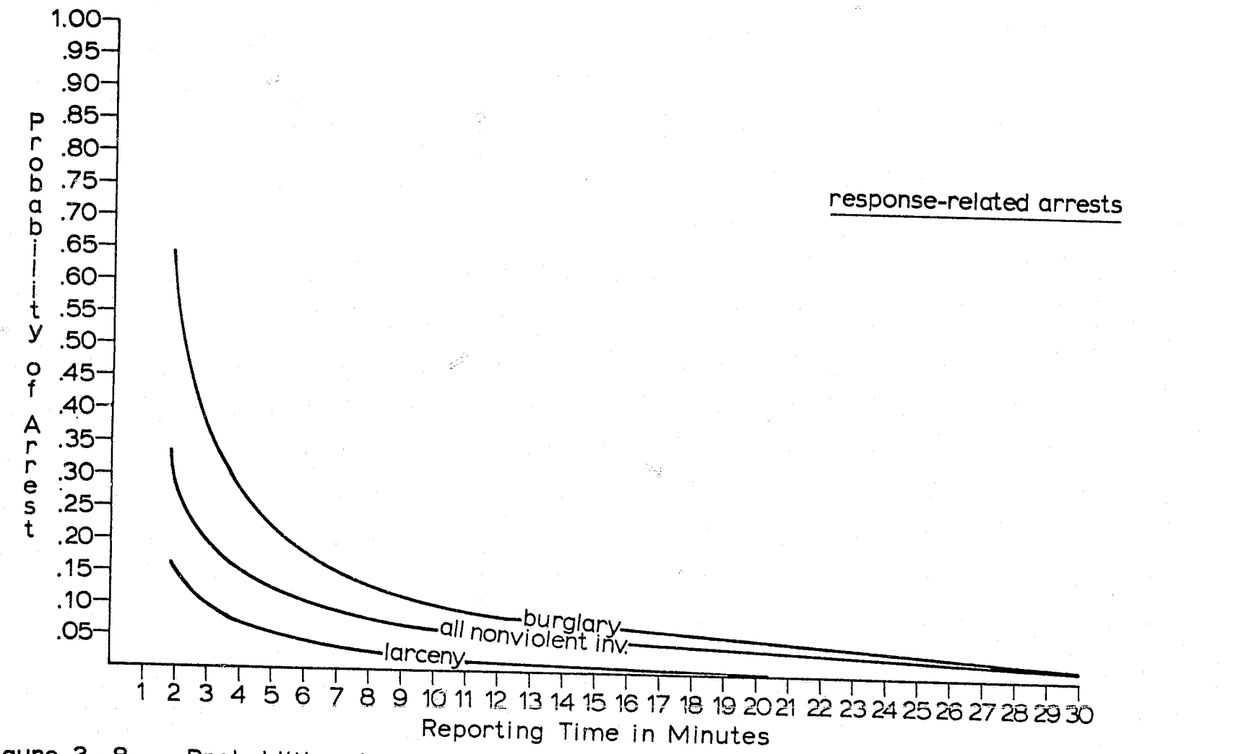


Figure 3-8.-- Probability of a response-related arrest for all Part I nonviolent involvement crimes, involvement burglary and involvement larceny at reporting times of 0 to 30 minutes.

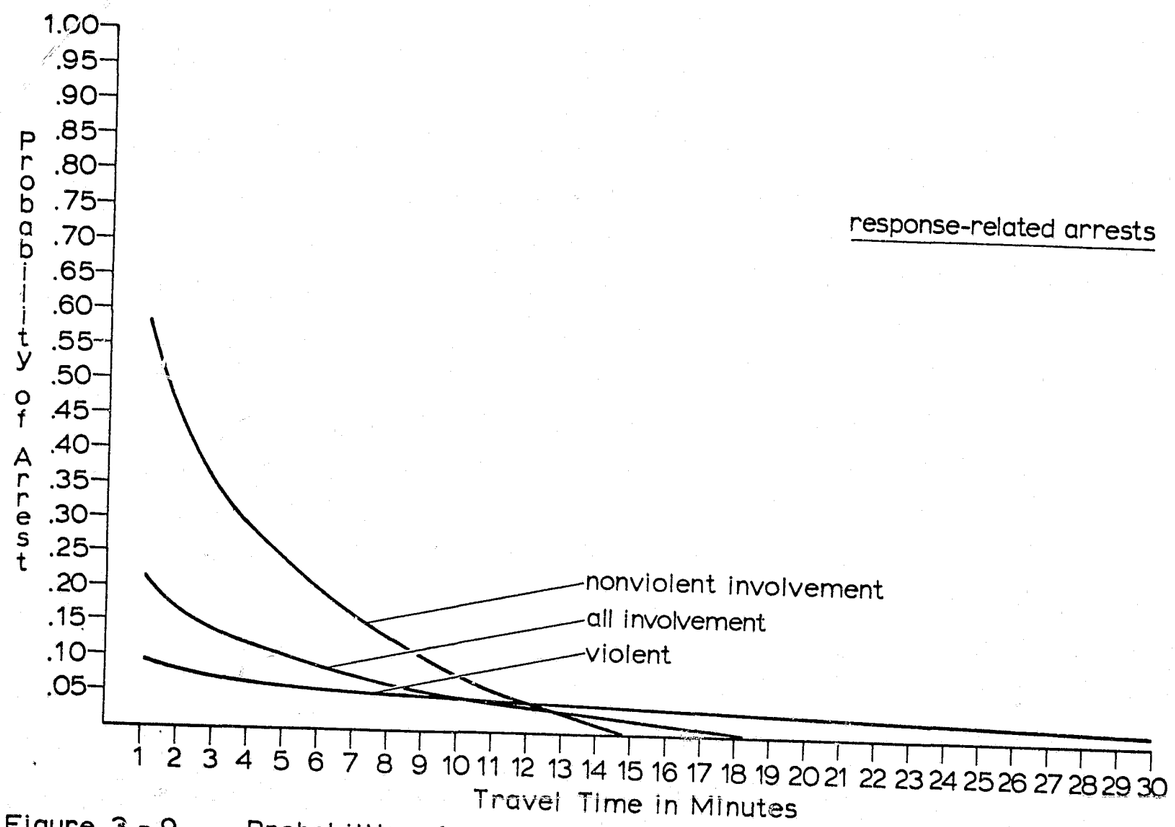


Figure 3 - 9.-- Probability of a response-related arrest for Part I involvement crimes, violent crimes, and nonviolent involvement crimes at travel times of 0 to 30 minutes.

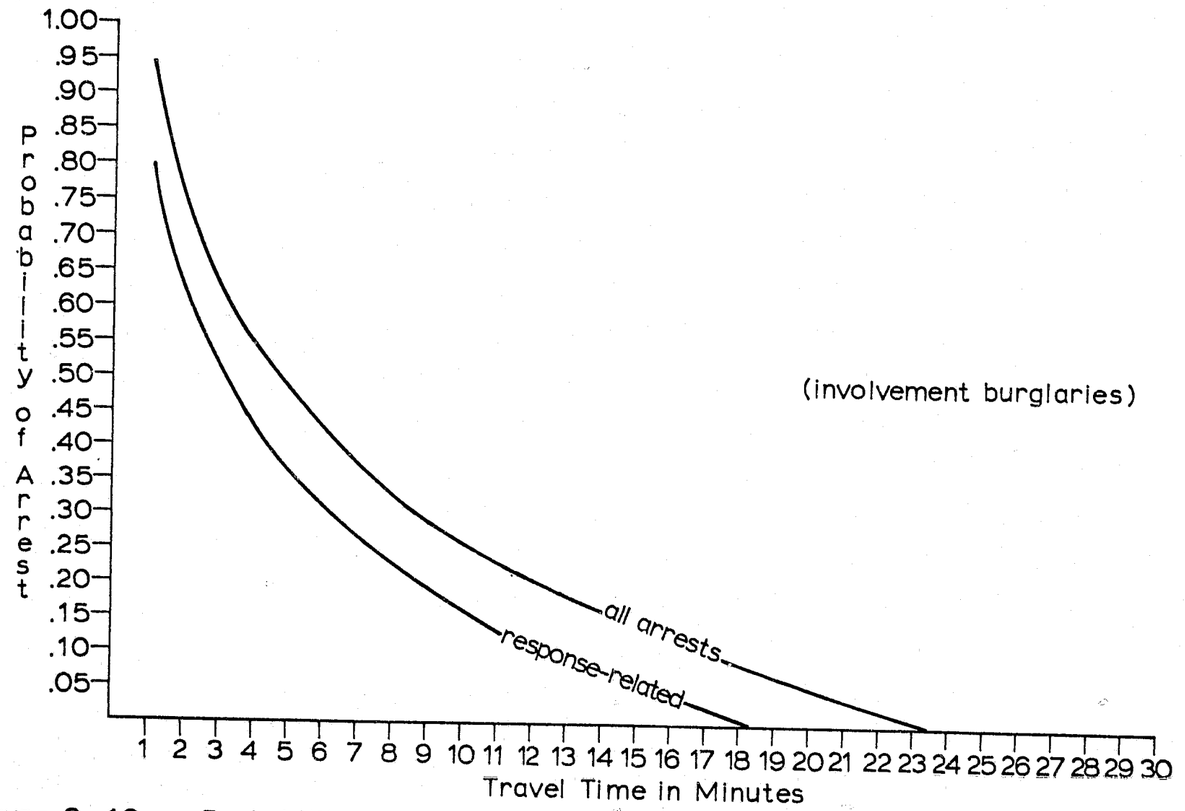


Figure 3-10.-- Probability of an arrest or a response-related arrest for involvement burglary at travel times of 0 to 30 minutes.

HANDOUTS C

RELATIONSHIP OF RESPONSE
TIME TO AVAILABILITY
OF WITNESSES

Response Time Analysis. Volumes I-III. Kansas City, Missouri Police Department, September, 1978. National Institute of Justice, Washington, D.C.

Table 5-1.-- Part I crime data base with number of incidents, incidents with witnesses, and percentage by type of crime.

Type of Crime	Data Base	Incidents with Witnesses	
	N	N	Percent
Involvement Crimes	352	171	48.6
Violent Involvement	221	110	49.8
Rapes	10	3	30.0
Robberies	127	61	48.0
Aggravated Assaults	84	46	54.8
Nonviolent Involvement	131	61	46.6
Burglaries	35	22	62.9
Larcenies	91	36	39.6
Auto Thefts	5	3	60.0
Discovery Crimes	597	26	4.4
Burglaries	317	14	4.4
Larcenies	206	11	5.3
Auto Thefts	74	1	1.4
All Part I Crimes	949	197	20.8

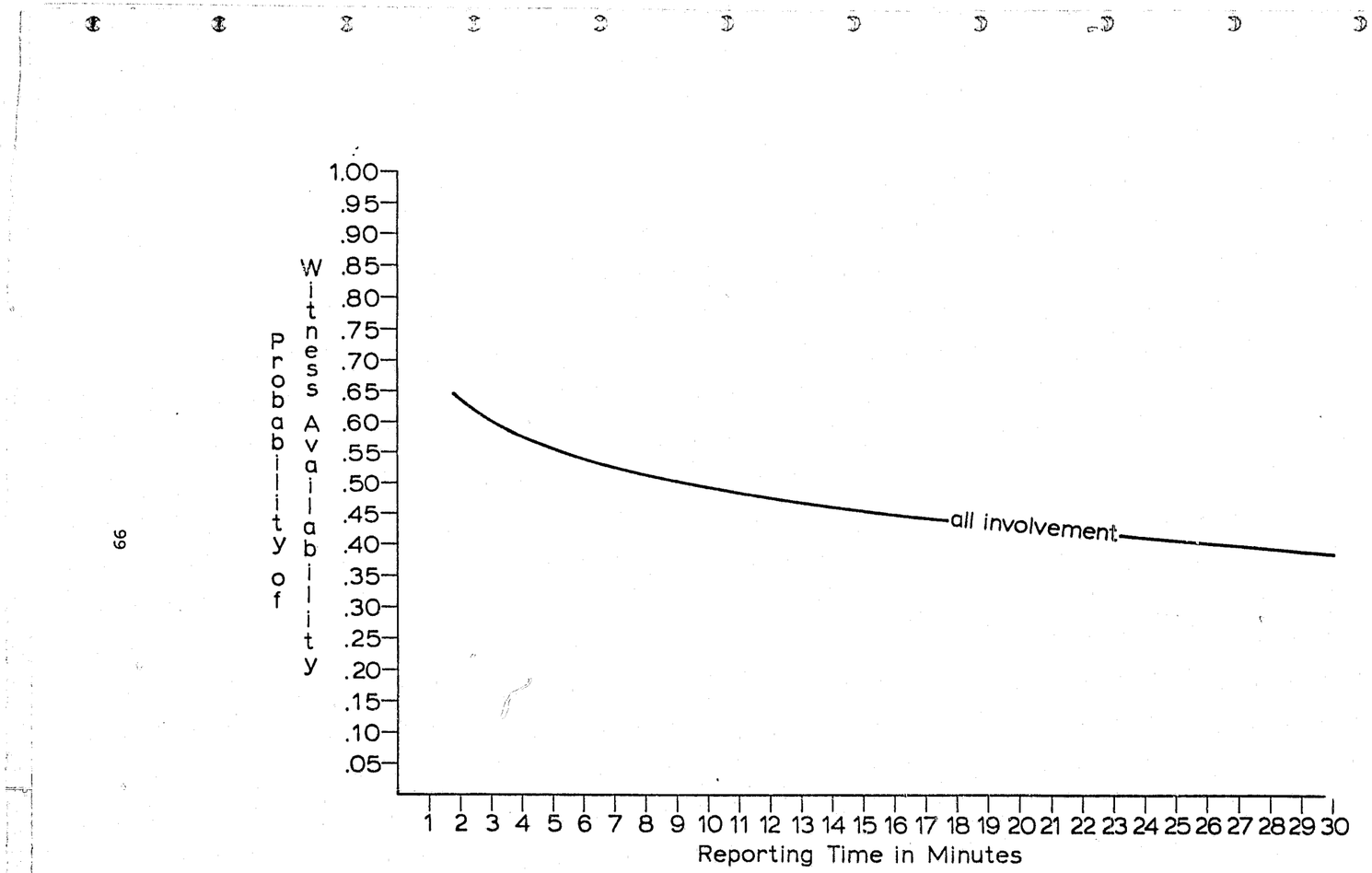


Figure 5 - 2.-- Probability of witness availability for Part I involvement crimes at reporting times of 0 to 30 minutes.

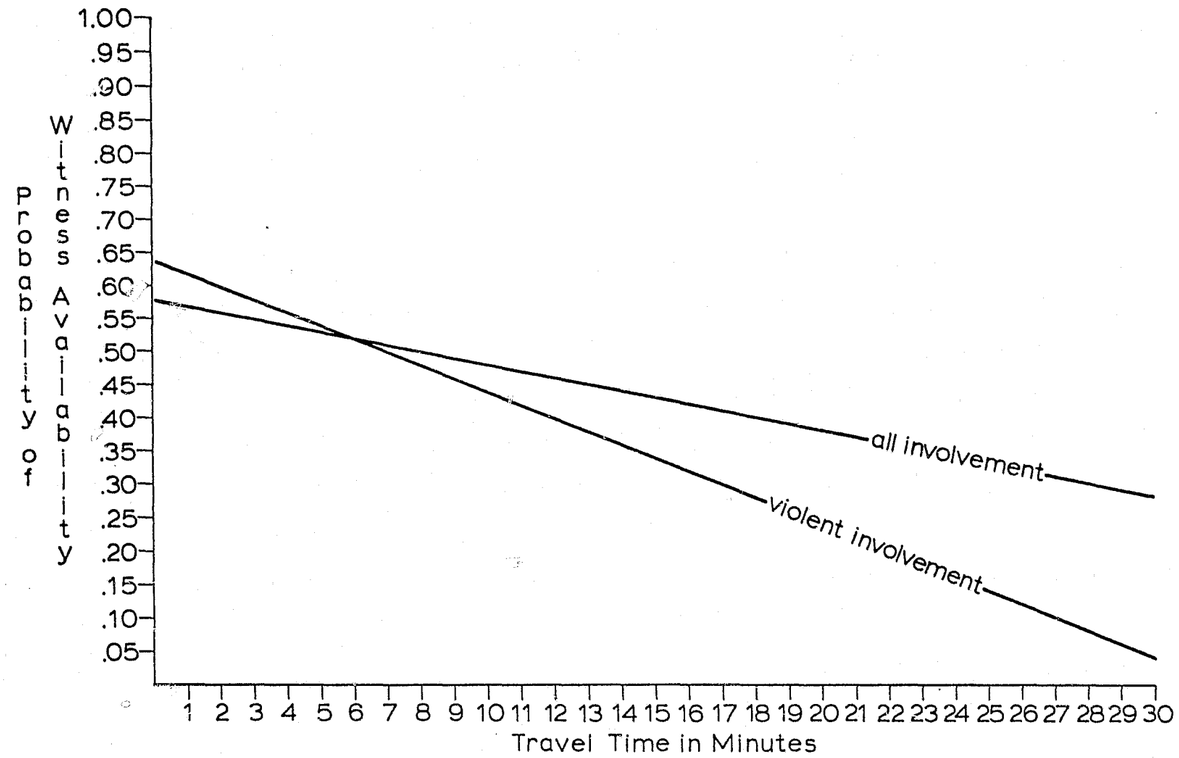


Figure 5 - 3.-- Probability of witness availability for Part I involvement crimes and violent crimes at travel times of 0 to 30 minutes.

- Implications of Response Time Findings

- Analysis of citizen reporting problems or patterns, related to delays by the citizen, shows that the traditional assumption that crimes are reported without significant delay, often while they are occurring, is an untenable assumption. Almost one half of all Part I crimes were reported more than six minutes after the end of the citizen involvement or discovery and less than seven percent of the crimes analyzed could have been reported while they were in progress.

- The study also sought to locate the reasons for these significant citizen delays in reporting. Several patterns were found, ranging from delays due to the citizen talking to another person or investigating the crime scene, to citizen telephoning another person before calling the police. Other studies isolated problems of a more uncontrollable nature for citizen delay, such as no telephone immediately available, citizen reporting crime had not been actually informed from the beginning, there was an injury, or fear or emotional shock. When these patterns or problems were correlated in order to determine the most important variables for delay (that might be amenable to change), the rank order listing of these was found to be:

  1. Apathy
  2. Waiting or observing the situation
  3. Telephoning another person or receiving a call
  4. Not being sure of the police
  5. Not being informed or being misinformed about the incident
  6. Investigation by the citizen of the incident scene
  7. Injury of citizen
  8. Contacting Security--usually in a commercial business and due to company policy.

Variables not significantly related to reporting delays were: delays due to talking to another person, chasing the suspect, fear or emotional shock, public communications delay, or police communication delays.

- Citizens take a significant amount of time to report crime.

Since major efforts have been made by police departments to reduce police response time by decreasing officer travel time and by improving patrol dispatch procedures, the question can be raised: What is the relative effectiveness of these efforts given citizen delays in crime reporting?

- Citizen Reporting, Communications Dispatching, and Police Response After Dispatching are Three Separate and Independent Events.

The latter two events are directly controlled by the police, but these events are conditioned by the nature and characteristics of the citizen reporting event or process. Some improvements can enhance the short-term effectiveness of existing police practices in order to minimize the effects of citizen delays. For example;

- Procedures could be designed to screen calls in order to determine which type or rapid police response might prove productive in servicing the calls. A standardized decision checklist could be used by both the receiving clerk and the dispatcher by means of which immediate information could be collected about various aspects of the incident, particularly time lapses between discovery or involvement and reporting, injury, physical description, etc.

- Given effective screening procedures, calls could be "stacked" according to a priority. Research findings strongly suggest that, for some types of calls, citizen satisfaction can be controlled by the police by telling citizens when to expect the officer. Generally, setting appointments by the call screening clerk with the citizen for between 30 to 45 minutes after dispatch has proven to be an acceptable and satisfactory range. Then, when the officer arrives before the appointed time, satisfaction increases.

- The management of delayed response to non-emergency incidents could allow sufficient reserve strength to respond to emergency situations in which meaningful outcomes could be realized.

- As much effort should be expended by the police on trying to change the patterns of delay by citizens as is now expended on improving dispatching and response procedures by police.

- Of the eight major variables affecting citizen delays only one, injury, is an uncontrollable hindrance to the citizen. One other variable, apathy, is so broad that it tells us lettle about why citizens delay and requires further research until clear answers are forthcoming. However, the remaining six variable seem to be amenable to change. These six seem to argue that citizens do not know what to do first.

  Well trained call screening officers can assist the citizen in reporting the crime and can lessen the delay. The research indicated that there was no relationship between citizen reporting times and police response times in involvement incidents; yet, when screening is coupled to stacking, prioritizing and discriminating between emergency and non-emergency calls with respect to choosing immediate police response, significant results can be obtained both in outcomes related to handling the incident and citizen satisfaction.

- The assumptions that rapid police response enhanced on-scene apprehension, reduced the incidence of citizen injury, and created the opportunity for locating witnesses quickly were found to be true in less than 40 percent of all crime incidents analyzed in this research. Moreover, in that 40 percent, these assumptions were usually found to be true only in involvement crimes. Until citizen reporting times improve, the bolstering of manpower and equipment to increase on-scene arrest and witness availability will produce negligible impact on crime clearance rates.

- Additional research is needed, perhaps in each police jurisdiction, to explain why citizens delay reporting crime and to discover methods of minimizing delays.

- The citizen reporting role is so critical to the efficient use of police capabilities that concentrated efforts must address methods to establish rapport between police agencies and citizens regarding mutual responsibilities. The citizen must be made aware of losses associated with delayed reports.

- The Use of Weighted Formulas in Resource Allocation Planning

PH. page 67

One traditional method for allocating patrol units to geographical commands is to use a weighted formula which is often termed a hazard formula. One example of such a hazard formula is given on page 67, PH.

In this method, the user identifies "factors" that are thought to be relevant and important for determining the distribution of manpower in certain areas or beats.

Each factor is assigned a "weight": these numerical weights specify the relative importance attached to each factor. In the example given on page 67, PH., a weight of 4 is given to certain types of Part I crimes namely, violent crimes. By contrast, all other Part I & Part II offenses are given a weight of 3 and calls-for-service (other than those listed in the formula) are given a weight of 1.

These weighted factors are combined for each geographic command in order to obtain a hazard index for each area command.

To calculate the hazard index, one first finds the total amount of each factor in the entire city and calculates the fraction of the factor that occurs in the geographic command in question. Then this fraction is multiplied by the weight and the products are added together.

The final step is to determine the total hazard index in the entire city and to allocate patrol units among geographical commands in direct proportion to their indexes. An example will clarify the use of this weighted hazard formula:

Let us assume that a police department has 200 patrol units. Further, let us assume that the department knows, by precinct area, the following: (1) the number of violent part I crimes which have occurred last year in each precinct; (2) the number of other Part I & II crimes; and (3) the number of calls for service other than those identified in (1) and (2). Finally, let us assume

there are three geographic precincts in the department.

	Factor	Precinct 1	Precinct 2	Precinct 3	Total
1.	Violent Crimes	280	500	900	1680
2.	Other Crimes	700	1400	2500	4600
3.	CFS	6000	20000	56000	82000

The hazard formula is as follows:

h_1 = Hazard weight for violent crimes

h_2 = Hazard weight for other crimes

h_3 = Hazard weight for calls-for-service

H_A - Hazard index for Precinct 1 =

$$h_1 \frac{280}{1680} + h_2 \frac{700}{4600} + h_3 \frac{6000}{82000}$$

Hazard assignment to Precinct 1 =

$$\text{(total units) X } \frac{H_A}{(h_1 + h_2 + h_3)}$$

Let us proceed by comparing an equalized hazard formula with a weighted hazard formula.

- If the administrator considers <u>all calls for service</u> (including crime calls) to be of equal importance, he would assign hazard weights of 1 to each of the three factors listed above. Using Precinct 3 as an example, the formula would be

$$200X \frac{\frac{900}{1680} + \frac{2500}{4600} + \frac{56000}{82000}}{3}$$

= 200 X (0.587)
= 117 units to be assigned.

- However, if the administrator considers violent crimes very important and if he used a hazard weight of 4 for the factor of violent crimes, 3 for the factor of other crimes and 1 for the factor of calls-for-service, the formula for Precinct 3 would be:

$$200 X \frac{4 \cdot \frac{900}{1680} + 3 \cdot \frac{2500}{4600} + \frac{56000}{82000}}{8}$$

= 200 X (0.555)

= 110 units to be assigned

Note that Precinct 3 has the largest number of violent crimes (900) but the <u>higher</u> the weight given to violent crimes in the hazard formula, the <u>smaller</u> is the number of units assigned to Precinct 3 by the hazard formula. This is because the ratio of the third factor (CFS) to the first factor (violent crime) is larger in Precinct 3 than in other Precincts while the ratio of the second factor (other crimes) to the first factor is about the same for all precincts. It is not unusual to find that high crime precincts have proportionally more non-crime calls for service than low-crime commands. This example illustrates a peculiar property of hazard formulas that could occur in many cities. For this reason, many analyst suggest that the use of a weighted hazard formula cannot be recommended because there are, generally, no "right" weights.

Time Consumed in Arrest and Court Processes

- A fourth consideration which needs to be reviewed by the manager in conducting a patrol allocation study is the question of how much patrol time is spent on processing an arrest and appearing in court. PH. page 67

- That such a consideration is important can be seen in the analysis done in 1975 by the Milwaukee Criminal Justice System about the cost of unnecessary trips and wasting-time expended by police officers in court.

- Page 68, PH lists the estimated cost of law officer unnecessary trips and page 69 estimates the hours and cost of law officer waiting time. PH. page 68 PH. page 69

- Note that in the analysis of item (5) on page 69, PH, the actual time spent by the Milwaukee Police Department officers (in 1975) in court was 179,232 direct hours. If one uses the estimates of unnecessary trips given in the analysis in PH, page 68, 4., namely 10,482 hours, one could speculate that a significant amount of available patrol resources--approximately 1,318 work days (10,482 ÷ 8) -- were spent last in unnecessary trips. Moreover, if one uses the estimated percentage of time spent merely waiting in court--43.4% as indicated on PH, page 69, (6)--and applied this percentage to the total direct hours-- 179,232--one could conclude that 9723 officer work days were expended doing but waiting in court (179,232 ÷ 43% ÷ 8 = 9723)

- While the Milwaukee study may not directly apply to our jurisdiction, it is clear that, in general, the amount of time expended in court appearances could be substantial. As such, it needs to be considered as an important factor in planning for the distribution and allocation of patrol units and in scheduling of such units. Moreover, agreements with the courts may have to be reached in order to lessen the amount of unnecessary time spent in court either because of unnecessary trips or because of excessive waiting.

- Such agreements have resulted in better court scheduling, better communication between court officers and patrol units or other time and cost-saving devices.

  - Computer-Based Patrol Allocation Planning Tools

A final consideration which the manager must examine is the possibility of using computer based patrol allocations planning programs. Three types of such programs have been developed: (1) Patrol Car Allocation Model (PCAM) or a micro-computer version entitled Patrol/Plan; (2) Hypercube or a micro-computer version entitled Beat/Plan; and (3) Compsched or Schedule/Plan which are micro computer-based personnel scheduling programs.

- These tools, when used properly, function to:

  - create a representation within the computer of patrol operations

  - relate workload and deployment information to field operations under current or altered car deployments or policies

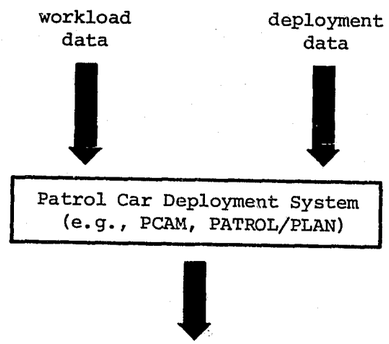
  - solve some deployment problems dealing with allocating patrol resources by geographic area, day of week, or shift.

- These computer-based planning tools, however, do or are:

• not management information systems • not real-time deployment aids like computer-assisted dispatching systems • not particularly effective as short-range planning tools • not real-time inquiry systems like NCIC • not automatic vehicle location or monitoring systems	
• An example of what these tools do is given in Handout D.	Handout
• Page 70 and 71 of the PH lists, very briefly, the purpose, outputs and imputs needed for PCAM and Hypercube.	PH. page 70-71
• Information about the use of any of these tools can be obtained from The Institute for Public Program Analysis 230 S. Bemiston, Suite 914, St. Louis, MO 63105 (314) 862-8272	

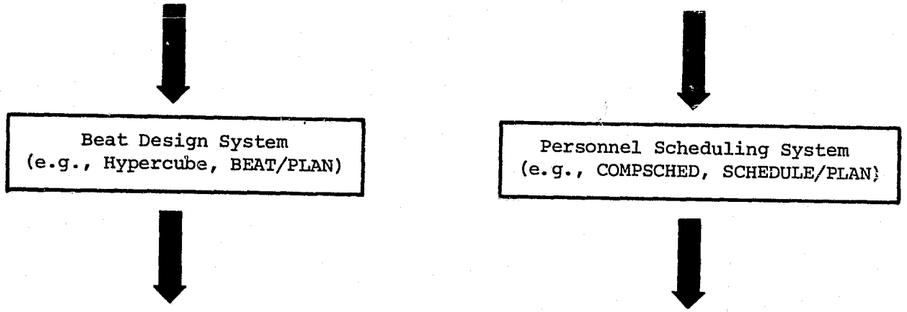
HANDOUT D

THE THREE BASIC TYPES OF COMPUTER-BASED PATROL ALLOCATION PLANNING TOOLS



descriptive mode: assessment of field operations performance for a prespecified allocation of cars by day of week, shift, and geographic area

prescriptive mode: proposed redeployment of cars to best accomplish a prespecified objective within set restrictions on deployment or performance



SESSION 4: RESOURCE ALLOCATION/CONSIDERATIONS — TRAINER'S SCRIPT

5. Patrol Distribution Models

- Pages 72-74, PH, lists matrix which explains the assumptions, advantages, disadvantages and implementation requirements of five separate types of patrol allocation schemes.
- The trainer should review this matrix with participants in order to assess what type of resource allocation process or scheme is used in the participants' departments.

6. Summary and Transition

- In this session we have examined several issues which the manager must consider in order to develop a patrol resource allocation plan.
- In the next session, we shall break into small work groups in order to look at a specific task that, if done well, can enable us to learn more about these issues.
- Before we look at this task, however, we shall take a brief break and reassemble in this room at _____ o'clock.

SESSION 5: CLOSURE OF DAY I — TRAINER'S SUMMARY

Objectives:	1. To review briefly the information and materials presented thus far; 2. To prepare participants for the next session
Time Required:	As needed
Equipement:	None
References:	References given in Sessions 1-5
Method:	Lecturette
Romm Arrangement:	As in previous session
Visuals:	As noted in Trainer's script
Materials:	Each participant uses PH, pages 20-21
Sequence:	1. Introduction to Session 2. Review of Overview section: Pages 20-21 3. Review of Purposes of Session 3 and 4 4. Identification of Purposes of Session 6--Review of policies usually adopted by police departments which govern the manner in which the department uses its personnel resources, particularly patrol. 5. Linkage of next session: In the next session, we shall examine alternatives to dispatch and deployment of mobile patrol units. These alternatives may enable the patrol manager to reconsider the cost and amount of time spent by departments which dispatch and deploy mobile units in responding to any call for service. 6. Instructions for assembling for the next session.

SESSION 6: DEMANDS POLICY REVIEW TRAINER'S SUMMARY

Objectives:	1. To review current examples of police agency policies that direct the way in which the police response to demands for service are handled by the department; 2. To identify alternative ways of responding to the delivery of police services in order to increase the amount of available time needed for patrol units; 3. To suggest new policies or procedures which will increase the amount of patrol time by changing the manner in which current responses to demands for police services are conducted.
Time required:	Approximately 50 minutes
References:	PH, pages 81-99; MAN, pages 71-114; PP, Volume I, pages 60-88.
Method:	Lecuture and handouts with individual or group discussion; optional use of small group task.
Room Arrangements:	Classroom style as in Session 5
Visuals:	As noted in trainer's script
Materials:	PH, MAN, and PP.
Sequence:	1. Scope of this review and outline of session 2. Review of traditional police responsibilities 3. Review of enforcement policies 4. Review of alternatives to arrest: Summons in lieu of arrest 5. Use of volunteers and paraprofessionals 6. Prioritizing of calls for service as an alternative to responding to every call for service 7. One-person versus two-person cars: Assignment policies 8. Benefits of review and analysis of policies

1. Scope and outline of session

PH, p. 81-85
MAN, pages 71-114

The purposes of this session are listed and explained in the PH beginning on page 81.

Note that our emphasis is on the fact that managemement does have the administrative discretion, within certain boundaries, to examine, review, analyze, and change some of the ways in which police services are delivered. The rationale and justification for such authority is described in the quote, in page 81, from the police standards stipulated in the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals.

Furthermore, because of the current fiscal stress which most police departments are now experiencing, it is imperative that considerations be given to alternative response policies which may be more cost effective and more productive.

In this session, we have selected several issues about the management of police responses to calls for service. These issues are, generally, described as policies which govern or direct the response of the police to certain demanded services. For this reason, we have entitled this session "Demands Policy Review"--that is, a review of the policies that govern how we manage and respond to calls. Such a review is taken principally to see if we can change or modify current policies in order to gain more time for more important types of police responses to both demands for service and identified problems which require a more direct police attention.

The bottom of page 81 lists these selected issues.

In general terms, we will therefore examine the question: What polices govern the manner in which we provide patrol services to certain types of traditional requests for service, what policies govern the use of arrest powers, what work can be done by non-sworn personnel in the delivery of police services, what can we change in the manner in which we dispatch units to calls for service so that we can dispatch only to prioritized calls, and what can we do to gain

more productivity, if possible, by the use of one person cars rather than two-person car assignments?

The process we will follow in this session, in reviewing and analyzing these issues, will be one in which we will be expected to work together.

Many if not all of these issues do not admit of an easy, right, formula-type of answer. Many of these issues require that we consider a wide list of factors that will be affected by or impacted by our analysis. For example, all of these issues will be constrained by existing policies, current labor agreements, and community perceptions and expectations about the level of police service. Therefore, we will raise these issues, explain them, and then ask for your comments or ideas about the alternatives that may be possible.

Finally, on page 83, we list, again, the logical flow that we are following in this entire workshop. Remember that we are attempting, in the final outcome of the workshop, to identify ways of increasing the amount of patrol time needed to perform important police work. Later we will see how to redirect this time. In this session, we are seeking for alternatives to the manner in which we handle police service demands. If we can discover alternative ways of managing our time and effort in handling police service calls, we may also discover that there is more available time for the department to use in different more productive ways. Page 84 summarizes this final point and page 85 summarizes the list if issues we will address.

PH, pg 83 VISUAL

PH, pg 84 VISUAL

2. Review of Traditional Police Responsibilities

PH, pg 86 VISUAL

Listed on page 86 are some examples of police responsibilities that have been, over time and by custom or ordinance, assigned to the police department. This list is taken from a series of interviews and comments from various departments. Obviously, not all items listed apply to our department. However, they are activities which police have performed; they are activities that take up time and resources.

The two questions we have for you are:

- What type of activities do we handle that are like this list and that we could

transfer to other non-police agencies of government or that we could get rid of as a police responsibility?

- What do you think would be the impact of such transfers or shedding of activities?

(The trainer allows time for open-ended discussion; he/she may list some ideas similar to those listed in the text on a flip chart)

GROUP DISCUSSION

Obviously, from your discussion, there are several new ideas that could gain us some time if we were not directly responsible for all the types of activities that we currently have.

However, we want to go further. We would like to catalog and catagorize these activities and analyze which ones have more importance to police goals than do other sets of activities. On page 87, is a matrix that helps to organize this catalog and seeks to structure a way of categorizing your ideas.

PH, pg 87 Matrix
VISUAL

The matrix list four general police functions:

- Activities related to crime
- Activities related to the maintenance or regulation of public order
- Activities related to the general types of police services which we deliver that may not be directly related to crime or order, e.g., responding to calls about noise, etc.
- Activities related to our own internal administrative procedures, e.g. report writing, roll calls, etc., or to those local ordinances or statutes that have no crime relationship, no order relationship,and no administrative relationship, e.g., (trainer gives example from local experience).

Take the listing which we derived from our previous group discussion. Add other items to the list as you work. Under each of the four activities or functions listed on the right side of the matrix, list specific types of traditional activities or responsibilities that we perform. For each listed activity or responsibility, make a judgment about

whether you think that the activity is either "HIGH PRIORITY FOR THE DEPARTMENT" or "LOW PRIORITY FOR THE DEPARTMENT". By high priority, we mean, those activities which the department must perform because of the very nature of its mission and role in the community; by low priority, those activities which the department can change and handle in a different manner either by changing the way in which we handle these low priorities, e.g., by having non-sworn, volunteers or para-professionals handle them or by transfering responsibility for these activities to other agencies of government.

(The trainer should allow up to 20 minutes for either individuals or small groups to work on this task. If individuals work, then, after the 20 minute period, the trainer should ask for several individuals to volunteer their ideas and responses; if groups work, there should be time for each group to report its findings.)

INDIVIDUAL/GROUP WORK

It is clear from your responses that there are ways to identify and analyze activities that can be possibly handled differently. At the same time, your ideas suggest that there are many activities that we now perform that consume significant amounts of patrol time. Merely identifying current responsibilities that can be shed or handled in a different manner by this department is a beginning step in improving the management of our operations. Later, in the workshop, you will be given an opportunity to take the results of this analysis and use it, along with other ideas, to write and produce a policy paper that can be used by the department in changing the manner in which we manage our resources.

Let's move to another issue that affects the way in which we organize our resources in order to respond to demands for our services.

3. Review of Enforcement Policies

PH, pg 88
MAN, pg 73

It is clear that in many instances there is a good deal of discretion exercised by both the police and the criminal justice system in handling the issue of enforcement of existing statutes and ordinances. Often there is a lag between what the letter of the law requires and what either the community or even the enforcement agencies can actually enforce.

For instance, we all recall reading those humorous articles published regularly in magazines entitled: It's The Law! in which are listed examples of strange or out-of-date laws. Furthermore, we are all aware of how complicated the interpretation of law has become and how careful we must be in enforcing certain laws because of changes by court actions or appellate court decisions about a law that we either did not know about or about a law that the community no longer feels should be aggressively enforced.

At the same time, as we noted in our previous session, making an arrest as part of the enforcement of certain ordinances or statutes will, almost automatically, involve a police officer in the expenditure of a significant amount of time and effort.

Recently, there has been some discussion among police executives about the issue of selective enforcement of certain laws, a notion that was partially spearheaded by the successes of selective traffic enforcement tactics.

While the police can never, de jure, directly change the law, authorities do acknowledge that the use of discretion does, de facto, alter how the law may be enforced and thereby does indirectly change the adminstration of the law.

Currently, there are five types of criminal activities (some misdemeanor, some low level felony) that police and criminal justice authorities have identified as activities that are subject to widespread and different enforcement. They are listed on page 88. Some of these activities in some jurisdictions have actually been decriminalized, e.g., public intoxication; others have been changed from felonies to misdemeanors or, in some instances, to simple violations, e.g. marijuana possession.

PH, pg 88 VISUAL
MAN, pg 74

4. Summons in Lieu of Arrest

In some jurisdictions, some of these activities are enforced, not by an arrest, but by the issuance of a citation in lieu of an arrest, e.g., Sabbath or blue law enforcement. Examples of criteria used for such citations are listed on page 89.

PH, pg 89 VISUAL

We offer these examples--certain activites and the use of citations in lieu of an arrest--as examples of how some departments have attempted to lessen the amount of time spent by patrol resources on enforcement.

By applying these criteria to current procedures used in local criminal justice systems, some departments have been able to save significant amount of patrol time by lessening the initial time spent by an arresting officer. In jurisdictions where such procedures have been adopted, the evaluations of these alternatives have indicated that persons issued such summons have the same rate of show-up at a hearing as do those who are arrested, booked, and released on bond prior to a hearing.

5. Use of Volunteers and Paraprofessionals

PH, pg 90-91
MAN, pg 76,ss
pg 95,ss

Pages 90-93 outlines selected issues on the potential use of volunteers and/or para professionals as time-saving and resource saving options.

It is clear that there are many activities which need to be performed by a police agency; many such activities demand and require the use of trained and sworn police officers. Some activities, though not requiring a sworn officer status, do require the experience base of a sworn officer. But there are many other types of activities currently being performed by sworn officers that do not need to be done by them in order to accomplish the specific mission or objectives of a police department. In fact, some of these latter types of activities are seen by professional sworn officers as being make-work that has little direct bearing on their own perceptions and feelings about the work of a professional. Furthermore, since the cost of continuing to provide police services is increasing and since the amount of time spent by police officers on accomplishing tasks that can be as effectively performed by non-sworn personnel, more and more police agencies are exploring ways of using volunteers or paraprofessionals.

Examples of the use of such volunteers or paraprofessionals are listed on pages 90-91.

Page 92-93 outlines the results of an intensive multi-year study of the use of paraprofessional police service aides in the Worcester, Massachusetts Police Department. The Manual reference cited earlier explains the backround of this project. Note that the charts on page 92-93 lists those duties performed now, only by the Police Service Aide (PSAO, those performed, by contrast, only by Police Officers (PO), and those duties which are cited as "ambiguous", i.e.,

duties or activities which either the PSA or PO performs under varying circumstances, e.g., when the PSA requests assistance from a PO or vice versa.

A more detailed analysis of the impact of this PSA project on the role of the police union, officer acceptance and other issues is treated in the Prescriptive Package document, Improving Patrol Productivity, Volume I, pp. 82-83

6. Prioritization of Calls for Service As An Alternative to Responding to Every Call for Service

PH, pp. 94-97
MAN, pp 83, 99, 103

Of the many techniques or programs which an agency could adopt as a means of increasing the potential availability of patrol time as well as a means of lessening the amount of costs of police service, none seems to be more effective than the development and use of a prioritization scheme by which all incoming calls for police service are screened and dispatched diferentially.

In it simplest terms, a prioritization program is one in which the police department first analyzes the specific or general types of calls for service or demands for service that it regularly receives. The analysis then categorizes what types of calls require what types of police responses, e.g., usually of two general levels--an immediate response or a delayed response. Thirdly, the analysis and study seeks to determine what type of response levels can be adopted usually on a quantified time response basis, e.g., "x" type of calls requires an immediate response of less than 2-3 minutes from moment of dispatch or "y" type of response requires a delayed response of 30-40 minutes or even a response by appointment within a 24 hour period. Finally, a prioritization program seeks to determine what type of calls or demands for police service are actually calls that can or should be handled by a procedure other than the dispatch of a patrol unit, e.g, by referring the caller to another agency, by servicing the call through a police telephone service unit (sometimes termed an expeditor unit) manned by a few sworn officers and able to provide sufficient service by phone in order to meet the needs or demands of the caller or even by having the caller be given instructions on how to have his/her call handled by a walk-in process or by mail.

Developing a prioritization program is not a difficult technical task. It is, however, a program that some police departments think is difficult because of either local political expectations which may require that every call for service be directly responded to by a police department or because of citizen expectations that every call will be answered by an immediate police response with a patrol unit.

The first expectation may be real in a community or local government; the police can meet this expectation and continue to provide a police unit response to every type of call for service. However, such a total service response requires increases in manpower and equipment, increases in budget and increases in the amount of time needed by patrol units in order to respond to every call. Few local governments have access to the type of tax revenues which can continue to support such multiple increases. More and more, the need exists for a department to justify its current level of services rather than seek to increase its services and budget. Thus, the political expectations of a community may have to be weighed against the fiscal realities of maintaining or increasing the level of services required because of increasing amounts of calls for service being received by the police department.

The second expectation--public or citizen expectations--is one which is easier to deal with: citizen expectations are largely a function of what a citizen is told about the type of service he/she will receive when the citizen calls. In departments where a prioritization program has been adopted, it has been discovered that when a citizen is told that a police unit will arrive within 2-3 minutes, or 30-40 minutes, or next day by appointment--depending on the type of call and the manner in which the complaint taker or dispatcher has been trained in the use of the prioritization program--the citizen reaction has been positive provided that the service is actually delivered to the caller as stipulated by the complaint taker or dispather. Negative reaction occurs--not because of prioritization--because the service is later than what the caller was originally told. In a very real sense, citizen satisfaction or citizen expectation can be controlled and manipulated--in the best sense--by the police screener or taker of incoming calls.

The problem of negative reaction is due principally to "false" expectations raised by the police, i.e., when the caller is told that a unit will arrive in a few minutes

and, in fact, it arrives four hours later; or when the caller is told that a unit will arrive in an hour and the unit shows up at the site 8 hours later.

Examples of what should be done by police departments that seek to develop a prioitization program are listed on the top of page 94. These guidelines have been identified by local agencies that have developed their own prioritization program.

PH, p. 94 VISUAL

An example of call prioritization guidelines used as the basis for the prioritization program of the Kansas City Missouri Police Department are listed on page 95. A description of the criteria used by this Department to identify the meaning of immediate dispatch of a patrol unit is given on page 97.

Note that in the KCPD guidelines (p. 95) there are three general levels or types of responses to various categories of calls for service:

- Immediate
- Delay
- Other: Walk-In/Phone-In/Referal

The meaning of immediate is described on page 97; the meaning of delay, usually, is that the caller is told that a unit will be sent within 30-40 minutes; moreover, the dispatcher (or complaint taker) keeps track of the delay calls and if a unit is not dispatched in sufficient time to arrive within the deadline stated by the complaint taker originally, the caller is contacted again and told that due to unavoidable delays the unit will arrive within the next 30 minutes. Some guidelines suggest that in this latter instance, the call be moved up to an immediate category if possible.

PH, p. 97 VISUAL

Another example of a prioritization program is listed on page 96 from the St. Louis Missouri Metropolitan Police Department. Note that there are three levels of response to types of calls:

- I: Immediate
- II: Within 5 minutes
- III: Within 30 minutes

Note also that the St. Louis Department, at the time this particular scheme was developed and used, does not list alternatives like "walk-in", "referral" or "phone-in" nor is their time deadlines similar to those of the Kansas City Missouri Department.

Each department, obviously, must choose (a) the types or categories of calls it will directly respond to and (b) the level of response it will use. Though this may sound simplistic and obvious, it is clear that no department should assume that it can adopt the prioritization schemes or programs of another department. There are just too many variables present in the way in which a community chooses to call the police and in the way in which a department has previously responded, in the past, to requested calls for service.

For this reason, it is necessary that each department, if it chooses to begin to plan and develop its own prioritization program, must follow the steps outlined on page 94.

The net effect of the prioritization programs used in departments has been to improve the level of service and, at the same time, increase the amount of total time available to the patrol because of the decrease in the type of calls that the patrol has to answer immediately due to the prioritization program.

7. One-Person versus Two-Person Cars: Assignment Policies

PH, pg. 98

Page 98 describes the issue as it now stands of the cost implications of one-person versus two person car assignments.

A review of the findings of a recent evaluation of the effectiveness, efficiency, and safety considerations of one vs. two-person car assignments is also given on page 98.

While it seems clear that some cost savings can be developed as a result of the use of only one-person car assignments, it is also clear there are certain tradeoffs that are to be made in such a decision.

8. Benefits of a Review of the Policies Governing Police Responses to Demands for Service

In this session, we have attempted to highlight one position: A review and analysis of alternative ways of delivering police services may provide to police managers information and ideas which can help the manager identify ways of increasing the amount of time (a resource) that can be used for improving patrol services.

We have also examined, within this position, several possible areas for review and analysis: They are:

- The possible shedding of traditional police service responsibilities
- The possible ways of lessening the amount of time needed to enforce certain types of crime and the use of summons in lieu of arrest
- The possible use of volunteers and paraprofessionals as means of freeing up more time for professional sworn officers
- The possible development of a prioritization program by which a structured police response to calls for service results in the use and dispatch of units only to calls actually requiring the presence of a skilled professional sworn officer and the use of alternative responses to meet other demands for service
- The possible assignment of one-person rather than two-person cars/units to selected areas or times in order to obtain more available time for the patrol shifts so that service can be expanded rather than lessened

There are, clearly, other options that can be examined in order to enable managers to identify more time for patrol activities that are activities which require the use of professional sworn officers. However, these five seem to be the basic ones which, individually or collectively, many progressive police departmetns are

adopting. Admitedly, changes in the current manner in which this department responds to demands or calls for police services may be complex and difficult.

However, in this session, we have tried to give you some basic insight into the possibilities that are open to us. These possibilities are for our benefit since they create an opportunity for the department to ask some basic and fundamental questions about its mission, its role, and the activities of its employees within the framework of this mission and role.

The bottom line, in a sense, is that we, as a department must now begin to examine how we think and act or others will do if for us: those others are the keepers of the government finances. We, like every other department of local government, are not being asked to do more (or to do the same) with less income, rather, we are being mandated to do so.

The continuing rationale which we have adopted in this training program and which we pointed out to you in earlier sessions is one which seeks to identify how we can improve our productivity by looking at an identifiable resource--patrol time--and through the analysis of how we currently spend our time, seek for ways of improving the use of this time.

Thus far, in Session 4 (Resource Allocation Considerations) and, now, in Session 5 (Demands Policy Review) we have tried to demonstrate that there are ways of increasing the current total amount of time we as a department have actually present in the patrol force.

In the next session, we shall examine ways of redirecting some of this time in order to focus on specifcally defined problems and in order to assign professional senior officers in such a way that they spend time solving these specific crime and order related problems. The next session therefore will examine the means of identifying both problems and ways of attacking police/crime related problems. The next session is entitled: Crime Analysis As An Aid to Patrol Improvements.

We shall convene in this room begining at _____ o'clock.

SESSION 7: CRIME ANALYSIS — TRAINER'S SUMMARY

Objectives:	1. To review an operational definition of the term "crime analysis" and through the use of this definition, to describe the functions of police crime analysis; 2. To review each of the key operational components of a crime analysis system in a police department.
Time Required:	Approxmiately 50 minutes
References:	PH, pages 101 - 109; MAN, pages 115 - 148; PP, Volume I, pages 89 - 123
Method:	Lecture, handouts, visuals, small group task, and general discussions in large group
Room Arrangements:	Classroom style as in Session 6
Visuals:	As noted in Trainer's Script
Materials:	PH where noted in Trainer's Script
Sequence:	1. Introduction 2. Definition of Crime Analysis 3. Rationale for Crime Analysis 4. Basic Components of a Crime Analysis Process and Outcomes of the Process 5. Structure of Crime Analysis Process: From Informational Sources to Operational Use of Crime Analysis Products 6. Crime Analysis Products: Types of Reports 7. Example of Crime Specific Report from Crime Analysis 8. Evaluating a Crime Analysis Product and Process 9. Decisions Regarding Establishment of a Crime Analysis Unit (CAU) 10. Outcomes of CAU and CA Capabilities in an Agency 11. Small Group Task (optional)

1. INTRODUCTION — PH, p. 101; MAN, p. 115

In this session, we shall begin on page 101 of the PH. This session is entitled, "Crime Analysis" and, as noted on page 101, we will be reviewing the definition and rationale for the use of crime analysis, the basic components for the establishment of a crime analysis operation, and some thoughts on the structure, outputs, and evaluation of a crime analysis unit.

2. DEFINITION — PH, p. 103

Listed on page 103 are two separate definitions of crime analysis. Each definition is suitable for our discussions here. However, the second definition seems to be more operationally oriented in the sense that it focuses on the effects of analysis, namely, "...to permit the effective deployment of personnel and resources...(and) to adopt appropriate strategies and tactics as a result of the analysis undertaken by a crime analysis unit.

The second definition, moreover, is less focused on the issue of "predictability" and more on the issue of "identifying patterns and characteristics." This is an important distinction because not every analysis of crime will result in a prediction of the next event of crime. Rather, our concern is to identify patterns and trends as a way for improving the deployment and allocation of personnel much the same way as we identify patterns and trends in noncrime calls for service in an effort to allocate patrol cars more efficiently.

Therefore, when we discuss crime analysis in this session, you should be aware of the fact that we are talking about the following characteristics of the analysis process in a department:

1. Crime Analysis is a logical process
2. Crime Analysis collects information or data about crime incidents and criminal behavior
3. Crime Analysis seeks to identify (by a logical review of information and data)

patterns and characteristics which may be useful and important for patrol manager's in determining assignments and allocations of cars, units, personnel and resources

4. Crime Analysis documents these patterns and characteristics in such a manner that patrol manager's can understand and see the relationship between patterns and potential assignments of units and personnel

5. Crime Analysis finally produces documentation for others that describes possible tactics and suggests means for measuring or evaluating the success or failure of the tactic.

3. RATIONALE FOR FORMAL CRIME ANALYSIS — PH. p. 103

It is clear that many individuals actually perform a type of informal crime analysis--for example, a beat officer can, during shift changes and roll call, discuss, informally with members of the previous shift or his/her own supervisor significant trends or actions being done in his or her beat or area; shift commanders can discuss with one another such trends.

Sometimes these important discussions can be supported by informal conversations between patrol units and investigators working on a series of specific types of incidents.

However, too often, critical information which could be useful to both patrol and investigators about certain patterns of incidents may be lost in this informal process. Therefore, within the past five years, there has been a movement to develop a more formal process without sacrificing some of the beneftis of the informal process. Page 103 lists at least six reasons why a more formal process is desirable.

For the moment, would you review these six reasons.

Now, do you think these reasons apply currently to our own operation? What do you see as the benefits (or disadvantages) in any of these reasons?

Let's discuss these for a few minutes.

4. COMPONENTS

Having reviewed and discussed some of the benefits and rationale for the establishment of a crime analysis process, let us look at some of the more detailed parts or components of such a process.

Listed on page 104 are five basic components of the crime analysis process...actually, there are six, since we would like to separate the first component into two parts--collection and collation.

1. Data Collection
2. Data Collation
3. Data output in the form of a documented report
4. Feedback on the use of the report
5. Evaluation of strategies or tactics suggested or used as a result of the report

Each one of these parts of the process is reasonably self-evident and we need spend little time describing and detailing each part. In fact, the Manual and the Prescriptive Package which you have goes into great detail about each component and lists examples of types of documents which can be used in each of these components.

However, there are a few comments we would want to make about these components.

The data collection component refers to that part of the crime analysis process that focuses on the gathering and filing of information and data that will need to be analyzed in order to identify patterns and characteristics of crime. This gathering of information begins by reviewing the original source documents--found in most departmetns--that police practitioners fill out in the course of their duties. For example, dispatch cards which note the time when a call about a particular crime comes to the attention of the department, the place or location of the crime, and even the type (generally) of the crime; crime

reports usually prepared on-scene by the initial responding patrol unit (or, in some instances, prepared by investigative units) in which further information about a particular crime is documented--e.g., time, place, suspect possibilities, traceable property, witness information, possible MO patterns, entrance and exit information, weapons, etc; follow-up crime reports prepared by either the patrol or detective units which may document supplementary information about the particular crime; field interrogation forms or cards which may be prepared by patrol units and which may be able to be correlated with other reports of crime in order to ascertain possible linkages with the crime by time, place or suspect identification information; other reports which form the raw data bank from which crime analysis draws its information for analysis will also include stolen vehicle reports, lost property reports, arrest reports, traffic violations reports and even non-crime incident reports that may have been reported about incidents which occured near to or at approximate times of the criminal report that is being reviewed.

In short, crime analysis must begin with collecting and filing in an appropriate manner as much of the information about crime as it can obtain from the department--for it is such information that needs to be collated and analyzed in order to begin to discern trends and patterns that can be dealt with by analyst.

An example of the large amount of types of such information sources--or data collection sources--which are available to the process of crime analysis is listed on the chart on page 105 under the heading of INFORMATION SOURCES. PH., p 105

The collation component of crime analysis is merely another way of saying the organization of information needed for crime analysis. It is clear that the sources of information available to crime analysis is extensive. Merely review the list of potential information sources on page 105 again to see the extent of this potential information! How can it be collated or organized into some form of easily used filing system or information processing system?

Several observations about answers to this question.

(a) You may have to decide on how you want your basic information sources and reports to be filed for easy retrieval when you do an analysis of a particular crime problem. There are two basic options: (1) constructing a manual process of filing or (2) working with either another department or a contractor that has developed and used successfully a computer assisted collation file or program. Our comments here will only focus on a manual process since we think that at this time, it is important that you understand the actual steps that you have to go through in a manual process. Once you understand these steps, then you can discuss with other departments or others what you actually need rather than jumping immediately to a computer-assisted process. Moreover, even in a computer assisted process, such a process will only be as good as what you want it to do.

(b) Practically all crimes--whether solved or not solved--have basically similar and fundamental bits and pieces of information that can be known with some degree of accuracy: (1) time of day when the crime occurred; (2) place; (3) suspect information in some instances; (4) type of property taken in some instances; and (5) some information about MO in some instances. As you go down this list from 1-5, you will note that the "accuracy" of the information may diminish. For example, time and place can be known with more accuracy than MO since the latter piece of information is often based on a subjective judgment by the on-scene officer and may be reported very sketchy--moreover MOs are less reliable than traditionally thought because of the fact that few crimes are planned, professional acts--more often than not the heavy volume of crimes like burglary and robbery are crimes of opportunity and are performed by individuals who will not specialize in only one type of crime and thus have one identifiable MO pattern over several examples of such a crime. However, time and place information, for many reasons, can be the most useful information for crime analysis particularly when such information is collated with a specific type of crime and the aggregated information is displayed on a map. Clusters of similar crimes may emerge by time of day and place. When such clusters increase over a period of time, the inference legitimately be made that a pattern is present.

Now, to be useful, information about such clusters must be able to be quickly collated to determine (later in the analysis step) whether there are possible characteristics about these clusters that can be useful to patrol managers. For example, what relationship can be found about the time/place cluster of a set of different burglaries when corelated with information derived from FI files, suspect files, MO files, etc that show similar linkages with these time/place clusters?

Therefore, in this collation/filing step or component of crime analysis, you must establish what types of files and cross-references you would need in order to conduct an analysis. For example, as a minimum, you may need to set up a filing/collating system that will enable you to cross-reference by crime, crime report number, FI, suspect information, place, time of day, etc. Some files are in the form of simple daily updated card files (which later can be inputs into a computer system file) that list:

1. Crime type by street address
2. Crime type of time of day
3. FI information about supicious persons/events by place and time of day
4. Suspect information from arrest and parole information by place and MO
5. Crime type by victim/place of crime

the process of putting the pieces of the puzzle together. It is the process of making linkages between the various sources of information in order to make a judgment that (a) a pattern is present and (b) there seems to be sufficient information to make a judgment that we as analysis can suggest ways of intercepting or interdicting the pattern by either making an arrest, target hardening for prevention, or conducting a full scale investigation. Putting the pieces together in order to be able to make an informed judgment that specific tactics or strategies will work to deter or prevent the pattern from continuing is, of course, the heart of the process of crime analysis.

The data output or reports resulting from crime analysis are those documented reports which identify and discuss specific or selected topics about crime patterns or characteristics. Some of these reports may be as simple as daily summary bulletins or as sophisticated as crime specific overviews. Examples of the relationship between data collection-collation and analysis with the example of input-throughput-output is displayed on page 106. Note that in the output column on page 106, there are at least six typical crime analysis reports listed. Another listing of reports or outputs which are possible from the activities of crime analysis are given on page 107 under the heading Crime Analysis: Types of Reports Issued and Crime Specific Overview.

What is important to remember about either of these two lists of types of reports is that (a) they must be produced in a timely manner and (b) they must be written and expressed in a way that is useful for the patrol manager's decision-making responsibilities regarding assignment and allocation of resources.

Indeed, if the results of crime analysis--the reports--are not used, then the effect will be that crime analysis will become another paper exercise in the agency.

EVALUATION OF CRIME ANALYSIS ACTIVITIES AND PRODUCTS

In order to plan effectively for the use of the products of crime analysis, it is imperative that evaluation criteria be used prior to the development of such a unit in order to be certain that the staffing and activities of the unit be productive.

On page 107, we list four major criteria that need to be considered as part of the process of planning, staffing and supervising the activities and products of a crime analysis unit. Each of these four criteria are reasonably self-evident. For example, if the unit is unable to identify a crime cluster, pattern or trend in a reasonably short period of time, then the unit or individuals in the unit need to be reorganized or replaced. If for instance an analysis product in the form of a report on taxicab robberies states that the identifiable problem has been present for the past four months--such a time lag may be unacceptable. The turnaround time should be less.

Using the same example of taxicab robberies, if the analysis overlooks whether the cabs are of the same company and merely identifies gross numbers of cabs, then the analysis is incomplete. If the logic is flawed or incomplete and goes beyond the data presented and suggests, for example, that the butler did it, then the analyst is incompetent. And finally, if the report is sent to patrol commanders one month after the pattern has ceased to be present, then the unit, its staff, and its placement and supervision is not only flawed but the entire process is a waste of time.

Promptness of problem identification, completness of analysis, utility and logic of analysis, and quick turn-around time for dissemination of the analysis product--these are the bottom line criteria for measuring the success of a unit. They are also criteria that can be used to determine staffing for the unit. Individuals hired or assigned to the unit must be able to operate comfortably within these criteria and demands. These individuals may be either sworn or civilian since there is no guarantee that either status will produce a good analyst.

PLACEMENT OF THE UNIT AND OTHER DECISIONS

Deciding to establish and support a crime analysis unit will be determined by several factors. Page 108 lists eight such factors or considerations that will affect the decision to establish such a unit.

Such a unit will not necessarily be costly. It can be kept small at first in order to develop experience and expertise; there will be a period of time needed to develop and collate information and data, establish files, learn how to conduct analysis, trial and error experiments in displaying and disseminating information or products and learning from the feedback of others in operations how well the information is used to assist operational personnel.

The anticipated outcome of such a unit is clear. A competent unit can provide information, recommended courses of action and tactical suggestions that can aid patrol manager's in their deployment, assignments, and use of patrol resources. Specifically, such units can assist in planning for the targeted use of such resources particularly in the use of "directed patrol activities which we will discuss in our next session.

SUMMARY

The logical argument which we have been trying to develop in this workshop is as follows:

> Patrol managers can use various techniques in order to identify patrol time as a useable commodity in their departments. Techniques discussed in "resource allocations" focused on identifying uncommitted available patrol time; techniques discussed in "policy review" suggested ways of maximizing such uncommitted time, i.e., increasing the amount of time available to the patrol service. In our next session, we intend to discuss the concept of "directed patrol," i.e., the use by managers of this available time and the directions given, by managers, to the patrol service as to how available maximal time is to be spent by patrol units. THE LINK BETWEEN THE IDENTIFICATION OF PATROL TIME AND THE RE-DIRECTION OF SUCH TIME BY PATROL MANAGERS IS TO BE FOUND IN THE PROCESS OF CRIME ANALYSIS. Directed patrol as a concept and as a practice requires, therefore, that a process like crime (or other problem) analysis be done in order to aid the patrol manager in deciding under what circumstances he or she will redirect or target patrol resources.

CONCLUSION

We shall meet in this room beginning at _____ o'clock for the next session: Directed Patrol.

OPTIONAL SMALL GROUP TASK

The trainer may choose to use the task assignment for small group work which is listed on pages 109-111.

If so, please review the process for small group tasks discussed in Chapter 3 of this Handbook.

Objectives:	1. To review the concept and rationale for a directed patrol program; 2. To contrast the various types of patrol operations 3. To review four different versions of directed patrol experiments
Time Required:	Approximately one hour
References:	PH, pages 113-131; MAN, pages 149-182; PP, 89-167
Method:	Lecture, handouts, discussion
Room Arrangements:	Classroom style
Visuals:	As noted in trainer's script
Sequence:	1. Introduction 2. Preventive Patrol and Directed Patrol 3. Contrasts between Traditional, Basic and Directed Patrol 4. Directed Deterrent Patrol: New Haven 5. Community Oriented Patrol: San Diego 6. Split-Force Patrol: Wilmington 7. Directed Patrol: Kansas City, Missouri 8. Conclusion

1. INTRODUCTION	
Beginning on page 113 of the PH is the Session entitled PATROL STRATEGIES/GENERALIST ACTIVITIES.	PH 113, MAN 149 PP, chapters 4-5-6
As noted at the conclusion of our last session, this session intends to focus on how patrol managers can redirect some of the uncommitted time of the patrol service. This redirection of time and effort is in the form of proactive, managed or directed patrol programs or activities.	
(The trainer should review with the group, at this time, the ideas presented during the Overview session of this workshop concerning the difference between Preventive and Directed Patrol; these ideas are discussed at some length in Chapter 2 of this Trainer's Manual)	TRAINER'S MANUAL, Chapter 2
Page 115 lists three statements which, in a sense, summarize the focus of this session: What should be done with uncommitted time? Why should other things be done with this time? What is the impact of using this time differently on the traditional concept of "preventive patrol"?	
2. PREVENTIVE PATROL AND DIRECTED PATROL	PH, p. 116
Page 116 has a set of lines under the heading of a question: What is Preventive Patrol?	
The trainer should ask the group to list their understanding of the the term. (Some of the answers we have received from other workshops are: random riding around; sitting in a car; patrol is patrol; riding and looking; waiting for the radio to tell me what to do; poluting the air with gas fumes; I am not sure; being visible in order to deter crime; checking in with dispatch; etc., etc.)	
The trainer should list these reasons and use them as a basis for developing his own response to the question. Particularly important is the notion discussed in Chapter 2 above of the Trainer's Manual that Preventive Patrol is fundamentally a period of time used by the patrol unit doing something (waiting, riding, sitting, listening to the radio, etc.) while the unit awaits instructions (or a call)	

from the dispatcher. During this period or interval between receiving calls from the dispatcher, the unit may initiate his/her own activities--e.g., traffic stops, FI stops, etc. Or doing this interval, the unit may be performing administrative duties, e.g., completing a report or preparing to go to court or getting the car washed, etc.	
However, as noted in earlier sessions, preventive patrol is often used to describe the time spent doing something other than answering a call, performing administrative duties or conducting self-initiated acts. The term "preventive patrol" has been used to describe the "fact" that being visibly present (while waiting for a call or writing a report) in a marked car will have a deterrent effect on crime or will present to the public the image of being on-site prepared to handle any emergency or problem.	Chapter 2 and Overview Session
However, the test of whether "being visible and present" as the characteristic of "preventive patrol" is actually a fact or an assumption can be found by asking the question: How often in your own experience has your presence in a visible marked car, during preventive patrol time, either deterred crime or placed you in a situation where and when your presence actually mattered? Once a day? Twice? Once a month? Twice?	
Discuss this observation and questions with the group.	DISCUSSION
Within the past few years, several attempts have been made at changing the focus of patrol operations away from random visible presence to a more directed managed set of activities for the patrol unit during the period of uncommitted time available to the unit or patrol service.	
Page 116 summarizes, under two headings, Management Alternatives and Basic Needs for Development of a Managed Patrol Program some of the characteristics of this movement towards directed or managed patrol.	PH p. 116
Management Alternatives refers to those management actions (similar to what we described in the earlier session on the Role of the Patrol Manager) which need to be done by managers in the exercise of their responsibilities and roles in an agency.	

These thesis or argument now being developed is that the patrol manager--for a variety of reasons--now must assume direct responsibilities for the actual day by day management and direction of the patrol resoruces. Such responsibilities are translated into management decisions and actions such as those listed in the middle of page 116. No longer is it possible for the patrol officer alone in a patrol unit to determine, alone, how best to use a resource called uncommitted time.

PH, page 116

Since the movement toward a directed or managed patrol program is one in which patrol managers are to exercise a significant new set of roles, it is critical that such managers (and patrol officers) become aware of the basic needs required to be met in development of such a program.

Page 116, at the bottom, lists such requirements as a pre-condition for the successful development and implementation of a directed or managed patrol program.

PH, pg 116

Note that in this latter list of needs, that each need represents a major change in the entire operation of the patrol function--a major point in our discussion of the directed patrol concept and practice. What a directed patrol program will do--aside from changes in the role of managers--is to change much of the way in which police departments have operated in the field under the concept of preventive patrol.

Page 117, at the top, lists some general phrases which begin to describe a directed or managed patrol program.

PH, page 117

A more detailed definition or description is:

The development and implementation of a pre-planned assignment (or set of assignments) to patrol unit (s) in order to resolve either crime or community problems that have been identified as a result of analyzed information. While assigned to such activities or programs, such units are, generally, relieved from calls-for-service responsibilities for a specified period of time.

Examples of such pre-planned assignments derived from an analysis of problems or information are listed on the bottom of page 117.

PH, page 117

3. TRADITIONAL, BASIC, AND DEDICATED PATROL

PH, p. 118-119

Listed on pages 118 and 119 are statements and charts which attempt to contrast the differences between how available patrol time is used according to three different concepts of patrol operations.

(a) Traditional refers to fact that time is used according to the discretion and initiative of the patrol unit...especially time that is non-committed time;

(b) Basic generalist refers to time spent on pre-planned directed activities as determined by some form of management plan or system of assignment;

(c) Dedicated patrol refers to the fact that some amount of uncommitted time is permanently dedicated to the performance of pre-planned activities by a specialized patrol unit.

Each of these three notions have a common theme: each seeks to direct or use the amount of uncommitted time available to patrol in different ways--(a) uses the time based on the initiative of the patrol unit; (b) uses the time based on temporary, ad-hoc pre-planned activities derived from information analyzed by patrol managers; and (c) selects a portion of the available uncommitted time and assigns permanent dedicated units to perform activities that are also pre-planned. (A) is different than (b) and (c); and (b) and (c) are different from each other in only degree of time spent on pre-planned activities.

The matrix on page 119 sorts out these differences on the basis of time spent on "preventive patrol" and other "workload" factors.

The Traditional Patrol Model uses approximately 40% of available time on preventive patrol (random placement and visible presence) and the remaining 60% on responding to work defined as calls-for-service responses, administrative time spent, and personal relief time spent.

The other four models (I, II, IIA, and IIB) are variations of directed or managed patrol models. In model I (Basic Generalist), the amount of uncommitted patrol time or 40% is not spent on "preventive patrol" (random placement and visible riding) but on "managed patrol" i.e., specific pre-planned assignments are given

to patrol units based on an analysis of crime or other problems. In this model the discretion about how to use this amount of patrol time is shifted from the initiative of the patrol unit to the preplanned programming done by patrol managers who, in turn, are supported in their planning by crime or other problem analysis units in the department.

In Model II (Split-Patrol), the 40% of available time is split not only in terms of time but also in terms of patrol units or functions. In this model, half of the time and half or more (depending on analysis of resources) of the patrol units are split or divided. Dedicated patrols are given only one type of responsibilities, i.e., crime suppressant or crime investigation activities; the other percentage of time and units is assigned only to respond to all non-crime calls for service. The remaining 60% of the available time is factored into this model. We shall discuss this model in more detail in a few moments.

PH, p. 119

In Model IIA, 20% of the available uncommitted time--i.e., half of the usual 40% available--is used specifically for directed preplanned activities and the remaining time is spent in an increase on responses to calls-for-service.

Finally, in Model IIB, most of the time available to patrol is spent almost exclusively on problem solving done through pre-planned directed activities and calls-for-service responses are limited only to the most serious types of calls which actually require a bone-fide police presence and police response. Of course, in this latter instance, it is clear that alternatives to the dispatch of patrol units for many non-emergency, non-serious calls-for-service are presumed to have been developed and put in place in the agency.

4. EXAMPLES OF DIRECTED PATROL EXPERIMENTS: DIRECTED DETERRENT PATROL--NEW HAVEN, CT.

PH, p. 120

During the remainder of this session, we shall focus on and explain some of the key features of various directed patrol experiments that have been conducted in the past few years in various police departments.

Please review the details of these experiments in your Manual and in the Prescriptive Package.

MAN, p. 158-159
PP, p. 124-125

In the Directed Deterrent Patrol experiment conducted in New Haven, Conn., the basic focus or purpose of the experiment was to attempt to surpress selected targeted crimes by pre-planned instructions given to patrol units in order to enable those units to be located visibly at specific times and places (either stationary or roving) which were times and places that crime analysis units had identified as opportune times and places that these targeted crimes would probably be occurring.

Each instruction or "D-Run" as they were termed were specifically developed by a joint process of planning between crime analysis and operational units and commanders. Each D-Run was crime specific, time specific, and location specific. The tactics or steps to be followed were also specifically stated. Each D-Run was programmed by the dispatcher in the sense that each unit assigned a D-Run at a specific time was actually dispatched to perform the set of specific tactics. (Example on page 121).

PH, p. 121

Each patrol unit had received a binder which contained separate D-Runs; each D-Run was updated every 4 weeks. (An example of the planning and updating process is listed on page 122).

PH, p. 122

At the beginning of a tour for a patrol shift in an area or neighborhood in which D-Runs were to be used for that four-week period, the dispatcher would be given a listing of the times, D-Run Number, Sector, and Car Number of each unit which would, at a specific time, be assigned a D-Run. When, by the clock, the D-Run per unit was to begin, the dispatcher would notify the unit; the unit would then be free from all other responsibilities for the period of time that the D-Run was to occur. For instance, on page 121, at the bottom of the D-Run example, the time allotted is between 45-50 minutes.

D-Runs would be interrupted only when the unit witnessed an on-scene problem requiring his/her immediate attention or by the dispatcher when an emergency call-for-service could only be handled by the D-Run unit.

5. COMMUNITY ORIENTED PATROL: SAN DIEGO, CA

PH, p. 123
MAN, p. 157-159

The Community Oriented Patrol program is, by contrast to the D-Run program, totally different. Where the D-Run specifically limits discretion and initiative by patrol

units through the issuance of specific instructions as to what must be done in a specific period of time, the COP program encourages and demands initiative on the part of the patrol units by requiring them to construct specific solutions to specified problems which they, as beat officers, must identify.

In order to assist the beat officer in his/her problem identification/solution role, the department prepares and transmits to beat officers "Beat Profiles"--an explanation of such profiles is contained on page 123 of the PH. — PH, p. 123

Supporting such "Beat Profiles" are specific crime analysis reports prepared and distributed regularly which, when matched with information contained in the "Beat Profiles" provide information for the beat officers about the nature and extent of various problems in his or her area of service. Another document which is also prepared and used by beat officers is a Community Resources Manual which provides information to the officer about various types of community or public service organizations or agencies to whom the officer can refer certain types of calls and requests.

Officers are encouraged to resolve as many problems as possible at the beat level; supervisors are authorized sufficient resources and authority to assist in the resolution of such identified problems. Moreover, performance is judged on the basis of problems solved rather than on such criteria as arrests or tickets written.

The theme which runs throughout this program is that officers must use whatever time is available to them to solve crime and community problems; support services are provided by the department to make this overall task easier. This requires that officers interact frequently with the residents and businesses that are present in their beat areas; enlist the support of the community, at the beat area, in understanding the problems that are present; and, with the assistance of residents and other community resources, seek to resolve the problems that are present.

6. SPLIT-FORCE PATROL: WILMINGTON, DELAWARE — PH, p. 124

This program actually splits the patrol force into two separate but interdependent segments--a basic patrol segment which only responds to non-crime calls for service

and a structured patrol which responds to and handles crime-calls-for-service as well as directed crime-suppressant activities.

The willingness of the department to split its force was derived from a detailed workload study done by two computer assisted workload and planning analysis tools--PCAM or the Patrol Car Allocation Method and Hypercube which is a simulation of best sizes based on variables needed to patrol certain sizes of beats. (See our previous session on Resource Allocation.). — PH, Session 3

From such analysis, it was determined that the patrol play could deploy a certain percentage of cars or units in such a way (by time of day/shift and geography) that all projected incoming calls for service could be handled in a specified response time frame. It so happened that this distribution of units was <u>less</u> than the total number of units previously available to the force.

The remaining number of units were then assigned specific directed responsibilities--namely responding only to crime calls and conducting pre-planned crime suppressant activities. In effect, a certain percentage of units--by shift--were relieved from responding to non-crime calls for service and given new duties and responsibilities.

Changes required were: changes in beat structures, changes in shift beginning and end times, changes in deployment, changes in dispatch procedures, and changes in the role of patrol units.

7. DIRECTED PATROL: KANSAS CITY, MISSOURI — PH, p. 125

The most comprehensive effort to date in the planning, development and evaluation of a directed patrol program is one which was developed by the Kansas City Missouri Police Department.

On page 125 are a series of summary statements which outline some of the key aspects of this program.

Basically, five themes operate together in the <u>planning</u> of this program: (1) the need to deploy personnel on the basis of real identified workload and incoming calls; (2) the need to redirect personnel in order to counter various problems identified by crime or situational analysis developed by the department; (3) the need to design patrol

strategies and tactics which would lessen or eliminate targeted crimes; (4) the need to develop and encourage community and/or citizen involvement in the carrying out of the strategies and tactics; and (5) the need to evaluate and adjust, if need be, any or some strategies and tactics.

These five themes acted as driving forces for the development of an elaborate planning program whose product was to be a comprehensive patrol plan which would be the basic document for the conduct of the patrol service for years to come.

Guiding this process of planning was a realization--based on the results of the Kansas City Preventive Patrol Experiment of the early to mid 1970's--that there was a significant amount of patrol time which was available to the service. This amount of time was termed "uncommitted or unoligated time." The problem was how to identify and match this time with various shifts.

A computer analysis program was written entitled the "Manpower Utilization Forecast." Based on several years of data and analysis about incoming calls for service and incoming crime calls, this forecast was able to "predict" within tolerable levels, what percentage of calls would probably be coming into a precinct by time of day and day of week. Reprints of this analysis are given to shift commanders and sergeants at the beginning of each week's shift. Commanders and Sergeants are able, within limits, to determine how many units they would actually need to deploy on patrol shifts in order, generally, to be able to accommodate to the predicted workload levels. Usually, the number of units available to each shift was greater than the percentage of units usually needed to meet incoming workload. Thus, each Commander and Sergeant could re-direct percentages of cars or units to other duties aside from the routine assignment of cars to patrol an area. These "other duties" were to be performed according to a prescribed plan.

A listing of the topical headings and activities to be performed are given on pages 126-127. Each of these activities are further described on page 127.

In effect, when a Sergeant determines at the beginning of a shift that he needs only 4 units to be deployed in

accordance with the projected workload suggested by the "Manpower Utilization Forecast," he/she has the discretion and authority to redirect the other 2-4 units (beyond the already deployed) to do other things.

However, of the "other things" which these 4 units can do, the Sergeant is limited to certain activities that have been pre-planned. (See page 127)

Based on other information provided by crime analysis, the Sergeant may choose to re-direct these 4 units (not assigned to routine patrol) to conduct any or all of the four activities listed under a pre-planned program activities entitled Community Education; or he/she assign them to perform any or all activities under the headings of Community Organization, Tactical Deployment, or Case Processing.

Whatever activities (or programs) are chosen, each activity or program is performed according to a prescribed plan which lists various objectives, activities, steps, and outcomes to be accomplished. These then are written up, assignments are given, and, at the end of the shift, reports are filed with an evaluation division. This division then conducts an ongoing evaluation of the results or outcomes, matches them with crime analysis results and reports, discusses them with shift Commanders, and a new process begins again.

8. CONCLUSION

Within the past few years, a shift has taken place in patrol concepts away from random riding and visibility which is the characteristic of preventive patrol to a more specific and directed form of patrol deployment and activities. This shift has been partially encouraged by the fact that workload studies do indicate the presence of significant amounts of "uncommitted" time as available new resources for the patrol manager.

Re-directing this time by pre-planned directed activities has been the focus of this session. We have looked at the concept of directed patrol and have examined four variations or experiments that have attempted to direct the use of this block of uncommitted time.

The Manual and the Prescriptive Package describe in more detail the characteristics of these four programs called directed patrol. Our purpose in presenting them is to

point out that valid alternatives are present and have been used in other police departments.

(TRAINER):

The Optional Task Statement listed on page 129 can be used by you as a means of developing a small group discussion about the merits and problems associated with the planning, management, and development of types of directed patrol programming).

In our next session, we shall meet at _____o'clock in this room.

Objectives:

IF THE SCHEDULE YOU ARE FOLLOWING IS SIMILAR TO THE ONE USED IN THE NATIONAL LEVEL TRAINING, THEN, THIS SESSION SHOULD BE A SUMMARY AND REVIEW OF THE SESSIONS USED IN THIS DAY.

THE REVIEW SHOULD TAKE EACH OF THE OBJECTIVES LISTED IN THE TRAINER'S SUMMARY FOR EACH SESSION OF THIS DAY AND DISCUSS THEM WITH THE GROUP FOR ABOUT FIVE MINUTES.

THE SESSION SHOULD CONCLUDE WITH INSTRUCTIONS ABOUT WHEN AND WHERE TO MEET FOR THE NEXT DAY'S SESSION.

SESSION 10: PEER GROUP INFORMATION EXCHANGE SUMMARY

Objectives:	IF THIS SESSION IS USED IN YOUR LOCAL TRAINING, THEN MERELY FOLLOW THE INSTRUCTIONS LISTED ON PAGE 135 OF THE PARTICIPANT HANDBOOK. DEPENDING ON THE AUDIENCE YOU HAVE AT THIS LOCAL TRAINING, YOU MAY HAVE TO CHANGE THE TITLES OF THE SMALL GROUPS. FINALLY, PLEASE REVIEW THE INSTRUCTIONS LISTED IN CHAPTER 3 OF THIS TRAINER'S MANUAL CONCERNING THE PLANNING AND CONDUCT OF SMALL GROUP TASKS.

SESSION 11: PATROL STRATEGIES: SPECIALIZED PATROL TRAINER'S SUMMARY

Objectives:	1. To review a definition of specialized patrol and its application to the meaning of the operations of patrol; 2. To examine what types of crime, what types of staffing considerations, and what types of tactics can be carried out by a specialized patrol unit; 3. To examine the types of tactics applicable to types of crime that can be carried out by a specialized unit; 4. To review some of the management considerations that will affect the choice of opting for the development and maintenance of a specialized patrol unit.
Time Required:	Approximately one hour
Method:	Lecture, handouts, discussion, and visuals
Room Arrangements:	Classroom style
Visuals:	As noted in Trainer's Script
Sequence:	1. Introduction 2. Definition, Requirements and Purpose of Specialized Patrol 3. Types of Suppressible Crimes 4. Staffing Considerations 5. Selection of Tactical Responses 6. Specialized Patrol: Interdiction of Crimes 7. Types of Specialized Patrol 8. Maintaining Specialized Patrol Operations 9. Performance Measures 10. General Findings About Specialized Patrol 11. Outcomes to be expected

1. INTRODUCTION

PH, p. 137
MAN, p. 161 SS
PP, Volume II

In this session, which begins on page 137, we shall briefly examine some key ideas about the use and deployment of specialized patrol units.

We will consider implementation needs, examine project, families and the crime types addressed by various tactics, discuss the elements of successful programs and review some performance measures for evaluating the results and effectiveness of specialized patrol operations.

2. DEFINITION

PH, p. 139

Listed on page 139 is a definition of the term "specialized patrol." Note that in this definition we are talking about those patrol units that are formally dedicated to specific types of crime suppressant or crime related problems. Generally, these types of patrol units are specialized permanent units and may bear the name of Anti-Crime Units, Burglary Suppressant Units, Selected Enforcement Units, or similar types of specialized names.

3. REQUIREMENTS

Experience has demonstrated that many police departments will establish specialized units like the ones we will discuss because such units have been developed in other departments or because a particular problem exists which requires a specialized response or because of the possible public relations impact of such units. However, it is critical and important that the patrol manager review the reasons for establishing such a unit principally because such specialities are expensive and have an impact on the rest of the patrol service.

Therefore, on page 139 we list two categories of information about such units that need to be reviewed by the manager: (a) the requirements for establishing such a unit and (b) the purpose of such units.

PH, p. 139

The seven questions listed in the middle of page 139 should be used as a checklist prior to the establishment of such specialized units.

Let us take a few moments and review these questions.

Based on our own local experiences to date as well as our existing resources and the environment of our own organization, how would we be able to answer all of these seven questions?

DISCUSSION/Q's and

Note that in our discussion, we should keep in mind the final and ultimate purpose of the role of specialized patrol units--namely, to deter suppressible crimes and to apprehend, on site, offenders of such suppressible crimes.

Note the term "suppressible" which suggests that not every reported crime or type of crime is actually suppressible by police action.

Note also the meaning of the term "suppressible" which is given on page 140.

P. 140

Given these considerations--how would you respond to the seven questions listed on page 139?

4. STAFFING

Assuming that we can agree on the need for such a specialized units--because of our agreements about answers to the seven questions--a critical issue which we would need to address is the issue of staffing such units.

At least four major considerations are listed on page 140 regarding staffing of specialized units.

Basically these considerations are reduced to two: screening and training of potential candidates for such units is a must and, secondly, supervision of such units is more demanding than the type of supervision required for other non-specialized units.

Let us review, briefly, these four (or two basic) staffing requirements.

DISCUSSION/Q's and A's

How would you screen such candidates? What characteristics would you look for in each candidate? How would you test for such desirable characteristics or how would you know that one person has these characteristics and another did not? What would you look for in supervisors? How would you select such supervisors? How would you monitor both staff and supervisors of such units? What would you not want either to do in the performance of their duties?

These and other similar questions are important for the patrol manager in order to make effective decisions about the establishment and maintenance of such specialized units--since they, as a unit, will be performing certain activities that, in the long and short run, will affect the reputation and work of the entire department.

5. TACTICAL OPTIONS/RESPONSES

Just as there are certain questions that need to be asked about the staffing or development of such units so also there are certain questions to be asked about the choice of selected tactics to be performed by such units.

Page 141 lists twelve questions which patrol managers (and unit supervisors) need to review and ask about types of tactics which specialized units may perform in the course of their anti-crime activities.

Each question is related to each other. Thus, in discussion about these twelve interrelated questions, it is important to remember the cumulative effect that single answers can have on all these questions--for example, the last question about the objective of the tactic will, in its answer have a direct effect on the first question. If the objective is to move the type of crime away from a geographical area, then obviously, as noted in question one, one must know what are the geographical constraints that define the possible crime problem or pattern.

Keep this type of interrelationship in mind as we go through each of these twelve questions.

DISCUSSION/Q's and A's

P. 142

6. INTERDICTING CRIMES WHILE THEY OCCUR BY VICTIM REPLACEMENT

One of the more recent tactics used by specialized units has been one which replaces a victim by a sworn officer. Whether in the more elaborate tactical operations of a STING program or a more simple operation like a decoy-on-the-street operation, the principle theme is similar: replace the potential victim with a sworn officer. Page 142 lists and contrasts these principles. The Prespective Package, Volume II spends considerable time on the planning and requirements for such specialized victim-replacement operations.

7. SPECIALIZED PATROL: PROJECTS

PH, page 143

Page 143 lists three types or categories of specialized patrol projects--low visibility, high visibility and combined patrol operations.

These project families were developed as a result of a National Evaluation of specialized patrol operations and, as such, represent the typical types of anti-crime patrol operations. References to the National Evaluation studies which support this classification are contained in the Manual, pages 166-174.

The charts on pages 144-145 of the PH list various characteristics of specialized anti-crime specialized patrol tactics--both in terms of what agencies have used such tactics and what tactics relate to specific types of suppressible crime. Another listing of types of tactics by agency is listed on page 149.

PH, page 144-145

PH, page 149

8. MAINTAINING SPECIALIZED PATROL OPERATIONS

As noted earlier in our discussion of the requirements of specialized patrol operations, there is a set of issues associated with the maintenance of tactical operations once a specialized unit begins to work.

All of these issues are management oriented issues, i.e., the patrol manager needs to give his/her attention to the problems associated with supervising and maintaining tactical operations.

Page 146 lists such management considerations--the principle one of which is the role of crime analysis in the on-going monitoring and evaluation of the effectiveness of the tactic chosen by the specialized unit.

PH, page 146

Crime Analysis Units (CAU) can also perform an on-going evaluation of the manner in which the specialized unit is conducting its tactical operations in terms of two possible effects of the unit and the tactic: the deterrent and apprehension effects. Page 147 lists the measurement criteria which can be used, initially, by a CAU in its efforts to construct a suitable method for evaluating the short term and long term effectiveness of both specialized operations and selected tactics.

9. INDICATORS OF SUCCESS

In various studies conducted in several departments, it has been noted that there are several indicators which show or prove that specialized operations have been successful in deterring or interdicting types of crime.

Page 148 lists such indicators under the heading of SUCCESSFUL PROGRAMS HAVE ALLOWED FOR---and the list includes at least eight significant factors which, together, form the basis for judging that specialized programs are successful. The issue, however, is how many departments can actually meet all eight factors for success?

PH, page 148

10. GENERAL FINDINGS

In reviewing the various studies and evaluations of specialized patrol operations nationwide, it is interesting to note that, from an objective viewpoint of outside evaluators, the findings are mixed about the success of such operations.

Page 148 under the heading of GENERAL FINDINGS lists such mixed results.

11. OUTCOMES TO BE EXPECTED

In spite of the mixed evaluation of specialized patrol operations, it is our belief that clearly conceived patrol programs that direct resources at identified crime and problem patterns on a georgraphic and temporal basis can have a favorable impact upon crime occurances in the community.

WE SHALL AJOURN UNTIL _____ O'CLOCK AND AT THAT TIME RECONVENE IN THIS ROOM FOR OUR NEXT SESSION WHICH WILL EXAMINE THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE PATROL AND THE COMMUNITY.

Objectives:	1. To review some of the ways in which the patrol manager can think about the relationship between the management of the patrol force and the community it serves; 2. To review the evolution of the patrol operation and its current assessment based on recent research studies of the effectiveness of the crime-control function of patrol; 3. To identify several significant issues that will in the near future affect the relationship between the patrol function and the community it serves; 4. To examine four types of citizen/community actions that can assist the patrol in its crime-control function; 5. To summarize the future possibilities of relationships between the patrol planning division and the community.
Time Required:	Approximately one hour
Method:	Lecture, visuals, discussion
Visuals:	As noted in Trainer's Script and PH
Sequence:	1. Introduction 2. The Evolution of the Patrol Model 3. Questions About the Patrol Model: 1960s Issues 4. Recent Research Findings about Patrol Effectiveness 5. Patrol Effectiveness and Crime-Control 6. New Issues for the 1970s/1980s 7. Crime-Control Through Patrol and Community Efforts 8. Crime Prevention 9. Crime Reporting 10. Crime Investigations 11. Criminal Victims 12. Summary: Present and Future Issues

1. INTRODUCTION

PH, page 151
MAN, Chapter 6

In this session, we propose to examine several aspects of the relationship between the patrol function and the community and citizens it serves and represents.

Page 151, PH, lists the rationale of this session.

Several points deserve repeating from this rationale statement.

- The patrol manager, as we noted in an earlier session (Session 3: Role of the Manager) will, inevitably be involved in sorting out and thinking about the relationship between the police organization and the "outsiders" or community and citizens the organization serves. Thus, it is important, from the viewpoint of the role of management alone, that the manager have some ideas about the interaction between his/her organization and the community;

- As you well know, within the past five years, there has been a signficant amount of research and study as well as demonstrations about the relationship between the crime-control function of the patrol service and the community; for example, issues like crime prevention, citizen reporting of crime, the role of citizens as witnesses in investigation and the emerging issue of crime victim rights do affect the short and long-term planning and management of the patrol function in any municipal or county police department. Many of these studies have suggested that the patrol, alone, cannot resolve the crime problem alone; cooperative relationships and joint actions between the patrol and citizens or community groups can have a positive effect on crime-control;

- With these new developments, however, have come some questions for the patrol manager: How can we integrate some of these ideas into our current operations? Should we specialize in citizen relationships to

the point that specific units should be used or should our approach be on integrating some new ideas into our generalists patrol operations? Is new results suggesting that we must change our police-community relations thinking or does this new research merely repeat old conventional wisdom? Are we in a new era of police-community relations that require new thinking or are we in a period of short-term change, a spasm that will pass in the next few months or years?

In order to obtain as comprehensive an overview or response to these and other questions, we propose, in this session to summarize some of the new issues that have surfaced regarding police-community interactions.

We admit, from the outset, however, a bias, we do believe that what has merged from research and practice is a new emphasis--an emphasis on the cost-effective and community interactions. Therefore, in our discussion, we hope that you will not view our comments as if they were merely repetitious of old ideas about police-community relationships--ideas that many of you are familiar with and have practiced over the past ten years. Rather, our emphasis will be on a new emerging focus that, in its essence, will be different than that which has guided us in the past ten years.

In this session, we will begin by examining how the patrol force is organized and what specifically has emerged in the past ten years of research that has called into question this organization. We will then look at the limits of the patrol force in its attempt to control crime and focus on citizen or community efforts to control crime. Finally, we will attempt to merge these two ideas: police limits and community involvement and seek to suggest a new framework for thinking about the management of the operations of the patrol service.

2. THE EVOLUTION OF THE PATROL MODEL

PH, page 153

Page 153, PH, presents an outline of our initial remarks about how the current organization of patrol service evolved from its origins in the early 19th century until the mid-1960s. This historical overview, brief though it may be, will act as a framework

for our later discussion about the significant number of questions raised in the mid-1960s about the effectiveness of the police in controlling crime.

Modern American policing can trace its organizational roots directly to the establishment of the "New Police" a term used to describe the Metropolitan Police Service founded by Sir Robert Peel in London in 1829.

According to the principles adopted by the London Metropolitan Police Service, the organization and deployment of this service was to be done in such a manner that limited numbers of personnel would be deployed, by territory, in order to be visible and available to respond to citizen requests for either emergency service, crime-control, or other such duties as may be required (watchmen) for this service. When we sort out the principles or organization, we find that these principles still act as the basis of our own local police forces in the United States.

These principles are summarized on page 153, PH.

PH, page 153

- Personnel: refers to the fact that policing is a labor-intensive activity. It requires line and supervisory personnel and a core staff to assist the line and supervisory personnel. However, in the early 19th century, the question arose as to how many personnel and how to deploy such units or individuals? Two major constraints affected this question. One was that, in a democracy, the local government shies away from even the image of a police state. Thus, the numbers had to be such so that the image would not be one of a police officer at every street corner. The second constraint was cost. No local government--whether in the 19th or 20th century--can afford the heavy costs of tremendous numbers of personnel serving on a seven-day a week, 24 hour tour of duty.

- Territorial Assignments: refers to the principle that was adopted that seemed to solve the problem of cost constraints. Instead of deploying personnel in large

numbers, it was decided that assignment or deployment should be done based on territory to be covered. Based on population estimates, needs, etc., different areas were given different numbers of personnel.

- Visibility: refers to that principle that tried to accommodate to the issue of policing in a democracy. Rather than have an officer at every intersection, the thought was to have uniformed, visible officers in territories so as to create a sense of presence in the streets of threat territory.

- Omnipresence and Random Movement and Rapid Responses: refer to those principles that sought to create an image that more officers were actually present than were actually assigned. Instead of stationary or fixed-posts, uniformed officers were to move or patrol around their territory; further, this movement or patrolling was to be random so as to create a sense of visible, uniformed, omnipresent units. Moreover, since, one would never know when and under what circumstances, a request or an emergency aid request--random movement was an effort to place personnel in an area so that they could predictably be available to random calls.

- In-Service and Not-In-Service: refers to that principle that stated that when and if uniformed, visible, random moving officers were not responding to calls, then they were involved in a call or responding to a problem, they were seen to be "in-service"--in spite of the fact that at all times, actually, the patrol officer was actually performing a service to the community by his or her presence on patrol. However, when not-in-service, officers were expected and encouraged to use their initiative in order to learn more about their territories and the persons and organizations in their areas.

Basically, these six major principles formed the

foundation of the organization of the modern municipal police force.

When this model was introduced in the USA in the mid-19th century, it was adopted whole cloth by various east cost cities; after the Civil War, in the late 19th century, the model spread throughout the USA in its westward expansion and development of new cities and towns.

Between 1865 and 1965, the model prospered in the USA. US refinements to the model were in the form of improvements in the efficiency of the model, i.e., in the adoption of better communications systems in order to contact patrol officers in the field so as to improve the response of such units to emergencies.

The auto, radio dispatch, car locators, and the computer were all added, not as principles, but as efficiency improvements to these principles of the patrol model.

Improvements were also sought by specialization of the patrol. Detectives, forensic specialists and others were slowly added to the support staffs of the patrol.

Generally, this model--with its improvements--seemed to work well, unitl it began to be questioned by a variety of police executives, researchers and students of American policing in the mid-1960s in both England and the USA.

3. QUESTIONS ABOUT THE PATROL MODEL

Page 154, PH, is a display of a chart that can assist us in examing why questions were raised about the patrol model.

The chart seeks to correlate two separate items over a period of almost 100 years. The two items are: the crime rate (as indicated by the black unbroken line) and citizen or community reaction to the criminal justice system (as indicated by the black broken line). The figures or lines on each of these two items are based on our own personnel research on the crime rate and citizen pools and newspaper accounts of citizen reaction to crime and criminal

justice efforts in the USA.

Quite simply what the chart attempts to portray is the following:

- As the crime rate rises and falls throughout history, negative reaction to police or criminal justice effectiveness also rises and falls;
- Up until the mid-1950s this correlationship was fairly constant as measured by the gap between the two lines over time; there was a kind of healthy distance and chronic criticism by the public about the effectiveness of the police or criminal justice system in dealing with the problem of crime. However, the gap was consistent; it was there and was never seen as a major, national problem or a big gap...until the mid-1950s and particularly in the 1960s.
- Beginning sometime in the early 1960s, the gap widened; crime rates began to increase upward at an alarming rate; criticism of the criminal justice system and the police began to increase and the gap of confidence or satisfaction between the community and the police began to widen as noted in the periods between the late 1950s and even up to the present time.
- If we were to extrapolate these two lines over the next 10-15 years, we would find that there are three possible scenarios for the future each of which is still questionable--as indicated by the question marks at the end of each of the two lines on the graph:
  - Crime rates will continue to soar and citizen dissatisfaction will continue to be negative and the gap will increasingly widen;
  - Crime rates will flatten out and the gap will continue;

CONTINUED

2 OF 3

- Crime rates will drop and the gap will be closed.

However, as patrol managers, we cannot rely on extrapolations and future scenarios. Why? Beginning in 1965, many police managers began to question the very model that has been in place for several generations of policing and began to suggest that the manner in which the police had organized their patrol response to the crime rate or crime problem may have been ineffective in trying to control crime and may have contributed to lessening the effectiveness of the police in dealing with an escalating crime problem.

4. RESEARCH FINDINGS ABOUT PATROL EFFECTIVENESS

In 1965, John Bright of the English Home Office conducted a series of studies about patrol deployment--or the assignment of officers to selected areas--and tried to ascertain how territorial assignment related to control of crime. His findings suggested that if one were to double or triple the number of visible, random, units in a territory, then the effect would be to lessen the increase in the reported crime rate--up to a point. The point was time. Usually within a period of 6-8 months, in spite of a dramatic increase in numbers of personnel assigned, the crime rate began again to increase. The result was a finding that suggested that short-term gains could be expected from what became known as "saturation" patrol but long-term gains were not possible. Further, the cost of such an increase was far beyond the limited budgets of most municipalities.

At the same time, in New York City, the NYPD experimented with a similar but more controlled experiment--namely the increase in the numbers of uniformed, visible patrol officers and units--some randomly placed and others on fixed posts--in an attempt to lessen the rate of crime in one precinct. The findings are similar to those of Bright but with some new differences: displacement of crime began to occur in neighboring precincts; outside crime--auto theft, muggings, street robberies, street assaults, etc.,--did decrease in a short period of time, but "inside crime" i.e., crime not visible to the police began to increase in the same precinct.

As part of the President's Crime Commission (1963-1965), a first time study was done, by pooling organizations, in order to determine the exact amount of crime that was occurring. Through victimization studies as well as other types of public opinion pooling, it was discovered that as much as 50% of crime that was committed was actually not reported to the police. These surveys suggested that a hidden part of the total crime picture was the crime that went unreported for a variety of reasons.

One of the more important side effects of this type of study, however, was the attempt to document how much crime was occurring independently of both reported crime and crime rates. Such an effort resulted in the possibility of examining how the community or citizens actually felt about the problem of crime.

The Bright Study, the NCPD Study and criminalization surveys were then used as techniques to construct a major study of the effectiveness of patrol operations on crime rates, citizen satisfaction, deployment techniques etc. This major study was the famous Preventive Patrol Experiment conducted by the Police Foundation in the Kansas City Police Department in 1972.

In one sense, this study represents the most comprehensive analysis and evaluation of the patrol model that we discussed earlier. In another sense, because of technical questions raised about the methodology used in the study, the findings of the study have been somewhat controversial. Yet, if one places these findings within the framework of what had preceeded the Preventive Patrol Study, one should not be too surprised.

A word about the Preventive Patrol Study. Basically, it attempted to measure the effect of three different types of patrol deployment--traditional random patrol, saturation patrol and patrol by response only to a call for service; each type of deployment was done in 15 separate areas for a total of 45 separate areas. Each was measured according to the impact of the type of patrol deployment on a list of more than 30 variables including crime rates by type, response time, citizen satisfaction, number of officers, etc.

A statistical analysis of these types of deployment compared to pre- and post-experiment rates, calls, etc., was done. Generally, the findings suggested that there was no appreciable statistical difference or significance in the relationship of type of deployment--random, saturation, or specific response to calls--to the many variables that were used. Crime rates, citizen satisfaction, arrest rates, response time, etc.,--all seemed to be, statistically, similar.

The conclusion, drawn by some, was that the organization and deployment of the patrol, as it was then practiced and known, had no or little appreciable effect--it really didn't matter what the patrol did. However, this conclusion was not drawn by the authors of the study.

Rather, what was suggested was that there were possible ways to experiment with the traditional form or model without risking increases in crime rates. What was discovered was that one could take identifiable amounts of time present in the random placement model of police assignments and use that time differently.

The Preventive Patrol Study suggested that police managers need not worry about having patrol units randomly riding in a territory at all times. Much of the time could be directed to accomplishing specific, directed, activities that showed some promise in controlling or preventing crime occurrences.

The net effect of this and other similar studies was to introduce in the 1960s a vast new surge in experimentation in police management and deployment.

5. PATROL EFFECTIVENESS AND CRIME CONTROL PH, page 156

One of the effects of the questioning about the model of the patrol service was to re-examine the limits or the mission of the patrol and the police in handling the problem of crime and through such an examination, begin to sort out the role of the police as an organization in its responsibilities about crime-control.

Page 156 lists some of the ideas that have emerged from such a re-examination.

Criminologists seek to determine the WHY of criminal acts. In a sense they seek for ultimate causes either in the behavior or individuals or society that contribute to or create the conditions that result in criminal acts.

By contrast, the police, as an agency of public service, is less concerned about the ultimate causes of crime primarily because, as a public agency, they are responsible for handling the immediate problem of crime. Police policies and procedures are to be responsive to immediate problems and not to long range political or philisophical insights. Public agencies and public policies are concerned and directed at immediate issues.

Thus, the police seek to contain or lessen the problem of crime as an immediate problem. This mission of containment or lessening crime incorporates at least two interdependent goals: to minimize victimization--i.e., to lessen the probability that someone will be hurt by crime and to modify the environments in which criminal actions most probably may occur.

In order to accomplish these two goals, police agencies consciously or unconsciously focus on what we prefer to call the ecology of crime, that is, to examine crime from the perspective of its commission and not from the perspective of causality.

Listed on page 156 are several ideas relating to the analysis of the situation of specific crimes and the factors that the police are directly concerned with in an analysis of what, how, when, where and under-what circumstances a crime is committed. Through such analysis, sometimes called crime analysis, the police may be able to target their resources and deploy their personnel in ways that will direct the activities of the patrol to specific types of crime-control.

6. NEW ISSUES FOR THE 1970s/1980s

Listed on page 157 are a set of issues which we think will be important for the next decade. Review these carefully since they act as a final basis for our concluding comments on this topic.

7. CRIME-CONTROL THROUGH PATROL AND COMMUNITY EFFORTS

Using crime or situational analysis techniques, the manager of the patrol service can redirect the efforts of the patrol officer and patrol service in order to target on certain types of crime. However, it is equally important that such redirection involve citizens because much of the success in crime-control can only be achieved through citizen roles. There are at least four different types of roles played by citizens in any crime-control effort. They are: crime prevention, crime reporting, criminal investigation and the role of citizens as victims and witnesses.

Each of these four areas is examined in PH, pages 159-167. — PH, page 159-167 MAN, Chapter 6

Using the information listed on these pages, review and present this to the participants.

SUMMARY — PH, page 167

Page 167 lists, in outline form, some ideas about the future issues that will affect police-community efforts to reduce or deal with the increase in the crime problem.

Review these ideas, and compare them with information contained in the Manual, Chapter 6.

In this session, the trainer should attempt to reconstruct the entire session to date. Review the materials listed in the opening session. Using the outline provided on page 170-171, and the charts listed there, the trainer should be able to show and describe the interactions between the role of the manager, current efforts to improve the police patrol operation, new strategies to examine, and new considerations that will affect the implementation of some of the ideas listed in the MPO program. — Ph, page 170-171

SESSION 14: STRATEGY OUTLINE	TRAINER'S SUMMARY
PH, page 173 is self explanatory. The trainer should instruct the group about how to complete the forms listed on page 174-175. Time should be allotted to the participants to work together as small groups or as individuals in order to complete these forms. Completed forms can be collected and used by the agency in order to examine optional changes that can be adopted by the department as a result of this workshop.	PH, page 173

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APPENDIX

ILLUSTRATION OF VARIOUS ARRANGEMENTS

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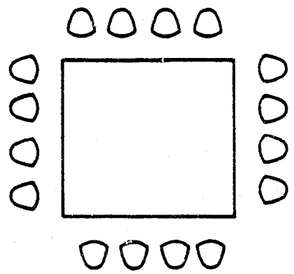
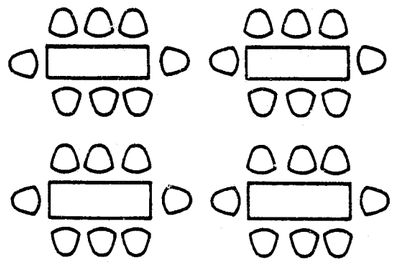
ILLUSTRATIONS OF VARIOUS MEETING ARRANGEMENTS

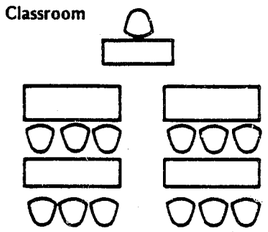
Round Table Discussion



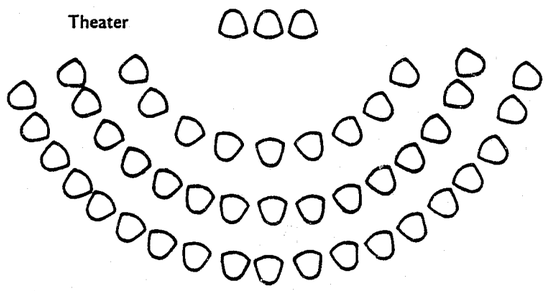
Workshop



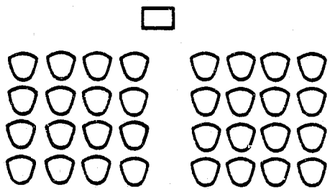
Classroom



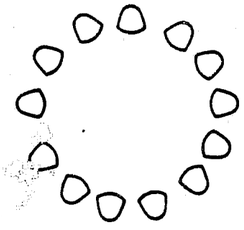
Theater



Auditorium



Informal Discussion



SYMBOLS: CHAIR DESK or TABLE FODIUM

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About the National Institute of Justice

The National Institute of Justice is a research, development, and evaluation center within the U.S. Department of Justice. Established in 1979 by the Justice System Improvement Act, NIJ builds upon the foundation laid by the former National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, the first major Federal research program on crime and justice.

Carrying out the mandate assigned by the Congress, the National Institute of Justice:

- Sponsors research and development to improve and strengthen the criminal justice system and related civil justice aspects, with a balanced program of basic and applied research.
- Evaluates the effectiveness of federally-funded justice improvement programs and identifies programs that promise to be successful if continued or repeated.
- Tests and demonstrates new and improved approaches to strengthen the justice system, and recommends actions that can be taken by Federal, State, and local governments and private organizations and individuals to achieve this goal.
- Disseminates information from research, demonstrations, evaluations, and special programs to Federal, State and local governments; and serves as an international clearinghouse of justice information.
- Trains criminal justice practitioners in research and evaluation findings, and assists the research community through fellowships and special seminars.

Authority for administering the Institute and awarding grants, contracts, and cooperative agreements is vested in the NIJ Director, assisted by a 21-member Advisory Board. The Board recommends policies and priorities and advises on peer review procedures.

NIJ is authorized to support research and experimentation dealing with the full range of criminal justice issues and related civil justice matters. A portion of its resources goes to support work on these long-range priorities:

- Correlates of crime and determinants of criminal behavior
- Violent crime and the violent offender
- Community crime prevention
- Career criminals and habitual offenders
- Utilization and deployment of police resources
- Pretrial process: consistency, fairness, and delay reduction
- Sentencing
- Rehabilitation
- Deterrence
- Performance standards and measures for criminal justice

In addition, the Institute focuses on priorities identified by the Congress, including police-minority relations, problems of victims and witnesses, and alternatives to judicial resolution of disputes.

Reports of NIJ-sponsored studies are reviewed by Institute officials and staff. The views of outside experts knowledgeable in the report's subject area are also obtained. Publication indicates that the report meets the Institute's standards of quality, but it signifies no endorsement of conclusions or recommendations.

Harry M. Bratt
Acting Director

END