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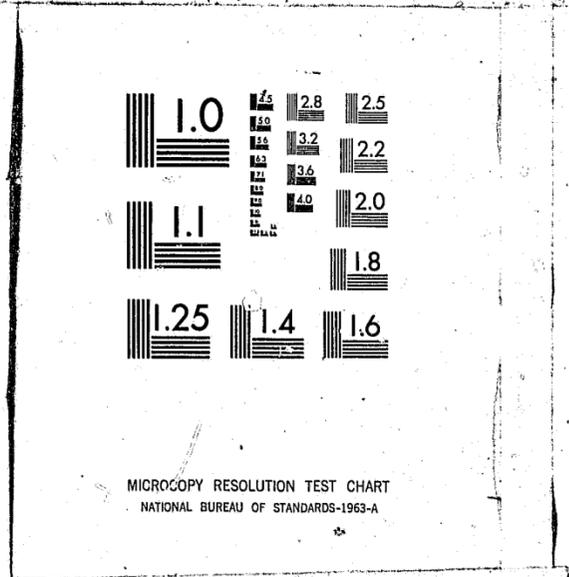
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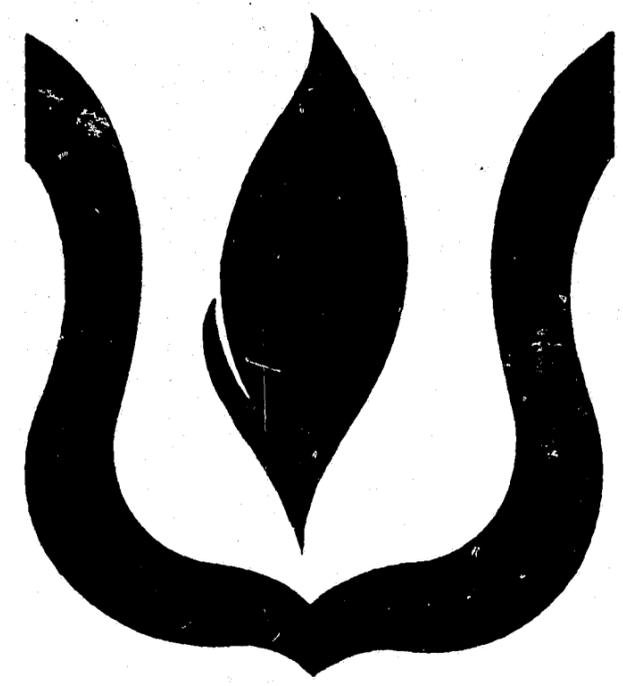
Law Enforcement and Older Persons

Revised Edition

prepared for
The Law Enforcement Assistance Administration,
U.S. Department of Justice
by
National Retired Teachers Association
American Association of Retired Persons

NCJRS

FEB 9 1981

ACQUISIT

Principal Authors

George Sunderland, project director

Mary E. Cox, project manager

Stephen R. Stiles, law enforcement analyst

FOREWORD

Recognizing that the criminal victimization of older persons is a major social issue, the National Retired Teachers Association and American Association of Retired Persons have pioneered in the field of crime prevention for the elderly.

In 1972, our Associations instituted the first national program designed to help older persons reduce their chances of being victimized, to dispel unwarranted and unrealistic fears about crime, and to foster greater cooperation between older persons and law enforcement professionals.

Conceived, developed, and implemented by Senior Program Coordinator George Sunderland, this program was designed to involve local law enforcement officials as resource persons. Despite the significant contributions made by these professionals, it was discovered that a lack of specialized training often limited their understanding and ability to deal effectively with the elderly.

For this reason, the Associations began conducting seminars in 1973 to deliver such specialized training to law enforcement trainers, administrators, and others in the criminal justice system. Our experience with hundreds of such seminars throughout the country led the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration to fund us in 1976 to develop the first formalized national course on "Law Enforcement and Older Persons."

Since that time, the course has been used regularly in many law enforcement training academies throughout the United States, introduced in 14 foreign countries, and translated into three languages.

With the support and guidance from LEAA, we are able to present this revised training course, which we believe is another major step toward dealing with the unique relationship of older persons to the criminal justice system.

Our Associations are deeply grateful for the enthusiastic support and cooperation of the law enforcement community in this effort, which is part of our continuing commitment to public service.

Cyril F. Brickfield
Executive Director
NRTA-AARP
May, 1980

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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INTRODUCTION

In 1976, the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration awarded the Associations a grant to proceed with the development of a curriculum base for training law enforcement professionals to understand and deal more effectively with older persons. An inquiry into the existing state of the art on police relations with older persons found that there was a sparsity of information and training in this subject.

We designed a training curriculum, pilot-tested the materials, and disseminated "Law Enforcement And Older Persons," the first major structured training course of its kind. The demand from training academies, criminal justice institutions, law enforcement administrators, and police practitioners far exceeded our capability to provide training assistance in this new area.

In April, 1978, LEAA awarded the Associations additional funds to continue training efforts and to refine and revise the first edition of the manual. This course is the direct outcome of those efforts.

The revised training course has been expanded as a result of research, evaluation, and the extensive experience gained from the implementation of over 30 law enforcement training seminars across the nation.

Grant staff designed a new training format to facilitate use of the curriculum, conceptualized and tested student exercises, and designed new visual aids, including overheads, tapes, and slides. These tools for trainers will further enhance the impact of training for users of this course.

From 1977 to the completion of the training effort in 1979, more than 2,000 law enforcement personnel received NRTA-AARP sponsored instruction. Further, over 700 training academies, educational institutions, police agencies, and sheriffs' departments have received the training manual.

Based on the experience gained from the broad dissemination of the ideas and concepts contained in the revised training curriculum, we anticipate that police executives, trainers and, above all, police officers, can use this manual to improve the services they provide to older persons.

Purpose of Training

The training addresses the general needs and concerns of the aging population and provides recommendations to improve police service delivery to this group.

This curriculum would not be complete if it neglected to consider the future of law enforcement relations with older persons. Thus, the first lesson, "The Graying of America," emphasizes the present and growing need for law enforcement efforts both for and with older Americans.

To provide a framework for training, Module One explores the general status of older persons and develops workable guidelines for effectively dealing with them.

Module Two analyzes the incidence of criminal victimization and its impact upon older persons, as well as effective countermeasures.

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A priority need of police practitioners is to communicate effectively with older persons. Module Three focuses on methods and techniques to enable officers to provide effective professional assistance to older victims, witnesses, and persons in need of assistance. It presents techniques of delivering programs to older audiences, along with policy guidelines for law enforcement/media relations.

Not to be forgotten is the older citizen's role in assisting law enforcement. Module Four provides the framework for the planning, implementation, and maintenance of programs involving older persons in criminal justice support roles—focusing on police, courts, and related community services. Also included are descriptions of model resource program types and actual case reports of law enforcement programs with older persons. These are presented as current examples of programs which tap the resources of older citizens in their service to the law enforcement mission.

This training curriculum does not provide all the answers. Rather, it presents the guidelines for innovative change *by the law enforcement practitioner*. It is to this individual that we address ourselves; for he must, through rational and logical planning, bring about the needed changes in his community. It is our objective that other criminal justice system professionals will join with us in this endeavor, making this book the beginning, rather than the end.

George Sunderland
NRTA-AARP
Washington, D.C.
July, 1980

MODULE ONE
AGING

Graying of America
Process of Aging
Psychology of Aging

LESSON ONE
GRAYING OF AMERICA

As a group, the older citizens of America need and deserve special law enforcement efforts to protect them and to provide them with effective services. In order to meet the victimization concerns and needs of the elderly, law enforcement professionals must understand the general attitudes, characteristics, and needs of our aging population. But even then the understanding will not be complete unless law enforcement also recognizes, and takes action to tap, the support and resources older citizens can provide to law enforcement efforts.

The graying of America is a present as well as a future reality. The future is not some far-off time.

America will encounter demographic changes over the next decade which will have important political, social, and economic implications. The impact of these changes on the role of law enforcement requires that police administrators move away from a *reactive* role and begin to anticipate future service delivery needs. Exercising leadership by hindsight is irresponsible and costly in both human and fiscal terms. Law enforcement must look ahead today to plan for effective service delivery tomorrow. This is not an impossible task to accomplish; the resources for predicting future needs are available. Futurists at work today both in government and the private sector have developed technologies to look at aging trends and to forecast alternatives for the future—these technologies enable decision-makers in business, government, and law enforcement to identify new policy options that normally are overlooked.

ATTITUDES ABOUT AGING

Attitudinal studies reveal that older Americans believe aging "happens to someone else." When older persons are asked about other older persons, they accept many of the same stereotypes held by the general public. Older people who are healthy, active, and alert assume that they are different from others in their same age bracket.

In a Louis Harris poll conducted in 1974, the elderly identified crime as their most serious personal problem.[1] This means law enforcement agencies must address the *perception of crime* problem, regardless of the *actual* victimization rates for older persons in their jurisdictions. Other problems identified such as loneliness and money needs, will also affect law enforcement service delivery methods. The simple fact that law enforcement officers interact with older persons in a wide variety of situations—as victims, witnesses, offenders, in non-crime situations (such as accidents or injuries) and in police support roles—requires a personal understanding of one's own attitudes about aging.

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How the officer views his own aging, particularly his anxieties and fears and even his denial of the aging process, can be a key factor in the success or failure of his role as a law enforcement officer who is providing services to the elderly. Identifying his feelings about significant older people throughout his life and his present feelings toward people in their later years is also important. Is he impatient? Is he empathic? Is he emotionally involved in ways that may be counterproductive, such as encouraging dependency and child-like behavior rather than independence and self-fulfillment as much as possible? Can he distinguish between the myths and realities of aging? What stereotypes does the officer hold and what values affect his work with this population? How an officer answers questions like these has a profound effect upon his ability to work effectively with older adults.

The ways in which we grow older are strongly reflected by our attitudes about aging. That, in itself, is an important reason to focus upon more positive attitudes about growing old. As we live from day to day and our experiences accumulate, we will be affected personally by the manner in which we define and adjust to old age.

WHO ARE THE ELDERLY?

Attempts to adequately identify the elderly population have generated conflict among specialists in aging. Even where benefits are afforded to older persons under Federal legislation, the age at which individuals become eligible for those benefits varies (the relevant age is 40 under the Age Discrimination and Employment Act, 60 to receive nutritional services under the Older Americans Act, 55 to receive help in making the transition from one occupation to another under the Comprehensive Employment Training Act, and 62 and/or 65 to receive Social Security and Medicare). Certain occupational groups, such as law enforcement, are forcing personnel to retire in their fifties. These conflicts in defining the elderly result because gerontologists have rejected a strictly chronological definition of old age, arguing that factors other than birthdays are more prominent in determining whether an individual is "old." Such factors include, but are not limited to, measures of physical functioning, employment status, live activities, self-perception, and the interaction of these variables with others. However, gerontologists have been working to create specialized definitions of the older population, using such terms as young-old (ages 55 to 65), middle-old (ages 65-75), and old-old (ages 75 and over).

Despite the variety of opinions on the definition of "old age," some mention needs to be made regarding the people about whom this text is written. These training materials focus upon those persons who are over 60 years of age and who are experiencing the physiological and psychological changes that are more characteristic of old age than of any other period in life. While some law enforcement agencies are using age 60 as a statistical baseline for collecting victimization data on the elderly, any definition of the elderly is useful only for the aggregate, and does not adequately reflect the heterogeneity of this group.

Just as there is no chronological age to mark the beginning of old age, there is no commonly accepted word to describe the elderly. Some terms, such as "senior citizen," seem to be less desirable than others. At present, "older persons," "older adults," and "older Americans" seem to be more acceptable to more people than terms such as "elderly" or "aged." When addressing an older person or an older group, perhaps the best approach is to ask the individual or group which terms they prefer.

The current age profile of the U.S. population reflects past fluctuations in fertility, from the national decline during the Great Depression, to the baby boom following World War II, to the sudden drop in fertility during the late 1960s (See Figure One).[2]

The demand for public services often grows (or shrinks) in proportion to the population in specific age ranges. An example is the children born after World War II, who overcrowded first the maternity wards, then the schools, then the juvenile justice institutions, and then the housing market. This large number of young adults (roughly aged 25 to 34), offers a glimpse into the future of society—they brought about an unprecedented change in the makeup of our society.

FIGURE ONE
The Distribution of the U.S. Population By Age and Sex in 1970 and 1977

Total Population in Millions
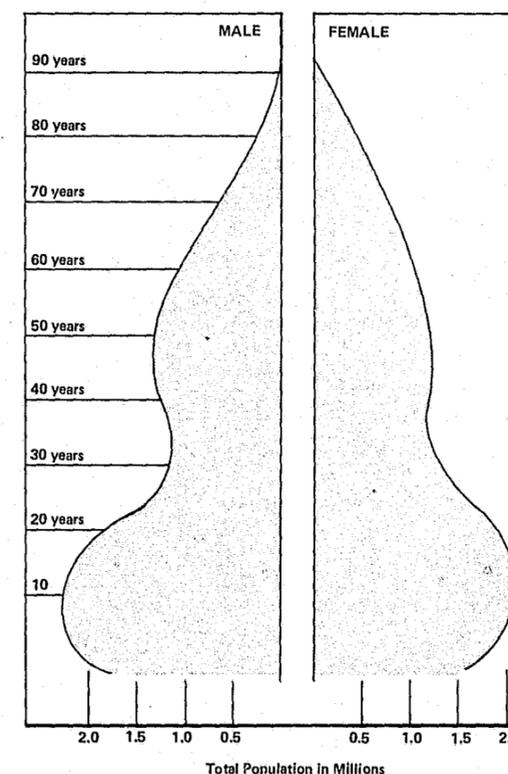
An age distribution graph for the years 1970 and 1977 shows the effects of the Great Depression (the contraction in the graph for people now in their 40s), the baby boom (the widening of the graph for people now in their 20s and early 30s), and the great fall in fertility during the 1960s (the narrowing of the graph for today's youth). Large disparities in the number of people in different age groups can severely strain many social institutions, forcing them to expand and shrink in accordance with the age group they serve. The end of the baby boom, for example, has brought closing schools, increased outlays for medical programs for the elderly, and even an easing of crime as the number of crime-prone juveniles has decreased.

SIZE AND GROWTH OF POPULATION

Law enforcement agencies soon will be faced with an increased population of older citizens, who will create increased service demands and changing victimization rates. The older population (60 years of age and older) comprises approximately 15 percent of the total population. Control of the diseases of children and young adults has most influenced the growth of the older population. As depicted in Figure Two, the older population has increased steadily throughout the first three quarters of this century. The growth of the older population as a whole is expected to continue well into the future.

FIGURE TWO

Growth of the Older Population in the Twentieth Century

MILLIONS

1900	1930	1970	2000
3.1	6.6	20.0	31.8
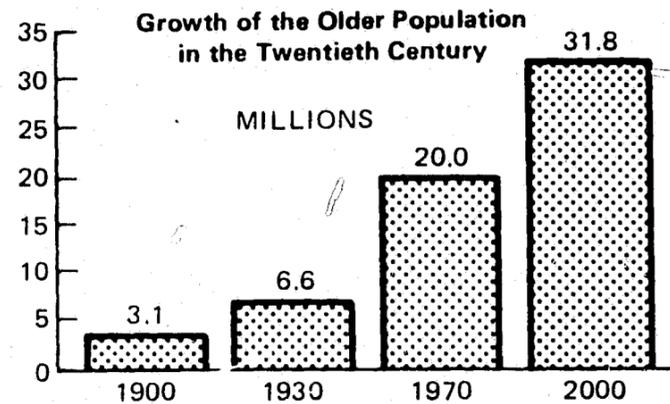
The Older Population in the Twentieth Century

Year	Number (000's)	% of Total	Men (000's)	Women (000's)	Ratio Women/Men
1900	3,080	4.1	1,555	1,525	98/100
1930	6,634	5.4	3,325	3,309	100/100
1970	19,972	9.8	8,367	11,605	139/100
1977	23,494	10.9	9,569	13,925	146/100
2000	31,822	12.2–12.9	12,717	19,105	150/100

The projected changes in age distribution for the entire U.S. population is shown in Figure Three; note the shifting bulge in the "baby boom" population segment.[3]

FIGURE THREE

Population of U.S. 1980 - 2000 By Age

35-54 years
-15 years
55+ years
15-24 years
25-34 years

1980   2000
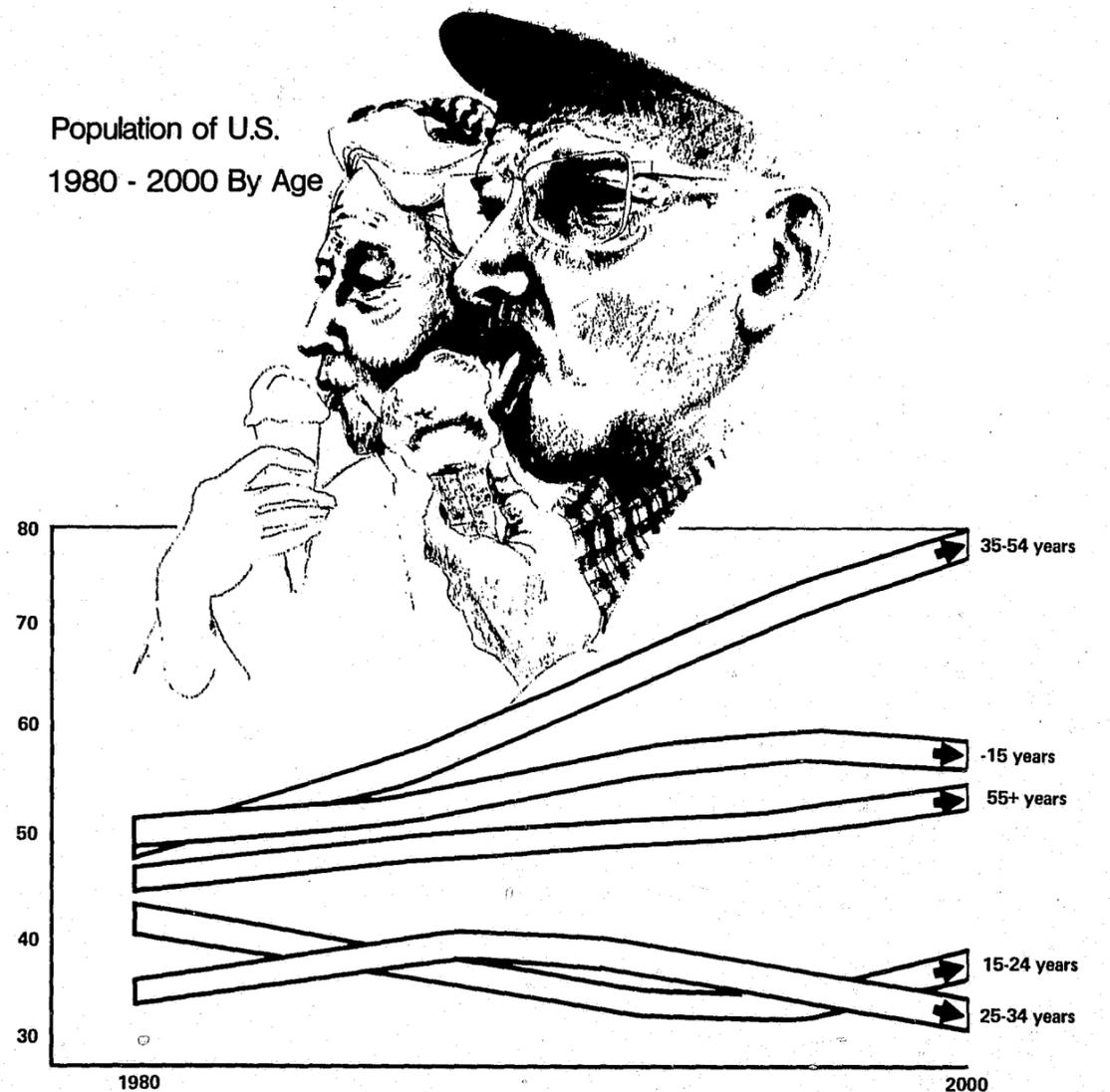
Medical technology, higher living standards, and better health care have enabled more people to reach the age of 60. Declining birthrates have resulted in an increased proportion of older persons in the population as a whole. In both absolute numbers and percentage of the total population, the 60 + segment has increased faster than any other age group.

Life expectancy *at birth* also has been increasing, from 48 years in 1900 to 72 years in 1975. However, life expectancy *at advanced age* has shown much less dramatic improvement. For example, a man who was 60 years old in 1900 could expect to live 14 more years. In the 1970s, and 60-year-old man could expect to live 17 more years. In other words, life expectancy *at advanced age* has increased only three years. Substantial increases in life expectancy have been impeded by diseases of middle age and advanced age (heart disease, cancer, and stroke), which are responsible for three fourths of all deaths of the elderly. Although the number of older persons is certain to continue to grow, futurists are projecting the extent of growth by basing the various alternatives upon current medical technologies. Scientists are pursuing three general strategies to increase both the number of people who do reach old age and the life expectancy of this group; these strategies are:

- *Disease Control*: Research into the prevention, diagnosis, and treatment of heart disease, cancer, and stroke. A medical breakthrough to reduce deaths from these diseases could result in an increase in life expectancy at advanced age. This would have the effect of extending "middle age" rather than extending "old age." The vigorous middle years would be increased and the symptoms of aging would diminish. The future 60 + population would more closely resemble our current 45 + population in terms of physical capacities and participation in the work force.

- *Control Of The Process Of Aging*: Investigations into the nature and causes of the process of aging itself, with the possibility of actually slowing the process. Control of aging is not impossible or even unlikely. Many promising areas of research are being pursued—genetics, bionics, and transplants. A prominent gerontologist, Dr. Alex Comfort, says that "control of human aging is something that's going to happen; unless we are slothful or overcome by disaster, it's probably going to happen withing our own life-times."[4] However, there is not shared perception among scientists about the basic mechanism for aging. The disease control technologies are more likely to occur in the short term than aging control. However, aging control could occur quickly and unexpectedly.

Biomedical advances in transplantation and regeneration of lost or damaged organs or parts by the body as well as artificial replacements may result in control of the process of aging. Bionics have already developed artificial corneas and lenses, artificial intestines, synthetic hip and ankle replacements and a strong, but sensitive, bionic arm. Electrical inpulses have halved the healing time of bones and researchers are looking to electrode implantation to stimulate regeneration. The regrowing of damaged organs through limited cloning may be possible someday.[5]

- *Control Of Societal Conditions Affecting Aging*. Various societal conditions and stresses accelerate the process of aging and can be modified to slow the process itself as well as enhance the quality of late life. Efforts to increase life expectancy are not sufficient if those additional years are miserable.[6]

Although medical advances against diseases and control of the aging process itself have not yet occurred, it is an indisputable fact that *even without any of these medical technologies* older persons still represent an increasingly larger proportion of the population. This group has certain needs which are only dimly recognized and served and which could be changing in the future. There will be greater demands placed upon society to meet the essential needs of the elderly—retirement security, housing, food, clothing, transportation, medical care, and delivery of services. The old-old (those over 75 years old) are the fastest increasing part of the 60 + population. With the growing number of persons in this age category, communities will have to provide comprehensive support systems. The impacts of the changing age distribution in our society in general are not yet clearly understandable, but these impacts could prove to be very important, not only to the elderly, but to society at large.

POLITICAL PARTICIPATION

Older persons are a growing political force. Although they do not necessarily constitute a unified voting bloc, there is a growing sense of political activism and concern among the elderly over issues which dramatically affect their lives. Traditionally, the elderly's voting percentages are higher than those of other age groups. As their numbers increase, the elderly will have a greater power to command the attention of public officials who will need their votes to survive.

Many older persons are members of boards of trustees and advisory councils. They serve on committees at all levels of community activity, including public housing, nursing and old-age homes, hospitals, voluntary agencies, health and welfare councils, community health centers, zoning agencies, company pension boards, pharmacies, city and state committees and commissions, and federal councils. They are often generous about contributing their time to help manage the established institutions of society.

Older persons are more likely than younger citizens to become personally involved in community political activities. Community groups and organizations, which are not by nature political, (such as bridge clubs and housing associations) often become involved in politics. In areas of limited special interest, it is easy to get a group consensus without having political labels for the group. Further, as older persons become more involved in community organizations, their knowledge of community concerns and problems grows. It is not uncommon to find that a local community group, such as a condominium association, will contact the police department when group members become concerned about the security of their neighborhood. This often happens after minor incidents, such as vandalism to cars. As influential community residents and leaders, the elderly can exert influence upon community attitudes toward the police department, attitudes that are positive/supportive or negative/hostile. It is in the best interests of the police department to enlist the support of the community's older leaders.

Older persons also take a leadership role in society from a national perspective and have begun, in recent years, to develop more aggressive postures toward the Congress and State legislatures, particularly when these governmental bodies are proposing statutory changes which may have a negative impact upon the welfare of the elderly. For example, there are now many major national organizations which either represent *exclusively* the needs of the elderly or have large programs for the elderly and/or for the professionals who work with them. These organizations include:[7]

- American Association of Homes for the Aging
- American Geriatrics Society
- American Health Care Association
- American Home Economics Association
- American Medical Association
- American Nurses Association
- American Society for Geriatric Dentistry
- Association for Gerontology in Higher Education
- Family Service Association of America
- Gerontological Society
- International Center for Social Gerontology
- International Federation on Ageing
- National Association of Area Agencies on Aging
- National Association of Counties Research Foundation
- National Association of State Units on Aging
- National Association of Title VII Project Directors
- National Council on the Aging
- National Geriatrics Society
- National Senior Citizens Law Center
- The Urban Elderly Coalition
- U.S. Conference of Mayors

In addition, the following groups represent the interests of substantial numbers of older Americans:[8]

- National Retired Teachers Association and the American Association of Retired Persons (over 12 million members).

- National Council of Senior Citizens (nearly 4 million members).

- National Association of Retired Federal Employees (over 300,000 members).

- Gray Panthers (about 8,000 members).

The older person's voice is being heard at the federal, state, and local levels of government. In recent years, a large number of governmental and nongovernmental programs have been promoted and financed on behalf of older citizens. By knowing more about the elderly and the difficulties and changes they face, law enforcement can come to grips with their problems and provide more effective service delivery.

EDUCATION

The elderly today have completed fewer years of school than the general population. This was due to less emphasis upon schooling and more limited opportunities for higher education when the current older population was of school and college age. One in every eight members of the older age group is functionally illiterate (less than five years of schooling).[9] The rural elderly usually have less schooling than the urban elderly.

On the more positive side, however, the median years of education for those over age 60 are rising steadily. The future older population will have more formal education.

ECONOMIC STATUS

The economic situation of an older person involves income, participation in the labor force, and the effects of retirement.

Most older people have the financial resources to be self-sufficient, but very large numbers of older persons find themselves with lower incomes and assets than younger persons. The average income of the older family is approximately half of the income of the average younger family, while the elderly spend *larger* amounts of money on housing, food, and medical care than younger persons.[10]

Since many older persons live on fixed, reduced incomes, they have an increased need for community support services and police assistance. The only widely held asset among older persons is a home; as homeowners they are vulnerable to such criminals as con artists, vandals, and burglars.

The amount of older men in the labor force has been decreasing steadily. Two out of three men between the ages of 60 and 64 work. However, at ages 70 and over, only about one out of six men are working. Conversely, the worker proportion for older women is fairly steady—one out of 12 women aged 65 and over work.[11] For financial reasons or for their own peace of mind, many older persons cannot afford to be out of work for very long.

Many myths about older workers have been addressed by recent research studies in business and industry. These studies have found that older persons maintain high levels of productivity, low accident rates, low absenteeism, low job turn-over rates, and have fewer difficulties in finding or keeping jobs.

The elderly of the future will have worked in higher-paying occupations and in more than one job type or career. They will have greater incomes and other financial resources. A higher proportion of older women will have participated in the labor force and will have their own retirement benefits.

Retirement, which usually reduces income by one-half or two-thirds may result in poverty.[12] The proportion of older persons living below the poverty level is much higher for those who live alone than for those living with families. Many poor older persons are widows who found that their Social Security or retirement benefits ended when their husbands died or that their savings were simply not sufficient to withstand the ravages of inflation. The limited and reduced incomes of the elderly will mean that many older crime victims will experience a relatively more severe economic loss when their money is stolen from them. A pursesnatching or burglary may result in the inability of the older victim to absorb or recuperate from the loss.

Participation In The Work Force

Changes in the retirement age will cause fundamental changes in the economy and in the way older persons live and view themselves. Recent legislation eliminated mandatory retirement for federal government employees and raised the mandatory retirement age to 70 in the private sector. As more aging people continue to work longer, it is anticipated that there will be an accompanying broader base of support for the Social Security and private pension systems. Although this may help to ease the burden upon workers who are contributing to the support of those who are retired, the increased size of the labor force will have significant effects upon society. There will be increased productivity and socialization for older persons.

However, there may be a problem providing jobs for all who wish to work. Providing enough jobs will require various innovations in working arrangements such as shared work, part-time work, a shortened work week, and serial careers.[13]

Furthermore, with changes in the nature of work because of such factors as automation and the increased participation of women in the labor force, there may be more competition for fewer jobs. If older persons continue to work longer years, this will have a direct effect upon the availability of jobs and the opportunities for promotion.

Studies have documented that many retired persons would rather be working. For many, forced retirement shortens life expectancy and has negative effects on health. These issues directly affect law enforcement and require decision-makers to develop policies regarding retirement and alternative working arrangements for older law enforcement professionals. In addition, because of shrinking budgets which lead to decreases in personnel, law enforcement administrators will need to augment their service delivery capabilities by recruiting and training para-professionals and volunteers to perform some of the tasks now carried out by fulltime civilian and sworn personnel.

RESIDENCE AND MOBILITY

The geographical distribution of the elderly population shows that every community will have older residents. However, almost half of the older population lives in seven states: California, New York, Florida, Illinois, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Texas. Some areas have proportionately more older persons than other areas and have different demographic trends. The chart (Figure Four) shows the proportion of each state's elderly residents in relation to the total state population.[14]

Compared to younger persons, the elderly are much less likely to move. Yet, although relatively few older individuals change their residence, there are certain regions of the country which the elderly are mobile *to* and *from*. Older persons move to retirement states, such as Florida, Arizona, Nevada, and New Mexico. They generally move from the Northeast and the Midwest.

The largest number of older persons live in urban areas—most of them live in central cities and the remainder reside in the urban fringe. Of those elderly persons who live in non-urban areas, most live in small rural towns (1,000 to 2,500 inhabitants) rather than on farms. Older persons are slightly more prevalent in rural areas than are younger people.[15]

FIGURE FOUR

Proportion of Population 65+ Years Old: 1977

- ■ 12.5% or more
- ▨ 11.5% to 12.4%
- ▥ 10.5% to 11.4%
- ▦ 9.5% to 10.4%
- □ Less than 9.5%

U.S.: 10.9%
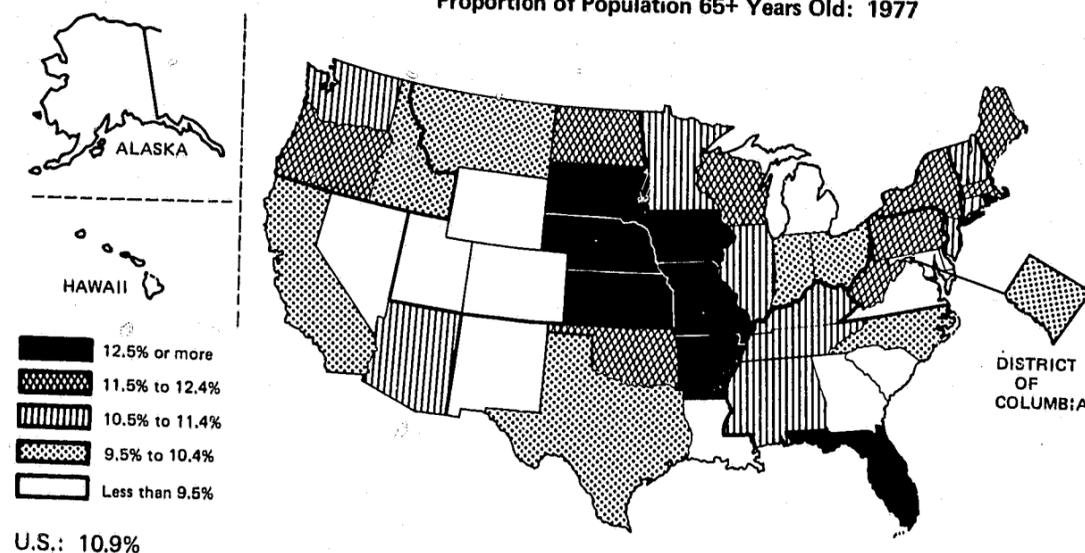
Older women are more prevalent among the urban aged. They tend to be widows while older rural women tend to be wives.

The rural elderly are more likely to be younger, poorer, and to suffer more interference with mobility than the urban elderly.

Most older persons in future years probably will reside in urban areas, but will not be as concentrated in the central cities as they are today.

MARITAL STATUS AND LIVING ARRANGEMENTS

Most older men are married and live with their wives. Few live alone. Conversely, older women are much more likely to be widowed than married and a substantial number of them live alone.

Several factors explain the higher proportion of widows among older women. The principal one is the sizeable gap in life expectancy—which is about four years shorter for older men as compared to older women.[16] A shorter life expectancy coupled with the fact that wives are often younger than their husbands will mean that most married women outlive their husbands, usually by many years.

A second contributing factor to the higher proportion of older widows is the higher remarriage rate of older widowers. The higher remarriage rate is a result of social norms supporting the marriage of older men to younger women (and discouraging younger male-older female marriages), and the fact that women outnumber men, a gap which increases with age.

If present trends continue, the differences in the ratio of men to women will continue to grow. However, some futurists predict that as more women enter traditional male occupations, their life expectancy might more closely resemble that of males.

Contrary to a prevailing stereotype, most older Americans live in normal communities and not in institutions. The most common living arrangement is the two-member family (husband and wife).

Only five percent of older people live in institutions. This percentage has been rising as the old-old (those over 75 years old) population increases. The majority of those persons who are institutionalized live in nursing homes and not mental institutions. The majority of nursing home residents are older white, widowed women.[17]

Most older persons live in a family setting. However, this proportion decreases with advancing age as more of the elderly live alone or with someone other than their spouse (son, daughter, other relative, or non-relative). The number of older persons who live with their children has decreased in recent years—the current trend is for older persons to live alone and maintain their own homes, resulting in greater independence as well as greater isolation.

New living arrangements will probably develop, such as the multi-adult household. This household of the future is composed of a number of adults, often unrelated to each other by blood or marriage, who live together as a group. Today, however, the vast majority of older persons live in the community where they were employed and are dependent upon the same community services as the general population. YMCAs, churches, service clubs, the police and fire departments, bus and cab companies, electric companies, and all the other service agencies in the community have older people as clients or customers, if not as employees.

The information presented above deals with the national picture. This is very important as a backdrop against which to view the basic characteristics of older adults at the city and/or county level. Law enforcement agencies need to identify the older population in their own jurisdiction and anticipate demographic trends and their effects upon service needs. Police planners must address the size and growth of the older population and anticipate interstate migration rates of older persons to their areas.

Specifically, each law enforcement agency will need to collect and interpret data on the older population in its own jurisdiction. The older population should be broken down by age categories and identified by locale. Socio-economic descriptions of this population should be collected. This information is readily available. For example, the following agencies can provide data on aging:[18]

1. Any library serving as a repository of U.S. Government documents. Most libraries will have an annual census report. Two valuable references are the *Statistical Abstracts of the United States* and U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Special Labor Reports.*

2. U.S. Bureau of the Census.

3. U.S. Administration on Aging.

4. State commissions or offices on aging.

5. Local area agencies on aging.

6. Most textbooks in social gerontology.

7. Local or state health departments.

8. City or county planning departments.

9. Local health planning agencies.

10. Local council of governments.

11. University departments of planning or urban studies.

12. Voter registration records.

13. County vital statistics office.

14. University urban research centers.

Once the information is collected, the police executive can apply this knowledge to various departmental operations, such as crime analysis, crime prevention programming, and departmental policies for handling older victims, witnesses, or offenders.

MINORITY ELDERLY

It is important for law enforcement officers to understand the unique cultural differences of elderly minorities and become sensitive to the compounded victimization difficulties an older minority person may experience. Three minority groups are described below, although other groups may also warrant particular attention. Depending upon the geographical location or the composition of the community, the officer may want to select other groups for study.

Older Black Americans

The number of black elderly has steadily increased during this century and has grown rapidly in the past two years. However, their projected life expectancy is shorter than for older whites. Older blacks are geographically distributed in a pattern similar to that of the total black population. The largest concentrations are found in the southern states. Most older blacks live in central city areas. About one-fourth live in rural areas. There is a higher number of older black women who are widowed and alone, since black women tend to out-live black men. Three and one-half times more older black than older whites live in poverty.

The black elderly are more likely to suffer from chronic illnesses and are less likely to seek professional medical care than are older whites.

One major difference between the composition of elderly black and white families is the increased likelihood that the older black family will have dependent children living with them. The majority of these children are grandchildren or children of other relatives. Consequently, child-rearing responsibilities are still widely prevalent among older blacks.[19]

Older Hispanic Americans

Hispanic Americans include individuals whose background is Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Central or South American, or other Spanish origin. The three largest subgroups within this population are Mexican-Americans, Puerto Ricans, and Cubans.

Most Hispanic Americans live in the five southwestern states of Arizona, California, Colorado, New Mexico, and Texas. Elderly Hispanic Americans follow a similar pattern of concentration in these five states and in New York and Florida.

Hispanic families generally live in metropolitan areas. Like the aged population in general, most older Hispanic Americans are also urban dwellers. As with most other groups, older Hispanic males are likely to be married while older females are not. Many older Hispanics suffer from a limited command of the English language. Like elderly Italian-Americans and Polish-Americans, many older Hispanics gravitated toward ethnic enclaves within the cities upon their arrival in the United States—they never had to learn English in order to survive.[20]

Older Asian Americans

The Asian American population of the United States is composed primarily of Japanese, Chinese, Filipinos, Koreans and Samoans, although there is a significantly large Vietnamese and Cambodian population in some urban areas. During much of this century, immigration quotas on persons from outside Europe or the Western Hemisphere greatly restricted the entry of Asians into this country. However, since the end of World War II, changes in the immigration laws have allowed a gradually increasing number of Asians to enter, and their population has grown markedly. The Japanese are the largest subgroup, the Chinese the second largest, and the Filipino, the third largest. Older Asian Americans live primarily in California and Hawaii. Statistics on most groups of Asian Americans generally are believed to be inaccurate because of the large number of people not reported due to their illegal immigrant status.

The elderly Chinese Americans fall mainly into two different groups—those who came to this country in late childhood as laborers and those who are recently arrived immigrants. Chinese and Filipino elderly males outnumber females by as much as four to one. Asian Americans are concentrated in urban areas and one out of every five elderly Asian AMericans is single.[21]

A pervasive myth about Asian Americans is that they do not desire or need aid to care for their elderly members. In reality, this is not the case. Some Asian American elderly have problems that are more intense and complex than the problems of the general aged population. Their suicide rate is three times higher than the national average. Many have no source of income since they were employed in occupations not covered by Social Security or private pensions. Language problems deny them the knowledge of how to obtain benefits and support. Even nutrition programs for the elderly have failed to include the special dietary and cultural preferences of the elderly Asian-

American. For example, the food stamp program prohibited elderly Asians from purchasing ethnic foods with their stamps. Such insensitivity to cultural preferences may act as a deterrent in providing services to those aged Asian Americans who require community support. These same problems surface among other ethnic groups.

Providing For Service Delivery

The minority elderly suffer many of the same problems as the general older population, although sometimes more acutely. Moreover, minority elderly have characteristics aside from their lower socioeconomic status which make them unique. Minority elderly groups are also affected by historical and cultural differences, communication and language barriers, differences in physical health, and ineligibility for various services. Because of poor health, many minority elderly do not reach their 60th birthday, and may experience "old age" at a younger chronological age.

Minority groups have very low rates of institutionalization for their elderly. By being concentrated in Chinatowns, barrios, and ghettos, they have greater fears, experience more crime, and are often unwilling to bring their problems to law enforcement agencies.

Law enforcement agencies need to identify elderly minority residents, contact community leaders, and establish lines of communication through support systems in the minority community. Large numbers of minority elderly are churchgoers and the police can work with the religious leaders to identify the law enforcement service needs of their congregations. Further, bilingual resources need to be tapped to enhance mutual trust and crime reporting. Community programs are essential to understand and meet the unique needs of minority older persons.

Any programs which are developed by law enforcement agencies must be responsive to the backgrounds, values, lifestyles, and concerns of the elderly minority groups in the community. The following organizations represent the needs of minority elderly groups and can direct law enforcement officers to the proper resources within their own communities:[22]

- National Center on Black Aged
  1424 K Street, N.W., Suite 500
  Washington, D.C. 20005
  Phone: (202) 637-8400

- National Indian Council on Aging
  P.O. Box 2088
  Albuquerque, New Mexico 87103
  Phone: (505) 766-2276

- National Association for Spanish Speaking Elderly
  1801 K Street, N.W., Suite 1021
  Washington, D.C. 20006

- Asian-American Mental Health Research Center
  Ad Hoc Task Force on Aging
  1640 W. Roosevelt Road
  Chicago, Illinois 60608

MENTAL AND PHYSICAL STATUS

Humans develop and adjust throughout all stages of their lives. However, older people are subjected to more than their fair share of life's challenges and stresses, which threaten their sense of well-being.

One of the most common stresses for older people as a whole is the need to adjust to losses; often, these losses follow one right after the other, with no "breathing space" in between. Although people of all ages experience losses, the losses in later life become particularly difficult to handle when they are experienced simultaneously or in rapid succession. An older individual may be forced to adjust to a loss of work, income, status, choice, valued roles, social contacts, participation in society, home, physical health, mobility, spouse, loved ones, and friends. Any of these losses experienced individually are difficult to deal with; encountered in multiples as they frequently are, they stretch a person's ability to adapt to the limits of emotional and physical endurance. For older persons experiencing multiple losses, the normal difficulties of daily living are compounded.

Although later life is a period of potentially stressful transitions with multiple losses, this period also is accompanied by a series of gains. Over the life span, individuals display both change and stability—losses are accompanied by retentions and gains. Changes, whether gains or losses, will differ in their onset. Some losses and other changes with age may be reversible. Some are immediately evident, such as baldness. Other changes are unknown or unnoticed, becoming evident only as a cumulative effect, sometimes reffered to as a "sleeper effect."

Each person will experience losses, retentions, and gains in varying degrees. These may include:[23]

Potential Losses

- Health and strength
- Hearing and vision
- Appearance and body image
- Reaction time
- Muscular dexterity
- Employment
- Income
- Independence, identity
- Sense of usefulness
- Time structure
- Social status
- Parents, spouse
- Children, friends
- Involvement

Retentions

- Knowledge
- Old learning
- Long-term memory
- Immediate memory
- Work productivity
- Personality traits
- Adaptability
- Creativity
- Sexuality
- Social awareness
- Nurturance
- Culture
- Coping mechanisms
- Sense of well-being

Potential Gains

- Maturity, experience
- Frustration tolerance
- Cautiousness
- Accuracy
- Need for achievement
- Responsibility, reliability
- Steady work habits
- Work morale, loyalty
- Less supervision required
- Fewer job accidents
- Lower absenteeism
- Lower job turnover rate
- Higher job satisfaction
- More free time

Some of these items may interact with one another. Reduced reaction time and muscular dexterity may, for example, produce cautiousness and increased accuracy in performance. Many changes may cause discomfort, anxiety, or stress. In the elderly, this is accompanied by the decreased physical capacity to respond.

Interplay between physical and mental health is significant: older adults experience numerous physical changes that require important adjustments in their physical and mental health processes. From the age of 60 on, individuals become more vulnerable to stress, disease, and the complications of the aging process. Older adults are more likely than younger adults to have multiple health problems or dramatic changes in their health status; they also are more predisposed to the development of mental manifestations of their physical problems. Although older adults need an increasing amount of time to recover from physical and mental stress, most older persons' lives are characterized by good mental health.

Even though older people identify health concerns as the second most serious personal problem (fear of crime ranks first), most members of the older population have accommodated themselves to health difficulties and they function with—or in spite of—whatever limitations are imposed. A decline in health may results in limitations in one's activities and considerable cost in time and money.

There is a dual nature to the health of the elderly. The objective reality indicates declining health, eventually culminating in death. However, the subjective reality as perceived by large numbers of older persons is: "Oh, yes, I do have problems—mild diabetes, 20 percent loss of hearing, one moderate coronary behind me, some arthritis—but I'm really fine."[24]

The lives of the majority of older Americans are affected daily by illnesses or impairments because chronic health problems increase sharply with advancing age. Heart disease, hypertension, diabetes, and arthritis—four of the major chronic diseases—occur more frequently as aging progresses. A principal consequence of these chronic health problems is an enforced limitation or total prevention of normal activities. About 40 percent of the elderly must limit their activities (including the ability to work, to keep house, and to participate in recreational or civic pursuits) because of chronic health conditions.[25]

Older people also experience a large number of acute conditions involving the restriction of activities or the need to seek medical attention. Older individuals average at least one such episode each year. The most common acute conditions are respiratory diseases and injuries to the skeletal structure, such as broken bones.

Health care is expensive. The older person's annual health bill is about 300 percent higher than a younger person's bill.[26] The health care costs paid by older persons today are higher than they were before the Medicare and Medicaid programs were established.

The mental and physical status of the elderly depends upon their ability to function independently and their reliance upon personal suport from spouses, children, close friends, and neighbors. In the absence of personal support, the community has the responsibility to provide basic services for older persons in crucial areas, such as income maintenance, health, and transportation.

Sometimes, an elderly person's personal support system will require community intervention. One important problem now identified involves cases of abuse of the elderly. This concern requires attention from law enforcement agencies.

ABUSE OF THE ELDERLY

There is increasing evidence that a number of middle-aged children (and older spouses) are physically and psychologically abusing their aging parents (or spouse) in a manner analogous to child abuse. This has been referred to as "granny-bashing" or "gram-slamming." It is probable that these situations will increase as greater numbers of parents live into old age and require care from relatives.

The minority of cases *reported* to police and social service agencies involve both physical and psychological abuse. The physical abuse does not necessarily involve severe beatings, but includes shoves, slams, or shakings which are quite harmful to older persons. Physical abuse also occurs in the inappropriate administration of drugs by family members, who keep the older person confused and tranquilized. Other forms of abuse include theft or misuse of the older person's money or property, forced departure from the family home, forced entry into a nursing home, or neglecting to meet the physical and emotional needs of the elderly person.

Elderly persons' abuse situations resemble cases of child abuse in that both groups are often dependent on the abusing relative for basic survival needs. Both abuse groups reside in a family setting, and both groups are sources of stress to the relative who is committing the abuse. This stress involves financial, physical, psychological, social, and emotional pressures. Housing and intra-family relationships are also sources of conflict.

There are two types of legal interventions available: to institutionalize the abused older person or punish the abuser. It does not seem appropriate to punish the victim by depriving him of the rights and benefits of living at home; however, in certain cases, removal may be the best solution.

Various professionals, such as social workers, gerontologists, nurses, and law enforcement practitioners, believe that the problem of abused elderly is very widespread and growing. Since there are currently no statistics to document the scope of abuse, police officers will need to make special efforts to identify the existence of the problem in their own communitites and take the appropriate action.

COMMUNITY SUPPORT SERVICES

Successful community support systems have to be measured in human terms—lives saved, suffering and disability reduced, productivity enhanced, and something called the "quality of life" made more rewarding.

Whether the older person lives in an urban or rural area, daily living requirements present difficulties for him. These problems include transportation; crises in shopping; visiting friends/relatives; and getting to medical, social, cultural, and entertainment facilities.

Each community needs to provide the following types of support services:

● Medical Care:

> Physician and/or geriatric nurse practitioner;
> Visiting nurse services;
> Homemaker—home health services;
> Physical, occupational, and speech therapy;
> Dental care; and
> Ambulatory health care.

- Housing Alternatives:

    Safe and affordable housing;
    Age-mixing or age-segregation;
    Retirement communities;
    Mobile home parks;
    Boarding houses; and
    Congregate housing.

- Communications and Transportation Assistance:

    Telephone reassurance; and
    Escorts.

- Financial Assistance:

    Legal aid and counseling; and
    Pre- and post-retirement counseling.

- Nutrition Programs:

    Meals-on-Wheels; and
    Nutrition counseling.

- Social Programs:

    Community centers;
    Volunteer opportunities; and
    Paid employment opportunities.

The growth of the older population will have an impact upon most communities—the growing demands and concerns of older persons will increase each community's responsibilities and require the delivery of more services. The tax resource base and fiscal allocations will be directed toward the delivery of more services. There will be an impact on economics, requiring that community support constituents; as a result, there will be an impact on economics, requiring that community support constituents put as much money into *direct* services and as little into administrative overhead as is possible. A particularly difficult issue will be to establish the extent of outreach programs to get to older persons who do not actively seek services. Obviously, it is important to reach those persons who do not have access to information sources. Older persons may be isolated from newspapers, from informed peers, and from social agencies and health facilities. At the same time, it is counter-productive to manipulate the elderly into accepting services that they don't particularly want.

Therefore, to meet the continuum of needs of the elderly— ranging from the very demanding to the undemanding—major policy issues must be carefully assessed and resolved.

TRENDS IN VICTIMIZATION

National surveys show that the elderly are not necessarily victimized by more crime than the rest of the population. However, there are *certain crime types*—robbery, purse snatching, fraud and bunco, burglary, and vandalism—which are more frequently committed against older persons than against younger age groups. Other crimes in which older persons are not frequent victims now—assault, auto theft, murder, and rape—may become crime problems in future years for this age group. Overall victimization rates, trends, and tendencies will shift with the growth of the older population and changing demographics. In the communitites which experience dramatic changes in the size and composition of their older populations, law enforcement agencies will need to clearly identify the crime problems, accurately assess the causes and effects of the victimization of the elderly, and be capable of confronting the problem.

The causes and effects of the victimization of the elderly are compounded by the general attitudes, characteristics, and needs of the aging population. Many of these attributes also increase the elderly person's vulnerability to crime. Five key factors in understanding the victimization of the elderly are described below:

1. *Economic.* The high incidence of reduced income among the elderly underlies their needs and problems—present and future. Any loss of economic resources has a greater impact when the economic status of the victim is low. The future elderly, who will have worked in higher-paying occupations and will have greater retirement benefits and other financial resources, still may not be able to keep up with inflation and higher costs of living.

2. *Environmental.* The high concentrations today of elderly residents in central cities and the greater likelihood that older persons will live in high crime neighborhoods puts them in close proximity to the groups most likely to victimize them. However, this trend is not likely to continue in the future for two reasons. First, the future older population will be urbanized, but not as concentrated in the central city; they will reside in the suburbs (but, if the suburbs become high crime areas and the same situation develops, then the problem will continue). Second, the offender profiles for the typical perpetrators of crimes against the elderly are mainly young opportunists. There will probably not be as many juveniles to commit crimes in the future because of declining birth rates.

3. *Situational.* About one-third of all older persons live alone and the current trend is for more elderly persons to maintain independent households. In addition to being more vulnerable to crime and repeated victimization, older persons who live alone lack many of the social supports which can help them overcome the consequences of the victimization experience. The need for community support systems and increased police service delivery is likely to increase in the future if even more older persons choose to live alone.

4. *Physical.* Physical aspects of aging increase the vulnerability of the elderly to crime. Older persons experience sensory perception changes and may not perceive threatening situations quickly enough to avoid them. Reduced physical strength and longer reaction times help explain why older persons may be reluctant to defend themselves or be unable to escape. Potential offenders are aware of these facts and readily target older persons as victims. A more vigorous older population will probably reduce vulnerability and victimization in this respect.

5. *Psychological.* The elderly person's fear of criminal victimization is greatly influenced by the media. As an example, when the newspapers depict a violent crime committed against an older person, the older readers' level of fear will increase and they will respond by restricting their daily living activities. Some studies suggest that the elderly person's fear of crime leads to self-imposed confinement, resulting in a reduction of the number of victimizations which might have otherwise occurred. The overall effect of this is to seriously diminish the quality of many older persons' lives. However, the changing attitudes and values of the future older generation indicates they will increase their demands that law enforcement agencies be responsive to their needs and concerns.

ATTITUDES OF THE ELDERLY TOWARD LAW ENFORCEMENT

Older persons in general have positive attitudes toward law enforcement. They are more satisfied with the performance of their local police agencies than are younger age groups. The findings in an attitudinal study of over 900 persons aged 60 and over conducted by the University City Science Center reinforce previous research results. This study found that:[28]

- 88.7 percent of the older persons surveyed feel that the police have one of the most difficult jobs in our society.

- 74.2 percent feel that they can always turn to the police for help regardless of the type of problem they are facing.

- 73.4 percent believe that the police are doing the best job they possibly can.

These attitudes are subject to change, however, depending upon the effectiveness of police interactions with older persons who are requesting assistance.

CRIME REPORTING BY THE ELDERLY

As in the general population, about 50 percent of the elderly report crime. The major variables in crime reporting are the amount of money involved, clues as to who committed the crime, or the feeling that reporting would aid in the apprehension of the criminal. The majority of the elderly non-reporters do not report crime because they tend to feel that either the police will not or cannot do anything about it or that the crime is not worth reporting. On the other hand, there are older persons with a high propensity to call law enforcement for assistnce with a wide variety of problems. Typically, this group has strongly perceived fears of victimization, spends time alone, and lives on a low fixed income. There are also some older chronic callers who contact police departments repeatedly.

To enhance the ability to provide effective service, law enforcement agencies need to develop approaches to each of these groups—the non-reporters, callers with unrealistic expectations, and the chronic callers. Suggestions for dealing with these groups include:

1. *Non-reporters.* The barriers or obstacles to reporting should be removed. One major barrier can be standard police reporting procedures, such as sending a uniformed officer to the victim's residence (in some inner city areas, victims are threatened with physical harm by the criminal if they notify the police—the arrival of a uniformed officer at the victim's residence would be observed by neighbors; because the victim fears the criminal will learn of the officer's visit, they avoid the problem by not reporting). Another barrier to reporting is a failure on the part of older victims to understand exactly what constitutes crimes and what they should or should not report. For example, older victims of vandalism may not realize they should report this crime.

2. *Unrealistic callers.* The police can overcome this problem to a great extent by educating the public and older residents in particular. Give older persons more realistic pictures of what types of services they can expect from the police department.

3. *Chronic callers.* This small group of older persons may have psychological problems or may simply be lonely. They should be referred to appropriate programs—either for medical assistance or social contact, such as a telephone reassurance program staffed by older volunteers.

Once a call has been taken, the police department has accepted a responsibility to do something about the problem and to satisfy the citizen, even if the call bears little relationship to traditional law enforcement activities.

Strategies For Effective Police Service Delivery

The ways and means to provide improved police service delivery to the elderly will require *proactive* organizational strategies. These strategies should confront four problem areas: actual victimization of the elderly, older persons' fears and perceptions about victimization, attitudes toward law enforcement, and crime reporting by the elderly. Possible strategies include:

- *Crime Analysis.* Each department should collect, analyze, and disseminate the facts about local patterns and trends of the victimization of older persons. Department personnel can act *only when the problems are identified.*

- *Victimization Surveys.* Such surveys can augment reported victimization information to provide a more realistic picture of crime problems. Surveys can also help identify barriers to crime reporting, the actions taken by older crime victims, and the various support services older victims or witnesses may need.

- *Programs.* Crime prevention programs specifically designed for older audiences and targeted to help older individuals and groups to deal with actual and perceived victimization problems should be top priority. Other programming can educate the older public about law enforcement capabilities and advocate crime reporting. Community service programs (such as Vial of Life) and safety programs can further enhance the lives of older persons.

- *Police Training.* Officers need training to understand and be able to communicate effectively with older persons in both crime and noncrime situations. When communicating with older persons, the officers may be required to spend more time than they would with younger persons. If comprehensive community support systems are unavailable, law enforcement officers

can provide the help and reassurance that some older persons, particularly those who live alone, may require.

- *Police Operations*. In order to provide effective service delivery to older persons, some departmental operating procedures might need to be modified. For example, if an officer is handling a service call to an older person, the department will need to recognize that he may need to spend more time on this call than standard operating procedures generally allow.

- Support Services. Providing support services to older persons will further the department's mission, enhance the image of law enforcement, and develop stronger links among the department, older persons, and the community. Law enforcement officers should have a complete understanding of existing community services—they should refer older persons to these agencies and vice versa. They can also identify the need for additional support services or for changes in existing ones. Most importantly, law enforcement professionals should increase their involvement with the elderly. Organizing neighborhoods and older groups to help one another restores the older community's acceptance of their responsibilities to assist law enforcement. Older workers and older volunteers can help augment law enforcement. Older persons are generally available, skilled, conscientious, dependable, influential, and informed about their community; they are also, as a group, supportive of the law enforcement mission. They can perform valuable community services, certain police services, and court services. Not only will the department and the older person derive benefits, but the community as a whole will be able to have support services which could not normally be provided through existing resources.

- *Legislation*. Efforts to reduce crimes against the elderly and reduce their fear of crime must be carried out at both the state and community levels. Few states, however, have made much progress in implementing programs designed to deal effectively with crimes against the elderly.

In view of the elderly's fear of crime and the responsibility of the state to protect its citizens, the National Retired Teachers Association and the American Association of Retired Persons advocate:[29]

1. Establishing comprehensive programs of indemnification to victims of crime, including restitution by the offender to the victim or the state with a prohibition against recovery of damages for injuries sustained by a perpetrator of a crime;

2. Establishing orientation services and special assistance for elderly handicapped victims/witnesses to facilitate their appearances in court;

3. Sponsoring crime prevention programs aimed at increasing citizen participation in an effort to reduce crime and improve police training programs; and

4. Encouraging personnel of the criminal justice system to expand law enforcement training to include segments on communicating with and understanding older persons in order to enable such personnel to deal effectively with the elderly.

FUTURES IN LAW ENFORCEMENT

The issues involved in the future role of law enforcement in America over the next five to 50 years are necessarily dependent upon a great many assumptions about the society the police will serve. However, there is considerable disparity in the amount of empirical data supporting these many assumptions. For example, it is clearly evident that the American population is aging as a group, and should continue to do so at a rapidly accelerating pace. It is also evident that the economic growth of America has slowed, and may continue to do so for the foreseeable future. The interrelationship of these projections could have a significant impact upon the law enforcement role.

No statement about the future in America can be cast in stone, with one notable exception—American society, and its law enforcement function, *will* change. How it will change is largely a matter of who is doing the talking and what data is being drawn upon.

What can be done, however, is to identify specific areas related to law enforcement, and to present a variety of possible ways they and the law enforcement function are subject to change.

Crime Types and Frequencies

Particular categories of crime, including the personal crimes of robbery, assault, and purse-snatching, along with such property crimes as burglary, vandalism, and larceny, have skyrocketed in frequency over the last 15 years. Many factors may be involved in this increase, but it *is* known that a significant percentage of these crimes are committed by juveniles and young adults—the very age categories which have greatly swelled in numbers over the last 15 years.

If these criminal acts are at least to a degree age-related, the aging of the population will result in a decline in numbers within the younger categories and a potential decrease in these identified crime types. The advent of the credit card and increasingly computerized financial transactions could further remove the opportunity for gain from such acts, which are traditionally targeted against cash and liquid assets.

Acceptance of these assumptions could lead to the conclusion that these personal and property crime types will decline in frequency over the next several decades. O.C. Foster, at the time deputy director of the National Crime Prevention Institute, held that in the not-too-distant future, armed robbery and burglary will become virtually non-existent.

There are other conclusions which could be reached about these particular crime types, but perhaps more important is the realization that the very conditions which could decrease one crime type could increase another.

The potential for computer-enacted crimes, such as fraud, theft, and embezzlement, is rapidly increasing. Along with computer crimes, increases are being noted in a variety of white-collar crime types, including fraud and bunco. What is known about these crime types is that the offender is generally older and more established—the age categories that are rapidly increasing in number.

In conclusion, crime frequency patterns may change in future years, but more apparent is a change in crime types. The traditional crime problems of the last few decades may be replaced with

the white-collar and computer crimes of the next decades. Again, there are no absolutes in these projections but the possibility is very real.

Victim Characteristics

Crime statistics over the past several years have shown a steady increase in the victimization of the elderly by certain crime types. Many reasons are apparent for this increase, including the physiological, economic, psychological, and situational aspects of aging. Each of these factors contributes to the vulnerability of this age group to the opportunistic crime types perpetrated upon it.

As the older population increases in future years, victimization of the elderly can be expected to increase as well. This is another departure from the traditional law enforcement problems faced in America, in both the victim characteristics and the crime types perpetrated. It may also follow that additional crime types may increase against this age group, as the opportunity for victimization becomes greater.

Tax Resource Base

As the American economy is impacted by a continued economic slow-down, coupled with increasing inflation, the resources necessary for the delivery of all services to its communities can be expected to decline. This creates increasing competition among all governmental agencies, including law enforcement, for the dwindling fiscal allocations necessary for effective service delivery.

Tighter budgets have already had a profound impact upon the operations of law enforcement agencies. Faced with ever-increasing demands for service and continued budget-cutting, law enforcement will necessarily change many traditional approaches to dealing with crime problems. Increased use of community resources for fiscal and manpower needs may become the only method of effectively dealing with community problems.

Police Service Delivery

The very nature of the law enforcement function has been steadily shifting toward one of social service delivery. The separation of crime from all other social ills within a community has always been impossible, and officers have always dealt with these myriad problems to some degree. The trend of American society, however, has been to adopt greater social responsibility for individual problems.

What this social responsibility brings about is an increasing awareness and need to act upon an ever-increasing *range* of problems. The community mechanisms that deal with these problems have become more and more reliant upon the law enforcement officer to immediately respond and refer them to the appropriate agency. As this continues, the task of the line officer increasingly becomes one of social service delivery and referral, as opposed to strict enforcement of the laws.

Arguments have surfaced that within 20 years police forces will metamorphose into police services, contracting with social services agencies for cooperative work.[30] In actuality, the propagation of crime prevention and community relations has significantly increased the community interaction with law enforcement. This interaction is becoming a primary facilitator of social services delivery.

Law Enforcement Impact and Response

The four future areas examined—crime types and frequencies, victim characteristics, tax resource base, and police service delivery—will tremendously influence all operations of a law enforcement agency.

The patrol function will deal less with traditional 'street crime' and more with service delivery, if assumptions made earlier bear out. One change most likely to occur is the increased reliance upon crime data and its analysis for patrol allocations and methods of operation.

The investigative function will be forced to cope with the highly sophisticated white-collar and computer crimes in future years to a much greater degree. These crime types are complex in their design and implementation, and will require comprehensive and detailed investigative work to bring about resolution.

Crime prevention, at one time considered to be outside the realm of law enforcement, will become ever more critical in its ability to effectively organize communities to share the responsibility for law and order. The cost-effectiveness of law enforcement will continue to be a major concern of communities. Further, the changing population make-up and resultant problems will bring about more crime-specific targeting, drawing again upon the increased use of crime data and analysis.

These changes in law enforcement can come about only through effective education and training. Standardization of training at all levels of law enforcement, along with increased practitioner impact in college curricula, will lead to a comprehensive and organized system of skill development and awareness. The patrol officer must acquire the abilities of effective social interaction, particularly in non-crime situations, just as the investigator will require the complete understanding of white-collar and computer crime.

The responsibility for the new directions of law enforcement will continue to lie in its administration. The administrator must establish the parameters of this social service referral function within the interdepartmental roles and relationships. Further, effective implementation of law enforcement operations will demand a systematic crime data collection, analysis, and dissemination function.

This establishment of new law enforcement roles and the adaptation of existing ones will depend upon the ability of current and future administrators to bring about the comprehensive training and education needed. What is generally considered to be a "future" issue is in reality today's problem. Clear direction now will ensure the success of future operations.

CONCLUSIONS

There are many ways to define growing old. There is a chronological component. There is also a physiological component. A person's ability to adapt or cope with aging adds a psychological component; this includes learning abilities, attitudes, and personality. The family and living situations add a sociological component. Finally, there is a cultural component. The interrelationships among these components make up the process of aging.

The graying of America proceeds slowly, but on a massive scale. The problems it engenders are complex, and public awareness of its influence lags. Reporting ongoing trends, including monitoring important data and analyzing what has changed and what the changes mean, can help prod public recognition. Political action can then be more profound and the decisions a little wiser.

SUMMARY

1. *The population of America is aging, resulting in important demographic changes which will require police administrators to move away from a reactive to a proactive role.*

   Crime is the most serious issue identified by the elderly in national surveys. Law enforcement agencies must address the "perception of crime" problem among the elderly in their communities, regardless of actual victimization rates. In addition, each law enforcement officer must understand his personal attitudes about aging in order to work effectively with the elderly.

2. *National surveys show that the elderly are not necessarily victimized by more crime than the rest of the population, but there are certain crime types which are more frequently committed against older persons.*

   The causes and effects of the victimization of the elderly are compounded by the aging population's general attitudes, characteristics, and needs. Many of these attributes also increase the elderly person's vulnerability to crime. As the population grows older and demographics change, overall victimization rates, trends, and tendencies will shift. In the communities which experience dramatic changes in the size and composition of their older populations, law enforcement agencies will need to: (1) clearly identify crime problems; (2) accurately assess the causes and effects of the victimization of the elderly; and (3) be capable of confronting the problem.

3. *The nature of the law enforcement function has been steadily shifting toward one of social service delivery.*

   What this social responsibility brings about is the increasing need for the police to act upon an ever-increasing range of problems. The task of the line officer is becoming one of social service delivery and referral, as opposed to strict enforcement of the laws. To be effective in the future, the police will need to rely more upon crime analysis and crime-specific targeting, with administrators taking a leadership role to establish the parameters of the social service referral function within the department.

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LESSON TWO
PROCESS OF AGING

Today, Americans are living longer, healthier, more active lives than at any other time in history. Approximately 5,000 Americans celebrate their 65th birthday every day. The net increase of older Americans is about 1,400 per day or a half million per year.[1]

The United States population is growing proportionately older. And as more and more communities have growing numbers of older residents, society's stereotypes and myths about aging are affecting the ability of law enforcement agencies to meet the service needs and victimization concerns of older citizens. Attitudes generally held about aging and personal attitudes toward one's own aging influence the manner in which services are provided.

Increasing contact with the elderly affects all levels of the law enforcement agency—from the chief administrator to the records section clerk. Thus, it is critical that law enforcement employees develop the ability to communicate effectively with older persons.

SENSORY PERCEPTIONS

Everyone relies upon sensory perceptions, constantly gathering information about the surrounding environment which enables him to function with others. But, as people grow older, significant changes occur in the various sensory perceptions. These changes reduce the quantity and quality of sensory information received. As aging progresses, *less* sensory information is conveyed to the brain. In addition, the central processes of the brain which are responsible for interpreting the sensory information are progressively slowing down. Consequently, the older individual takes more time to process and react to sensory information.

There is no consensus about the general age at which sensory deficits begin. While the onset of a deficit may occur as early as the mid-twenties (e.g., color sensitivity generally declines in the early twenties), many sensory changes may never occur, depending on the individual. Actual aging changes differ markedly from person to person.

Changes in the sensory perceptions not only begin at different ages, but will proceed at different rates. Because these changes are usually gradual, an older person may not be aware of sensory limitations; in many cases he may use his other senses or his experiential background to augment the remaining senses.[2] For example, it is difficult to adjust to a loss of good vision, but the hearing sense can help compensate for this loss. However, if both of these senses begin changing at the same time—as often happens in the process of aging—adjustment can require a great deal of emotional as well as physical energy. An older person's struggle to adapt and cope with sensory perception

changes can be frustrating and anxiety-provoking. However, *most older persons successfully adjust to the effects of the aging process.*

By understanding the sensory perception changes that may come with aging, and how to deal with these changes in the older citizen, the law enforcement officer can provide services more effectively and with greater understanding. Whether the officer is in an interview situation with an older person, offering safety and security advice, or assisting an older crime victim, a knowledge of the sensory changes that may occur with aging and the ability to deal with these changes can make all the difference in providing good service.

Vision

Changes in vision related to aging vary widely from person to person. These changes are not strictly dependent upon chronological age or general health status.[3] Because the eye is so constructed that it can function efficiently even beyond the owner's lifetime, excellent vision without glasses is sometimes maintained even in extreme old age.[4] However, this is an exception. About three-fourths of all older women and over half of all older men experience moderate to severe changes in visual functions. Those 65 or older comprise half of all legally blind persons in the United States.[5] The simple statistical probabilities are that an older person will have vision difficulties of one kind or another.

Visual functions tend to decline because of changes in the structure of the eye, diseases, and injuries. These changes commonly affect persons 45 years of age and older.[6] Visual functions which may change with age include the capacity to see details, to focus at varying distances, to adjust to changes in the intensity of light or darkness, and to distinguish colors. Changes in vision will affect different people in different ways. While some visual functions decline, others may not. The following specific visual functions will be described in detail:

- Visual Acuity
- Farsightedness
- Nearsightedness
- Focusing Ability
- Depth Perception
- Peripheral Vision
- Glare Resistance
- Dark Adaptation
- Color Vision

Visual Acuity. The ability to discriminate fine detail when objects are placed at varying distances in commonly referred to as *visual acuity,* which is usually measured and expressed numerically as 20/20, 20/40 vision and so on. For example, a person with normal 20/20 vision can see letters of a given size at 40 feet, while a person with 20/40 vision can see these letters only at 20 feet.

The probability of losing sharp visual acuity increases as one grows older. Decline can begin in individuals with normal undiseased eyes as early as the mid-twenties, and tends to accelerate in later years. *About three-fourths of all women and over half of all older men have 20/40 vision or poorer.*[7]

A loss in visual acuity affects the ability to read small print. This vision difficulty may also partly explain why some older adults are more susceptible to certain types of fraud. The victim may not want to admit his inability to read small print and therefore may sign a contract without being aware of everything in the contract.

Visual acuity is seriously affected by lighting conditions. When older persons are having difficulties with glare resistance or dark adaptation, they cannot see details. Even in optimum light, older persons may have trouble reading names on mailboxes and doors, labels on cans and packages, and many traffic and directional signals. An older person also may have difficulty in detecting or handling small objects.

There are many ways in which law enforcement personnel can enhance visual acuity for the aged. In any written communications—letters, memos, signs, and hand-out literature—large lettering should be used. The visual field should be simplified: focus on important information rather than adding too many details. Whenever possible, provide adequate lighting.

Farsightedness. Technically known as presbyopia, farsightedness is a condition which facilitates the ability to see distant objects clearly but makes it more difficult to focus on objects at close range. Farsightedness is caused by a loss of elasticity in the lens of the eye, a fairly normal occurrence for most people as they grow older.[8] Inside the eye, there is a small transparent lens behind the cornea which changes its shape to focus on objects at varying distances. Around the age of 40, the lens becomes less elastic and is unable to change shape as it once did. Vision at the usual reading distance starts to become blurry. By age 55, the lens has lost most of its flexibility, and nearly all people over that age will exhibit symptoms of farsightedness.[9]

When older adults are farsighted, they may have difficulty seeing close objects clearly. The law enforcement agency can assist older visitors by identifying its rooms and floors with large numerals and by marking police vehicles with large decals. In addition, school crossing guards should be provided with large hand-held "stop" signs or dressed in very visible clothing, such as a day-glo orange jacket or vest. Because of farsightedness problems, an older woman may have greater difficulty identifying the face of a pursesnatcher, since the only opportunity she may have to recognize him is when he is very close.

Conversely, the *nearsighted* person who experiences a loss of elasticity in the lens of the eye can expect some *improvement* in vision. He will be able to focus on distant objects more clearly.

Nearsightedness. With increasing age, the eyeballs sometimes elongate, enhancing the ability to see near things more clearly than distant ones. Because of this problem, the older driver who is nearsighted may not be able to read a road sign until he is too close to follow its instructions.

When the elderly are nearsighted, they may need to hold objects closely to see them clearly. Older persons are twice as likely as the rest of the population to wear glasses to facilitate reading. However, simply because an older person is wearing glasses, it may not be true that he has compensated adequately for vision changes. The prescription may be outdated or the eyeglasses, if they are dirty, may be interfering with clear vision.

When the law enforcement officer is assisting the older person who is nearsighted or farsighted, positioning is important. The most suitable distance will vary from individual to individual. Thus,

the officer will need to adjust his physical position and any objects, devices, or materials he wants the older person to see clearly. To do this, he must quietly test the older person's visual skills. (Methods for conducting these visual tests are explained in Module III, Lesson 1.)

Focusing Ability. This visual function combines the images seen by two eyes so that the things we see are three dimensional and in sharp outline. The ability to focus requires rapid, flexible adjustments in the lens, so that the eye can make instant shifts in focusing from a book in hand to a star in the sky. With increasing age, the lens loses its elasticity and it cannot adjust focus rapidly on objects at varying distances. For example, the older driver cannot as rapidly focus on the speedometer on the dashboard and then on a car 500 feet up the road or a person walking into the roadway. In addition, many important environmental cues may dissolve into a blur because of changes in focusing ability.

Three behavioral symptoms may indicate a slowdown in the older person's focusing ability: uncontrolled eye movements, inability to follow an object in motion, and slow visual coordination.

An older person should not be expected to focus quickly on objects at varying distances. This will cause his eyes to tire more quickly. Whether conducting an investigation, giving directions or speaking to an older audience, the law enforcement officer should make every effort to facilitate the older person's focusing ability. The officer who repeatedly requires an older person to look up from a paper and over to him or across the room is draining the older person's energies; he cannot clearly follow the efforts of the officer to communicate with him.

As the older person becomes aware of his focusing limitations, he begins to realize that he will not be able to see what is happening around him and that he will not be able to respond quickly to potential dangers and hazards. This can serve to increase his fear of criminal victimization.

Depth Perception. Depth perception is the ability to judge the distance of objects and the spatial relationships of objects at different distances. As this ability diminishes with age, the older person can experience difficulty in buildings with long corridors. Stairways can become obstacles, particularly when the risers are not distinguishable from the steps—when all the steps are painted the same color or the stairway is carpeted with a pattern or a "busy" print.[10]

Crossing the street may become a slow and uncertain process. This occurs not only because the older person needs to judge the speed and direction of cars and the timing of traffic lights, but also because of the need to place foot movements. Bodily motions which were previously automatic now need to be carefully monitored. Climbing stairs and getting on and off of buses becomes a chore. An older person may also miss things when he is reaching for them.

In most situations, there are important environmental cues which can augment an older person's depth perception abilities. While law enforcement agency personnel cannot shorten corridors or eliminate stairs, they can, however, clearly mark floors, offices, meeting rooms, and steps. The safety as well as the mobility of the older person who visits the department will be greatly enhanced.

Peripheral Vision. Peripheral vision is the ability to recognize objects in the outer portion of the field of vision. The normal eye has a three-degree cone of vision in which objects appear in clear

detail. Around the central vision are 90 degrees of peripheral vision, which is highly sensitive to motion, light and darkness, and varying shapes and sizes.[11] Figure One represents the field of both central and peripheral vision. Peripheral vision comes close to 150 degrees of the visual field.

FIGURE ONE

OBJECT

HORIZONTAL FIELD
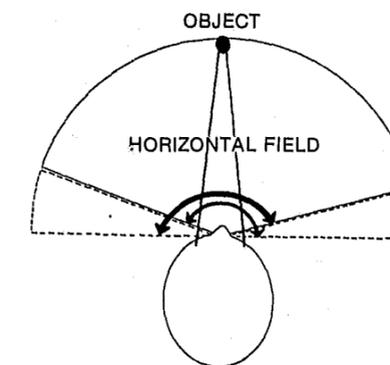
Peripheral vision generally begins to constrict after the age of 45 and continues its decline after age 65 with greater shrinkages.[12] Shrinking peripheral vision limits the older person's ability to detect objects on either side of his line of vision—he will see only things directly in front of him. A person experiencing this change will begin to place objects as directly in front of himself as possible. In addition, his mobility and balance may be less steady and certain.

To illustrate, an older driver, who has been stopped for a traffic violation, will remain seated in her car as the officer approaches. The officer has been trained to stand beside the car and slightly behind the driver's seat to explain the driving violation. In this case, the violator will tend to be less cooperative and more reticent. If the officer changes his position to face the violator directly as he is speaking, he may be dealing with a more pleasant and cooperative citizen. It can be extremely frustrating for an older driver to respond to a law enforcement officer when she cannot see or understand what is going on behind her.

Changes in peripheral vision limit an older person's ability to pay attention to the surrounding environment. For the law enforcement officer, coping with this problem involves changing the usual practice of standing off to the side of a citizen at an angle. Whenever an officer rapidly or unexpectedly approaches an older person, he should use verbal reinforcement to avoid frightening the person. He should try to face the older person as directly as possible. Whether talking with an older individual or addressing a group of senior citizens, the officer should keep them positioned directly in front of himself.

Glare Resistance. The eye's sensitivity to the intensity of light and darkness changes with age. Beginning around the age of 40, this change affects a person's ability to adjust to bright light. Older persons generally experience a lowered glare resistance. With age, the lens of the eye becomes more opaque and glare causes discomfort.

Glare can be either direct or diffuse. Direct glare comes from a concentrated light source such as car headlights or sunlight reflecting off a store window. Diffuse glare refers to the overall intensity

of light, a common problem on bright days after a snowfall.[13] Glare is a serious problem which can be partially controlled by the use of tinted eyeglass lenses or tinted glass in windows. However, these devices do not always solve the problem— they may cut off the light level too much for the aged.

Because of lowered glare resistance, an older person may not be able to immediately recognize a law enforcement officer standing in the bright sunlight outside his door. Squinting eyes can be a signal of possible problems with glare resistance. Tinted glasses or eyeshades help the older person compensate for his lowered resistance to glare.

Lighting conditions constantly affect visual perceptions. In circumstances of uncontrolled natural light (such as a sunny or bright, snowy day, or when in a room near a large window), older persons can experience problems with glare. There are many ways to minimize glare inside buildings for older persons; for example, curtains can be pulled, seating can be arranged so that older persons are not facing the incoming sun, and meetings can be held during the time of day when glare is not prevalent. When dealing with the older person on the street, it may be helpful for the law enforcement officer to invite him into the patrol car or into a building.

In artificial light, the older eye functions more comfortably under incandescent (yellow) lights than under fluorescent (blue) lights. Larger wattage electric bulbs (150 watts) usually provide sufficient light without producing problems with glare. Shiny materials, or even glossy paper, create glare problems for older persons.

Dark Adaptation. The older person will have difficulty seeing at night long before he notices that he is having problems during the day. This problem is caused by the fact that the diameter of the pupil decreases with age, thus allowing less light to enter the eye.[14] As a result, the aging eye needs more light to see well. In a dimly lighted environment, for example, an older person's vision is impeded and the potential for accidents increases.

The eyes of an older person may also require a longer period of time to adjust from light to darkness. Driving at night, for example, can be a problem because sight recovery after exposure to oncoming headlights is delayed. On the average it takes five seconds for the normal eye to fully recover from bright light to dim light. It takes several seconds longer for the older adult.[15] An example is an older person who returns home, enters, and gradually perceives that a burglary has been committed. How long would it take to react? How fear-provoking would this incident be?

There are no devices presently available that will improve this condition in the older eye. A delicate balance is required—getting enough light to the eye while preventing glare.[16]

The law enforcement officer who cannot control the light should allow for extra adjustment time when escorting an older person from one light intensity level to another. For example, when entering or leaving a darkly lighted church, movie theater, or home, a person with aging eyes will take longer to adjust. The officer should wait several minutes before requiring the older person to use his vision again. The police department can also take corrective action to make its buildings more accomodating to the needs of older visitors: for example, entrances and exits in public buildings can be hazardous to the elderly and could create momentary confusion—older persons may trip over steps as they adjust to dramatic changes in the intensity of light. Police officials can examine their building under different lighting conditions and correct any problems that could be hazardous to older visitors.

Color Vision. The ability to see and identify different vivid colors changes with age. The lens of the eye actually yellows with age, thus reducing the quality of light entering the eye and filtering out colors.[17] When this occurs, all colors tend to fade, with red fading the least. Blue colors fade most and tend to merge into greens. Thus, the older person may have difficulty distinguishing the boundary between green carpeting and a blue wall. Boundaries are also unstable for the older person when intensely contrasting colors are used next to each other: for example, hot red and bright green will seem to vibrate. Such colors used on a wall and on an adjacent staircase create a hazard for the elderly.[18]

Loss of color vision can have more serious consequenses for the older person. Some traffic signs can fade into the background if color contrasts are not strong.[19] The older pedestrian who hesitates before crossing at an intersection may be having difficulty seeing a green traffic light against a blue sky.

Color blindness, on the other hand, is not age-related. This tendency generally is inherited. While most people perceive three primary colors, those who have red-green color blindness only see yellows and blues. They tend to confuse reds, blue-greens, and grays.

The color vision change process for older persons is comparable to viewing the world through yellow-tinted lenses. The law enforcement officer should be aware that this problem can affect significant perceptions. For example, older victims and witnesses may be unable to provide correct descriptions of the colors of cars or clothing.

In addition, older persons may not be able to see clearly many environmental cues and signficant boundaries, such as traffic signs, directional signals, and even patrol cars. Weather conditions and seasons can also affect the color vision abilities of the elderly.

The effective use of crime prevention displays and hand-out literature can be maximized by using *high contrast* colors (intense color contrast selections, such as red or green, are as troublesome as a harmonious color selection, such as green on blue). To create a high color contrast comfortable to the eyes of older persons, use a black or dark brown print on an off-white or white background.

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Some high contrast color selections will not be easy for an older person to read, such as white print on a dark blue background. Law enforcement officers should consider readability as well as contrast when developing crime prevention program visual materials.

Severe Vision Problems. In addition to the common vision changes related to aging, the law enforcement officer will encounter some older persons who are experiencing severe vision problems—low vision, blindness, and even visual hallucinations.

Many definitions of "low vision" exist among various federal and state agencies.[20] In most states, a person is considered legally blind if, with the best eye, he can see no more at a distance of 20 feet than a person with normal sight can see at a distance of 200 feet.[21] Blindness does not necessarily

mean a complete absence of light perception (totally blind). It may mean being unable to read newpaper print or being unable to see well enough to work (functionally blind).[22]

Blindness is the total inability to see because of visual loss brought on by disease or injury or total degeneration of function. Over half of the newly reported cases of blindness each year are persons aged 65 and over. Of this, more than 80 percent are 70 years of age or older.[23] Cataracts, glaucoma, and diabetes are the three greatest threats to vision and the commonest causes of blindness in the older person.

Cataracts affect the lens of the eye, changing it from clear to cloudy. Cataracts are rare before the age of 50 and occur almost universally after the age of 70.[24] The first signs of a cataract are trouble in seeing detail, seeing better in twilight than in daylight or in bright light, or seeing double or triple or dim and blurred images.[25] Cataracts still transmit light, but filter out all visual detail.

This vision difficulty is surgically treatable. The operation consists of removing the cataract under general or local anesthesia. The surgeon will either put in a plastic lens, or, after the eye has healed, prescribe special lenses. The success rate is 75 to 80 percent and it would probably be higher if more cases were treated early.[26]

Glaucoma is a most serious eye condition among the aged. The chances of developing glaucoma increase significantly with age. Ninety percent of all cases occur in persons 40 years old or older.[27]

Glaucoma is characterized by increased fluid pressure inside the eye because normal fluid drainage has been obstructed.[28] The fluid pressure becomes too high and causes progressive harm to vision.

There are two types of glaucoma: wide-angle and narrow-angle. Wide-angle glaucoma develops slowly over a period of years and is not characterized by pain until total blindness has resulted. Narrow-angle glaucoma generally occurs in the fifties and sixties, more often in women than in men. It comes with little or no warning, and is characterized by sudden acute attacks of blurred vision, rainbow-colored halo vision, redness of the eye, and pain. Recurrent episodes can lead to blindness.[29]

Glaucoma itself can be controlled, although vision which has been lost cannot be restored. Medication, or in some cases surgery, are used to regulate this disease.

It is also common for older persons to suffer from visual hallucinations. Most people have perceived something which, upon closer inspection, was not at all what it first appeared to be. It is not uncommon for persons in their fifties to "see" floating spots. This does not necessarily mean that there is visual impairment, but "floaters" can be somewhat aggravating. Older persons experiencing changes in their vision may see moving shapes and shadows in their fields of vision. Usually this causes no particular problem. However, if the person is confused, disoriented, isolated, under severe emotional stress, or affected by some medications, these visual impressions can resemble frightening visual hallucinations.[30] This phenomenon may serve to increase feelings of vulnerability to danger and to crime.[31] Night can also create special problems for the older person. A completely oriented person can seem to be disoriented at night if he is undergoing changes in vision. In more severe cases, the older person may become so disoriented that he wanders away from friends, family, or familiar places.

Misperception causes special problems to which law enforcement officers must respond. Without adequate sight, an older person must rely a great deal on past experience to interpret his surroundings. For example, an older person may "see" a shape or shadow moving outside his bedroom window. It is very easy for him to perceive this "shadow" as a "prowler". Although there may be no prowler—or even a real shadow—the fear experienced by the person is very real. Often the police are called to the homes of older persons to check for prowlers. The officer should conduct a careful check and then take the time to reassure the older person that the prowler is gone. The officer should never tell an older person that he is "just imagining things". Not only is this poor police-community relations, but such an attitude could also cause the older person to hesitate before calling the police the next time he hears a noise outside his window—and that may be the one time there actually is a prowler.

Older persons who undergo severe changes in vision may be materially helped by agencies qualified to assist them.

Skills For Dealing With Vision Changes

Widely varying vision changes occur with age. There can be changes in visual acuity, farsightedness, nearsightedness, focusing ability, depth perception, peripheral vision, glare resistance, dark adaptation, and color vision. Blindness in old age often results from glaucoma, cataracts, and diabetic complications. The older person who has uncontrolled eye movements, squinting eyes, slow visual coordination, inaccurate discrimination of detail, or high intensity color selections probably has vision problems. He may also have shrinking peripheral vision or changing depth perception.

It is important for the law enforcement officer to remember that older persons are not alike. They are individuals with different cultural backgrounds, unique personalities, and different physical and emotional needs, problems and strengths. The suggestions described below must be adapted by the officer to meet the individual needs of each older person he encounters.

- *Verbal Reinforcement*. The officer should always tell the older person who he is and what he is doing. This technique can help offset most vision changes and is a good general rule for the officer to follow whenever he comes into contact with an older person.

- *Simplify Visual Field*. The officer should keep the visual field as simple as possible to help the older person distinguish the message he wishes to communicate. For example, a handout with too many details or an overhead transparency containing too much information can confuse rather than communicate clearly to an elderly audience.

- *Use Clear Lettering*. When communicating in writing with older persons, law enforcement officers should use large, well-spaced lettering (letters, memos, or signs).

- *Use High-Contrast Colors*. By selecting high contrast colors for written materials and environmental cues, officers can help the older person who may have color vision and depth perception problems.

- *Facilitate Focusing Ability*. Officers who are presenting crime prevention programs to older audiences should allow longer viewing times for audio-visual materials, such as slides or posters.

The elderly require more time to identify designs, words, and pictures. The aging eye has difficulty focusing rapidly on objects or persons at varying distances without soon tiring. By minimizing such rapid eye movement activities, the officer who is communicating with groups of older persons, giving directions, or conducting an interview, will find that his audience is able to respond more effectively.

- *Provide Suitable Lighting*. Lighting conditions affect the vision perception abilities of older persons. Natural and artificial light can create problems with glare resistance and dark adaptation. Whether the officer is speaking to an older person on the street or inside a building, he should attempt to control glare and give the older person time to adjust to changes in the level of lighting.

- *Positioning*. The officer will need to adjust his proximity to suit the older person's visual capacity, especially if the older person is nearsighted or farsighted. The officer should position himself clearly within the older person's field of vision and arrange objects, devices, or materials so that they can be seen clearly. The same principle applies to older groups. Officers conducting crime prevention meetings should adjust seating arrangements and presentations to compensate for the constricting peripheral vision of older persons. Positioning also assists older persons with changes in visual acuity and focusing ability.

These techniques to compensate for vision losses can enhance the older person's ability to express his needs and concerns to law enforcement agencies. Law enforcement practitioners will find that by applying these techniques, their activities will be more effective and provide more satisfactory results.

Hearing

Hearing impairment is America's most common chronic disorder, yet most people are not aware of how their own hearing may be affecting their ability to communicate.[32] Hearing loss may be the most isolating sense loss that occurs. Communication is a basic need and the spoken word is our prime means of communication. Since our ability to hear affects our ability to understand the speech of others and to monitor our voices, a hearing loss can dramatically affect our ability to communicate. A person with a hearing loss may speak unnecessarily loudly or may not speak clearly. He may not react to a verbal message or a sudden noise and he may even have a reduced attention span.

It has been estimated that a loss of hearing in one or both ears significantly affects one in four persons over age 60. However, this condition is found to affect men more often than it does women.[33] Unless an individual is wearing a hearing aid, a hearing impairment may at first go unnoticed.

"Normal" hearing has been defined as the ability to recognize comfortably all the distinguishing features of speech under usual hearing conditions— normal conversation presents no problem.

Some older persons who misunderstand what is being said during a "normal" conversation may be experiencing a subtle imbalance in their hearing ability or a *mild hearing loss*. They can tune in clearly on *specific* sounds, although they cannot hear some others. A person with this type of hearing loss can even be unaware that he does not hear everything. Other people are more conscious of an individual's hearing loss than is the person who is suffering the loss. The hearing-impaired person may give an understanding nod when, in reality, he has not heard what is being said. He may answer

inappropriately or answer when no question has been asked. He may have problems locating and identifying sounds; noises down the hall may seem to be coming from only a few feet away.

Older persons who experience an overall distortion of practically all sounds have a *moderate hearing loss*. They are well aware of their inability to hear clearly.[34]

With *severe hearing loss*, older persons hear sounds but distinguish few words. Some may request that words be repeated. They are at times confused as to what is expected of them and may blame others for giving poor directions.

The *deaf* are unable to recognize sounds or word combinations even when amplified. The largest number of deaf persons—whether the deafness is partial or complete—are elderly persons. Deafness usually comes upon a person slowly over a period of several years, with many subtle ups and downs; often the older person may not be aware that his hearing sense is declining.[35] It is harder to adjust to hearing losses when they occur later in life.

Causes Of Changes In Hearing. Hearing loss may have a hereditary basis or it may result from environmental influences, such as accidental, recreational, and occupational exposure to noise; climate; stress; and strain. Research evidence shows a definite relationship between hearing loss and noise pollution in our environment.

Hearing loss may also result from changes in the structure of the ear, diseases, medications, and injuries. The area of the ear affected has a direct bearing on the type of hearing loss that can result.

The various causes of decline in the ability to hear the volume or loudness of sounds are summarized in Figure Two:[36]

FIGURE TWO

Causes Of Volume Hearing Loss

Outer Ear:	Middle Ear:	Inner Ear:
Accumulation of wax or a foreign body in the outer ear canal.	Infections, holes in the eardrum, tumors or fluid caught behind the middle ear.	Noise exposure, drugs, vascular problems or injuries to the head.[a]

Hearing loss resulting in a distortion of sounds generally is caused by changes in the inner ear. The two major causes affecting an elderly person's ability to hear clearly are presbycusis and Meniere's syndrome.

Presbycusis is permanent hearing impairment brought on by hardening of the inner ear bones. It cannot be medically or surgically treated. When presbycusis occurs, both ears are usually affected—and to the same degree. This results in a diminution in the ability to hear the loudness and the clarity of sound, and may result in slowing of signals going from the ears to the brain.[37]

No definite cause for Meniere's syndrome has been identified, although many experts feel that it stems from allergies, trauma, or diabetes. Persons with Meniere's syndrome experience hearing loss, equilibrium difficulties, a feeling of fullness in the ear, and a loud, low-pitched tinnitus (head noise). The balance problem, in particular, can incapacitate an individual for short periods of time. The effects of Meniere's syndrome may last only a few moments or they can persist for days or weeks at a time. In severe cases, Meniere's syndrome is surgically treatable.

Too often, presbycusis or Meniere's syndrome is used to explain the hearing loss problems of older persons. However, a variety of other underlying causes may be associated with hearing loss, such as: inflammatory diseases (allergies); viral disorders (measles, mumps, and influenza); drugs, including quinine, certain antibiotics (neomycin, streptomycin), and diuretics; a traumatic injury or a noise trauma (prolonged exposure to loud continuous noise or brief exposure to a loud impulse noise); metabolic disorders (diabetes); vascular insufficiencies (arteriosclerosis); or, occasionally, disorders of the central nervous system (multiple sclerosis).[38]

A somewhat disturbing change—called "tinnitus"—sometimes accompanies the various underlying causes of hearing loss. Tinnitus is a condition in which the older person suffers from "head noises" or ringing in the ear. The noise disturbances can range from buzzing to clicking to roaring to crackling sounds in the ear. The condition may be temporary or permanent depending upon the degree of the impairment involved. It may be caused by such factors as medication (large doses of aspirin), by hypertension, or even by a blow to the head.

This is a condition that must be diagnosed by specialists. The disorder can be treated by surgery or alleviated by a simple change in diet. Sometimes hearing aids are helpful. Those who do not benefit from these treatments can gain some relief from special "masking devices" to screen the noises.[39]

Volume. During the early and middle adult years, hearing loss usually is minimal. As people age, however, they may begin to note a reduction in their ability to hear sounds as loud as they truly are or to hear sounds with complete clarity. It is important that the distinction between these two hearing abilities is understood.

The healthy normal ear can detect very faint sounds and, at the same time, can tolerate extremely loud sounds. Hearing impairments may lead to a reduced ability to hear the fainter sounds or speech of normal loudness. Losing the ability to hear faint background sounds has a psychological effect—the older person may tend to feel removed from things happening around him. Depending upon the degree and kind of hearing impairment, some older individuals may not hear their names being called from across a room, or hear a horn blaring a warning.

Generally, when an older person has simply lost the ability to hear the intensity or volume of

sounds, he has still retained the ability to hear the clarity of words, even though the loudness fades. Simply speaking louder to him will enable him to hear clearly. However, a law enforcement officer will want to avoid giving the impression that he is reprimanding or "speaking down" to an older person.

A hearing aid can make sounds louder or more intense although it cannot entirely compensate for a loss, especially when the loss concerns hearing clarity. However, even for the older person with a clarity hearing loss, a hearing aid can often provide a great deal of help by simply making faint sounds louder.

Older persons are 13 times more likely to wear a hearing aid than the general population, but evidence suggests that older persons are less likely to get satisfactory performance from a hearing aid than other age groups.[40] A hearing aid makes *all* sounds louder—those a person wants to hear and those he doesn't want to hear. The concentration which is required to block out unimportant noises and background sounds must be relearned by the user of a hearing aid.

Many older persons will not wear hearing aids, or they do not know how to operate hearing aids properly. Some older persons with hearing aids do not recognize when the batteries have weakened. When communicating with a person who wears a hearing aid, it is important to let the hearing aid do its work; this is facilitated by not shouting. Officers presenting crime prevention programs to older audiences should also be aware that microphones can distort speech when the listeners are wearing hearing aids.

Hearing Level. Hearing is generally measured by determining the level where sound can just barely be heard across the range of seven different pitches. This level is called the "threshold of acuity" or "hearing level." "Hearing level" explains a rather surprising phenomenon occurring in older persons who have hearing impairments. In such cases, soft sounds are inaudible and loud sounds actually sound louder.[41] Thus, the only sounds which are at the older person's hearing level are disturbingly loud. Since some older persons with this problem cannot easily tolerate sounds or voices, they will complain that "you are speaking too loudly" or that "you are hurting my ears." Some might even say, "Don't shout at me . . . I'm not deaf!" This condition presents difficulties for both the hearing impaired and those who are trying to communicate with that person.[42]

Loud speech may cause discomfort because sounds that the person has little trouble hearing are made too loud in an attempt to amplify those sounds he has trouble hearing. (Some hearing aids can be custom-designed specifically to compensate for certain hearing losses.)

Clarity. Hearing impairments may also lead to a distortion of sound; the older person might complain, "I can hear you, but I can't understand you." Anyone who has listened to an old, scratchy recording of a song or to a radio with poor sound quality understands that no matter how loud the volume is turned up, the words just do not come across clearly. Similarly, for the older person with a hearing impairment, a loss in the ability to distinguish among the various sounds or a loss in clarity results in speech sounding muffled or fuzzy no matter how loudly the message is delivered.

Crucial to the ability to hear clearly is the ability to hear the pitch of sounds.[43] The normal ear can detect sounds across a very wide pitch range, from very low to very high sound frequencies. So long as a person's hearing is normal or nearly normal across the pitch range encompassing the sounds of speech, clarity is preserved. With age, some people lose their hearing in only a portion of the pitch

range; they continue to hear certain sounds normally but fail to hear higher-pitched sounds. (A decline in the ability to hear low-pitched sounds occurs less frequently.) Older persons who have this problem do not hear clearly because they do not hear many key sounds in the English language, such as (f), (g), (t), (q), (th), (sh), and others. Thus it is easy to misunderstand such words as shot, much, hush, thin, saw, fifty, and hundreds of single-syllable and more complicated words containing high-pitched sounds. To miss a key sound in a word can change a key word in a sentence; thus, the listener misunderstands the entire sentence. Older persons with this type of hearing loss will **appear** to hear but usually they miss large parts of the conversation because they misunderstand much of what is being said.[44]

Most people have experienced verbal confusion, or misunderstanding words that sound alike when they are taken out of context—words like cheese, sees, these. Changes in the ability to hear the pitch of sound can increase the amount of verbal confusion. Thus, police officers need to make certain that their words are clearly communicated to the elderly.

Increasing the volume will not help a person who has lost the ability to hear high-pitched sounds. In fact, when an officer increases the volume of his voice in response to a person who cannot hear, the pitch of his voice tends to rise. On the other hand, a whisper lowers the pitch of the voice. Consequently, the older person having difficulties with high-pitched sounds may hear more clearly when the officer whispers to him rather than shouts.[45] Similarly, an elderly person with this kind of hearing change will more easily understand a man than a women or child because the man usually has a lower-pitched voice.

Police officers often have phone conversations with people who cannot hear well. If shouting does not seem to enhance understanding, then perhaps whispering or lowering the pitch of the voice will help.

For the older person who has problems distinguishing sounds, this difficulty can result in feelings of defeat, frustration, anger, embarrassment, anxiety, and withdrawal. The reactions are very real. An inability to hear and understand what others are saying can be terribly isolating. For example, when an older person is attempting to answer questions or follow directions given by a police officer, the officer may notice that the older person is becoming anxious as he tries to follow the conversation. The officer, himself, may become anxious as he constantly repeats what he is saying so that the older person will understand him. Finally, the older listener may become frustrated and angrily respond, "Why don't you speak more plainly!" Gradually, though, the older person with an inability to distinguish sounds clearly begins to avoid such frustrating situations and becomes withdrawn when in the presence of strangers. Officers should be aware that it is very difficult for the hearing impaired to call in a crime report; police dispatchers need to be trained to recognize when the person calling in a report is hearing impaired so that they can respond properly.

Another problem arises if the older person does not admit he cannot hear clearly or does not appear to be confused. The officer may mistakenly assume that his message was communicated clearly.

When an older person not only has an inability to hear most sounds *loudly* enough but also has an inability to hear most sounds *clearly* enough, the problem is complicated. Loud speech in this case may make the problem worse because it makes everything louder, and the sounds remain distorted.

If a person has lost all hearing and has hand mobility enough to write, a chalk slate or pad and pencil are the best means of communicating with him. Police officers must use time and patience to effectively communicate with people who have problems hearing clearly. Officers must repeat and rephrase messages so that they can gradually be understood (remember, the listener has to expend a great deal of effort and energy as well).

Background Noise. Everyone has the ability to selectively hear one sound from among a group of sounds. For example, a person can often hear the doorbell ring over a background of music and conversation. But there are definite limits to this ability. Unwanted sounds and noises can interfere with hearing what a person wants to hear.

The ability to hear clearly is significantly affected by background noise. Research has shown that when speech is presented clearly with a minimum of extraneous noise, there is little or no impairment noted. However, as background noise is added, hearing loss accelerates quickly. A person's ability to understand speech in the presence of background noise begins to deteriorate at about age 30, and it declines steadily thereafter. Noises from television, appliances, music, traffic, airplanes, subways, air-conditioning, and crowded places (for example, restaurants and theaters) interfere with hearing what one wants to hear.

Generally, older persons experience difficulty in separating background noises from the speech or sounds they want to hear. The reason for this is that the background noise contains many low-pitched sounds. These background sounds interfere with the older person's ability to hear the low-pitched speech sounds—the speech becomes jumbled and mixed with the background noise. Most people with hearing losses of high-pitched sounds report great difficulty in their ability to hear conversations while they are in noisy places. The hearing loss caused by the noise results in a greater overall hearing difficulty. Persons with hearing losses of high-pitched sounds can get along fairly well in quiet listening situations.

The very nature of this kind of hearing loss can lead to inconsistent behavior. Because many sounds are heard normally, the older person will respond at times to faint commands and questions. However, at other times he may misunderstand what is being said and give an incorrect reply to a question or fail to respond at all. Such people are sometimes mistakenly considered to be stubborn, slow, uncooperative, or even mentally dull.

Frequently, we will hear someone say, "Dad's hearing isn't so bad; he always seems to hear what he wants to hear." While there are times when a hearing loss of this type can appear to work to one's advantage, the listening problems associated with the inability to hear high-pitched sounds are difficult for others to understand and tolerate.[46]

The law enforcement officer who is speaking with an older person on the street, or even in a noisy area of the police building, should try to establish a quiet listening environment. It is easier for the older person to understand him if background noises are minimized.

Officers should also speak more slowly when talking to older people. The older person may hear words clearly, but be unable to make any sense out of words that come at *too rapid a pace*. The words are a meaningless jumble of sounds, almost as if the person were listening to a foreign language.

Skills For Dealing With Hearing Changes

Hearing impairment has many causes and there are several problems that result from it. The more difficult it is for a person to hear with his ears, the more he relies upon other skills for communicating. People with normal hearing will naturally watch a speaker's face and lips more carefully in a noisy place and concentrate heavily on what is being said in order to follow the conversation.

But a person who suffers from a hearing loss must take advantage of *every* opportunity to use other skills in communicating, such as speechreading. Speechreading, often thought of only as lipreading, is the process of visually receiving cues from all lip movements, facial expressions, body postures and gestures, and the environment. Speechreading is a skill that everyone has to a certain degree. It is only when hearing becomes impaired that this skill becomes so important. When he encounters a hearing impaired person, an officer will need to provide cues and gestures to support speechreading by the listener and to reinforce his efforts at communicating.[47]

The officer will be able to communicate most effectively and patiently with hearing impaired people by following these suggestions:

- *Reinforce and Rephrase.* Whenever possible, give a clue to the topic of the conversation. If the older person does not appear to understand what is being said, rephrase the statement in short, simple sentences. Do not repeat the whole sentence. Some persons with a hearing loss are unduly sensitive about their handicap and they pretend to understand when they don't. An officer who detects this situation should tactfully repeat his meaning in different words until it gets across. He should use gestures and objects to reinforce his message.

- *Gain Attention.* An officer should wait until he is visible to the older person before speaking. Attract the older person's attention first by facing him and looking straight into his eyes, or by touching his hands or shoulders lightly. Arrange the environment so that the speaker's face and body can be seen easily and clearly. Good lighting on the speaker's face is important—facial expressions, gestures, and lip and body movements serve to illustrate the verbal message. Chewing, eating, or covering the mouth with hands or a piece of paper minimize effective communication.

- *Positioning.* The best distance when speaking to an older person is from 0.9m to 1.8m (3 feet to 6 feet).

- *Speaking.* The officer should carefully monitor his speaking voice for volume, pitch, pace, and enunciation. Speak slightly louder than normal. However, shouting may sometimes distort the message; the voice should be kept at about the same volume throughout each sentence and should not be dropped at the end of the sentence. A low-pitched voice is often easier to hear; older persons may have difficulty understanding the high-pitched voices of women and children. Speak at a moderate pace, but make the change to a new subject, a new name, a number, or an unusual word at a slower rate. Do not exaggerate sounds when speaking; this disorts the message and makes visual cues from the face difficult to understand.

- *Control Noise.* Communication with the hearing impaired older person is much more difficult when there is a great deal of environmental noise. On the other hand, rooms which have sound-

proofing that minimizes background noises may not be suitable for the elderly; some combinations of carpeting, acoustical ceiling material, and drapes make hearing clearly almost impossible.

- *Encourage Participation*. Encourage the older person to communicate. Because the hearing impaired elderly take longer to respond, give them enough time to answer a question.

In many ways a hearing loss can have a greater impact than a loss of vision. Many people seem to have less patience and sympathy for those who cannot hear well than they do for those with vision impairments. Because of this, people with hearing losses may pretend to understand.

Hearing loss is very strongly related to feelings of depression and suspicion.[54] The isolation that can result from a declining ability to communicate detracts from the quality of life. By using the skills that help offset these hearing changes, an officer can communicate more effectively with those who need to understand and be understood.

PHYSIOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF AGING

Physiological changes which occur as part of the process of aging include declines in muscular strength and dexterity, changes in the organ systems, and changes in the skeletal system of joints and bones.

As a result of these normal aging changes, older person will become less mobile, more susceptible to serious physical damage from injuries and falls, and generally will require more time to compensate for these physiological changes. In addition, normal physiological changes may disturb an older person's sleep patterns or may contribute to emotional, social, and physiological isolation problems.

In some instances, these normal physiological changes make the elderly person more vulnerable to injury if they are attacked by criminals. Law enforcement officers should also be aware that a simple activity like crossing a street can become a serious problem, fraught with risks, for an elderly person whose mobility has decreased and whose balance, or position sense, has been reduced with age.

If law enforcement officers are aware of these physiological changes that occur in the elderly, they can then recommend appropriate precautions that will reduce the risk of injuries—recommendations that will make the everyday environment of the elderly safer and more secure.

Muscular System

Maximum muscular strength normally occurs between the ages of 25 and 30. After the age of 30, however, the individual usually shows a gradual decline in physical strength and speed.[48] This occurs partly because, as a person ages, the muscles begin to deteriorate. While muscle loss is normal and typical for the elderly, the greatest loss occurs in inactive people. Muscular strength will waste away from disuse. What is the consequence? At age 80, the average muscular strength in males is approximately the same as that of 12 year-old boys.[49]

The older person's inability to maintain higher muscular activity relates to reduced muscle mass, a decline in nerve activity, a slower rate of chemical reactions, and reduced blood supply.[50] Even in a

resting state, the older person will show a decline in the following physiological functions: nerve impulse speed, cardiac output, blood flow and filtration rate, basic metabolism, and sex hormone excretion. A weak handshake or the inability to button clothes are commonplace clues to the lessening of muscular strength and dexterity in an elderly person.

Rapid, voluntary muscular movements, such as those required to flee from a criminal, will be even more difficult and require additional time and effort on the part of an older person. Older muscles fatigue more easily. As an overall result, one can expect to encounter in the elderly a general decrease in strength, endurance, and agility.[51]

Organ Systems

The older adult will usually be slower, weaker and more easily fatigued since many older people confront different rates of aging in various organ systems.[52] As an example, the same individual may possess a comparatively "youthful" cardiovascular system, a relatively "middle-aged" skeletal system, and an "old" digestive system. However, a slowdown in one system usually creates strains and energy drains on the other parts of the body. During the aging process, all organ systems lose cells and tissues that are not replaced. The physiological pattern of change beginning in the forties is a gradual reduction in the performance of many organ systems.[53]

Organ systems generally do not deteriorate rapidly. Moreover, the body initially possesses more cells and tissues than are necessary for survival. For these reasons, many of the declines in the organ systems go virtually unnoticed. One of the first changes to be noticed is the dramatic reduction of the body's tremendous reserve capacities, which are used whenever illness or emotional upsets arise. The elderly's recovery rate—the time it takes for the system to replenish its reserves—is also slower.

Because of these changes occurring in the organ systems, an injury can create special problems for the elderly. An injury can include bumps, bruises, breaks, and abrasions, most often affecting the outer surface of the body. For the elderly, physical injury can become an important contributory factor to the debilities of age; injury can transform the gradual physiological declines accompanying age into sudden reductions. More often, injury will decrease the older person's reserve capacities.

Skeletal System

A person's bones and joints make up the major parts of the body's skeletal system. Changes occur in this system, too, as part of the process of aging. Joints slowly and inevitably undergo degenerative changes and stiffen and degenerative joint disease is not unusual; it is present in varying degrees in many people. The onset of degenerative joint disease is characterized by stiff joints which a person can feel after sitting for a long period of time. Later, mild pain may develop, which is usually noticed only when standing, walking, or making any movements which involve using the weight-bearing joints. Severe incapacitation from degenerative joint disease will be found in about five percent of the older population.[54]

Bones, too, change with age. Osteoporosis is a degenerative bone disease not limited to, but quite frequently found in, the older adult. It is four times more prevalent in older women than in older men. The reasons for bone degeneration are not clear: as the bones age, their substance does not change but the total amount of bone tissue decreases, and the bones become more porous.[55] As a result, an older person's bones are weaker and more susceptible to fracture.

Sleep Disturbance

There are a number of reasons why some older persons are wakeful and wander at night. Contrary to popular belief, the elderly sleep better and feel more secure when they hear the usual noises of daily living. It has been established that older people sleep less deeply and have more frequent awakenings. Sounds (such as a radio turned down low), a night light, smells, and temperature changes in the sleeping quarters are reassuring and may often lull an older person back to sleep.

Isolation Problems

In the majority of older persons who have exhibited psychological problems, it is possible to find isolation of several kinds:

1. *Emotional isolation.* The person rejects friends, withdraws from social activities, and withdraws into apathy;

2. *Social isolation.* Friends age and die; the person is left widowed; children become involved with their own families; and retirement separates the person from occupational interactions;

3. *Physiological isolation.* Age brings changes in the sensory perceptions, producing difficulties with seeing and hearing; mobility is reduced, restricting exposure to persons outside the home.

These isolation problems tend to alter the older individual's ability to maintain a healthy mental status. However, the effects of isolation brought about by a lack of sensory stimulation are reversible. Alleviation of the underlying causes for the isolation, insofar as is possible, has dramatically affected disturbed older persons and can forestall future disorders in presently healthy older persons.[56]

Minimizing Hazardous Situations

There is little that can be done to halt or reverse the organic, muscular, mobility and balance changes that occur in the elderly as part of the aging process.

However, from a crime prevention point of view, there are several steps which law enforcement officers can take to help make an older person's environment more suitable to his changing needs. The suggestions listed below can become part of a public education campaign aimed at older persons and their families. Officers can also make suggestions for environmental changes on an individual basis to older persons when they are responding to calls for service. The most common problem areas and suggestions for improvement include:[57]

- Safe Home Design

  1. Older persons can use furniture to assist them in moving safely around their homes. Officers should recommend that they arrange furniture in a safe home design to allow smooth traffic flow in all rooms; this will eliminate the hazard of falls and allow a quick exit in case of fire or other emergencies.

  2. Well-trimmed shrubbery and trees can decrease the opportunity for prowlers to have easy cover.

- Adequate Lighting

  1. From the street and driveway to the entrance of the home (paying special attention to steps and stairways), adequate lighting will enhance personal safety and security.

  2. Inside the house, night lights and additional sources of light can enhance mobility on steps, stairways, and other traffic areas.

- Kitchen Dangers

  1. Burner controls or other knob dials on appliances, marked with bright colors will help indicate "on," "off," and different settings.

  2. Potentially hazardous household agents can cause poisonings if they are mistaken for food or beverages. They should be clearly marked or color-coded.

  3. Changes in the ability to smell which accompany aging may preclude the older person's awareness of contaminated food in the refrigerator or a gas jet leak.

- Other Hazardous Areas

  1. Stairways may be steep and poorly lighted. Carpeting should be securely anchored. Uncarpeted stairs should be finished with nonskid paints or abrasives.

  2. Old, unvented heating units in poor repair can cause fires or result in carbon monoxide poisoning.

- The Older Pedestrian

  1. If older persons must walk on roadways, officers should advise them to walk on the left side facing traffic (unless this a violation of local law) and make sure that their clothing does not blend with the background.

  2. Extra time should be allowed for crossing if roadways are slippery and weather conditions are below par.

  3. The elderly should be especially careful when walking in snow or on icy sidewalks; they should avoid carrying heavy loads in any type of weather.

CONCLUSION

In the aging process, significant physiological changes occur. Modifications in the sensory perceptions tend to reduce the quantity and quality of sensory information received. Although

physiological changes begin at different ages and proceed at different rates, *most older persons successfully adjust to the effects of the aging process*. These changes, however, can have significant impact on the effectiveness of services provided by the law enforcement officer.

The officer will be able to communicate more skillfully with older persons who have vision problems or hearing impairments by modifying his speaking methods, adjusting his positioning, and providing environmental conditions which facilitate mutual understanding.

Physiological changes in the muscular, organ, and skeletal systems can affect an older person's mobility and balance, risk of injury, and susceptibility to criminal victimization. Law enforcement officers should recommend appropriate precautions which enable the older person to avoid potentially hazardous situations.

Although the aging population is comprised of a diverse group of individuals with unique attributes, the officer can adapt the technique of effective service delivery in order to meet the older persons' needs.

SUMMARY

1. *Society's stereotypes and myths about aging reflect many attitudes held by law enforcement officers about older persons; these erroneous attitudes negatively affect an officer's ability to communicate effectively with older victims and witnesses.*

There may be certain changes in the sensory perceptions of an older crime victim or witness which affect his ability to describe what was seen, what was heard, or even to deal with the fast pace of an interview situation. However, certain facts about an aging individual can be manipulated by the law enforcement officer to maximize the older person's ability to communicate. Various vision and hearing changes related to aging may require different communication techniques and skills on the part of the officer. By recognizing that older persons may have vision and hearing problems, and by taking steps to compensate for these problems, law enforcement practitioners will enhance their ability to meet the service needs and victimization concerns of the elderly.

2. *Aging, physiologically and psychologically, is an individual matter.*

Many sensory functions hold up reasonably well with aging. Aging is not synonymous with illness and some of the common sensory perception changes occurring in old age may become more treatable in the near future. Different organ systems in the same individual may age with different times of onset and at different rates; the onset and rate varies from one individual to another. The majority of older persons will successfully adjust to changes in their sensory perceptions and other effects of the aging process.

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LESSON THREE
PSYCHOLOGY OF AGING

The "psychology of aging" is a diverse field of study. However, one fact is generally agreed upon—that variation in all attributes increases. From maturity onward, people become less and less alike. The elderly represent the most heterogeneous group in our population.

THE MYTH OF SENILITY

"Senility" probably is the most misunderstood word in the vocabulary of aging. Most people slow down physically as they age, and this sometimes is true of their mental processes as well. *However, senility is not a normal or natural or inevitable part of aging.* Careful research has failed to document visible failings in mental abilities as we grow older. The decreases that have been noted may occur because of less efficient vision, hearing, and coordination rather than from any specific brain changes. If the brain is not used, it becomes less efficient and dullness and confusion may result.

Although senility or dementia is one of the most feared aspects of old age, it is actually one of the least common. Studies indicate that the rate of moderate to severe cases in the elderly is estimated at about 2.3 percent.[1]

Senile dementia, organic brain syndrome (OBS), or disorientation is a change in mental abilities and personality because of generalized brain damage. Some of the most common physical factors associated with the onset of organic brain syndrome are:[2]

1. Head injury (for example, concussion or contusion)
2. Infection
3. Metabolic disorder (for example, hypoglycemia)
4. Toxic chemicals (such as lead or alcohol)
5. Drug reactions
6. Vascular (heart diseases)
7. Brain cell loss (senile dementia)
8. Other (for example, multiple sclerosis)

(Short-term delirium is often found in older persons approaching or recovering from a coma, those who have a high fever, and those who are intoxicated. Delirium symptoms include confusion, disorientation, and incoherence. Perceptual problems occur: for example, people suffering from this condition will improperly identify others, incorrectly interpret stimuli, and hallucinate).[3]

The most common characterisitics of organic brain syndrome are:

1. Orientation: Disorientation about time, place, or person;

2. Memory: Mild to severe memory loss, unable to recall recent events;

3. Perception: Impairment of judgment, occasional auditory and visual hallucinations;

4. Intellect and Thought: Weak intellectual ability, slowed stream of thought; inability to learn new information;

5. Behavior: Inappropriate behavior; emotional instability.

These characteristics may range in severity from barely perceptible changes to profound difficulty in functioning.

Once brain damage has occurred, the person will suffer stresses which may bring about personality changes. These changes vary, ranging from suspicion, passive dependence, egocentricity, rigidity, and irritability to complete neurotic or psychotic reactions. The behavior patterns originating during periods of brain damage may persist. If OBS is acute (temporary), it may be reversible. However, if OBS is chronic, it is permanent. Because symptoms are so similar, reversible and irreversible OBS are often confused.

Reversible Organic Brain Syndrome

Reversible organic brain syndromes result from a temporary malfunctioning of the brain cells. Alcoholism, anemia, malnutrition, congestive heart failure, diabetes, drug reactions, head injuries, and infections can cause the disorder. Treatment usually involves dealing with the underlying physical disorder.

Irreversible Organic Brain Syndrome

In irreversible OBS, the brain damage is permanent. Brain function will progressively decline. The three most common forms of irreversible OBS are senile dementia, strokes, and cerebral arteriosclerosis. Irreversible OBS generally does not occur until after 65 or 70 years of age. The cause is not known and the average survival rate is five years.

In more and more cases, physicians are diagnosing pseudodementia, a severe but reversible form of depression that can appear identical to senile dementia.

Law enforcement officers might find the following suggestions helpful when dealing with confused older persons:

1. Ensure that the older person is receiving information, i.e., can see and hear you.

2. Establish a familiar environment (a change in environment or strange surroundings can create confusion for some older persons even though they may be able to manage well at home).

3. Communicate slowly and, if possible, break down the information into independent steps (to overcome the confused elderly person's incapacity for short-term memory).

4. Moderate anxieties, fears, and agitations, as necessary. Reinforce reality, and do not react to delusion responses.

5. Maintain a tolerant, calm, unflustered manner.

There is no direct or simple cause and effect relationship between brain damage and the presence of impaired mental functioning. At an autopsy, for example, it is not unusual to find rather extensive changes in the brain although there was little clinical evidence of mental impairment before death.[4] Mental health is not simply related to the physical characteristics of the human brain, but instead is greatly influenced by the way a person deals with his life and the way others treat him.

As the scientific community's understanding of the functioning and changes of the brain increases, the medical profession may then be able to treat older persons who have irreversible organic brain syndrome.

Diet, Drugs, And Alcohol

Confused older persons generally have been referred to as senile. This label has acted to perpetuate a serious myth—that certain behaviors are a consequence of senility. However, law enforcement professionals who encounter older persons with senility-mimicking behavior have been rejecting the use of the term "senility," since they are becoming more aware that there may be other causes for the behavioral patterns. For example, the underlying reasons for behaviors generally associated with brain damage in older persons include: health problems, "normal" physical changes, dietary deficiencies, food and drug interactions, and drug abuse. *The law enforcement officer has a responsibility to carefully assess the reason for an older individual's behavior—or serious consequences may result.*

Dietary deficiencies can bring about confusion, fatigue, irritability, and insomnia in the elderly. Because of loneliness, lack of mobility, or poverty, an older person may fail to maintain proper dietary habits. Malnutrition is common among the elderly.

Older persons are very susceptible to food and drug interactions. Perhaps the most hazardous interaction is between drugs often prescribed for depression and high blood pressure, and such foods as aged cheese, Chianti wine, chocolate, coffee, and cola beverages.[5]

Some drugs can affect the way the body uses food. The older person, who generally takes certain drugs over long periods of time, will find that the drug has depleted the body's supply of various nutrients. For example, diuretics, often used to treat congestive heart failure, can lead to severe potassium depletion, making the heart more sensitive to the effects of the drug.[6]

Nearly 70 percent of the elderly have visited a doctor in the past six months. As many as 47 percent of the elderly may misuse medications at any one time.[7]

The nature and extent of drug-related problems experienced by the elderly is being examined by the medical profession. However, law enforcement officials must also recognize that this problem exists, since it can affect the behavior of older persons.

An officer working with an older victim or citizen in need of assistance may regard his behavior as senile when, in fact, the older person is misusing or abusing drugs. Unfortunately, this problem is not generally recognized until it reaches emergency proportions. Law enforcement officers must be informed and prepared to recognize and deal with these situations since the circumstances associated with drug abuse will affect the officer's ability to understand and effectively provide services to older persons.

There are three primary areas of drug abuse among the elderly:

1. Over-the-counter medications and home remedies
2. Prescription drugs
3. Alcohol and illicit drugs

Over-the-counter medications and prescription drugs represent approximately 50 percent of the elderly's total health care budget. *he elderly are the largest consumers of legal drugs.* Over-the-counter medications are mainly analgesics (aspirin), antacids, and laxatives. These last two drugs interfere with the body's ability to absorb nutrients.

It is not uncommon for an older person to be prescribed eight or 10 medications on a maintenance basis. The National Institute on Drug Abuse, the federal government's primary agency for issues involving the misuse and abuse of drugs, reports that, while almost two-thirds of the entire patient population are female, the greatest users of sedative-hypnotic drugs are males over age 65.[8] Two major concerns with prescription drugs are reactions to standard dosage levels and drug-drug interactions.

All too frequently, standard dosage levels are prescribed which are safe for younger age groups but are excessive for older persons. Changes in the body's handling of drugs with age tends to increase the elderly person's susceptibility to the overdosage of many medications—especially sedatives, diuretics, and anti-coagulants. In addition, the older person's increased sensitivity to drug effects makes him more likely to suffer side effects.

Drug-drug interactions are a significant problem for the elderly since multiple and unmonitored use of medications is commonplace. Different physicians may not have checked on previously prescribed medications before prescribing. Hence, the rate of adverse drug-drug interactions increases as the number of drugs prescribed increases. The drugs most frequently prescribed for the

elderly are hypnotics (sleeping pills), pain relievers, and sedatives (tranquilizers). Drug-drug interactions will intensify, negate, or alter the effect of one or both drugs.

Alcohol is believed by some to be the most abused drug among the elderly. Misuse can involve drug-drug interactions or excessive use of alcohol, leading to addiction. Alcohol does not mix well with a wide variety of medications often used by older persons. Antibiotics, anticoagulants, antihistimines, antidepressants, and antidiabetic drugs, including insulin, will interact with alcohol to produce undesirable side effects. Alcohol may increase the risk of hypoglycemia, or result in excessive sedation and loss of balance.[9]

It is estimated that two to 10 percent of the elderly are alcoholic. Some older alcoholics began drinking heavily late in life, while others have been abusing alcohol for most of their adult life. Late life alcoholics often develop their drinking problem for different reasons than younger alcoholics. Environmental circumstances rather than personality factors contribute to alcoholism among the elderly. Bereavement, with its loneliness and depression, and retirement—with its boredom, loss of status, and lower income—are two major situations influencing older persons who become problem-drinkers. However, this type of alcoholic is often much more responsive to treatment then younger alcoholics.

The law enforcement officer should be cautious in making an assumption of alcohol intoxication on the basis of staggering gait, slurred speech, and an odor of alcohol on the breath. In such cases, an older person may actually have diabetic acidosis, hypoglycemia, uremia, impending or completed stroke, or other cerebral impairment.

Alcohol abuse in the elderly may bring about drug interactions or may develop into addiction. By attempting to determine the causes of behavioral problems in an older person, the officer can decide the proper action to take.

Although research efforts are still being conducted to identify the extent of substance abuse among the older population, training efforts have begun for physicians, pharmacists, health care providers, and law enforcement officers. Many law enforcement agencies are endorsing community programming efforts, such as "Vial of Life" and "Medic Alert" bracelets, so that officers on street patrol will be able to assure that older victims obtain the proper medical attention.

MENTAL DISORDERS

Although many law enforcement officers do not view dealing with persons who have mental disorders as one of their obligations, many people consider this to be a police role. The community expects its law enforcement agency to deal with mentally disordered persons because of the potential for violence and their frequent disturbance of public order. In such cases, the officer is expected to resolve problems rather quickly and usually without much information about the individual's past history. But, in order to perform satisfactorily, the officer needs to be able to recognize the symptoms of mental disorders in the elderly, as well as techniques to deal with these problems.

Contrary to popular belief, *the overwhelming majority of older persons live normal, emotionally stable lives.*

The psychological mental disorders of old age may persist from youth and adulthood or they may first appear in old age. These two kinds of psychological mental disorders are called carry-over and age-specific. With carry-over mental disorders, the psychological conditions are brought into old age and are usually modified to some extent by the aging process. In age-specific mental disorders, psychological conditions appear for the first time in old age.

Generally speaking, mental disorders may be classed as neurotic reactions or psychoses.[10]

Neurotic Reactions

The neurotic person generally recognizes that his feelings and reactions are inappropriate. Neurosis is regarded by most modern authorities as a response to anxiety, developing from actual or perceived stress.

Symptoms of neuroses appear to be nearly universal; most people at some time are likely to develop some form of neurosis. Since the quantity and intensity of stress in late life is increased, the older person's vulnerability to neurosis becomes greater.

Neurotic reactions in the elderly encompass a variety of emotions and behaviors, including grief, stress, anxiety, depression dissociative reactions, obsessive-compulsive behaviors, and hypochondria.

Grief. The normal emotional reaction to an actual loss is grief, which involves a clear, conscious recognition of the loss. After feeling the initial shock of the loss, there may be recurring periods of crying and waves of sadness. For example, grief from the death of a loved one may be felt from three to 12 months before the impact of the loss begins to subside and energies may be directed to new interests and people. Grief resolution requires acceptance of the new situation. However, resolution may be difficult or impossible when the older person has mixed feelings about the loss. In the case of the death of a spouse, the partner may have a sense of relief mingled with the desolation of losing a companion. This may not be recognized and the survivor may feel guilty at the lack of appropriate emotion.[11] When grief is prolonged and it gains momentum, it may merge into a depression.

Stress. The older person's responses to emotional or situational stress is influenced by prior life experiences. Stress reactions are normally of short duration. As a person ages, he will have to cope with accumulating stresses. At the same time, the physical and mental energy needed for coping is diminishing. As the body ages, sensory perceptions, muscular strength, and mobility and balance change. Intellectual abilities, speed of response, and memory also are changing. Thus, the older person must find adaptive techniques to cope adequately with the stresses within his body as well as those within his environment. He must preserve self-esteem, avert further disorganization, and maintain order and equilibrium in his life. A changing marital role, family relations, and retirement can profoundly affect the older person's self-concept, his responsibilities, and his preoccupations. At the same time, the older person must continue to meet his basic survival needs—a decent place to live, good diet, adequate income, clothing, friendship, and a sense of usefulness. The individual's ability to fulfill these basic needs independently becomes more taxing as physical capacities decline and, in some cases, income diminishes.

Other changes contribute to the stress load for older persons. The loss of a spouse and old friends as well as the approach of one's own death add stress. The increases in violence and crime occurring over the past few years have been a source of much stress to many older persons, particularly those who live in changing city environments.[12] But one of the most stressful factors in an older person's life is becoming dependent and losing control over his own life.

The losses and stresses of old age are real and inescapable. Even the anticipation of losses causes internal stresses for the older person. It matters little whether the loss is real or imagined. In fact, imagined losses contribute to even greater internal stresses. Imagined losses can impair the older person's capacity to evaluate reality and to adjust psychologically. Anticipation of an impending loss is frequently more troublesome than actuality.

Anxiety. Anxiety is a complicated psychophysiological response. Physiological symptoms which accompany anxiety include: muscular tenseness, restlessness, rapid heart rate, and excessive sweating. These are body signs of preparation for fight or flight.

The psychophysiological response to anxiety changes with age. Anxiety in old age may be related not to a specific event but to the more general aspects of growing old. Older adults experience many situations which *produce* anxiety; conversely, they do not experience very many situations which *reduce* anxiety.[13]

Anxiety reactions may be *acute* or *chronic.* In an acute anxiety attack, the older person may show panic and be temporarily incapacitated. Owing to its dramatic nature and the briefly severe disability, an anxiety reaction is frequently mistaken for a serious organic disorder, such as a heart attack. In chronic or prolonged anxiety states, the older person will experience changes in appetite and insomnia. He will feel irritable and experience fear, dread, panic, nervousness, apprehension, or uneasiness. But he will not be able to explain why.

Depression. Depression is the most common symptom of neurosis in the elderly. The signs of depression in younger age groups—anger, self-deprecatory thoughts, and crying spells—are not as common in older groups. More often, the depressed older person will seem to be inattentive and suffering from memory impairments; he will have a loss of energy and initiative. All too often, an older person who is essentially depressed will be diagnosed for organic brain syndrome, institutionalized, and treated inappropriately.

Dissociative Reactions. In the process of dissociation, a portion of the personality seems to operate more or less independently. A common manifestation of this disorder is sleepwalking, which involves movements that occur outside of ordinary consciousness. An older person also may experience a loss of memory and leave his usual environment. He may wander about, perhaps in a strange city or in other unfamiliar surroundings, sometimes in an aimless or confused fashion for days, weeks, or longer.

Obsessive-Compulsive Behaviors. Examples of obsessive-compulsive behaviors are easily observable—ear pulling, eyebrow raising, or finicky cleanliness. Often included with these reactions are socially undesirable behaviors, including exhibitionism (extreme attention seeking), kleptomania (compulsive stealing, for other reasons than the intrinsic value of what was taken), pyromania (compulsive fire-setting), and voyeurism (peeping-tom behavior). Although rare, the law enforcement officer may have to deal with the older kleptomaniac.

Hypochondria

The hypochondriac displays persistent overconcern with health, in an obsessive type of preoccupation with bodily functions. This symptom is common in older women and can be quite difficult to change.

There are wide differences in neurotic reactions among older individuals; the same environmental stresses that bring on acute anxiety in one person may leave another relatively undisturbed and disable still another. Two concepts about neurotic emotions and behaviors have useful application for law enforcement officers who deal with the elderly:

1. A person's previous life experiences will take emotional precedence over subsequent events.

For example, the police officer who stops an older driver for speeding may approach the vehicle and notice that the driver is very afraid, is perspiring, and is shaking. There are many explanations for this type of behavior. If the older person is an immigrant from a nation which has a totalitarian system of government, he may genuinely fear *ALL* police—based upon previous negative life experiences. Similarly, an older person whose home has been burglarized for the second time in a month may be sarcastic toward the patrol officer who responds to the call simply because the officers who responded to the burglary a month earlier were surly and did not seem to care about helping the victim—thus, the victim, who did not receive courteous assistance from the police after the first burglary, may *expect* the same negative police response after the second burglary.

2. A number of advantages are derived from neurotic emotions and behaviors.

Often, older persons with inadequate personal support from their relatives, friends, and neighbors will rely on neurotic activities to get the sympathy, help, and understanding they need. Thus, they may frequently call the police to complain (attention-getting needs satisfied), to report a "prowler" or "burglar" (which assures them of a police visit and some "company"), or to voice suspicions about "illegal" activities in their neighborhood (this enables them to become a "celebrity" by bragging to other older people that they are "helping the police solve a big crime").

Psychoses

Psychoses commonly designate severe or major psychiatric disorders in which the people who are labeled psychotic do not seem to realize that there is anything wrong with them. Many classifications for psychoses have been proposed. One that has been generally recognized distinguishes between organic psychoses (such as organic brain syndrome) and those in which an organic basis has not yet been generally established or agreed upon.

Each type of psychotic disturbance varies considerably in definition, causes, symptoms, and treatment, and should be examined separately. The psychoses described below are of particular significance in some older persons.

Schizophrenia. Late life schizophrenia (Greek: "split mind") encompasses a number of similar patterns of reactions to the stresses of life. Generally, there are disturbances of feeling and thinking and a withdrawal from the outside world. In an attempt to escape from tension and anxiety, the

older schizophrenic will abandon realistic interpersonal relationships and, in their place, construct delusions and hallucinations. These people are typically apathetic, seclusive, rejective of social contact, dull, and unresponsive.

Late life schizophrenia is more frequent among the unmarried, immigrants, those with low economic status, and those who live in large cities.

Paranoia. Many psychiatrists consider paranoia to be a variety of schizophrenia. Mild paranoid reactions are not entirely outside the range of normal experience, however. Most people have been, at one time or another, unjustly suspicious of neighbors and friends, and have interpreted neutral acts as hostile and threatening.

Paranoid reactions are more frequent in old age, particularly in older persons who are socially isolated and have vision problems or hearing losses (especially deafness). In many cases when sensory loss is corrected with eyeglasses or a hearing aid, the paranoia will disappear.

Generally, unmarried men in their forties and fifties who tend to have difficulties in relating to people are diagnosed as paranoid. This person feels persecuted or imagines plots and conspiracies organized against him or against parts of society with which he identifies. At times the person sees himself as a hero whose mission it is to save society. Sometimes the paranoid person may attempt to kill the alleged persecutors, but more often he becomes the plantiff in almost endless legal suits.

Paranoid delusions will range from hostile (persecutions and injustice) to grandiose (grandeur and supernatural powers). Some older persons react to these delusions by constantly moving. For example, over a period of eight years, one 66-year-old man had moved in and out of 14 boarding homes.

Paranoid older persons often call for and respond well to police officers.

Paraphrenia. The term "paraphrenia" dates back to the early nineteenth century and has been used by authorities in different ways. Sigmund Freud suggested the term "paraphrenia" to describe a middle-aged patient whom he analyzed as suffering from *para*noia as well as schizo*phrenia*. Some experts deny its existence as a separate clinical entity and claim that it is a variety of schizophrenia. However, paraphrenia is often used by psychiatrists trained in clinical geropsychiatry (the psychiatry of aging) and needs to be made part of the vocabulary for law enforcement practitioners who deal with the elderly.

Late life paraphrenia is a mental state characterized by a thought disorder with paranoid delusions, with or without hallucinations; yet the intellect, personality, and memory remain healthy. Older persons with paraphrenia have not had previous personality disorders.[14]

Paraphrenia commonly occurs after age 60. The paraphrenic is typically a single or widowed female; she has few close relatives and has been living alone for many years. Good health is common, except for problems with vision and hearing. The paraphrenic often has persecutory delusions—she is being drugged, or her body is being assailed by rays, machines, or electricity. She "hears" threatening voices, obscenities, and loud noises. Such delusions and hallucinations may have erotic overtones.

The proximity to the paraphrenic of the external enemy, intruder, or foreign body indicates the severity of the disorder. In its early phase, the enemy is seen *outside* the home—hoodlums on the street or in front of the house who are acting obnoxiously or speaking vulgar language. During the next phase, the intruder comes into the garden or onto the porch. The third phase is the penetration of the home, e.g., in the plumbing, electrical wiring, or even the food in the refrigerator. The fourth and final phase brings the enemy into the person's personal space.

The paraphrenic's behavior and thoughts can subside for intermittent periods. For example, a 74-year-old widow phoned various community agencies complaining that the neighborhood boys kept her awake at night and damaged her property. She feared the boys would burn her house if she made any complaints (projection of her own sense of feeling "burned up" about being victimized). A few weeks later, the delusions changed: she accused the pharmacy of giving her pills with the wrong color. Again, a few weeks later, she became acutely apprehensive during the night and called the police for help.

After this, she complained that it had taken the police many hours to arrive, and they had searched her house for illegal liquor. It is significant that once the woman was placed in a boarding home, the paranoid symptoms subsided.[15]

The paraphrenic may survive for a long period of time and generally does not recover.

Emotional Psychoses. Emotional psychoses include manic-depressive psychoses and psychotic depression. In the case of manic-depressive psychosis, the individual has no insight into the abnormal nature of his mood—he experiences periods of depression followed by manic attacks. These moods are recurring, sometimes cyclical, attacks. During depression the person neglects his appearance and slows down to the point where he seems unable to move or to talk. Insomnia, decreased appetite, and weight loss are common symptoms. Depressive attacks have a longer duration than the manic ones, especially as the disorder progresses. The manic individual typically shows a good humor; however, he may change to sarcasm and hostility when in a conflict situation. Accompanying motor activity can be excessive and exhausting. Older persons rarely exhibit intense, enduring manic attacks.

Feelings only of depression are more likely to be considered as a separate disorder—psychotic depression. Some authorities will consider it a partial form of manic-depressive psychosis. Psychotic depression occurs more frequently in later life. Experts compare the symptoms to normal grief.

The poor judgment of manics and the possibility of suicide and violence among depressives are traits which often demand law enforcement attention. The older psychotic depressive often has convinced himself that his depression and suffering are intolerable. This individual is dangerous to himself. The officer may consider the underlying reasons why the older driver doesn't brake quickly enough at the stop sign or the older pedestrian isn't finished crossing the street before the traffic light changes to green.

In other instances, older persons with emotional psychoses are a danger to others. An older alcoholic may provoke fights or attack a police officer. The older person may verbally/physically abuse his spouse. Some people who have this disorder consider their spouse as part of themselves and may kill the spouse before attempting suicide. In older persons whose religion or cultural values

prohibit suicide, there are many ways and means to have someone else (doctor, officer, etc.) take their lives.

It is advisable to hospitalize older persons with emotional psychoses, particularly since they can be a danger to themselves as well as others.

SUICIDE AFTER SIXTY

Older Americans are deadly serious about killing themselves. Each year the proportion of suicides among older persons outweighs that of any other age group. People aged 60 or older comprise about 15 percent of the population but account for 25 to 30 percent of the total number of reported suicides. (See Figure One below.)[16] Among adolescents, there are 50 attempts for every actual suicide. Among the elderly, however, the ratio is two to one. Many experts agree that the number of suicides by older persons is, in reality, much higher than the reported figure. False certifications of an older person's actual suicide because the death appears to be accidental or natural may be as great as the number of reported suicides.

FIGURE ONE
Suicide Rates in the United States
in Relation to Age and Race

KEY:
— white males
.... non-white males
------ white females
.-.-. non-white females

SUICIDE RATES PER 100,000 POPULATION

AGE IN FIVE-YEAR GROUPS
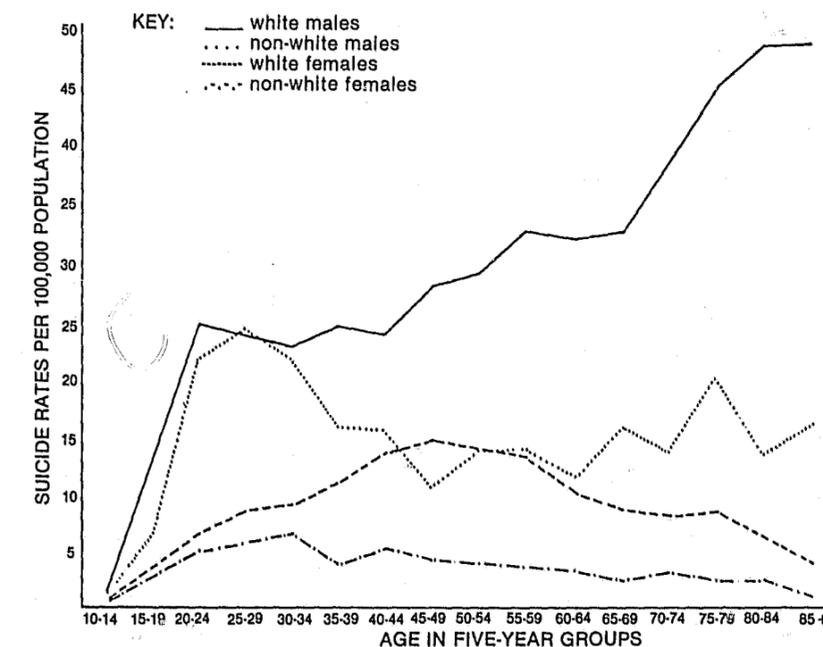
Source: The National Center for Health Statistics

In the older population, suicide rates for women rise in the middle years (45-60) and then decline. For men, suicide rates rise sharply and consistently with age. Rates of suicide are higher for whites than for non-whites. The highest incidence of suicides is among white males over the age of 75; it is more than seven times that of young adults in their early twenties.

There is still no definitive explanation of why suicide is more prevalent among men than women. Experts speculate that the impact of retirement, of physical decline, or of illness is more devastating to the self-esteem of older men. Widowed persons represent a group at considerable suicidal risk. Having a confidant in late life certainly does not preclude geriatric suicides; however, the lack of, or loss of, a confidant in late life seems to predispose certain older persons to suicide.

Retirement appears to have a severe effect upon many older men who later kill themselves. Many suffer a great deal—when they lose their job, they also lose their identity and feeling of worthiness, which have been attached to their work. The negative effects are not as intense among those who enter retirement with hobbies, organizational memberships, and friendship/kin networks to occupy their time and attention.

The variation in male/female suicide rates can be partially explained in terms of the means and motivations leading to suicide. Men are more likely to use violent means (e.g., guns, knives, and ropes) to take their lives while women show a strong preference for more passive approaches (e.g., drugs, gas, and poisons). In addition to the typical methods of self-destruction, the elderly have other means that are peculiar to their age group. These include: self-imposed starvation, refusing to follow a physician's orders, not taking medications as prescribed, engaging in hazardous activities, delaying treatments or operations, and voluntarily secluding themselves.

The association of suicide with the inability to cope with a vital loss has been well documented. There could be losses associated with:

(1) Severe physical illness, extraordinary pain, chronic conditions, or terminal illness;

(2) Mental illness;

(3) Threat of extreme dependency (such as loss of a driver's license, inability to walk, having to live with relatives against one's will) and/or institutionalization;

(4) Death of a spouse or relative (a particularly severe hardship during the first year of bereavement);

(5) Retirement (loss of job or income);

(6) Alcoholism and drug abuse (most commonly used were sleeping pills, tranquilizers, and pain relievers);

(7) Loss of a best friend or cherished neighborhood;

(8) Any cumulative effect of multiple misfortunes.

The crucial factor is not the effect of any one loss in particular, but rather the unexpectedness and suddenness of its onset and the sufferer's personal reaction to it (especially its effect when combined

with existing problems). Thus, a series of losses striking in rapid succession is often devastating. A suicidal reaction will depend upon how well developed the older person's coping abilities are and how strong the "will to live" is.

Although the suicide rate has declined over the last two decades, there still has been a continuous increase in the number of elderly suicides. The problem will be difficult to address since suicide is such a complex behavior that it is exceptionally difficult to prevent or effectively control. Suicide by older people can be a more difficult problem in another sense—even people who are adamantly opposed to suicide *per se* are often able to condone the older person who commits suicide to relieve pain, suffering, and extreme anguish.

The majority of people who kill themselves, regardless of age, appear to consult a physician shortly before their lethal acts. It seems reasonable to conclude that "suicidal people seek out physicians as potential rescuers." Although much of the responsibility for the reduction of suicides by older people rests with physicians, there is also a great need for more public education about how to recognize and respond to clues the older person presents.

Many of the suicidal elderly will present clues—either verbal or behavioral—to their impending suicides. The lack of knowledge, fear, and a basic inability of their families, friends, neighbors, and physicians to act in a prudent manner seem to play a critical role in many of the suicides of the elderly. It may become necessary for the police officer to refer older persons to suicide centers.

Some of the clues to suicide include:

- A suicide attempt or threat
- A statement of one's desire to die
- A gun purchase

While not necessarily clues to suicide, under certain circumstances the following behaviors could warrant careful attention:

- Tears for no apparent reason
- A changed will
- Funeral plans made shortly after the death of a loved one
- Arrangements to donate one's body to science
- Giving away valued possessions
- Breaking a long-standing behavior
- Putting one's business affairs in order

Thousands of lives could be saved each year if people would recognize and respond to such behaviors quickly.[17]

LAW ENFORCEMENT RESPONSE

Law enforcement officers cannot be expected to be experts on the psychological problems of aging. Nevertheless, in the course of their duties, they will be called upon to respond to situations involving older persons as complainants, as victims, or simply as persons in need of help. In many in-

stances, the police are the first to respond; in some instances, they are the *only* public agency responding to the problem. If the older person is manifesting symptoms of brain damage or of severe emotional distress, the law enforcement officer will be expected to recognize these symptoms and to deal with the older person appropriately.

Each law enforcement officer should know well those portions of the state's statutes that define the authority and responsibilities of the law enforcement officer with regard to persons suffering from mental disorders. Individual jurisdictions may also have specific regulations on mental cases, or will have either established policy or informal procedures for the voluntary or involuntary admission of persons to psychiatric facilities. The individual officer needs to be familiar with these regulations and procedures. An example of the type of general order prescribed is given below:

Emergency Admission Policy and Procedure

If a police officer of the rank of sergeant or above has determined there is probable cause to believe an (older) individual is mentally disoriented and is in imminent danger of causing grave and immediate personal injury to himself or others, he shall:[18]

1. Complete a petition for emergency admission.

2. Take the individual named or described in the petition into custody.

3. Take the person to an "emergency facility" to be examined by a physician within 6 hours.

4. Notify the court within 24 hours.

5. If it is determined that probable cause exists, the reviewing judge will have the person detained for an additional period not to exceed 96 hours.

6. Any further action (or detention) will require the signature of two physicians.

Some responsible person within the law enforcement agency—if not the individual officer—must be aware of and maintain a working liaison with those agencies within the community that are equipped and trained to deal with older persons who are suffering from brain damage or mental disorders.

LEARNING

The ability to learn is a complex process. Three particularly important aspects of the learning process are intelligence, memory, and problem-solving. On the following pages, these aspects will be discussed briefly, especially as they relate to older persons.

Almost any older person can learn almost anything he wants to, given time and assistance. Although there are substantial individual differences in learning *ability*, little of the variability is related to age. Adult learning reflects the innate ability, practical values and accumulated *experience* that the individual combines in performance.

At present, there is no instrument to estimate adult learning ability. However, there are certain teaching procedures and educational practices that optimize the performance of the older individual.

Some factors which can affect the older adult's learning ability include:

- *Personal Characteristics.* Physiological condition and health can affect learning in various ways. Sensory changes in vision and hearing can restrict sensory input. Stress can impair memory. Steps should be taken to minimize the extent to which physiological condition and health interfere with learning. Examples include the provision of sufficient lighting without glare, sound amplification with good acoustics, and conditions that minimize fatigue and anxiety.

  Personal outlook and personality characteristics, such as open-mindedness or defensiveness, can affect the way in which an adult deals with specific types of learning situations. Some adults with open and flexible personality characteristics and learning styles achieve better with such methods as discussion, while adults with more rigid and structured personality characteristics and learning styles learn more effectively with such methods as the lecture.

- *Situational Characteristics.* Over-arousal, such as defensiveness and anxiety, interfere with effective learning, while moderate levels of arousal do not. If an older person believes that he can deal with a situation, it may be a challenge; if not, it may be perceived as a threat. People can deal best with a failure when they have experienced many successes.

  Support and assistance is especially important for adults with few recent educational experiences. The law enforcement officer should realize his responsibility to enhance the *climate for* learning when he is attempting to teach something new, such as crime prevention, to older adults.[19] *Unsuitable training methods may* introduce anxiety and lead to failure, which will *so shake older people's confidence that they are then unable to learn or to do jobs they would otherwise have been able to tackle well.*[20]

- *Expectations.* Most older adults approach learning activities with specific expectations about what they will gain from the experience. Older adults are more likely to emphasize reasons for learning that are related to content and activity, while younger adults tend to be goal-oriented.[21]

  When the material is not meaningful, there is a marked decline in learning with age. For this reason, it is most important to establish a rapport and climate that encourages and allows older persons to consider their own expectations and those of others and to help identify objectives, select learning tasks, and understand procedures.

  One way in which older adults can clarify their expectations is to have an example or model of what they should know or to be able to do. For example, home security techniques might be taught most effectively by taking a group of older adults to a typical home in their neighborhood, the instructor can teach security principles as he guides the group on a walking tour of the inside and outside of the house.

- *Relevance.* The older adult's motivation and cooperation in learning is more likely when the tasks are meaningful and of interest to him. As with younger age groups, individual values vary greatly. However, the older generations will have certain values and expectations.

Usually, when an older adult sets out to learn about something, he makes use of past experiences and past reactions to increase his ability to learn and use knowledge. Prior learning and personal experience may not have produced an adequate mind set (or expectation) about the relevance of a learning task. Questions, prompting devices, organizers, and directions can guide the older person's attention and help establish the connection between his current knowledge and the new information. When the information is perceived as relevant, the older person can apply what he learns in his daily life. If not, the older person may distort the new information to minimize any discrepancies or he may totally withdraw from the learning situation.

Intelligence

The concept of intelligence, as well as the instruments used to measure it, are usually defined in terms of the abilities and skills deemed to be most important during youth and early adulthood.[22] For years, it was generally believed that a person's IQ tended to rise through youth and adolescence, reach a plateau in the thirties, and then, after forty, begin a slow decline. But in 1973, the Task Force on Aging of the American Psychological Association found that the facts contradicted this notion.[23] Longitudinal studies have shown no change in intellectual functioning with age.

Intelligence is measured by testing verbal skills, memory, spatial perception, and arithmetic abilities. From these measurements, intelligence was found to vary with age in different ways. For example, mental abilities that require speed or which depend upon immediate memory will show a greater decline with age than those abilities that are untimed or depend on experience. On the other hand, tests on general information, general verbal ability, and arithmetic operations will frequently show evidence of increased capacity with age from the twenties to the sixties and beyond.[24]

Any precipitous decline in intelligence is not indicative of normal aging but instead results from a drop in the health status of the individual.

Memory

Memory is an important part of the ability to learn. The memory function can be described as a three-step process involving: *registration*, the input of information into a system; *storage,* the retention of that information for subsequent use; and *retrieval*, the process of obtaining information from stored information. Most psychologists advocate that different processes are involved with short-term memory as opposed to long-term memory. As an example, short-term memory has a limited storage capacity while long-term memory has a much longer, more stable storage capacity which is limited only by the rate at which it can accept information. Research studies at present indicate that older persons can maintain and recall about as much information in short-term memory as younger persons; however, when the storage capacity of short-term memory is exceeded age deficits occur.

The problem of "interference" may explain why older persons experience memory losses.[25] They may be more susceptible to conditions which interefere with memory. Interference with registering data may have occurred *prior* to learning. An older person may be unwilling or unable to accept and internalize new information which conflicts with his experiences. Interference also can occur *during* learning. Outside interferences, such as extraneous noise, movements of others in and out of the learning situation, and simultaneous activities which are occurring all compete for the elderly person's attention.[26] Or the information may not be adequately heard or seen. Interference can occur *after* learning, as when information that appears to be irrelevant, insignificant, or of little value is not retained.

There are many techniques to enhance an older person's memory. These include:

1. Presentation Pacing. A slower presentation rate will enable older persons to increase their ability to retain information and avoid information overload. Instructors should consider taking a short break even during a lecture session which lasts only an hour. Older persons will also learn better if the training is spaced at intervals over a period of several weeks rather than concentrated in an intensive course.

The ideal pacing for older adults is to allow them to set their own pace and take a break periodically. Although adults vary greatly in the speed at which they learn most effectively, older adults tend to reduce the speed of learning and give greater attention to accuracy. If older persons are forced to proceed much faster *or slower* than their preferred pace, their learning effectiveness generally declines.

2. Response Pacing. A longer response time will enhance the older adult's ability to retrieve needed information. There is substantial research evidence that older persons are more susceptible to interference with retrieval of information. If an older person is having difficulty recalling information, it should be noted that he will probably be able to *recognize* information much more readily than to recall it.

3. Organization. Organization of the information with mediators and mnemonic groupings serves to increase learning and improve memory. Older persons should be given specific instructions to increase their use of organizational techniques. For example, it would be helpful to provide a skeleton outline indicating points to be covered. Older adults learn more effectively if the instructor provides organizers, sets of categories, and generalized structures to assist them in organizing complex material.[27]

Problem Solving

The characteristics of problem-solving tasks that are most associated with a decline in learning ability with age (even in middle age) are tasks that are fast paced, unfamiliar, and complex. The pacing can be slowed down, more care can be taken in providing directions, and complex tasks can be broken down. Older adults tend to learn most effectively when problems are complex enough not to be boring but not so complex that they are overwhelming.

The critical area of problem-solving for older adults is previous learning. An older person tends to repeat his errors. Unlearning an incorrect response is particularly difficult for him. Therefore, it is essential to deal with problems immediately and not allow misconceptions to persist. If, for example, directions are not simple, the older person sometimes arrives at misconceptions based upon incomplete information. When that occurs, it is usually difficult to overcome. When older persons

have unlearned ideas or previous practices, they should engage in activities to extinguish the old and unwanted assoications as well as to acquire new learning.

To summarize, some ways law enforcement officers can help older adults learn effectively include:

1. Emphasize abilities and experience.

2. Establish a comfortable climate for learning—physiological and psychological.

3. Assess the older person's learning expectations.

4. Minimize interference.

5. Decrease pacing—allow more presentation response time.

6. Clarify and provide organization and structure.

7. Identify obstacles to problem-solving. Allow older persons to practice and reinforce new information.

CONCLUSION

The psychology of aging is a diverse field of study encompassing changes in brain functions, mental processes and personality. Researchers have documented that senile dementia or organic brain syndrome (OBS) is rare in the elderly. As older persons who exhibit behavior patterns resembling senility are thoroughly diagnosed and treated, more and more cases are found to be reversible, treatable and not caused solely by brain damage.

To satisfactorily deal with the myriad of situations involving law enforcement and older persons, officers need to recognize symptoms of brain damage, mental disorders, and severe emotional distress. Solutions in handling such circumstances can vary, from providing support and reassurance to suicide intervention.

Most importantly, law enforcement officers should apply teaching procedures and educational practices in their work with older persons as victims, witnesses, volunteers, and concerned community members. By facilitating the older person's learning and understanding, enhancing memory, and assisting in problem-solving, the officer can best help older persons to maintain lives of dignity, independence and purpose.

As gerontologists discover or establish new facts about aging, law enforcement professionals will need to update their understanding in order to protect and provide older persons with effective services.

SUMMARY

1 . *Senility is not a normal or natural part of the aging process.*

Law enforcement officers should not confuse "senility" with erratic behavior on the part of older persons. Rather than suffering from any specific changes in the brain, the older person may be having difficulties expressing himself or moving about in public because of less efficient vision, hearing, and coordination. When dealing with confused older persons, the law enforcement officer should: (1) ensure that the older person is receiving information; (2) establish a familiar environment; (3) communicate slowly and, if possible, break down the information into independent steps; (4) moderate anxieties, fears, and agitations and reinforce reality, and; (5) maintain a tolerant, calm, unflustered manner.

2. *Law enforcement officers need to be able to recognize the symptoms of mental disorders in the elderly in order to deal with these problems effectively.*

The community expects its law enforcement officers to deal with mentally disturbed persons because of the potential for violence and their frequent disturbance of public order. However, contrary to popular belief, the overwhelming majority of older persons do not suffer from mental problems: most older people live normal, emotionally stable lives. But there are mental disorders of old age, either carry-over or age-specific, which the law enforcement officer needs to know how to recognize so that he can effectively assist the older person who is suffering from a mental problem. Someone within the law enforcement agency should be assigned the responsibility for maintaining a working liaison with those agencies within the community that are equipped and trained to deal with older persons who are suffering from brain damage or mental disorders.

3. *Law enforcement officers who conduct crime prevention programs for older persons or who train older volunteers should familiarize themselves with the process of learning as it applies to older adults.*

Contrary to popular belief, there is no evidence to demonstrate that intellectual functioning decreases with age. Almost any older person can learn almost anything he wants to, given time and assistance. However, there are certain factors which can affect the older adult's learning ability; these factors include personal characteristics, expectations, and relevance of the subject matter. To overcome these problems, there are certain teaching procedures and educational practices which can be used to optimize the performance of the older individual—these include: presentation pacing, response pacing, and organization of the information with mediators and mnemonic groups to increase learning and improve memory.

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MODULE TWO
VICTIMIZATION OF THE ELDERLY

Crime Problem In Perspective
Crimes Affecting The Elderly
Impact Of Crime
Confronting The Problem

LESSON ONE
CRIME PROBLEM IN PERSPECTIVE

The issue of victimization of the elderly is complex in nature and requires a careful analysis of information that has been developed from a variety of sources. While victimization studies are valuable tools in developing problem-solving approaches to the issue of crimes against the elderly, there are, however, important limitations on their scope of jurisdiction. Thus, studies presented in Lesson One must be qualified by the following factors:

1. The geographical locations surveyed are overwhelmingly *urban* and *suburban* in nature. This is due entirely to the availability of field research, such as the National Crime Surveys, which focus upon urban/suburban environments. Despite such an urban orientation, these studies can still serve as indicators of future problems in rural areas. Rural crime is rapidly increasing and is more and more reflecting typologies once found exclusively in urban settings.[1]

2. The survey information becomes more dated with age. However, some of the studies cited here have been repeated over a period of time: comparison of current data with past findings indicates that problems identified in earlier surveys have intensified in more recent years. While this finding either says something about our criminal justice system or indicates that crime reporting systems have improved, it also maintains the credibility of earlier studies.

3. The most important qualifier of all is the need for *local* crime analyses. Regardless of the time and location of any victimization study, it can only produce findings for that jurisdiction. This issue will be addressed throughout all four lessons, and cannot be overemphasized. Lesson One does not speak for every locality, but identifies trends on a nationwide basis.

LAW ENFORCEMENT PRIORITIES

The responsibility for law enforcement in the United States is divided among over 20,000 autonomous agencies.[2] This disparity of responsibility creates many levels of decision-making, ranging from national program direction to the discretionary decisions made by officers on patrol within a community. At each of these ends of the spectrum, there is a distinctly different law enforcement role, although each role is affected by common issues and interests.

From the national perspective, federal allocation of funds can affect significantly the emphasis placed upon issues by virtually all criminal justice agencies. When federal agencies such as the Department of Justice direct funds into a specific program area, many local agencies are then able to address that issue to a greater degree than their own funding will allow. Therefore, not only do the federal programs themselves have an impact upon particular areas, but the local agencies participating in the programs will also necessarily have their own priorities reshaped.

At the local level, the police department directly affects the citizens in its own jurisdiction by the emphasis it places upon specific issues. Fiscal and manpower allocations are determined by the perceived needs of the community. In every community, various population groups, including older persons, compete for scarce law enforcement resources and services. At the same time, *organized* community groups, such as the service clubs and the Chamber of Commerce, help shape law enforcement priorities to meet the needs of the community. Such community-based political action may eventually spread throughout the nation, affecting law enforcement priorities at the federal level.

What must be done to develop a comprehensive law enforcement approach to deal with victimization of the elderly? Any program which is going to be effective must necessarily involve law enforcement personnel at all levels of the system—local, state, and national. Through a unified national approach, a wide variety of programs can be developed which are mutually supportive in their efforts at confronting the problems older persons face.

IDENTIFYING THE PROBLEM

A cursory look at the following four studies will aid in a diagnosis of the problem. Victimization of the elderly has been carefully measured in each study, and a brief conclusion to each could appear as follows:

1. *National Crime Survey*

   In 1974 a National Crime Survey of crimes against persons and property showed that individuals aged 65 and over experienced the *lowest* victimization of any age group. This was a survey that included all 50 states and the District of Columbia.[3]

2. *Houston Model Neighborhood Area*

   A 1974 study conducted by North Texas State University showed that persons 65 and over were *undervictimized* in comparison to the general population of the Houston Model Neighborhood Area. Of all crimes committed, individuals 65 and over experienced a victimization rate approximately *two-thirds* that of the general population.[4]

3. *Kansas City, Missouri*

   A 1977 study of crime against the residents of Kansas City, Missouri was conducted by the Midwest Research Institute. This study compared crimes against persons aged 60 and over with crimes against persons younger than 60. It showed that the total crime rate of older persons was approximately *one-half* that of persons younger than 60.[5]

4. *St. Petersburg, Florida*

   The St. Petersburg Police Department has conducted extensive age-related crime analyses. Over a four-year period, beginning in 1974 and ending in 1977, reports have shown that while persons aged 60 and over made up 37 percent of the total population of St. Petersburg, only *16 percent* of all crimes in this time period were committed against this age group. This represents a victimization rate of *less than one-half* that of the general population.[6]

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A Closer Look

Before any conclusions can be drawn from these studies, a more in-depth look is required. A comprehensive analysis will identify several specific problem areas found repeatedly in these and other victimization studies:

• *National Crime Survey*

The previously mentioned 1974 survey conducted by the National Crime Panel showed that persons aged 50 and over, while experiencing low overall victimization rates, were the second most frequent age group subjected to personal *larceny with* **contact.**

**National Crime Survey
Victimization Rates — 1974**

Age Group	Personal Larceny With Contact (per 1,000)
12-15 yr. old	3.10
16-19	3.70
20-24	3.40
25-34	2.60
35-49	2.60
50+	3.45

II-3

CONTINUED

1 OF 5

This crime category, which includes pursesnatching and pickpocketing, often carries severe negative consequences:

1. It is extremely fear-provoking;

2. It results in economic loss;

3. It may cause physical injury, often with more long-term consequences to the older victim; and

4. It may result in adverse behavioral changes for the victim. Each of these conditions is traumatic, especially to an older victim. (Lesson Three will examine the effects of victimization in greater detail.)

The 1975 National Crime Survey indicated that persons 50 and over had significant increases in crimes of violence and theft committed against them.[8]

National Crime Survey: Change In
Victimization Rates, 1974-1975 (percentage)

Age Group	Robbery	Aggravated Assault	Crimes of Theft
12-15 yr. old	-10.4	-5.5	-5.0
16-19	-5.7	-9.8	1.5
20-24	.8	-14.8	.2
25-34	-10.8	-7.0	3.4
35-49	-16.1	-5.4	1.3
50+	8.2	7.0	7.9

Houston Model Neighborhood Area

This study, which also showed persons 65 and older to be generally undervictimized, did, however, highlight three crimes in which older persons were most often the victims. More than any other age group, persons 65 and over were the victims of *robbery, pursesnatching,* and *swindle.*[9]

Houston Model Neighborhood Area Study
Victimization By Age (per 1,000)

Crime	Age Under 65	Age 65+
Robbery	4.7	5.6
Pursesnatching	1.3	3.2
Swindle	2.2	3.8
All Crimes	41.7	29.8

Not only are robbery and pursesnatching fear-provoking, but they also are causes of economic loss and possible injury. Further, swindle/bunco schemes are perpetrated most often against older persons.

Kansas City, Missouri

The Midwest Research Institute's 1977 report of crimes committed against Kansas City's elderly residents showed findings beyond the low over-all rate of victimization. An analysis of the Kansas City crime rate per 1,000 population shows for the 60 and over group a special vulnerability to *strong-arm robberies* occurring in the inner-city. Inner-city elderly residents have a rate of victimization twice that of the elderly in other parts of the city and nearly four times that of younger persons who are victimized in the non-inner city area.[10]

Comparison Of Crime Rates For
Persons 60 And Over With Persons Under
60 (per 1,000)

Area & Age of Victim	Robbery Total	Strongarm Robbery	Total Crimes
Inner City			
60+	7.11	3.69	28.06
-60	11.39	3.82	60.72
Non-Inner City			
60+	3.63	1.93	14.85
-60	3.06	.97	25.72

The 60 and over group have nearly equal rates with persons younger than 60 for strong-arm robbery occurring in the inner city, a fact that is significant because the older group is less accessible as crime targets due to their natural and imposed lifestyles. By natural lifestyle they are less likely than younger persons to put themselves in high-risk situations. By imposed lifestyle, they are likely to change their habits and behavior, often remaining at home.

St. Petersburg, Florida

Older persons in St. Petersburg, while constituting 37 percent of the population, were the most frequent victims of *pursesnatching*. In 1976, 71 percent of all pursesnatchings were committed against women 60 and over, who constituted 20 percent of the population. Older persons were also highly victimized by *pickpocketing* and *robbery*, again significant because of their decreased mobility and accessibility as a target.[11]

St. Petersburg, Florida
Victimization Data — 1976

	Total Crime	Victims 60+	% of Total
Robbery	555	209	38%
Pickpocket	67	27	40%
Pursesnatch	129	91	71%
Total Crime	16,167	2,664	16%

The characteristic common to these four examples is that each reflects *low over-all victimization rates* for older persons. But yet in each example there are specific crime categories in which older persons are victimized disproportionate to their numbers. The Department of Justice, in its recent publication on crime victimization, clearly recognizes these very important realities.[12] Thus, it is important that law enforcement personnel adopt approaches which take these realities into account, as Lesson Four will explain.

Other studies reflect similar victimization trends. The following examples represent a wide disparity in geography and type of locality, and yet the findings are similar.

1. Oakland, California

The University of California surveyed 320 victims of *strongarm robbery* and 190 *pursesnatching* victims in Oakland in 1969. This study found that for both crime categories persons aged 65 and older were the most frequently victimized of any age group. Further analysis showed that of *all robberies* committed against women, over one-third of the 753 victims surveyed were 65 or older.[13]

Oakland, California Victimization, 1969

Age Group	Strongarm Robbery	Pursesnatch
-13	3.1	-
13-18	9.4	1.6
19-25	11.9	7.9
26-40	10.0	8.9
41-55	15.0	17.4
56-64	13.8	21.6
65+	24.4	34.7

2. Detroit, Michigan

A Detroit study entitled *Senior Citizens as Victims of Major Crimes* collected data on reported crimes against persons 55 years of age and older — 22 percent of the Detroit population. The study analyzed five major crimes. An analysis of reported crimes against older persons from 1971 to 1973 showed that older persons were victimized more than the general population by *unarmed robbery* and *breaking and entering*.[14]

Detroit, Michigan Victimization, 1971-1973

	Unarmed Robbery			Breaking & Entering		
	1971	1972	1973	1971	1972	1973
Age 55+	2,296	1,147	1,352	7,442	4,552	5,899
% of Total	33.9%	30%	27.6%	24%	22.5%	27.9%
Total	6,766	3,802	4,895	30,798	20,156	21,154

3. Los Angeles, California

The Los Angeles Police Department collected data from its 1975 incident reports in order to determine the crimes committed against older persons (60+), who represented 15.8 percent of

the population. The department found that older persons were victims of street crimes at twice the rate of the general population. Their study included *personal theft/attempts, pickpocketing, pursesnatching,* and *bunco.*[15]

Los Angeles, California Victimization, 1975

	Under 60	60+	% of Total	Total
Personal Theft/Att.	388	133	26%	521
Pursesnatch/ Attempts	606	340	36%	946
Pickpocket/ Attempts	236	65	22%	301
Bunco	66	44	40%	110

4. *Wilmington, Delaware*

The Wilmington Police Department and the Federal Bureau of Investigation conducted a joint examination of street crimes committed against Wilmington residents in 1975. Their analysis showed that older persons were victims of such crimes at twice the rate of the general population. The two significant crimes studied were *street robberies/attempts* and *pursesnatching/attempts.*[16] The data, which will be presented in Lesson Four in a discussion of crime analysis, showed older persons to be highly victimized by both crimes.

CONCLUSION

By carefully examining victimization data, two conclusions can be reached:

1. Older persons experience low *overall* victimization by criminals, and

2. Most importantly, they are highly victimized by *particular* types of criminals.

The realization of these points is crucial to effective crime prevention programming for older persons in the community. The law enforcement officer, as a program implementer, has a key role in initiating the changes necessary to confront these problems.

A necessary step to program implementation is to clearly identify the crime problems within each specific community. Such identification is brought about by crime analysis, which will be discussed in Lesson Four.

Another necessary step to program implementation is to accurately identify the causes and effects of victimization of the elderly. These concerns will be explored in Lessons Two and Three.

SUMMARY

While older persons experience the lowest overall victimization of any age group, for certain crime categories they are overvictimized.

Elderly persons most frequently are subjected to the crimes of personal larceny with contact and swindles. These crimes cause trauma, economic losses, physical injuries, and negative behavioral changes in the victim. It is necessary for law enforcement personnel to recognize that the elderly suffer from these crimes disproportionate to their numbers in the general population.

It is the responsibility of law enforcement personnel to implement programs to combat the criminal victimization of the elderly.

For program implementation to be effective, the law enforcement agency must conduct crime analysis within its own community and accurately identify the causes and effects of victimization of the elderly.

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LESSON TWO
CRIMES AFFECTING THE ELDERLY

The crime problems affecting older persons today are pervasive throughout the United States and share common features. Lesson Two will identify these crimes and describe the factors which make elderly persons particularly susceptible to certain types of criminals.

When analyzing data from various victimization studies, the following considerations should be kept in mind:

- Different studies use different age breakdowns for measurement purposes. For example, St. Petersburg, Florida considered the age of 60 as the beginning of their elderly category, while Oakland, California defined their elderly category as age 65 and over.

- Each study has special circumstances surrounding it, such as sample size and characteristics of the area to be studied. For example, the Houston Model Neighborhood Area that was studied was a select area oriented toward providing services to older persons. A situation such as this can affect the type and frequency of crime being reported.

Such considerations are further tempered by the fact that no two jurisdictions are exactly alike. Each jurisdiction must consider its own unique situations when analyzing the crime problem. Even if the Uniform Crime Reports categorize the crime victims by age (as they do for murder), such findings do not reflect the specific problems of any one area.

In order to make reliable decisions for the delivery of crime prevention services to the elderly, program managers must receive reliable data and information about the needs of older persons in their communities. It is vitally important that each locality should determine its own crime problems.

There are several common trends and tendencies for the criminal victimization of older persons. These trends and tendencies are best examined through the statistical techniques of rate and frequency, which are defined as follows:

- Crimes of Increased Rate: the frequency of occurrence as compared to the younger population's victimization (proportionately).

- Crimes of High Frequency: the frequency of occurrence as compared to other crimes affecting older persons (numerically).

CRIMES OF INCREASED RATE

The most common "crimes of increased rate" are robbery/pursesnatching and fraud/bunco. Older persons fall victim to these crimes disproportionately to their numbers in the general population.

Robbery And Pursesnatching

These two crimes are among the most fear-provoking crimes for the victim, since they involve an increased potential for injury. Robberies and pursesnatchings were cited as a serious problem in six of the eight victimization studies described in Lesson One.

Robbery is perpetrated in several different ways, but the most frequent types used against older persons are *strong-arm robbery* and some forms of *pursesnatching*. These forms of robbery involve no weapons; however, bodily harm is frequently inflicted upon the victim.

Strong-arm robbery is committed most often against an older victim. It is the easiest form of robbery to commit and is used when there is little fear of resistance or retaliation on the part of the victim. Although no weapon is used, the perpetrator generally will use physical force to demonstrate his intent and show that he is in command of the situation.[1]

Older persons are, in general, more easily are victimized by robbers than are younger persons. It is fairly easy for a robber to establish a travel pattern for an older person, such as the monthly trip to the bank or grocery store to cash a Social Security check. The assailant chooses older persons as victims of robbery because of the following behavioral and psychological traits which tend to be associated with the aging process:

- His ability to defend himself tends to decline with age;

- He is less likely to resist or retaliate with physical force;

- He tends not to carry a weapon as frequently as do younger persons;

- His ability to quickly identify dangerous situations decreases with age;

- He is less likely to adequately identify the perpetrator;

- His behavioral patterns tend to be more predictable (for example, he more often maintains regular schedules of travel, such as when cashing Social Security checks);

- He is more often dependent upon public transportation, which further regulates travel schedules and requires extended periods of waiting on sidewalks; and

- He more often does not report the crime to the police, for fear of reprisal.

The pursesnatcher very often chooses an older woman as a victim. This crime was cited as a serious problem in six of the eight victimization studies described in Lesson One.

A pursesnatching usually is committed in the following manner: the assailant approaches the victim from the rear and makes an immediate escape after seizing the purse. Little contact with the victim is sought. The main advantage of this approach is speed of escape, with little or no identification of the perpetrator by the victim. The chance of bodily harm does exist though, since the assailant usually will not hesitate to use force to seize the purse.

Older women are disproportionately chosen as targets by the pursesnatcher for several reasons in addition to those previously discussed in connection with victimization by robbers:

- Their reaction time tends to be slower than that of younger persons;

- Pursuit of the assailant becomes more difficult, if not impossible with advancing age; and

- Older women tend to carry more items of value in their purses, including cash rather than checks or credit cards, than do younger women.

Fraud and Bunco

This is a crime category with infinite variations, such as flimflams, swindles, and confidence games. The *National Criminal Justice Thesaurus*, in its definition of confidence games, notes a characteristic common to fraud and bunco schemes in which older persons are victimized:

"A form of fraud in which advantage is taken of the confidence the victim reposes in the swindler".[2]

The Federal Bureau of Investigation recognizes in its description of confidence games that winning is dependent upon the confidence the victim places in the con artist.[3]

It is generally agreed that fraud and bunco schemes are frequently committed against older persons. The California Crime Prevention Division of the Attorney General's Office estimated in 1973 that 90 percent of the victims of the pigeon drop scheme (see definitions, page 18) were older persons. Of all medical fraud cases that came to the attention of the Division, 70 percent involved older victims.[4]

This is not to say that fraud and bunco is a crime that is exclusively perpetrated against older persons.[5] Businessmen and professionals often are victims of fraudulent investment schemes, as they usually have the interest and the means to invest, but are not knowledgeable of the investment environment and are therefore very susceptible to fraud, as the following examples illustrate:

- Wall Street bankers and investment counselors were bilked in the $200 million Oklahoma Homestake Oil Company swindle;

- Five bank presidents - all fired because of unwise investments -were drawn into the $40 million Washington-New York wine swindle; and

- A businessman looking for diversification received a wad of paper worth five dollars when he invested $35,000 in a computer dating franchise.

While it is impossible to generalize across such a heterogeneous group, some older persons have psychological characteristics which make them particularly susceptible to *specific* kinds of fraudulent schemes. These characteristics are brought about by a variety of situations, but primarily include seven common factors:

1. Loneliness: Many older persons do not often have a chance to talk with others. A friendly, smooth-talking con artist provides a real opportunity for conversation itself, not to mention the fantastic opportunity to make or save some money.

2. Grief: The loss of close friends or relatives causes people to seek alternatives as replacements. The older person tends to lose those alternatives as the people who made up his world pass on. This opens up the door to a variety of con artists who are glad to share, if only temporarily, the emotions and feelings of the individual. Religious schemes and fortune-telling/medium operations are big business by virtue of this search for replacement.

3. Depression: The feeling of lost self-worth which many older persons experience can cause a generally depressed state of being. Frantic efforts toward image rebuilding often lack the normal judgment and caution found in sound decision-making. A con artist can present to the depressed older person the opportunity to be of real use again. A successful con artist will find such people useful again and again.

4. Sensory impairment: Some con games, such as the pigeon drop, rely on sleight of hand to be successful. Fraudulent contracts which sell to or take from the victim more than he bargained for do so in the small print. The older person who cannot easily read small print, or who has difficulty hearing oral explanations, may be too embarrassed or proud to ask for clarification. Additionally, sleight of hand becomes easier to use when dealing with a person who cannot see well to begin with.

5. Illness and pain: Anyone who experiences illness or pain seeks relief. For the older person, the consequences of these problems may be absolute; thus, the need for relief is amplified. A frantic search for help may lead the older person to the con artist who has the "miracle cure" that conventional (legitimate) doctors "don't want to use." Snake oil is found in all shapes and sizes.

6. Avarice: This is a characteristic found in many people, but for the older person time is running out. Opportunities which arise could be the last chance, and many swindles and confidence games require immediate action or the chance will be lost. The older person can't afford to pass it up and, unfortunately, many don't.

7. Non-acceptance of aging: Madison Avenue seems to tell us that it is undesirable to be old in America. Such distaste for aging may cause older persons to search for cures for the symptoms of aging or for the aging process itself. Such "cures" are in ready supply.[6]

Beyond these seven situations is the economic reality that many older persons are retirees on fixed incomes. In 1977 only 13 percent of persons aged 65 and older were in the work force—either working or actively seeking work.[7]

Inflation, particularly in recent years, significantly reduces the value of a fixed retirement income over an extended period of time. Because of this, many older persons are anxious to increase their limited savings to offset the inflationary effects, and they will not exercise the necessary caution in approaching investment schemes or chances to make easy money. For the con artist, an accumulation of savings by an older person represents an immediately available and transferable asset. Monies from the sale of a house, life insurance benefits, or inheritances are all liquid assets easily obtained and impossible to trace at a later date.

Finally, many older persons, especially women, live alone. This means that they do not have a second opinion readily available, and many fraudulent schemes require immediate action as part of the deal. In severe cases, the older person who is not in the social mainstream may become detached to the point of not knowing the cost of repairs or the true value of his property.

Successful con artists are astute students of human behavior. They are experts in the applied knowledge of how to manipulate people to go along with their schemes. They exploit the desires and weaknesses of their victims. They are convincing and ingenious, and often very charming.

The con artist uses a variety of methods to select potential victims. Some of these methods are:

- Random, person-to-person contacts;

- Indiscriminate, house-to-house canvassing;

- Mailing using "Resident" or "Occupant";

- Random mailing list acquired from another group;

- A "soft touch" mailing list acquired from a legitimate charitable or religious organization;

- Offering prizes to people to induce them to suggest names of their friends who might be interested in the "product";

- Subtle probing by the bunco artist of local people in order to elicit names of likely subjects for a swindle;

- Names from newspaper articles: For example, the con artist calls the victim and says "I see by the paper that you are interested in someone to repair your driveway;"

- Names from the obituary columns, tipping off the con artist to the names and addresses of grief-ridden relatives;

- Visual inspection of neighborhoods by roof repair, driveway repair, or home repair defrauders who are looking for likely prospects;

- Checking phone books for people having unusual Biblical first names: such names are characteristic of some older people; and

- Females listed in phone books or on mail boxes, which indicates that they may live alone.[9]

In short, the con artist is astute and clever. He can find victims for his fraudulent schemes among any segment of the population. Older people happen to have many of the characteristics he is looking for.

There is no way, short of isolation, to prevent a con artist from contacting an older person as a potential victim. The efforts of law enforcement officers should be focused on a response to that inevitability. Bunco schemes include a variety of fraudulent and deceptive crimes. There are estimated to be over 800 varieties.[10] Although there are regional variances in fraud/bunco schemes which local law enforcement agencies should document for themselves, the following examples are standard formats from which other schemes and frauds are drawn.

1. *Bank Examiner.* The bank examiner scheme usually is performed by a three-person team and occurs as follows:

   - The team pinpoints bank locations on a map within a certain target area. They go through the telephone directory to underline listings of women's names.[11] Then they single out a victim, usually a woman, who lives alone and who is unlikely to discuss the scheme with someone else;

   - The first team member makes an initial telephone call, verifies the identity of the victim's bank, and informs the intended victim that a bank official will be calling shortly;

   - The second con artist — impersonating a bank official — telephones to obtain the victim's correct bank balance, to advise the intended victim that a number of bank accounts have some suspicious withdrawals, and to persuade her to withdraw money to help trap a suspected dishonest employee;

   - The third member of the con team serves as a bag man who, displaying forged credentials, collects the money withdrawn from the bank by the victim.

   This scheme often is easy to accomplish because the con artists prey on the victim's civic pride and duty and point out to her a personal interest since her own money is in the bank.

2. *Pigeon Drop.* The pigeon drop scheme, like the bank examiner fraud, usually targets women — often older women — as prime victims. The typical pigeon drop scheme operates as follows:

   - A pigeon drop team usually consists of a racial mix, or a team that isn't apparently working together;[12]

   - An elderly person is approached by one member of the con team. As they talk, the second member of the team plants a package of money and then joins the conversation by inquiring whether or not the money belongs to either of them;

   - A note is pulled from the package of money and shown to the intended victim. The note induces the victim to think that the money has been gained by illicit means — or will be used for illicit purposes — and that the finders should keep the money;

   - The con artist holding the money offers to consult his "boss" or "lawyer" to ask what to do with the money. He reports back that the three can split the money. However, they will have to withdraw money from the bank to show good faith and to prove that they will not spend the money found until the "boss" has worked out some legal procedures; and

   - The accomplice, pretending not to know the finder, produces money and urges the victim to do the same. The victim withdraws savings and shows the money to the con artists. They place it in an envelope and, in a fast switch, give the victim an envelope stuffed with nothing but paper.

3. *Home Repair Fraud.* The older homeowner is frequently victimized by home improvement or home repair frauds. These take many forms. A typical home repair swindle operates as follows:

   - "Workmen" approach an older homeowner — they point out a home repair need;

   - They confide to the homeowner that they have just finished a job nearby, have material left over, and can do the repair for only a fraction of the actual cost, since the material was already paid for;

   - Their line may go something like: "We don't have to return that oil. We can fix your roof, make a couple extra dollars for ourselves, and save you some money;"

   - The homeowner allows the workmen to do the job — by allowing them to use materials someone else paid for, he may feel compromised; and

   - The homeowner pays the workmen; but the material used is inferior and deteriorates very soon afterward.[13]

4. *The Building Inspector.* The inspector scheme also victimizes homeowners, often older persons. The typical building inspector or home inspector scheme operates as follows:

   - A con artist poses and appears at the door as an "inspector" —unknown, unsummoned, and displaying false credentials. He informs the homeowner that he is making a routine inspection and gains entrance to the home;

   - After his inspection, he declares that the house is unsafe, placing the homeowner in an extremely frightening or uncomfortable situation. For example, he may tell the homeowner that the water must be turned off immediately because the hot water heater is unsafe; and

   - The "inspector" knows someone (a plumber, for example) who can do the repair. The "repair" is arranged and performed at an exorbitant fee.[14]

5. *Sales Frauds.* Some sales fraud perpetrators find older persons to be particularly vulnerable and susceptible to their fraudulent approach. A typical sales fraud operates as follows:[15]

   - The "salesman" begins with this statement, "Mrs. Anderson, I know you already have a hearing aid, but I get 10 dollars from my company for every demonstration I give. Won't you let me show our product to you?"

- The "company" may have bestowed on the salesman the title of hearing aid audiologist, [16] and may conduct some form of hearing test as part of the demonstration; and

- In one case, the salesman had an older woman in her eighties sign a piece of paper, which he pretended was a statement from her that he had performed the demonstration. In reality, he had her sign a contract for a $175 hearing aid which she did not need.

6. *Medical Quackery*. Older persons are frequently victims of fraudulent medical or quick-cure schemes. Fake laboratory tests, "miracle" cures, and offers of free medical diagnoses often trap the older person into expensive, long-term, and useless treatments.

7. *"Work At Home" Frauds*. One newspaper advertisement drew more than 200,000 applicants in response to a fraudulent offer. Applicants, in order to qualify, had to send a small registration fee and perform a sewing task to demonstrate their skill. *No one qualified and no money was returned*.[17]

8. *Mail Frauds*. The U.S. Postal Service categorizes the wide variety of mail frauds as: consumer frauds, business opportunity frauds, medical frauds, and self-improvement frauds.[18] Mail frauds often victimize old and lonely persons who may value and read carefully a piece of mail which a younger person would discard as junk mail.

While these eight schemes are found nationwide, the law enforcement officer must become aware of the schemes and ploys in his individual area, since new twists to the basics are found in each area. A successful community education program to prevent fraud and bunco victimization must include a review of the psychology of the victim/perpetrator interaction, which surfaces a spirit of larceny by the victim in order for the scheme to be accomplished. Discussion of that fact after community arousal produces negative results for effective police involvement in community education and problem solving.

CRIMES OF HIGH FREQUENCY

Crimes of high frequency involving older persons as victims include burglary and vandalism (especially when the older persons live in a community with a large population of teenagers).

Burglary

As is the case with any age group, burglary is one of the most frequent crimes committed against older persons. It is not necessarily an age-related crime, but is usually determined in type and frequency by the locale. Burglary was cited, however, as a serious problem for older persons in the Detroit victimization study described in Lesson One.

Most burglaries are committed by adolescents who usually live near the targeted residence. The typical burglar is not a hardened criminal; rather, he is most often one of the neighborhood kids. For this reason and the fact that the victim rarely is present during the commission of the crime, there is usually little danger of physical harm to the victim. However, real danger exists if the victim *is* present or arrives at home while the burglary is being committed. The average burglar does not

desire to have any contact with the victim, but because of his youth and inexperience, he can be unpredictable if he is discovered.

In many cases older persons live either in public housing projects or in older houses. Security measures in public housing projects are often lax or non-existent.[19] Projects are often placed in close proximity to the criminals who prey upon them. This provides the burglar with a variety of accessible targets in one convenient location.

An older house very often has many points of entry because it was designed in an era when crime was less of a problem. The property surrounding an older house may have many overgrown trees and shrubbery. This foliage provides excellent cover for the burglar entering the house.

Burglary is a nationwide crime problem that does not seem to seek out older persons as victims more than anyone else. However, one characteristic about older persons does make them attractive targets to the burglar. While they may not necessarily own more expensive possessions, they do tend to keep larger sums of cash in the house. This is particularly advantageous to the burglar, since cash is easy to carry and is immediately available for use upon possession. Finally, the older victim usually has followed a distinguishable pattern of travel for a long period of time. This makes it relatively easy for a burglar to determine the most opportune time to break into the house.

Vandalism

Older persons very frequently are the target of this crime. In a 1977 study of victimization of the elderly in Montgomery County, Maryland, vandalism was found to be one of the most frequent crimes committed against older persons.[20]

Adolescents are almost exclusively the perpetrators of vandalism. They choose their targets for a variety of reasons and, in the case of older victims, one of those reasons is increased social isolation. Many older persons in a mixed community will withdraw from social contacts in their neighborhood more than the average resident would.[21] Whether by choice or fear, this withdrawal tends to make them "outsiders" in the eyes of a vandal, and a choice target for destruction of property.

The older residents usually have lived in their homes for many years. This extended length of residency brings about a greater concern for the sanctity of their house and property. The surrounding environment assumes an importance to older persons not often found in the younger population.[22] Therefore, juveniles in the neighborhood may be violating the defensible territory of an older person by taking a shortcut across the lawn. This action, which is perfectly normal to the juvenile, may cause a forceful reaction from the older resident. This can antagonize the juvenile to the point of retaliation, frequently by vandalism.

Other Crimes

Other crimes in which older persons are victims include assault, auto theft, and murder. However, the elderly are not frequent victims of these crimes, compared to other age groups.

Assault. Most assaults do not occur against older persons. Proportionately, they are undervictimized by this crime. Due to the nature of the crime, an indeterminate number of assaults are

victim-induced to the point that there is essentially no difference in the culpability of the victim and the offender.[23] However, this is usually not the case with older assault victims. Many do not know their assailant, which is unusual for this crime. St. Petersburg, Florida, Police found that in 38 percent of the assaults on an older victim, it was a stranger-to-stranger confrontation, an usually high percentage when compared to the stranger-to-stranger confrontations within the general population.[24]

Auto Theft. While this is a crime that rapidly is increasing in the general population, it is not a serious problem for the elderly. This is due primarily to less ownership of vehicles by this age group, plus greater precautionary measures which are typical of the cautionary acts found with the aging process.

Murder. In both rate and frequency, older persons are victims of this crime far less than average. The frequency of murder is low for all ages, but the rate of murder decreases steadily as the age group gets older. This is the one crime that the FBI's Uniform Crime Reports classify by the age of the victim. The following table of incidents for 1978 reflects the low victimization rate for older persons. As is shown, persons 65 and older represented 5.9 percent of the murder victims for that year, but yet make up 10.9 percent of the total population.[25]

Murder: Uniform Crime Reports 1978

Age	Number of Incidents	Percent (%) of Incidents	Age Percentage of Total Population
Infant (under 1)	207	1.1	1.4
1 - 4	339	1.8	5.5
5 - 9	158	.8	7.7
10 - 14	247	1.3	8.5
15 - 19	1,619	8.7	9.7
20 - 24	3,093	16.5	9.4
25 - 29	3,025	16.2	8.3
30 - 34	2,188	11.7	7.3
35 - 39	1,707	9.1	6.0
40 - 44	1,378	7.4	5.2
45 - 49	1,091	5.8	5.2
50 - 54	1,000	5.3	5.4
55 - 59	761	4.1	5.2
60 - 64	555	3.0	4.3
65 - 69	412	2.2	3.9
70 - 74	272	1.5	2.9
75 and over	411	2.2	4.1
Unknown	251	1.3	.1

Total 18,714   Percent 100.0

Rape. This is another crime which rarely occurs against an older person. The frequency of this crime is very low overall. Most victims are young women. These two factors make an older woman an unlikely victim of rape. In one in-depth study of rapists who choose older victims, the offenders indicated no love, respect, or admiration for their parents. Instead, physical and/or emotional abuse tended to be the pattern.[26] The rapist who preys upon older women generally shows severe maladjustment patterns and is, fortunately, a rare entity. Nationwide, the occurrence of elderly rape is very infrequent, as the following chart shows:[27]

Estimated Rate (per 100,000 persons 12 years or older)

of Attempted and Actual Rapes, by Age of Victim —

United States 1976

Age of Victim	Rate Per 100,000
12 - 15	105
16 - 19	209
20 - 24	259
25 - 34	123
35 - 49	4
50 - 64	9
65+	5
Total	714

The International Association of Chiefs of Police conducted a survey of 180 police and sheriff departments to determine the crime problems older persons face, as seen by law enforcement itself. The survey results, as shown below, parallel closely the findings presented earlier in the lesson.[28]

Senior Citizen Victimization and its Prevention

Crime	Most Frequent Crime Victims		Crime Prevention Programs Needed	
Forcible rape	2	(1%)	6	(3%)
Robbery	66	(37%)	58	(32%)
Aggravated assault	20	(11%)	15	(8%)
Burglary	122	(68%)	102	(57%)
Pocket picking or purse snatching	129	(72%)	99	(55%)
Theft of income checks (i.e. social security welfare, etc.)	99	(55%)	73	(41%)
Theft of motor vehicles	8	(4%)	5	(5%)
Theft of recreational equipment or bicycles	6	(3%)	5	(3%)
Theft from motor vehicle	21	(12%)	16	(9%)
Confidence games and deceptive practices	150	(83%)	104	(58%)
Embezzlement	17	(9%)	16	(9%)
Intimidation	27	(15%)	14	(8%)
Telephone harrassment	32	(18%)	23	(13%)
Vandalism	99	(55%)	56	(31%)
Arson	0	(0%)	2	(1%)
Other	5	(3%)	8	(4%)

FACTORS INFLUENCING VICTIMIZATION

The older person is vulnerable to many different crime situations. This vulnerability is greater than in other age groups due to personal and environmental factors, and contributes to the increased victimization previously discussed. Vulnerability factors can be categorized into the following areas:

- Physical;
- Psychological;
- Environmental; and
- Situational

Physical Factors

As part of the aging process, the physical capabilities and sensory perceptions of older persons decline. This increases their chances of victimization because:

1. They are less aware of their surroundings. They:

   - May not see or hear approaching danger;
   - May not be aware of an initial contact with an attacker and thus be unable to react;
   - May not be able to identify the offender if he is apprehended; and
   - May not be able to read and understand the terms of a fraudulent contract.

2. They have experienced a loss of muscular coordinating capabilities. They:

   - Are less able to defend themselves from attack;
   - Are less likely to retaliate with physical force;
   - Are less likely to pursue an assailant; and
   - Are less able to protect their property from attack.

3. They have reduced reaction times. They:

   - May not react to a crime situation immediately; and
   - Are less able to understand a fast-talking bunco artist.

Psychological Factors

Again due to the aging process and the circumstances which surround it, older persons experience psychological problems which contribute to their vulnerability to criminal acts. This increased vulnerability occurs because:

1. They may be pre-occupied with economic, physical, or other personal problems. This preoccupation would reduce their internal warning signals of a danger situation, such as with a bunco artist or potential attacker.

2. They may periodically lose contact with the immediate situation. While this is dangerous in the street environment, it also provides the bunco artist with an easier mark to exploit.

3. They may be lonely. They may welcome a stranger into their homes for the opportunity of conversation, and unknowingly invite physical harm or property loss.

4. They may be depressed. This can significantly alter the behavior of an otherwise normal person, and cause them to make erratic and often detrimental decisions.

5. They may be afraid. The fear of reprisal will affect the reporting of the crime to police.

6. They may be more trusting. This is a luxury many of us can no longer afford, and it can be extremely difficult for older persons to adjust to an attitude of wariness, considering the era they grew up in.

Environmental Factors

Many older persons live in central city areas, where crime is rampant. In 1970, 34 percent of persons aged 65 and over lived in central cities.[29]

These elderly persons have either been unable or unwilling to move out of the older neighborhoods, or they have been placed there by a social welfare program. In either case, their chances of being victimized are increased because:

1. Central cities are generally high-crime areas with inadequate police protection.

2. As neighborhoods change, the older residents become more isolated from the mainstream.

3. They may have to rely on public transportation through areas they would normally avoid, and must stand at transportation stops for extended periods of time.

4. They are more likely to be victimized by criminals repeatedly. Much of the crime problem is area-related, and definite patterns develop.

Situational Factors

Older persons are more likely than their younger counterparts to live alone. This has negative consequences in the following areas:

1. They face a greater risk of physical attack, and have less of an ability to adequately defend themselves.

2. No one is present to protect their homes or property when they leave the house, even for short periods.

3. They have little opportunity for consulting others concerning possible fraud, when being pressed for immediate decisions.

Further, older persons tend to maintain a routine in their daily activities with much more regularity than the general population.[30] These routine patterns are easily identified and, as a result, their major activities are easily discernible to criminals. Because of this:

1. The robber knows when the older person is carrying large amounts of cash (such as for groceries) and the route he will be taking to the store or to his home.

2. The burglar knows when and for how long the older person's house or apartment will be vacant.

3. The con artist knows the best times and places to "accidentally" encounter the older person.

THE OFFENDER PROFILE

In nearly every case the criminal offender is an opportunist, evident by the significant success of effective crime prevention programs. The older person presents an excellent target for the offender. It is no coincidence that 90 percent of the "pigeons" in the pigeon drop swindles in California are 65 or older.[31] Youthful muggers in New York call their attacks on older persons "crib jobs"—the equivalent of taking candy from a baby.[32]

In nearly every case the criminal offender is an opportunist. A determination of a "typical offender" can be made only from an available data base. From a national perspective, such data is generally derived from large metropolitan population areas. Profiles determined from such data are useful when speaking in general terms; however, each locale must identify its criminal population through local crime analysis. Except where noted, the following statistics are derived from the *1978 Sourcebook of Criminal Justice Statistics*. The percentages given apply to the national average and include all known criminal offenses against *all* age categories.[33]

Robbery

The typical robber is:

- 15 to 21 years old in 53.8 percent of all robberies;
- Male in 93.0 percent of all robberies; and
- Black in 59.0 percent of all robberies.

Pursesnatching

This crime is classified differently by each police department and, even within one jurisdiction, circumstances surrounding the crime will place it in different classifications. *The Sourcebook of Criminal Justice Statistics* does not list this crime separately.

However, the Wilmington, Delaware Crime Analysis Project did construct an offender profile for the combination of street robberies and pursesnatchings and attempts to commit either of these crimes.[34] Their analysis determined that for these crimes the offender was:

- 13 to 21 years old in 85 percent of 174 samples;
- Male in 96 percent of 203 samples; and
- Black in 92 percent of 203 samples.

Aggravated Assault

The typical perpetrator of assault is:

- 17 to 29 years old in 52.4 percent of all assaults (aggravated);
- Male in 89.7 percent of all assaults (aggravated); and
- White in 50.8 percent of all assaults (aggravated).

Violent Crime

This category includes the crimes of murder, rape, robbery, and aggravated assault. The typical perpetrator of a violent crime is:

- 15 to 24 years old in 52.9 percent of violent crimes;
- Male in 89.7 percent of violent crimes; and
- White in 50.8 percent of violent crimes.

Vandalism

The typical vandal is:

- 11 to 17 years old in 57.4 percent of vandalisms;
- Male in 92.0 percent of vandalisms; and
- White in 83.2 percent of vandalisms.

Burglary

The typical burglar is:

- 15 to 20 years old in 52.3 percent of all burglaries;
- Male in 94.6 percent of all burglaries; and
- White in 69.8 percent of all burglaries.

Fraud and Bunco

As stated earlier, ther is no single description of a bunco artist. There are at least as many descriptions as there are bunco schemes. However, the FBI, in its "Portrait of the Confidence Man," has defined some qualities that swindlers share:[35]

- Totally lacks conscience and mercy toward his victims;

- Amoral, exploitative, psychopathic (possible neurosis or character disorder), and a liar;
- Self-assured and free from remorse;
- Lacks affection or empathy for others;
- Intelligent, affable, and is a skilled salesman;
- Winning personality, shrewdness, agility, and a sense of timing; and
- A good actor at home in any number of roles.

The last point is extremely important in describing the con artist. His ability and intelligence allow him to be virtually anyone, and therefore he defies physical description. This problem is compounded by the reality that very few bunco artists are apprehended.

THE OLDER OFFENDER

The older offender has received very little attention from either the law enforcement community or the many criminological research studies. This lack of attention is due primarily to the negligible over-all older offender problem; however, there *are* some crime areas in which the involvement of older offenders is statistically significant.

St. Petersburg, Florida Police have noted one category that has become a problem—shoplifting by older persons. Out of 88,000 persons aged 60 or over, a total of 1,401 were involved in criminal activity from 1974 to 1977. Of the 1,401, over one-half (728) were charged with shoplifting. For total crimes committed by older offenders in St. Petersburg, the typical offender was a white (80 percent) male (69 percent). For shoplifting the typical offender was also a white (93 percent) male (57 percent).[36]

Huntington, West Virginia Police conducted an analysis of arrests from January through June of 1975. Their findings, shown in the following table, indicate that person 60 and over constituted 7.8 percent of adult arrest. A closer look at the crime type breakdowns shows that 87.1 percent of those arrests involved alcohol-related violations.[37]

Huntington Police Department Arrest Analysis

January 1975 thru June 1975

Offense	Age 60 and Over	Total Adults
Felonious Assault	1	45
Burglary	1	40
Larceny (except Auto Theft)	4	147
Other Assaults	4	82
Forgery & Counterfeiting	3	25
Stolen Property	1	11
Vandalism	1	27
Weapons	1	40
Sex Offenses	1	8
Gambling	1	17
DWI	2	70
Liquor Laws	1	6
Drunkenness	146	1,439
Disorderly Conduct	2	32
All Other Offenses	1	87
Total	170	2,175

At the national level, the following table further demonstrates the low percentage of crimes committed by older persons. Once again, the single most frequent crime by older persons was drunkenness, accounting for 39 percent of the charged offenses.[38]

National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service 1976

Arrests, By Offense Charged And Age

Offense Charged	Total Adults Charged	Number 65 & Over Charged	Percentage Charged, 65 & Over
Murder	14,113	263	1.9
Rape	21,687	67	.3
Robbery	110.296	125	.1
All Violent Crimes	338,849	2,493	.7
Burglary	406,821	359	.1
All Property Crimes	1,445,607	8,978	.6
Vandalism	175,082	438	.3
Prostitution	58,648	212	.4
Drunkenness	1,071,131	34,036	3.2
All Crimes	7,912,348	87,801	1.1

CONCLUSION

There are clear reasons why older persons are victims of certain types of crimes. Some of these reasons inhere in the process of aging itself, while others are brought about by the treatment older persons receive in American society.

The law enforcement community cannot change many of the conditions which lead to victimization of the elderly. However, it *can* encourage change in certain behavioral patterns exhibited by older persons which make them easier prey, to a degree sufficient to significantly reduce such victimization.

Such change can only be enacted when the officers responsible are aware of these causal factors.

SUMMARY

Certain types of crimes present serious problems to older persons; therefore, police programs must be directed against prevention of these offenses.

The crimes which represent the most serious problems to older persons are robbery, pursesnatching, fraud/bunco, burglary, and vandalism. Older persons have a low victimization rate for the crimes of assault, murder, and rape; however, each time an older person is a victim of one of these crimes, injury or death results and the experience is traumatic. Inspection of police incident reports often reveals that the serious crimes of assault, murder, and rape against elderly persons often result as an escalation of a lesser offense, such as burglary or pursesnatching. Therefore, police programs aimed at deterring the lesser offenses against the elderly will further serve to reduce the more serious offenses.

In order to effectively plan and implement programs to prevent the victimization of elderly persons, police must be aware of the factors which contribute to the victimization of the elderly and analyze the presence of these contributory factors within their own communities.

Vulnerability factors can be categorized into the following areas: physical, psychological, environmental, and situational. These vulnerability factors touch virtually every facet of the lives of older persons. The best of efforts simply cannot change many of these factors, but law enforcement officers should be aware of the contributing circumstances and plan their programs and operations accordingly. An awareness of these factors which contribute to the victimization of the elderly serves to explain victimization from an overall point of view, but each police department must analyze the presence of these factors at its individual community level in order to plan effective programs.

The perpetration of criminal acts is very much age-related.

Offender profiles indicate that the majority of criminals who victimize older persons are between the ages of 15 and 21 (robbery, pursesnatching, and burglary). There are no readily available offender age breakdowns for such white-collar crimes as fraud and bunco; however, the talent necessary to commit such crimes can be found in all age groups. The older offender does not present a significant problem for police, with the exception of shoplifting, white-collar crimes, and alcohol-related crimes.

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Lesson Three

IMPACT OF CRIME

Among criminal justice system personnel, there is a fairly universal understanding of what a crime is and how it is committed. In Lesson Two the major crime types affecting older persons were described; law enforcement officers nationwide are able to immediately recognize and define these crimes. While classifications may vary, major crime typologies are one of the few consistencies within our fragmented system. Therefore, the event described by the statement that an older person "is the victim of a burglary" is not subject to a wide range of interpretations—a clear concept of that situation exists.

What are not so clear, however, are the ramifications of the incident to the victim. While this is true for *all* age groups, Lesson Three is concerned only with the older person and the special problems he encounters as a victim of crime. The three aspects of concern are:

- The economic impact of victimization.
- The physical injuries from criminal attack.
- The psychological trauma of exposure to crime.

All older persons who are the victims of crime are affected by at least one of these aspects. Many crimes, however, such as a strong-arm robbery or pursesnatching, can affect an older victim in all three areas. Further, because of the widespread differences which exist among members of the older population, one person may be more severely affected economically, physically, or psychologically than another victim of a similar criminal act.

THE MOST FORGOTTEN VICTIM

The criminal justice system in America has established various levels of priorities. Through the efforts of a great many dedicated individuals, the level of concern in the United States for the juvenile delinquent, the adult offender, and prisoners has risen tremendously from the early 1900s to today. The rights of juvenile and adult offenders, as well as the rights of inmates, are well established, and voluminous amounts of research are conducted into each of these areas.[1]

However, notably lacking sufficient attention are the rights of the victims and the demands the criminal justice system places upon them. Nevertheless, the burdens placed upon the victim do not stop with the crime itself.

The judicial process requires the victim to assist in the prosecution of the offender, undergo cross-examination, and bear whatever costs are incurred (transportation, leave from work, etc.) throughout what is often a lengthy legal process, since the defense often seeks numerous postponements.[2]

The irony is that the victim will undergo this only if fortune allows for the apprehension and prosecution by trial of the offender. If not, the crime and its victim merely become statistics.

For the older victim, all of the negative consequences of the system are accented. The heightened impact of the crime further intensifies the anxiety-producing adversary relationship in the courtroom arena. Testimony and cross-examination tend to be more taxing for the older victims, and can significantly increase an already high fear level. The courtroom setting provides little of the emotional support the older person requires, and the likelihood of the defendant's short incarceration period or outright release on probation will heighten the elderly victim's fear of reprisal.

Recognition of the undue demands placed upon older victims by the criminal justice system has helped bring about some responses by criminal justice administrators and legislators, who have been developing programs to attempt to give needed support to the older person. Such programs include:

- Victim Compensation: many states have either adopted victim compensation legislation or are in the process of developing it. Further, some of the federal funding priorities seem to be moving in this direction and, if the trend continues, much more will be done for the victim in the future. Presently, the remuneration benefits allowed by most state statutes are very limited, often covering only a portion of the victim's medical costs.[3]

- Victim Witness Assistance: many jurisdictions are instituting this program for the procedural and emotional support of the victim or witness throughout the criminal justice process. This support generally is carried out by community volunteers who work in conjunction with either the police department or the prosecutor's office.[4]

ECONOMIC LOSS

The average income of older persons is in many cases fixed and, according to recent Department of Commerce data, is much lower than that of the general population.[5]

Of the 23 million Americans over age 65 in 1976, 15 percent were below the poverty level.[6]

There are even greater differences in income between the older *women* and the general population.[7]

The low participation of women in the labor force in the earlier years of the century — those who are 65 or older today — is disallowing many older women from benefiting from pensions and requiring increased dependence on Social Security income.

Regardless of the source, the fixed incomes of the elderly are seriously affected by inflation, which has become part of our economic system. Each year the value of the dollar decreases; hence,

the purchasing power of the older consumer on the fixed income declines. The following table illustrates this decline over a 10-year period, using a hypothetical inflation rate of 10 percent:

Year	Face Value	Actual Worth	Yearly Purchasing Power Loss
1	$3,600.00	$3,600.00	
2	3,600.00	3,240.00	$360.00
3	3,600.00	2,916.00	684.00
4	3,600.00	2,624.40	975.60
5	3,600.00	2,361.96	1,238.04
6	3,600.00	2,125.76	1,474.24
7	3,600.00	1,913.18	1,686.82
8	3,600.00	1,721.86	1,878.14
9	3,600.00	1,549.67	2,050.33
10	3,600.00	1,394.70	2,205.30
	$36,000.00	$23,447.53	$12,552.47

Under present law, cost-of-living adjustments on a fixed Social Security income occur only once a year. This annual adjustment method requires approximately seven months into the new adjustment period to compensate fully the losses from the prior year's inflation. Because of this, the retiree most likely will have to draw upon cash reserves *just to keep pace with his current standard of living.* An unexpected loss from a robbery or burglary will further strain the cash reserves of a retiree.

As a family's (or individual's) income level decreases, their chances of being victimized increases. The following table shows victimization rate increases by burglary, assault, and robbery in relation to decreases from a hypothetical family income of $12,500.[8]

Proportionate Change in Victimization

By Change in Family Income of $12,500

Burglary	X	4.6	8.5	24.1
Assault	X	-3.0	19.8	67.3
Robbery	X	24.5	45.7	78.6
$12,5000	-30%	-58%	-88%	

Change in Family Income of $12,500

This increase in victimization rates occurs because a family which continues to lose income most often must move to cheaper housing, usually located in high-crime areas. Thus, the family finds itself caught in a vicious trap.

The elderly poor not only experience this increased victimization, but the percentage of income they lose each time they are victimized is a significantly greater part of their total income.

The Kansas City victimization study mentioned in Lesson One pointed out that with an overall median income of only $3,000 per year, older victims suffered severe consequences from financial losses. Losses were computed as a percentage of one month's income to determine immediate impacts; overall, victims of all ages lost 23 percent of a month's income. But in the lower income categories, *losses were over 100 percent*. In many cases, these losses forced victims to cut back on basic necessities.[9]

The elderly poor are the favored targets of much criminal activity and the effects of such activity are devastating to the victims.

On the one hand, the actual percentage of income lost by older victims often is greater. Even if the percentages were equal throughout all income levels, the low-income victim who suffers monetary losses must often sacrifice necessities such as food and clothing. The high-income victim may sacrifice luxuries and non-essential goods, and perhaps can tap other resources to distribute the financial loss over a longer period. However, the reality is that poor people lose a higher percentage of their income when they are victimized.

By the same token, fixed income is very hard to replace when it is lost. As the previous table showed, the value of fixed income declines over time. After victimization, the remaining resources must be stretched to make ends meet. Such options as working overtime or at a part-time job are simply not available to many older persons.

The monetary losses suffered by older victims can increase their chances for future victimization. These losses can either force an older person to move to cheaper housing or trap him in such housing if he is already there. Cheaper housing is very often found in high-crime areas, and this exposes the older person to even greater criminal activity.

The deprivation caused by victimization can have other negative results for the older person. Malnutrition, increased exposure to the elements, and seriously curtailed activities are all possibilities. Along with these problems are the psychological effects of victimization and its impact upon the community.

PHYSICAL INJURY

The aging process causes a general deterioration in bodily capabilities and resiliency. The rate of physical deterioration depends upon the individual and the care he takes of his body. Physical deterioration with age is a reality for everyone.

The U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare reports these facts about elderly health and health care:[10]

- Chronic physical problems are more prevalent among older persons than younger persons. In 1976, about 39 percent of older persons were limited in their major activity (working or keeping house) due to physical impairments, as compared to only seven percent of younger persons.

- In 1976, about 18 percent of the 65 and older age group had an interference with their mobility due to chronic physical conditions — six percent had some trouble getting around alone; seven percent needed a mechanical aid to get around; and five percent were homebound.

- In 1976, older people had about a one-in-six chance of being hospitalized during a year, higher than for persons under age 65 (1 in 10). Among those hospitalized during the year, the proportion with more than one stay was greater for older persons than for younger persons (26 percent vs. 15 percent) and the average length of stay was about five days longer (11.6 vs. 6.9 days).

- On the average, older people had more physician visits than did persons under age 65 (6.9 vs. 4.7 visits) in 1976, and a higher proportion had visited a doctor within the last six months (70 percent vs. 58 percent).

The fact is that people become more frail with age. Bones become brittle and wounds take longer to heal. All other things being equal, when an older person is injured as opposed to a younger person, three consequences will result.

1. The injury will be more serious;
2. The injury will take longer to heal; and
3. The injury will disrupt normal activities to a greater degree.

The older victim who is the target of a personal crime is much more likely to be injured than is a younger person. For example, the Kansas City study found that 15 percent of all older crime victims (including victims of property crimes) were physically injured.[11] The Wilmington study revealed that 41 percent of older victims of street crimes sustained injuries.[12]

Another problem is the severity of the injuries administered to older persons by criminals. Congressman Claude Pepper of Florida, at a meeting of the House Select Committee on Aging, made the following observation of this severity:[13]

"Criminal victimization of the elderly has radically altered and restricted the lifestyles of elderly people. The 'Golden Years,' as we like to say, have become years of terror for millions of elderly who are virtual prisoners in their own homes. Americans are doomed to live out the remainder of their lives afraid to go to the grocery store, afraid to go to church on Sunday, or on their Sabbath. For too many, the grisly alternative is a brutal death at the hands of someone who sees the aged as an easy mark."

The Human Resources Commission of New York City observed:[14]

"It used to be that the money was taken away from them and they were left alone. Now, many people are being beaten even though they've given their money freely."

And the New York City Housing Authority reported:[15]

"We have noticed in a small number of cases — but an increasing number of cases — that the physical injury has been intentional. Broken arms, legs, dislocated hips, striking about the face and head after the money was taken, either because the robber is disappointed in the amount of money he gets or is venting his frustration on a helpless victim."

The older victim, because of his decreased physical resilience and the inability of his body to heal, will often suffer injuries that are sustained for the remainder of his life. The New York Office For the Aging states that it is quite likely that the older person will never fully recover from an injury and will carry it with him to his grave.[16] Indeed, many victims have had their life-span considerably shortened due to injuries.

The increased physical impairment brought about by the aging process can lead to greater vulnerability to crime. A disability makes the older person an even easier target for an assailant. A physical disability, particularly one which significantly restricts walking about, climbing on buses, and getting into cars complicates adjustment to the environment for the older person. The Kansas City study disclosed that 20 percent of the victims involved in the study had some visible physical handicap that impaired their mobility.[17]

PSYCHOLOGICAL IMPACT

Criminal victimization often creates several psychological problems for older persons. Among these problems are a devaluing of the self-image, intensification of social isolation. Fear itself, stemming from criminal victimization, has important negative repercussions.

Self-Concept

The Connecticut Justice Commission, in a 1978 report on crimes against the elderly, discussed the psychological conditions of older persons and how the self-image may be devalued by the following factors statistically or physiologically related to aging:[18]

- Series of losses;
- Reduction of income/purchasing power;
- Inadequate housing;
- Limited access to transportation;
- Problems with mobility;
- Poor nutrition;
- Breakdown of social network;
- Loss of spouse;
- Loss of peer relationships;
- Loss of meaningful roles;
- Decrease in vision, hearing, and muscular coordination; and
- Slowed reaction time.

Being victimized by criminals serves to aggravate the already reduced self-concept an older person has. In the case of burglary, one of the most frequent crimes against the elderly, the victim loses irreplaceable items of monetary and sentimental value as well as cash. Family heirlooms, gifts, and antiques cannot be valued at any dollar amount. Further, the impact of the sanctity of one's home being violated by a stranger can take a great psychological toll on the older victim.

Fraud involves much more than a loss of money; the impact on an older victim's ego is often devastating. This crime often goes unreported because of embarrassment, fear, and the age of the victim. Older victims must contend with the speculations by others that they are becoming senile; they may fear losing their independent living status. For these reasons, they do not report being victimized by con artists, a fact which makes them attractive targets for this type of crime.

Social Isolation

The design of the criminal justice system requires a close examination of the role of the victim to determine his own degree of culpability. This in itself presents an additional pressure the victim must endure after the crime has occurred. Beyond these pressures, however, are the reactions of the community to the victim's plight. American society attempts to understand human motivation and social (and anti-social) behavior as rational parts of a fair and equitable world. According to the social psychologist Melvin J. Lerner, blaming the victim, (i.e., "they brought it on themselves") allows us to preserve our "just world."[19]

J. L. Barkas, in her analysis of victimization and its consequences, described university experiments which measured people's reactions to hypothetical crime occurrences. The experiments showed that the less responsibility a victim had for a crime, the less sympathy he will receive from others.[20]

These reactions of the community intensify the social isolation felt by older victims, adding to the psychological traumas of victimization.

Vicarious Victimization

In an older, established community, news tends to travel fast through informal communication networks. When a neighbor is victimized, the crime problem is brought to a personal level, and in communities with many older residents this personification is pervasive.

In addition, the media tend to sensationalize a crime against an older person because of its shock value and society's attraction to grisly reporting. Therefore, a rape or murder of an older person quickly may become a "crime wave."

As has been shown previously, older persons have good reasons to fear crime. This fear, however, can be generated for incidents that bear little relevancy to the "vicarious victim." The Montgomery County, Maryland study found that the majority of older persons felt the elderly were more likely to be victims of crime, regardless of the actual crime problem in their neighborhood or of personal victimization.[21]

Fear of Crime

Older persons are usually more fearful of crime than their younger counterparts.[22] This fear is caused by actual exposure to crime, vicarious victimization, and the location and type of neighborhood in which they live. This fear is not only brought about by actual victimization; older persons generally experience fear levels well above the actual crime level, regardless of personal victimization.[23]

The Connecticut Justice Commission report points out, through an analysis of national surveys, that victims of crime are only slightly more fearful of further attacks on their security than are non-victims. *The most important determinant of fear is the perception of the crime problem by the individual.*[24]

The Montgomery County study surveyed 178 persons aged 60 and over. They found that personal victimization had very little effect upon the levels of fear experienced by the individual. In that particular jurisdiction, actual crime was considerably lower than the respondents perceived it to be.[25]

One of the primary influences upon perceptions of crime levels by citizens is their exposure to the crime of vandalism. This was the case in the Montgomery County study, and was also found to be true by the Maryland Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice. The Commission surveyed Maryland residents in 1976 and found that vandalism generates in the victim a great fear of crime in general.[26]

Another contributing factor to fear levels is the death of a spouse. The isolation and loss experienced by the older widow or widower contribute to a view of an increasingly different environment. It is a human tendency to fear that which is strange.

One's world may seem increasingly hostile as friends and loved ones are lost. This overall uncertainty about the world and people in general leads to a very specific fear of crime.

While the causes of such fear are significant, the effects on an older person's lifestyle can be pervasive. Being victimized by a personal attack such as robbery, assault, or pursesnatching can significantly change an elderly person's lifestyle. The House of Representatives' Select Committee on Aging concluded that fear of victimization results in older persons locking themselves into their homes, too terrified to leave.[27] The New York study of crime and the elderly determined that:[28]

> "In most cases after a criminal assault, the elderly feel they are deserted, unprotected, powerless and without security. As sad as it may seem, in reality loneliness and despair are greatly aggravated if the television has been stolen."

The study continues with an excerpt from the *New York Daily News*:

> "Visiting nurses, who daily travel to some of the worst sections of the city, hear terrifying stories from their patients. Old people cower in the dark while someone batters on the doors, then find one or two locks broken in the morning."

The result of this increased fear of crime, regardless of the source, is further isolation, virtual self-imprisonment, and a lower quality of life. Senator Harrison A. Williams acknowledged this phenomenon in his widely quoted observation:[29]

> "The sad fact is that millions of older American now live under a form of house arrest, barricaded from the outside world. Many are afraid to answer a knock at the door."

Older persons may reduce essential trips outside the home due to a fear of crime. They may do less shopping, which in turn can lead to undernutrition and malnutrition. Older persons may also reduce their social activities at a church, synagogue, community center, golden-age club, or the homes of friends. Reduced social activity increases their isolation, and for many it causes depression and lessened self-care.

Fear of crime can prevent some older persons from visiting their physician, dentist, podiatrist, health care center, and medical clinic. It may also cause some health care professional and social worker to become increasingly reluctant to visit the home of incapacitated inner-city older patients for fear of their own safety.

Advancing age increases the prospects of isolation. Isolation heightens feelings of fear and paranoia which, in turn, are magnified by a crime situation. The conditions which lead to social isolation are common to the elderly. They tend to live apart and are concentrated in central cities.[30] They suffer social isolation when crime or the fear of crime aggravates this life situation. Social isolation, coupled with fear, diminishes the quality of their lives and increases their vulnerability to

crime. Carl Cunningham, in testimony before the Senate in 1973, described this situation in the following example:[31]

> "Two widowed women, aged 69 and 74, lived together. Their home was burglarized many times — five times in a single month. On one such occasion, the intruders entered while the occupants were at home. They mauled the two women when they found only a crumpled dollar bill. The burglars' crime became easier when the victims eventually left their home at night due to fear. Their destruction caused $900 in property loss, a ransacked house virtually uninhabitable, and two demoralized residents, unlikely ever to regain peace of mind. The two widows must continue to live in that area because they have no place else to go."

The Multnomah County, Oregon Study described the altered lifestyle of the fearful older American:[32]

> "Generally, it seemed that those persons who lived in most isolation and with little community support, were those felt most alienated from their urban environment and the social service network. They were most withdrawn from contact with the social system in general. Many times there was a manifestation of lack of faith in system response and resilience. Such perceptions contributed to withdrawal from society but also would account for stronger fear toward the society. There is, as well, some tendency for persons to withdraw more following a criminal incident with the intent of increasing their personal protection. As the isolation increases, fear increases which, in turn, promotes further isolation."

Similarly, the Montgomery County study found that over one-half of the surveyed older persons said that fear of crime keeps them from doing the things they would like to do. Nearly two-thirds of actual victims surveyed now take protective measures, including not going out after dark.[33]

A recent National Crime Survey measured fear levels among the different age groups. The following charts indicate the degree that fear of crime affects older persons and their activities.[34]

National Crime Survey

Personal Safety — Daytime

Neighborhood Safety During The Day

Age	Very Safe	Reasonably Safe	Somewhat Unsafe	Very Unsafe
16 to 19	58%	35%	5%	2%
20 to 24	57%	36%	5%	2%
25 to 34	57%	35%	6%	2%
35 to 49	52%	38%	7%	2%
50 to 64	50%	39%	8%	3%
65+	44%	41%	10%	4%
Eight City Total	53%	38%	7%	2%

National Crime Survey

Personal Safety — Nighttime

Neighborhood Safety During The Night

Age	Very Safe	Reasonably Safe	Somewhat Unsafe	Very Unsafe
16 to 19	21%	43%	20%	16%
20 to 24	20%	41%	20%	18%
25 to 34	21%	41%	20%	18%
35 to 49	18%	39%	21%	22%
50 to 64	15%	34%	22%	28%
65+	11%	27%	22%	39%
Eight City Total	18%	37%	21%	24%

National Crime Survey
Reason For Limiting Activity

Most	16-19	20-24	25-34	35-49	50-64	65+	TOTAL
Money	16%	21%	20%	18%	12%	5%	16%
Less Opportunity	11%	8%	6%	6%	5%	3%	6%
Convenience	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%
Own Health	1%	1%	1%	5%	13%	23%	8%
Transportation	4%	1%	1%	1%	1%	2%	1%
Age	3%	1%	2%	5%	15%	27%	9%
Family Reasons	15%	28%	32%	18%	8%	4%	18%
Job/School	19%	15%	12%	11%	8%	2%	10%
Crime/Fear	6%	5%	7%	14%	19%	18%	12%
Personal	15%	12%	11%	13%	13%	7%	12%
Other	4%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%
No Answer	5%	5%	6%	5%	6%	6%	5%

National Crime Survey
Crime Impact on Activity
Personal Limiting of Activity

Age	Yes	No
16 to 19	32%	67%
20 to 24	38%	61%
25 to 34	42%	57%
35 to 49	48%	51%
50 to 64	51%	48%
65+	53%	46%
Eight City Totals	45%	54%

It is more than apparent that fear of crime affects the lives of older persons. It is important for law enforcement officers to address this concern in the delivery of crime prevention awareness and education programs. Without a realistic understanding of the problems to be dealt with and those that are exaggerated, law enforcement officers will lack the direction necessary to provide positive change for elderly members of the community.

Fear and hopelessness will inhibit active community involvement by older persons and individual protective measures may be targeted against crimes which are unlikely to occur. Further, other social programs outside of law enforcement cannot succeed until crime problems are sufficiently addressed.

CONCLUSION

Crime reports and victimization statistics do not reflect the added impact of crimes committed against older persons. The impact of monetary loss may create severe economic problems. The physical injury inflicted by an attacker may cripple, if not kill, the older victim. Such injuries are often permanent. The psychological impact of crime and the fear of crime result in self-imprisoned living conditions and social isolation. For the elderly, these conditions produce hopelessness and frustration.

SUMMARY

When elderly persons are victimized by criminals, the impact upon them is much greater than society has been willing to recognize.

First, the elderly victim suffers the trauma induced by the criminal justice process itself. System personnel, for the most part, have not learned that the criminal justice process has negative consequences for an elderly victim and further increases his fear level. Second, the elderly victim who is living on a fixed income suffers economic losses far greater than those suffered by younger victims. Third, because of the physical deterioration brought about by the aging process, the elderly person is likely to suffer permanent physical harm as the result of a criminal attack. Finally, these problems, in combination with the normal psychological changes common to the aging process, tend to produce a great sense of isolation and fear in the older victim, which can lead to further victimization.

In order to implement effective crime prevention awareness and education programs for the elderly, law enforcement officers must develop an understanding of why older persons in their communities have such a fear of crime.

Law enforcement officers must learn the consequences of crime upon older persons in their communities and develop programs to help elderly victims cope with the criminal justice process and the aftermath of victimization. It should be a responsibility of law enforcement, in conjunction with social service agencies, to help elderly victims of crime survive the economic, phyisical, and psychological traumas brought about by criminal attacks.

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LESSON FOUR
CONFRONTING THE PROBLEM

There are many ways in which law enforcement agencies can reduce victimization and fear levels, assist victims, and enlist the aid of other institutions in the community. However, in order to accomplish these goals, law enforcement agencies need to move from a traditional emphasis upon *reactive* policing to a new focus upon *proactive* policing. This proactive approach necessitates an awareness of the following points:

- Law enforcement must adequately identify the problem.
- Law enforcement must develop multi-faceted approaches to address the problem.
- Law enforcement cannot by itself alleviate the problem.

Each of these points is equally important in the development of a proactive program to reduce victimization of the elderly and fear levels. There is logical sequencing to these points; if they are followed, then the law enforcement agency should be able to develop a leadership role in addressing community problems. This leadership role simultaneously will serve the interests of the agency and its community, since this approach enables the police department to confront the crime problem by involving citizens as extra "eyes and ears" for officers. In addition, this approach provides a vehicle for the law enforcement agency to communicate with citizens and address other civil problems through cooperative police/ community activities. Most importantly, this type of approach equips the department with the means to better fulfill its public service role.

CRIME ANALYSIS

Law enforcement agencies must have problems defined in clear reliable terms before they can develop strategies for a tactical or strategic response. Historically, the law enforcement response to community crime and service demand has been based on agency traditions or opinions formed by personal experience. This technique was utilized by patrol officers as well as chief executive officers. However, recent trends to reduce funding for public service agencies have caused many police departments to reexamine their organizational service delivery approaches.

Crime analysis is one method which is being used for planning purposes by police departments because this process provides data which supports *all* of the operations of a law enforcement agency.

The *1977 Integrated Criminal Apprehension Program Crime Analysis Executive Manual* presents this definition of crime analysis[1]:

"... set of systematic, analytical processes directed at providing timely and pertinent information relative to crime patterns..."

This definition relies on the *processes*. A *complete* description of crime analysis is determined by the level of analysis deployed; the detail of the analysis will establish its uses.

Purposes

Crime analysis provides for:

• Data which has universal utility throughout the agency.

• Data which has been compared to other department data and reviewed for consistency.

• Data which may be collected, collated, stored, and disseminated with a centralization of staff effort.

• Data which can be placed in a format to provide the user with a clear understanding of its implications on agency operations.

Crime analysis enables decision-makers to respond to community needs with the aid of data which accurately describes the problems.

Uses

How crime analysis data are used is limited only by the level of sophistication which the agency decides upon. This level may range from the pin maps of the early 1900s (and which are still widely used) to the computerized analyses and stochastic projections available to some police departments today.

Although the products of crime analysis are limitless, some specific uses of the process are to:

• Develop crime pattern bulletins for patrol. The specificity and timeliness of such bulletins are determined by the analysis methodology; but such information can be provided on daily basis.

• Identify special crime problems according to areas of interest.

• Assist special task forces in determining program targets and ways to approach the problems.

• Increase the percentage of cases closed. A comparison check of offender patterns (MOs) may allow for more cases being attributed to apprehended offenders, thus increasing the number of cases closed by exception.

• Provide investigative leads to detectives. Identifiable evidence correlated with case numbers may allow for faster and more thorough searches of past cases and suspects.

• Assist crime prevention efforts by determining crime, victim, offender, and location characteristics and thus the viability of particular crime prevention approaches.

• Be used to generate citizen support for such crime-specific programs.

• Measure and evaluate the results of crime-specific and over-all prevention efforts.

• Assist in-house decision-making processes that determine priorities and resource allocations, such as administrative and budgetary concerns.

• Assist with community crime prevention environmental decisions, such as housing, lighting, and related topics.

• Project future problem areas to be encountered.

While all departments have always conducted crime analysis to some degree (whether they realize it or not), two internal situations typically exist that prevent a *comprehensive* analysis approach:

1. All data pertinent to a crime situation has not been collected, due to the varying degrees of importance the department places in the reporting process.

2. What data *is* extracted from the crime situation is not systematically collected and stored for efficient retrieval. Generally, reports are stored, either physically or electronically, by case number. This requires an exhaustive manual search of files in the case of physical storage. With electronic storage, computers often are not adequately programmed to deliver information beyond crime type and case number.

Report Form

Some jurisdictions have no flexibility in modifying report forms because of legislated requirements or expensive data processing systems which store records. For agencies which do have the flexibility to modify reporting formats, several reporting form procedures are recommended.

Crime analysis depends primarily on the offense report for raw data. If the offense report is inadequate or if it is completed inaccurately, the crime analysis efforts are severely crippled.

Questions which should be asked to determine if a report form meets crime analysis needs include:

• Is the descriptive data complete?

• Is data organized so that significant data elements are listed at the same place on the offense report for ease of data extraction?

• Is there space available for a description of the suspect's method of operation?

Revising an offense report form is a complex and lengthy process for most agencies. In addition, it usually is an emotional issue for the primary user—the patrol officer. Report form changes, therefore, should not be made without cause.

If, however, the law enforcement agency wants to obtain the data necessary to make decisions about service delivery, then it must review the offense report form to insure that adequate data is being captured for a crime analysis.

But creating an adequate report form is only the *first* step. Patrol officers who will be using the form must be trained to fill it out properly. Supervisors and report review personnel also must be trained so that they can properly review the work of the officers.

As the data collection instrument for crime analysis, the report form also is the principal source of information for every decision-maker in the agency. Therefore, it is a document which should serve all members of the department and provide the best data collection service possible.

Data Collection

The process of categorizing the data from the report form is extremely important. It must be *systematic* to account for all incidents from all areas of interest, and should be *timely* to allow for the most effective use of the data by the department. Crime analysis data are used over a period of time to establish patterns, but they also can be used immediately to augment routine patrol investigative functions.

The data should be categorized as specifically as possible, including a breakdown of crime types. The age categories selected should coincide with available census data for the jurisdiction to allow for comparison with this existing data. For example, if census data defines older persons as 65 and over, then the department must follow that definition if it is to draw on this source of information.

Victim Survey

There is a great deal of information pertinent to a crime situation that cannot be collected from an incident report form submitted by the responding officer. Due to time constraints and the condition of the victim, it is often not appropriate for the responding officer to ask detailed questions about the crime to help determine *why* it occurred. Similarly, it is often inappropriate for the responding officer to ask the victim about his previous history of victimization and whether or not he may have contributed to the criminal act through negligence, provocation, or other acts.

Information about the factors leading up to the crime is essential for developing effective countermeasures. For example, the previously mentioned Wilmington, Delaware project illustrates the necessity for complete information. The initial proposal to combat street crime in Wilmington involved increasing street lighting at night. However, a ten-question survey of victims revealed that the overwhelming majority of personal attacks were occurring during daylight hours (see Appendix A for the actual survey).[2] Thus, expensive and ineffective countermeasures to a crime problem were avoided, and valuable information leading to practical solutions was obtained.

A victimization survey need not be limited to *identified* victims only. The Akron, Ohio Police Department, for example, has developed a questionnaire it regularly distributes to its older population. (See Appendix A for the actual survey). Section One of this survey form contains questions for *all* respondents, and Section Two contains detailed questions for crime victims only.

Regardless of the approach used, a *local* victimization survey will capture valuable information about the crime problems within the jurisdiction. In addition, it will clearly demonstrate that a *concerned* law enforcement agency is taking an affirmative community leadership role.

Offender Survey

An offender survey will generate detailed information about a crime situation from the offender's point of view. This type of survey *goes directly to the source* in determining causal factors. For example, the Wilmington Police obtained valuable information from youthful offenders by conducting an offender survey. This information was extremely useful for tailoring police activities to specific crime targets. It can also be very helpful to the police officer who has been assigned to present information to community groups.[3]

There are, of course, important factors which must be considered when using this type of information. The motivation and veracity of the offender must be taken into account. Consistent response tendencies usually will indicate usable information. As with victimization surveys, the information culled from offender surveys may go well beyond what can be determined from incident reports.

Data Collection and Collation

Crime analysis data are collected from the three sources previously mentioned:

1. The incident reports;
2. The victim surveys; and
3. The offender surveys.

Each source must be consistent with the others in the various categories pertaining to the crime, the victim, and the offender. For example, the category in all three data gathering instruments for "older persons" must include people aged 65 and over if 65 is the age used to delineate "older persons." Further, these categories must be consistent with outside sources, such as census data.

Once they have been collected, data are then arranged in an organized format so that comparison among sources is quick and efficient. This organizational format permits retrieval by any number of criteria, such as crime type location, residential area blocks, and so forth.

Data Analysis

Data analysis is the systematic combination of the information collected into relevant patterns, trends, and relationships. Some of the variables included in this process are:

- Victim characteristics;
- Offender characteristics;
- Location of victim's residence in relation to crime scene;
- Location of offender's residence in relation to crime scene;
- Victim's activities before crime;
- Offender's activities before crime;
- Type of crime;
- Time of occurrence;
- Location of crime scene;
- *Modus operandi;*
- Losses suffered by victim; and
- Other extenuating circumstances.

Through this process, detailed victim and offender profiles can be developed, and high-risk times, places, and occasions can be identified.

While computer capabilities will greatly aid this process, the use of a computer is by no means mandatory. As an example, the Wilmington crime analysis study was conducted without the use of computer (see Appendix B for Profile).

When computer facilities are available, there are a number of software programming packages such as SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) available for use by the layman. Good sources of information about programming packages are the local colleges and universities, which also may have facilities available to process data. Computer capabilities will permit the police department to conduct a very detailed analysis of the data.

Incident Analysis

This process involves inspecting the actual incident report to determine which activities may be contributing to the occurrence of a particular type of crime, such as aggravated assault. Due to the specificity of the information obtained, prevention measures can be designed to deter these crimes.

The need for such detailed analyses becomes apparent with cases of escalating crimes. Many times serious crimes grow out of lesser offenses, due to opportunity. An aggravated assault, for example, may have grown from an initial breaking and entering; however, the victim was home and the offender assaulted him. An incident analysis of this crime would tell police planners that prevention techniques should be directed at the *initial burglary* rather than the subsequent aggravated assault. In a case such as this, controlling the crime of burglary will also control the crime of aggravated assault.

Conducting a detailed incident analysis is costly in terms of the personnel time required; however, the department can derive two major benefits from this time investment:

1. An incident analysis can eliminate the need for costly countermeasures to combat escalating crime problems; the incident analysis helps define *proper* crime prevention needs and techniques.

2. Through proper crime prevention techniques, an incident analysis can help officers effectively control initial crimes of a less serious nature.

Victimization Analysis

This is a process by which the overall impact of crimes affecting a particular community is determined. The purpose of this process is to find out what *types* of crimes are affecting victims in the following categories:

- Daily routine and activities;
- Feelings of fear;
- Financial situation;
- Health status;
- Security measures taken; and
- Attitudes toward police.

This process should also help police determine how often citizens do not report crimes, and the reasons why they fail to report. A victimization analysis will also provide police with information about the precautionary measures former victims are taking as a result of their previous experiences with crime.

Dissemination and Evaluation

The results of the findings derived from the crime analysis processes must be carefully directed to the appropriate area of the department, be it patrol, planning, crime prevention, etc. The rapidity with which the information is disseminated will dictate the uses it may have—the more uses identified, the greater the value of the crime analysis process. The crime analysis process also can be used to monitor and evaluate departmental activities. This evaluation should include the crime analysis process itself. If the process is not fulfilling its planned roles, then someone must determine why this is happening.

Crime Analysis: Conclusions

In order to marshal resources to respond to community needs, law enforcement personnel at all levels must be armed with a clear understanding of the problems. Community needs are complex and the solutions are even more difficult to comprehend. It is only through the application of sound data collection and planning principles that law enforcement can hope to meet the challenge. The techniques and expertise have been developed; it is up to each individual police agency to use them. Approaching the decision-making process armed with accurate data will enhance a law enforement agency's effectiveness in the community it serves.

CRIME PREVENTION

Crime prevention can be defined as the "anticipation, recognition, and appraisal of a crime risk and the initiation of action to reduce or remove this risk."[4] This is another example of proactive policing: attack the problem before it becomes one.

The cornerstone of a crime prevention program is community awareness. Citizens are made to realize that *they* must take action, with the assistance of the police, to reduce their likelihood of being victimized.

As Lesson Two established, the overall crime problems for older persons consist of:

- Strong-arm robbery;
- Pursesnatching and pickpocketing;
- Fraud/bunco;
- Burglary; and
- Vandalism.

These crime categories represent *nationwide tendencies* — they do not typify any one particular jurisdiction. Local crime analysis is necessary in order to accurately determine local crime problems.

While the application of crime prevention techniques is an easy and effective way to reduce crime, each individual technique must be directed in its approach. As the director of the Minnesota Crime

Prevention Institute said, "You can't prevent it if you don't know what it is you're trying to prevent."[5] Such a directed approach, formulated on the basis of a data analysis conducted within each jurisdiction, would include the following areas of concern:

- Methods of preventing and deterring a street attack, including teaching women how to carry a purse properly. Numerous films and brochures are available on this subject from a variety of sources, including the Criminal Justice Services of the NRTA/AARP.

- Methods of securing and protecting property, such as:
    — property identification;
    — home and business security surveys;
    — target hardening; and
    — neighborhood watch programs.
  Information on these approaches is also available from the NRTA/AARP Criminal Justice Services, as well as in the descriptive package on volunteer programs included in this textbook.

- Early warning signals of and ways to combat fraud/bunco schemes. An education program focusing on this subject is important because of the susceptibility of older persons to such schemes and the devastation they can cause. Timely public education has proven to be effective in thwarting many con artists and their "games" (Appendix C deals with this in greater detail).

It is also the responsibility of crime prevention officers to educate older persons about *unnecessary* fears. For instance, murder and rape cause great consternation in an older community, although crime data indicate that this need not be the case. Older persons suffer from vicarious victimization to a greater degree than younger age groups. This fear may be severely curtailing social and recreational activities which older persons could be participating in, as well as vital activities such as travel to a neighborhood shopping center for food and medicine.

The versatility of the many crime prevention techniques available permits police officers to conduct citizen education programs and take constructive action as new crime problems surface. It also enables them to test a variety of approaches to a particular problem. Comprehensive crime prevention programs involving both the police and the citizens are an important factor in the ultimate success of a community's law enforcement efforts.

TRAINING

In order to prepare law enforcement officers for their leadership role in the community concerning the victimization of older persons, adequate training must take place. This training should provide officers with both the background and up-to-date knowledge available in the field of law enforcement and older persons.

The level of sophistication of such training would depend upon the degree of the department's involvement with the problems of older persons. The training program should center around:

- The needs of the older person, including:
    — the realities of aging; and
    — the crime problem.
- How to deal with older persons and groups.

- The availability and capacity of older persons:
    — for community self-help involvement;
    — for community/law enforcement involvement; and
    — as a community resource.
- The capabilities of the department in dealing with these needs.
- The availability of other community resources.

Upon receiving such training, law enforcement officers should be prepared to initiate preventive action in the community, and should be able to identify and use other community resources to help accomplish this. A leadership role should be taken by the police department.

COMMUNITY RESOURCES

In addition to establishing working relationships with the community's older population, the law enforcement agency must develop joint programming efforts with other institutions in the community. This means actively seeking the cooperation of such organizations as:

- Other law enforcement agencies: A regional network of law enforcement agency interaction will expand the population base affected by programs, and facilitate the dissemination of information throughout a jurisdiction and its surrounding areas.

- Social service agencies: Such agencies can deal with specific problems encountered by law enforcement on a referral basis, and strengthen ties between law enforcement and existing community groups.

- Area agencies on aging: The coordination of law enforcement programs with other efforts targeted at the problems and needs of older persons builds a comprehensive framework for dealing with issues. This is notably lacking in current approaches.

- Other governmental agencies: Interaction with the many resources provided by government agencies avoids duplication of efforts and a shotgun approach.

- Community groups: The informal power structure in virtually any jurisdiction lies in its community groups. The success of a law enforcement program will rely heavily on its acceptance by such groups. Traditionally, they are the building blocks of social programs.

- Banks and savings and loan associations: These institutions generally have tremendous influence over the flow of resources, financial and otherwise, in a community. Second, they are often the last line of defense against fraud and bunco schemes, and in the past have demonstrated an ability and desire to significantly curtail these schemes.

- Local chamber of commerce: The strong link between community resources and social networks often is the local chamber of commerce. This body can provide much of the cooperation required for a successful program.

- Schools: The children of a community are not only a frequent target audience for law enforcement programs, but can serve as effective vehicles for reaching the parents.

- Churches: Churches are a possible link to a percentage of the population—that which makes up their congregations. More importantly, many churches are active in community organizational development and programming.

- Prosecuting offices: The cooperation of the police with the prosecutor presents a united front against the crime problems in a community, and will help to further the accomplishments of a community-based enforcement program.

- Media agencies (newspapers and radio and television stations): No other method of reaching the community is as effective as the media today. This is evident in *all* aspects of our society, and will be a necessary part of any successful program. Equally important is the power of the media to persuade or dissuade. Our "fourth estate" is alive and well today.

These cooperative efforts will help departmental programs succeed and, equally important, will help ensure community acceptance of them. Police-community liaison programs dealing with older citizens also will help to establish the foundation for future cooperative efforts with the community.

Needless to say, the attainment of cooperation with these organizations is by no means guaranteed. In any collection of persons there are many interests and goals, often conflicting. Much of societal action is a series of compromises among these interests. It is important that the law enforcement officer is implementing a cooperative program which identifies and relates to the interests of the organization he is approaching.

Law enforcement itself is a community resource and, as such, should play an active role in community planning. Such areas as environmental crime conditions and architectural design require the expertise of law enforcement officers as consultants. A department, however, cannot wait to be called upon for such expert advice. History has demonstrated that an active, concerned law enforcement agency must take the initiative in community planning.

LEGISLATIVE ACTION

Effective use of community resources by a police department tends to generate a stronger interest in law enforcement issues by concerned local groups and clubs. In many, if not most, communities, this informal organization network is responsible for the decisions which are eventually made by the formal governing body. Thus, strong support for law enforcement from such groups can lead to a much closer look at the impact of current and proposed legislation as it relates to the criminal justice system.

The importance of studying the ramifications of legislative action is easily seen within the criminal justice system today. Cohesive community involvement has effectively addressed such law enforcement concerns as:

- Reducing "revolving door" justice;

- Reinstating into the correctional system the idea of punishment as a deterrence to crime;

- Securing stricter penalties for white collar crimes, including fraud and bunco; and

- Increasing victim compensation measures.

Changes in each of these areas are affecting the crime problem. A proactive approach to crime by law enforcement and its supporters will continue to improve the quality of life within our communities.

CONCLUSION

The expansion of traditional law enforcement procedures to involve community-oriented and citizen participation programs has integrated the role of the police more closely with the formal and informal operational structures of communities. Equally important, such expansion has provided a vehicle for citizen participation and self-help in addressing the crime prevention needs of the community.

The actions which law enforcement agencies have been taking to address the needs of older persons are based upon an actual awareness of the crime problems the elderly face and the impact of those crimes. A clear perspective of the problems, brought about by the many forms of crime analysis, enables a police department to develop effective countermeasures. The success of these countermeasures relies upon the department's ability to remove the criminal opportunity (crime prevention), and the degree of community involvement. This combination is a *proven* technique for significantly reducing crime.

SUMMARY

To effectively reduce criminal victimization of the elderly, law enforcement agencies must accurately identify the problems in their own communities.

Problem identification is accomplished through crime analysis efforts. An effective crime analysis program enables a law enforcement agency to direct resources to respond to community needs. By utilizing crime analysis, the law enforcement agency is able to become proactive, rather than reactive, in its efforts to prevent and control victimization of the elderly.

To prevent criminal victimization of the elderly, police must take a leadership role in the crime prevention efforts of their communities.

The law enforcement agency has a definite role as a manager of community resources. As the agency responsible for community crime control, the police department must marshal other community resources in its crime prevention efforts. Community agencies will be able to help the police department communicate with older citizens and teach them how to avoid victimization.

1. U.S. Department of Justice, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, *Integrated Criminal Apprehension Program Crime Analysis Executive Manual*, Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1977, p. 1-13.

2. U.S. Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Investigation, *Crime Resistance*, Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1975, pp. 86-95.

3. *Ibid.*

4. George Sunderland, *Crime Prevention Program*, Washington, DC: National Retired Teachers Association and American Association of Retired Persons, 1978, Author's Foreword.

5. Kevin Krajick, "Preventing Crime", *Police Magazine* (November, 1979), p.7.

GLOSSARY

BILK: to cheat out of what is due.

BUNCO: sometimes spelled "bunko." A swindling game or scheme. (Perhaps derived from the Spanish BANCA, meaning "a bank.")

CRIME ANALYSIS: the process of surveying a community for types, frequency, location, concentration, and other such things to determine crime reduction and prevention strategies.

CRIME PATTERN: a number of criminal offenses displaying a variable number of similarities.

CRIME PREVENTION: an elegantly simple and direct approach that protects the victim from criminal attack by anticipating the possibility of attack and eliminating or reducing the opportunity for it to occur—and the possibility for personal harm or property loss should it occur.

CRIME RATE: based on Crime Index Offenses, the crime rate relates the incidence of reported crime to population. It may be viewed as a victim risk rate.

CRIME TREND: a change or deviation from the norm as to either volume of reported crimes or types of criminal activity.

DEFRAUD: to deprive of something by deception or fraud.

FLIM FLAM: deception or fraud.

FRAUD: deceit or trickery. The intentional perversion of truth in order to induce another to part with something of value.

HEDONISM: the theory that a person always acts in such a way as to seek pleasure and avoid pain.*

LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCY: in this training program it means a police agency legally constituted as a government entity have personnel with general peace officer powers and specific responsibility for enforcing local and state laws. It may be as small as that serving a township; it may serve a city or county; or it may have multijurisdictional responsibilities extending statewide.

MODUS OPERANDI (MO):   the combination of informational factors and element components which separate one crime type from another and define the perpetrator's *method of operation* for a particular crime or group of similar crimes of the same type.

NATIONAL CRIME PANEL: a poll of criminal victims determined from Bureau of Census figures for the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. It is a program designed to develop information on crime and its impact on society by means of victimization surveys of the general population. It has two main elements: a continuous national survey and surveys taken periodically in selected central cities.

OPERATION IDENTIFICATION: a crime prevention program in which valuables kept within homes are marked and recorded by the local law enforcement agency to enable identification and return of stolen property.

STOCHASTIC: designing a process having an infinite progression of jointly distributed random variables.*

STREET CRIMES: generally crimes against the person while using public thoroughfares and public spaces. This category includes the crimes of pursesnatching, strongarm robbery, and armed robbery.

UNIFORM CRIME REPORTS: a reporting system of crime and police activities— providing the only nationwide view of crime based on police statistics.

VICTIMIZATION: a specific criminal act as it affects a single victim, whether a person, household, or commercial establishment. For criminal acts against persons, victimization is determined by the total number of victims— even when there are two or more victims per incident. For criminal acts against a household or commercial establishment, victimization is assumed to involve a single victim—the established household or the establishment.

VICTIMIZATION RATE: for crimes against persons, the victimization rate—a measure of occurrence among population groups at risk—is computed on the basis of the number of victimizations per 1,000 resident population age 12 and over. For crimes against households, victimization rates are calculated on the basis of the number of incidents per 1,000 households. For crimes against commercial establishments, victimization rates are derived from the number of incidents per 1,000 establishments.

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*Websters New World Dictionary of the American Language, Second College Edition, 1970.

APPENDIX A

AKRON, OHIO VICTIMIZATION QUESTIONNAIRE

How many times in the past two years have you been the victim of an offense? (5 choices)

What kind(s) of offense were they? (8 choices)

What was the most serious offense against you in the last two years? (9 choices)

Was you home entered against your wishes? (yes/no)

Were you threatened w/harm? (yes/no)

Were you attacked physically? (yes/no)

Did you lose any money or belongings? (yes/no)

How much dollar loss did you suffer, including what was taken or damaged, and your medical expenses? (5 choices)

Did you notify the police? (yes/no)

If not, why not? (9 choices)

What is the age group of the person or persons who committed the crime? (5 choices)

What time of day did it happen? (4 choices)

How long ago did it happen? (6 choices)

AKRON, OHIO VICTIMIZATION QUESTIONNAIRE cont'd

Where did it happen? (6 choices)

Are you aware of the following services available? (7 choices)

How was the target picked?

Did they know the victim?

Did they know the victim's routine?

What characteristics of the victim do they look for?

Why are certain neighborhoods picked?

Are the crimes impulsive or planned?

What are the motivational aspects?

What recommendations do they have for future potential victims?

Should the victim resist?

What can be done to prevent the crime?

WILMINGTON, DELAWARE VICTIMIZATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Do you live alone? (yes/no)

At the time of the crime, were you with an acquaintance? (yes/no)

Where were you going when the crime occurred?

Had you ever seen the criminal before? (yes/no)

Before the crime occurred, did you take any precautions to prevent it from happening? (yes/no/explain)

Since becoming a victim of this crime, do you now take any precautions to prevent it from happening again? (yes/no/explain)

Since turning 60 years of age, how many times have you been the victim of a similar type of crime? How many of these crimes were reported to the police?

What is your date of birth?

Did anything happen before the crime occurred that alerted you that a crime would occur? (yes/no/explain)

APPENDIX B

PROFILE OF REPORTED STREET CRIMES
IN WILMINGTON, DELAWARE FOR FY75

- VICTIM   Aged 60 to 77 in 86.7% of the 128 examples.

- RACE/SEX   White females in 72.6% of the examples.

- OFFENDER'S AGE   13 to 21 in 85% of the 174 arrest-related samples.

- PERPETRATOR'S RACE & SEX   Black males in 92% of the 203 perpetrator descriptive samples. In addition, the perpetrator's residence in proximity to the victim's was within 10 blocks in 38.7% of the 49 samples.

- TIME   The majority of offenses—54.7% of the 128 samples—took place in the 6-hour span between the hours of 10:00 a.m. and 4:00 p.m.

- LOCATION   The crime usually occurred within four blocks of the victim's residence in 67.2% of the 128 samples.

- LOSS   The victims incurred a loss of valuables in 95.3% of the 128 samples. A loss of less than $100 total was reported in each of 77.3% of the samples.

- VIOLENCE   Victims received injuries in 41.4% of the 128 samples, while weapons were used in only 11.7% of the samples.

APPENDIX C

Some good rules for self protection from confidence people:

1. Do not discuss your personal finances with strangers.

2. Do not expect to get something for nothing, especially from strangers.

3. Do not draw cash out of a bank at the suggestion of a stranger.

4. Do not be too embarrassed to report the fact that you have been victimized or swindled.

5. Do testify in court, if asked, to help stop this kind of crime.

The Uniform Crime Report Handbook places fraud as a Part II offense and describes it as:

"Fraudulent conversion and obtaining money or property by false pretenses. Includes bad checks, confidence games, etc. . . . except forgeries and counterfeiting."

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BANK EXAMINER FRAUD

Early Warning Signs	Crime Prevention Officer Strategies	Evidence for Prosecution
1. A phone call from a "bank officer" checking on a dishonest employee and wanting your help.	Public education — no bank operates in this manner.	Police apprehension in act of leaving with marked money.
2. Urged to withdraw specified amount of money.	*Play up* — by suspicious when they require: Secrecy Haste Cash	
3. Money will be picked up by a bonded messenger and redeposited to test dishonest employee.		
4. Urged to keep the entire matter secret.	Bank employee education.	

PIGEON DROP SWINDLE

Early Warning Signs

1. When someone tells you he or she just found some money and wants to share it with you — *if* you put up good faith money.

2. If a stranger offers to bless your money or perform a secret ritual which will cause it to double in value.

Crime Prevention Officer Strategies

1. Alert banks and savings and loan companies — training for employees — company policies to prevent — issue check instead of cash withdrawal. Offer to accompany customer to safe place with cash withdrawal.

2. Continuous education process in community reinforced with slides and written alerts.

3. Develop and use a prop with phony money and point out how anyone can be impressed with a large sum of money.

Evidence for Prosecution

Apprehension and identification of suspects with marked (good faith) money.

License number of suspect's vehicle and possible partial description.

Note: Identification often impossible due to time lapse from offense to report.

Alert bank personnel have in past taken a clipboard and recorded the license number of cars parked near the bank and having at least one occupant — this will cause suspects to flee and prevent the crime.

HEALTH QUACKERY

Early Warning Signs

1. Product or service offered as a secret remedy.

2. Sponsor claims he is battling the medical profession, which won't recognize the marvelous discovery.

3. The remedy is sold door-to-door or promoted in lectures to the public, from town to town.

4. The promoter tells you of miracle cures.

5. Direct mail solicitation offering free medical diagnosis.

Crime Prevention Officer Strategies

Our gullible neighbors — four out of ten polled nationally report they would not believe almost unanimous expert medical opinion.

The crime prevention specialist needs to give facts and figures on the current medical frauds.

Legitimate doctors, clinics, and hospitals do not advertise through the mail.

Evidence for Prosecution

Product, receipt, identification of suspect.

THE FAKE INSPECTOR FRAUD

Early Warning Signs

1. "Phony" utility inspector asks to enter the house to check wiring, heating system, or pipes.

2. Owner of house gets a bill for this fake service.

Crime Prevention Officer Strategies

Utility employees never make unsolicited internal inspections.

All utility employees carry identification cards with their picture and description.

Urge a healthy suspicion, consumer awareness, a little bit of common sense and a telephone call to the proper agency.

Evidence for Prosecution

Identification of suspect, cancelled check, etc.

CONSUMER FRAUD

Early Warning Signs	Crime Prevention Officer Strategies	Evidence for Prosecution
A. *Home Improvement Fraud*	• Education of consumer begins before the fact and includes:	Next to impossible
1. Driver appears at your door offering to spray your driveway or fertilize your lawn for an unbelievably low price.	— Obtain name of individual and company. — Do you know how much the entire job will cost? — Do you have a contract and can you read your copy? — Are the quality, brand or grade, and the weight, color and size of materials stated?	
2. Same subject offers to "guarantee" the materials		
3. Don't be "pushed" into a bargain.		
B. *Mail Fraud* Fake contract that starts with the news that you have won something.	No contract but come-on to get you involved.	
C. *Work at Home* 1. Newspaper ad or flyer proposes that you earn money by working at home.	*No Winners* — No one qualified and money was not returned.	
2. Send "small registration" fee and sample of work.	*Stop and think* — Check out the advertisement before you become	

CONSUMER FRAUD (cont'd)

Early Warning	Crime Prevention Officer Strategies	Evidence for Prosecution
D. *Bait and Switch* 1. If you cannot find the bargains advertised or they have all mysteriously been sold — and you are steered to a higher priced item.	A legitimate sales technique that becomes illegal.	
E. *Insurance Fraud (Jewelry Appraisal)* 1. An "agent" with phony credentials alleging to be an insurance underwriter's agent and wants to appraise your jewelry.	Education of the public	Possession of the jewelry by the suspect(s)
2. Wants to give you a receipt for your valuables and leave.		

COMMON FRAUD SCHEMES

FAKE LABORATORY TESTS: fake tests are conducted, i.e., for cancers, advertised by a non-existent laboratory. There is good profit at $10 each due to the small overhead.

MIRACLE CURES: there is always someone who claims a cure for any condition. Often, these are publicized through newspapers or magazines and the quackery is consummated by the use of the mails.

MAIL ORDER CLINIC: the victim is drawn into the scheme by offers of free medical diagnosis or some other bait and then is trapped into expensive long-term and useless treatments.

THE FAKE CONTEST: it often starts with the exciting statement that you have won. In reality, it is a contest wherein no one wins—there are only losers. This can be practiced by mail or advertisements or by telephone solicitations.

HOME IMPROVEMENTS: this swindle places high on the list and has long been among the most popular. Often the US Postal Service is brought into the case because the mails are used to defraud.

CHAIN REFERRAL SCHEMES: where you buy an appliance or some product and supposedly will have little difficulty getting the item for "free" since you will get a commission for each additional item you sell. Usually the item is overpriced.

DEBT CONSOLIDATION: involves dishonest services that place the debt-ridden person into a worse situation by "consolidating" his debts with heavy additional financial burdens.

THE BANK EXAMINER: principal targets are people in the 60 and over age group. A phony bank or savings and loan "investigator" calls you at home or comes to your home. He has probably brought along deposit slips from your bank and other official looking papers. He tells you that the bank is checking up on a dishonest employee, and explains how you can help. He says he wants to make a test to see what the suspected emloyee does when a customer draws out of his account. He suggests that you go to your bank, draw a specified amount of money, then let him use it for the test. Either he or a "bonded messenger" or other "official" will pick up the money. You withdraw the money. He has advised you of the need for "absolute secrecy" and that the money must be cash in order to check serial numbers. You give the money to the "examiner" and he hands you a receipt. Once he is gone, you'll never see him or your money again.

RETIREMENT ESTATES: where the bargain looks so attractive you cannot turn it down. An acre of land for $350 and sunshine for 360 days per year. Investigation reveals that if you go to the area there is no provision for development and the site is under water or unsuitable for building.

EMPLOYMENT OFFERS: where persons, eager to achieve self-improvement, are drawn into contracts requiring payments for useless services purportedly leading to attractive job opportunities.

CORRESPONDENCE COURSES: the fraudulent correspondence school usually induce the victim to sign contracts which trap them into regular payments from which they cannot legally escape.

ADVERTISING CAMPAIGN: where you are chosen to be featured in an advertising campaign. You may be told that a survey has shown that you are a "leader" or that you are unique in some way and this feature will be used to build an advertising campaign. You will be given benefits or some inducement to participate. Be aware that the legal document you may sign does not bind you to make payments or lose your home.

BAIT AND SWITCH: is advertising a commodity at a low price, even at cost or below, with the idea that you will be attracted to the store and buy something else or get into the habit of shopping there. This describes the legitimate merchant. The illegal "come-ons" are ridiculously-priced merchandise that does not exist, or will not be sold, and the only intention was to get you into the store to steer you to an unknown brand at a high price.

CONTRACTS: signing a contract that contains terms that go far beyond what you anticipated is one of the integral parts of so many swindles today. KNOW WHAT YOU ARE SIGNING.

FEAR-SELL: is a technique to rush a victim into the arms of a swindler, i.e., . . .

- Your hot water heater is about to blow up and must be replaced immediately.
- The electrical wiring is so bad that unless something is done about it right away your home will probably burn down.
- If this part of your car is not replaced now you are likely to have to buy a new engine.

THE INSPECTOR: someone posing as an official inspector displays phony credentials and says he is making a routine inspection to gain entry into your home. The hot water heater is inspected and declared unsafe. You will have to turn off the water until something is done about this potential disaster. The insector happens to know a plumber, who responds and does little or no work, charges an exorbitant amount, and may even sign up the homeowner to a fat maintenance contract.

Strategies to reduce fraud incidence and impact include law enforcement agency cooperation with community institutions and the judicial system, as well as with the fraud/bunco squads of other jurisdictions. Another strategy is education, both for elderly persons and the police. The elderly should be taught measures for spotting fraud and for initiating action once it is in process. Police should expand their knowledge of fraud.

THE PIGEON DROP: the victim is approached by one of the swindlers and engaged in conversation. When the swindler has gained the victim's confidence, she mentions a large sum of money found by a second swindler who, at that moment, "happens" to pass by. The victim is led to believe that whoever lost the money probably came by it unlawfully. The swindlers discuss with the victim what to do with the money. One of the swindlers says that she works in the vicinity, and decides to contact her "employer" for advice. She returns in a few minutes and states that her boss has counted the money and verified the amount, and that he agrees that as the money undoubtedly was stolen, they should keep and divide the money three ways, but that each should show evidence of financial responsibility and "good faith" before collecting a share. The victim is then induced to

withdraw her "good faith" money from her bank. After she has done this, the money is taken by the swindler to her "employer". Upon the swindler's return, the victim is given the name and address of the employer and told he is waiting with her share of the money. The vicitim leaves and cannot find the employer or sometimes even the address. When she returns the swindlers, of course, are gone.

BUSINESS FRANCHISES: a legitimate and rapidly expanding industry. So often in the fraudulent operation the name you buy is valueless and the services offered are either non-existent or sold at unreasonable costs.

WORK-AT-HOME: where persons seek additional income by working at home. To qualify the persons had to send in a small registration fee and perform a sewing task to demonstrate skill. No one qualified and none of the money was returned.

MODULE THREE
COMMUNICATION PRINCIPLES

Communicating With Older Persons
Programming With Older Persons
News Media Relations

LESSON ONE
COMMUNICATING WITH OLDER PERSONS

Law enforcement officers are problem solvers. They are trained to use a variety of "tools" to respond to the many calls for assistance they receive. Among the more visible "tools" are physical prowess, handcuffs, batons, firearms, radios and patrol cars. Interestingly, however, most police problems are solved without resorting to the "heavy artillery" tools. Rather, the officer is likely to talk—to communicate—his way out of a problem or into a solution.

Officers do not immediately recognize that words are a practical police "tool" because the act of communicating is so commonplace it is often taken for granted. About 70 to 80 percent of an officer's on-duty time is spent talking, listening, reading, or writing. Because the officer spends so much time communicating, his ability to skillfully use words and non-verbal "signals" probably is the most significant determinant of his professional effectiveness.

Communicating effectively is indeed a skill and, like other skills, it must be learned. Most people learn by doing. By the time a young person enrolls in a law enforcement academy, his communicative habits and patterns are well established. Thus, he seldom takes time to examine the *elements* of the communication process and he may never identify methods which he can use to improve his communicative abilities. An officer who works to improve his ability to communicate effectively eventually learns that he can solve many more problems without resorting to threats or the use of physical force.

Communicating with older persons is not very different from communicating with others in the sense that *all* communication has common elements. It is different, however, in two respects: the methods in which the common elements of communication are emphasized and articulated. Because the aging process may cause changes in the older person's physiology, sensory perception, psychological well-being, and frame of reference, law enforcement officers should recognize that they may need to use different communication techniques when they are assisting an older person.

The lesson emphasizes the elements of the communication process which are particularly important in working with the elderly.

COMMUNICATION IS PURPOSEFUL

All communication has a purpose. It ranges from the mundane, such as cocktail party chatter to pass the time, to the vital—obtaining information about a life-threatening crime. In most *official* contacts, the law enforcement officer wants to maintain a reasonable level of control over the flow of information. He is usually responding to a request for service which must be sandwiched between other requests, some of higher priority. For the officer, being "on top" of the communication is important.

Purpose Influenced By Role

The *purpose* or *objective* of a conversation between an officer and an older person will vary according to the role of each. The officer must be acutely aware of his role and objectives. For example, the patrol officer who responds to a call for assistance from an older person must assess the situation to determine what is *needed* from that encounter. If the older person is the victim of a crime, the officer obviously needs specific information about the incident, any valuables lost, any injuries sustained, and possible suspect descriptions. Additionally, the officer needs to provide reassurance to the older person, who may be highly agitated, emotionally upset, suffering from shock, or require medical attention.

Second, the patrol officer needs to leave the older person with a *positive attitude* about the encounter. This is important because the follow-up investigator will have to deal with any dissatisfaction which results from the first contact. It is also important because the older person's attitude toward—and ultimately support for—the police will be strongly affected by the extent of satisfaction he receives from the original service encounter.[1]

The follow-up investigator also needs to obtain specific and accurate information from an older crime victim. Unlike the patrol officer, however, the investigator must go one step further: he needs to assess the victim's potential as a *witness* who will be able to identify suspected perpetrators and provide believable testimony in court.

Yet a third role in which a patrol officer might find himself is that of crime prevention programmer. In this role, the communication needs and processes are significantly different. The objectives usually are to inform, to enlighten, and hopefully to modify the behavior of citizens so that they can assist in protecting themselves and their property.

Just as the officer must be aware of his own actions and attitudes, he must also be sensitive to the older person's abilities, restrictions, and point of view. Recognition of these factors is the first step toward effective communication. The ability to recognize and appreciate the other person's viewpoint is called empathy, communication awareness, or psychological adaptation. "Walking a mile in the other person's moccasins" is a more down-to-earth description of the same phenomenon.

Whatever name applies, the ability to empathize usually results from a person's curiosity about human behavior and from a genuine interest in other people. It contributes significantly to one's ability to aim a message at the right target. If the officer has an inaccurate perception of the older person's needs, then his messages to the older person will most likely be inaccurate, resulting in wasted time, mutual discomfort, and ultimate dissatisfaction.

Purpose Implies Planning

If all communication is purposeful, then logic dictates that it should be planned, at least if the communicator wants to be as effective as possible.

Many police officers confuse *efficient* communication with *effective* communication. Efficiency is an input to output measure. It tells how much energy must be used to get an established unit of production. For example, if an automobile gets 35 miles to a gallon of gas, the manufacturer then

claims that the engine is efficient. The basic purpose of an efficiency measure is to find the most economical, or cheapest, way of doing something.

Effectiveness, on the other hand, measures the extent to which any effort or activity accomplishes its goals. An effectiveness measure does not focus on economy alone; it also considers the qualitative aspects desired. For example, with the car that has an efficient engine, prospective purchasers will ask several qualitative questions, such as: Is the ride in the car comfortable? Can seven people be accommodated? How much luggage room is there?

This example demonstrates that the most *efficient* approach to an undertaking may not be the most *effective*. That is particularly true of the communication process. If the communicative act is measured by its rapid rate only, then the total impact of the communication is not likely to be effective. An communication process would be considered successful if the person who receives the message is satisfied with both its content (substance) and the way it was delivered (form).

Planning, as it applies to communication, does not need to be complicated. Most people think about particularly important conversations they are going to have, such as employment interviews. They also plan what they are going to write in letters when the subject matter is very important to them, such as a letter requesting a loan. Therefore, it is reasonable to suggest that such forethought should also be given to contacts with persons who are seeking help from the police, especially if they are elderly people who may be very vulnerable and afraid to ask for help.

Planning a communicative act depends on a variety of factors. One of the most important is the "stakes" involved. *Every* communicative situation in law enforcement is *different*, despite the natural tendency to homogenize them for ease of classification and response. The officer must ask himself what the "pay-off" is for putting time and energy into planning something as commonplace as communicating. Pay-offs vary according to individual needs and perceptions.

For one officer, planning a field contact may be seen as making the job easier. For another, it will help him be more in control of the situation. For a third, it might just help resolve the problem in a more timely fashion so that he can move on to other pressing matters. For them all, it might result in a sense of satisfaction in doing a thorough job and helping someone in the process.

Whatever the pay-offs are, officers must be aware of them. They affect behavior even if they are not consciously recognized. When the officer recognizes what he could gain from a particular communicative experience, then he is much closer to gaining it. If an officer knows what the pay-offs are, then he can develop a plan to attain them. Achieving this goal requires a reasonable knowledge of the elements of communication and the techniques available for influencing those elements.

OVERVIEW OF THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS

Law enforcement officers are practitioners who must view academic theories guardedly. Theories can be extremely practical, however, if they are seen as road maps to help officers reach their desired goals. Understanding communication is made easier by constructing a theoretical model, a road map, that identifies the elements of the process.

IDEA

IDEA

Encode Verbal
Behave Non-Verbal

Decode Verbal
Interpret Non-Verbal

FEEDBACK

Decode Verbal

Encode Verbal

Interpret Non-Verbal

Behave Non-Verbal

BODY SPACE

BODY SPACE
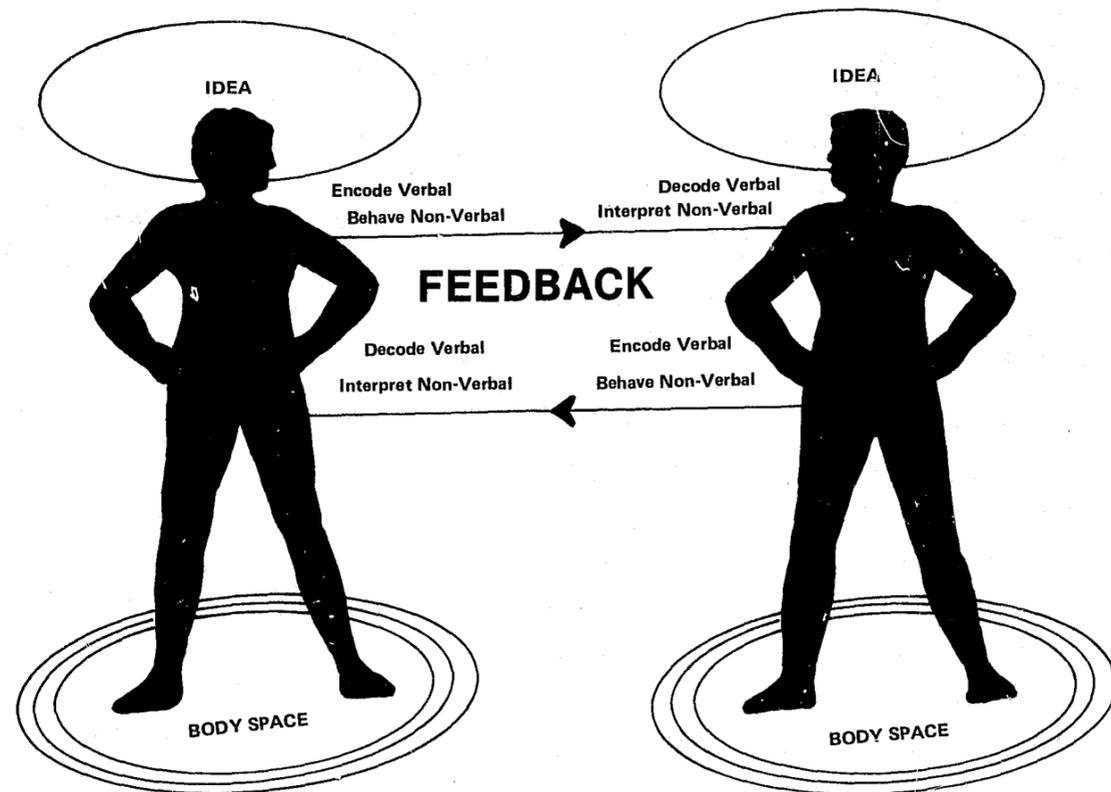
One useful model views communication as taking place within an arena in which people use words as symbols for the ideas they wish to transmit. In simplified form, the ideas are sent through two channels. One channel is verbal; ideas are put into a language code, or words. The second channel transmits non-verbal behavioral clues, which show the true meaning of the words. Officers who are experienced at interviewing people are skilled at "reading" non-verbal clues—they seem to know when a person is lying to them.

The arena in which the communication takes place includes the immediate physical area. It also includes the space around the communicators. The use of that space is a factor in the communication equation.

The critical elements of this model are people (the communicators), the verbal and non-verbal transmission channels, and the arena itself. Each of these must be examined closely to understand its impact on overall communicative effectiveness.

III-4

People: The Communicators

People communicate what they *feel*; psychologically, people communicate what they *are*. Put simply, this means that a person's personal background, cultural experiences, and value system influence what he says and what he hears.

Self-awareness is a fundamental component of effective communication. This is particularly true in a law enforcement contact, since the officer plays the role of problem-solver—he is responsible for making the communication work. The process which a person uses to become *aware* of his own feelings and attitudes is similar to other problem-solving processes. For example, when a person first tries to dive for an object on the bottom of a swimming pool, he quickly learns that there is a trick to this process. Diving directly for the object will result in missing it. The water bends light rays, making the object on the bottom appear to be in one place, when it is actually some distance away. If the diver knows this in advance, he can adjust the dive and hit the target on the first attempt. If not, a rapid readjustment must be made *after* the dive. Meanwhile, the diver has used up valuable energy and air going to the wrong spot.

A person's background experiences and value systems affect what he sees much as the water bends light rays; each person interprets events in light of his own unique background. What a person sees is partly what he wants to see—he "bends" reality a bit. Thus, the more a person knows about himself and his tendency to interpret, or bend, the facts, the more likely he is to compensate and "hit the target" on his first try. If an officer develops an understanding of how his own built-in biases and attitudes affect the way he interprets things, he has taken the *first step* toward communicating more effectively.

Lenses of Bias Affect Communication

Reality

Reality

Reality

Them

Us
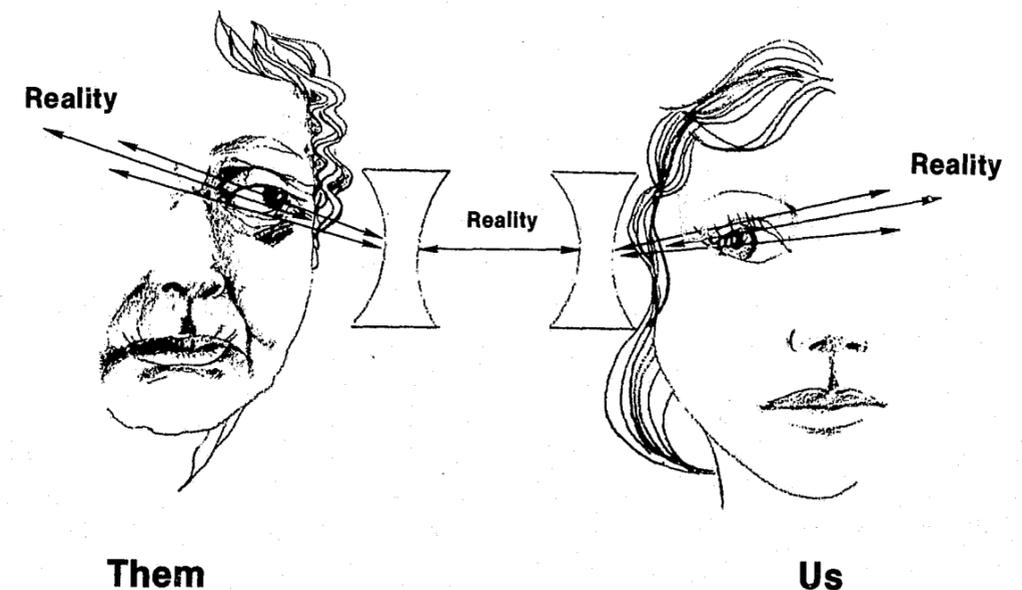
III-5

Much has been written about the *value systems* of law enforcement officers. Research conclusions are unimportant here except to reinforce the need to recognize the common thread of cynicism and suspicion that seems to be woven into the fabric of the police experience. Being suspicious is a cardinal rule of good police work. Carried to extremes, however, it becomes a hindrance.

More important than supposed profession-wide biases are the officer's personal feelings about, and attitudes toward, older Americans. Each officer must closely examine his own feelings. What experiences has he had with older people? When were those experiences? Were the older people relatives, friends, or unknown faces in the neighborhood? Did the cultural system in which the officer grew up place a high value on age?

The answers to these questions, and many others, will give the officer some indication of the source of his attitudes toward older persons. Understanding how these attitudes influence his current perceptions and behavioral patterns requires further self-analysis.

The extent to which the officer wants to spend time and energy in self-examination depends to some degree on the pay-off. What is the return on such an investment? Once again, the answer will vary with the individual. The simplest answer might be to ensure greater control over other people. The more the officer knows about himself, the less susceptible he is to manipulation by others.

It is particularly important for an officer to be aware of his "hot spots." Simply defined, "hot spots" are ideas, words, or behaviors which provoke an emotional reaction from the officer before he has a chance to think about it. "Hot spots" vary from person to person. For example, one officer might react negatively to crying, believing it is used as a manipulative ploy. Another officer might react to certain words which suggest to him an ethnic slur. Still another might react to a particular accent. Women officers sometimes react to what they consider to be "patronizing" or "demeaning" words when these words are used by men.

It is relatively easy for an accomplished communicator to discover a person's "hot spots." It is a little like prospecting for gold. Scratch around with a few test "digs," find out what words or behaviors produce the desired emotional response, and then go for the mother lode. The result will be to draw the unsuspecting party away from the intended topic.

Just as a person's experiences filter how he perceives the external world, they also affect how that person tells the world things about himself. The manner in which a person interprets things may be called *receiver behavior*. How the same person expresses thoughts, feelings, and ideas constitutes *sender behavior*. Each individual in a communication network is *both* a sender and a receiver of data. The sending process is an external behavior and is observable. The receiving and interpreting process is internal and is not readily observable. Figure Two illustrates how biases affect the flow of information from both directions.

It is critical to recognize that the communication awareness process is *bidirectional*. Just knowing oneself is only part of the battle; one must also be sensitive to the attitudes and perceptions of the other party in the communicative relationship. This is especially important for police officers to realize since people have a tendency to project their *own* value judgments onto others. If an officer believes that a person will behave a certain way and acts toward that person according to his belief,

then it is quite possible that the person will fulfill the officer's expectations. The officer must take care to understand how the other person will react. That requires knowing what the person may expect of the officer.

With older persons, the officer can usually expect a reaction to him which is supportive. One recent community study of older person's attitudes toward the police is illustrative. The researchers found that 88.7 percent of the respondents believed police have *one of the most difficult jobs* in society. In addition, 74.2 percent felt they could turn to the police for help regardless of the type of problem they faced. Almost three-fourths (73.4 percent) believed the police were doing the best job they could. Similar studies reinforce the finding that, as a group, older persons have a more favorable attitude toward law enforcement officers than do younger people.

Among the probable reasons for their supportive attitudes are older persons' perceptions of their own vulnerability, their need for a high level of both crime and non-crime related services, and a shared generation-wide respect for authority and stability.

However, such generalizations must be used only as starting points for understanding the attitudes of any service group. Older citizens are as much individuals as are members of any other age group. There will always be those who deviate from the norm.

The same study also identified what its authors called the "should/would" gap shared by certain respondents.[3] Basically, the "should/would" gap occurs when a person expects *more* from the law enforcement officer than he really believes will delivered. In the study, the older person thought the officer *should* have performed at a certain level but did nt believe the officer really *would*. The findings suggested that 25 percent of the persons polled felt this way.[4] Significantly, the persons suffering from this perception were those who were most likely to call the police for both crime and non-crime related services; people who had experienced a financial downturn as they grew older and those who were particularly cynical about life were in this group.[5]

A complicating factor in improving the attitudes which some people have about law enforcement is the stereotypical media image of police officers that has resulted from popular television "cop shows." It is not uncommon for people to believe that a police officer can solve a complicated crime by using scientific wizardry, the skill of Sherlock Holmes, and one partial print of a suspect's little finger. And it can all be done in 60 minutes, with 12 minutes taken out for commercial breaks. Unfortunately, many of the same TV shows portray officers performing illegal or constitutionally prohibited acts in the name of ensuring "justice."

Data is accumulating to suggest that the very persons who are most likely to fear crime, to live in isolation, and to desire high levels of police service are also rapt television viewers. The study cited earlier found that persons "who exhibit the largest 'should/would' gap also tend to believe in the life-likeness and importance of television portrayals of police operations."[6]

To communicate effectively, the officer must probe sensitively to determine the older person's expectations for service. If he does not, the communication may start from a shaky base at best. The result can be a rapid deterioration in the communication process; thus more time may be spent on the call than would otherwise been required.

The Verbal Transmission Channel

In our culture, communication relies heavily on words, whether they are spoken or written. Despite this reliance, it is amazing how easily people can misuse words and confuse others (and perhaps themselves). A good example of a person who confuses others by using the wrong words is television's Archie Bunker.

One of the most common word-related errors is labeled the "container myth" by semanticists (people who study the meaning of words). This myth holds that words have meanings. In fact, words themselves do not have meanings; rather, *people* have meanings which they apply to words they hear. For example, the word "run" has more than 170 meanings in the *Random House Unabridged Dictionary*. It is critically important that officers occasionally test whether the words they are using are being heard with the intended meaning.

Closely related to the "container myth" is an over-emphasis on jargon. This is especially true of work-related jargon, such as that used by police officers. Officers routinely talk in terms of codes, numbers, and acronyms: ten codes, penal codes, geographic codes, car numbers, beat numbers, officer numbers, MOs, NCIC, and DWI. People become "subjects" and getting out of a car becomes "exiting the vehicle." Running across the street becomes "proceeding laterally through the boulevard intersection." What is obviously shorthand or witness stand precision to the officer becomes gobbledygook to the average citizen.

It is also possible to use the improper *word level*, or to talk "above someone's head." Since the officer is responsible for solving the problem in an official contact, he must take care to match the words used to the listener's knowledge level.

A related problem is *circumlocution*, or using words that are so ambiguous or imprecise that they do not focus on the subject. The talker "walks around" the subject, hopefully getting closer and closer until the listener grasps the intended meaning.

The Verbal Reception Channel: Feedback

The same problems that can interfere while a message is being transmitted can also damage its reception. The person requesting police assistance can be as imprecise or unclear as any officer. It is still the responsibility of the officer, however, to stay on top of the situation and to interpret correctly the verbal information he receives. It is only through *feedback* that the communicator can determine whether his message is getting through as desired.

Active listening is perhaps the most difficult challenge in communication. Despite the fact that people listen more than they talk, listening remains the *least developed skill* in most people. People talk at approximately 125 to 150 words per minute. However, the mind is capable of processing and understanding 300 to 700 words per minute. In addition, it is a known fact that, under normal circumstances, a speaker only can hold a listener's undivided attention for 15 to 45 seconds before the listener's mind begins to wander. Thus, people who appear to be listening are often thinking about other things.

There are some techniques which an officer can learn to put people at ease so that they pay more careful attention to what he has to say. One of these techniques is to use *small talk*. The importance of small talk will become evident quickly when working with older persons. Small talk is a reliable technique for making the older person comfortable and establishing rapport. Small talk can prevent relationships from becoming strained or marked by mistrust.

Small talk is often a ten-to-fifteen minute conversation in which the officer sincerely asks something about the older person's personal life. It is often easy to develop a question to ask by looking at objects or people in the older person's surroundings; for example, a photograph, a flower garden, or a piece of antique furniture is a suitable conversation item. The older person must be allowed sufficient time to respond, or the officer's sincerity will be doubted. While listening, the officer can begin to organize his plan for taking control of the conversation and turning it toward the business at hand.

The more an officer lets people talk, the more they will like him and respond to him. This tends to be true of everyone, and older persons are not exceptions. It is usually best for the officer to allow the subject of the interview to start the conversation. However, the officer needs to control and guide the conversation toward the objective at hand.

For many older persons, long term memory is better than short term memory. Thus, officers should expect older people to recall details periodically during the interview as well as for some time after it. An officer who wants to conduct an effective interview should not rush older persons, nor should he rush immediate reconstruction of a traumatic event if it can be avoided. The officer should attempt to desensitize the older victim or witness by reassuring and calming him. With older persons, rage, fear, frustration, and shock can lead to serious consequences, such as a heart attack.

As the interview or interrogation proceeds, the officer should pay careful attention to the feedback from the older person. Feedback indicates how "close to the mark" communicative efforts are coming. Avoiding closed questions—those that can be answered by a yes or no or a nod of the head— will help keep vital feedback cues flowing. Open-ended questions will also provide the older person with an opportunity to provide a better information base for the interviewer, a role that can generate significant ego satisfaction for the elderly.

Officers also find it effective to build questions out of the older person's last response. In this way, the interviewer is able to verify the accuracy of his own understanding while moving the conversation forward. A related technique is to select *topic statements* out of the main points in the dialogue. If the officer repeats such statements back to the older person in a varied question and answer format, then he can check for consistency. The officer should not hesitate to ask for clarification of a statement or to challenge the answer in a direct, but tactful, fashion.

Controlling The Verbal Channels: Some Techniques

It is important to control interviews or interrogations by mastering communication skills rather than relying on the "weight of authority" which the uniform and badge provide. An officer who relies on such authority symbols and *demands* answers simply because he is a police officer may provoke defensive behavior on the part of the interviewee. Once an officer builds these barriers, it becomes very difficult for him to communicate effectively with the person he is trying to interview.

A crucial element of control is understanding the role of the interviewer. When an interviewer makes a subjective, personal, emotional, or value judgment of the other person, he is *reacting* to that individual. Conversely, when the interviewer attempts to *understand* the other person, he is *interacting*. If the interviewer's objective is to obtain factual, relatively unbiased information, then *interactive* behavior is more beneficial than *reactive* behavior.

Reactive behavior flows almost naturally because most people learn from childhood to deal with others, particularly authority figures, in a reactive fashion. One of the behaviors most likely to generate a reactive response is being told lies or distorted facts. For children, lying universally generates a strong reaction from the significant adult in their lives. Most children are heavily programmed with negative values toward deception or distortion of facts, and continue to react negatively toward lying when they become adults. However, an interviewer who wants to be successful needs to understand rationally *why* people lie or distort. The interviewer's very act of *attempting to understand* will allow interaction to take place.

One of the most common reasons for lying or distorting the truth is to make oneself look good. Everyone wants to be regarded positively by others. When placed in a threatening situation, the *first* thought many people have is to protect their image; they do not want to look foolish. They will then attempt to cover up those elements of the truth that threaten them.

People may use a variety of defense mechanisms to make themselves look good. If the interviewer reacts to those defense mechanisms, he will generate even more defensive behavior. The distortion escalates and it becomes continually more difficult for the person who is lying to retreat to the truth. By this time, the interviewee realizes the distortion itself has become an issue, and to admit having told a lie will only add to the officer's perception that the credibility of the interviewee is suspect.

The officer's best option for maintaining control of an interview or interrogation situation is to understand the dynamics of defensive behavior. The officer also needs to understand how the use of defensive behavior by another person can potentially affect him. However, even though an officer tries to understand another person on his terms does not automatically mean that the officer is *accepting* the behavior that is being displayed.

Several planned responses can help keep the interviewer in the role of interactor. These tactics include the mirror response, paraphrasing, and the use of feeling responses.

The Mirror Response. As its name implies, the mirror response involves repeating, or "mirroring back," what the interviewee has just said. Obviously, if this technique is overused, it can cause the conversation to become unnecessarily repetitive. It is valuable, however, to ensure correct understanding and to provide an opportunity for the older person to recall details that become available as the incident recedes in time and long term memory begins to work. It is also a critical tool when interviewing an aphasiac (someone who suffers from a speech disability caused by brain cell damage).

The mirror response technique is simple:

Older Person: "The man seemed so familiar. I wonder if I haven't seen him before?"

Police Officer: "I want to make sure I understand what you are saying. You think the man looked familiar and you might have seen him somewhere before."

or

"Correct me if I'm wrong, but . . ."

Paraphrasing. In paraphrasing, the interviewer repeats in his own words what the interviewee has just said. The advantage of this approach is the interpretation of a defined situation from an objective, outside perspective. The melding of viewpoints crystalizes the intent of the message to both the interviewer and interviewee.

This technique also eliminates the redundancy of mirror-response:

Older Person: "The man seemed so familiar. I wonder if I haven't seen him somewhere before?"

Police Officer: "You think it might be somebody you know or have seen around town?"

Feeling Response. A person can state clearly what is on his mind without really explaining how he *feels* about it. The person may feel angry, resentful, embarrassed, confused, or amused, among others. His feelings may be directed at whatever he is talking about, or they may be reflecting his attitude toward the presence of the law enforcement officer.

Knowing how a person feels about the information being related is necessary to understand and interpret facts. Knowing how a person feels about the present situation and his attitude toward the officer is important for maintaining effective person-to-person communication.

The officer may need to use a "feeling response" to identify these attitudes, to help verbalize them, and to determine what they are related to. He may begin the "feeling response" with a tentative statement, such as: "It sounds to be like you are . . ." or "I think I hear you saying . . ."

By using a combination of these verbal communication techniques, the officer can understand better what an older person thinks and how he feels about the situation while encouraging continued communication and increased trust.

Vocal characteristics, or how the voice is used, can create communication problems. It is not uncommon for older persons to have hearing difficulties. If the law enforcement officer, while trying to compensate for the older person's difficulty, begins to shout or to pace his words too deliberately or in an exaggerated monotone, then the listener might begin to feel uncomfortable, "talked down to," or scolded. Skillful communication by the officer in this instance generally calls for speaking clearly and comfortably.

The person who is talking provides other "clues" which tell an officer what his emotional level is like. For example, disrupted speech (stuttering or stammering), tremulousness, changes in intonation (usually low to high), nervous or misplaced laughter, or intensity that seems unwarranted under the circumstances can all indicate that the person is giving the officer faked or staged answers.

The Non-Verbal Channels: Body Language

Our culture's heavy reliance on words frequently causes us to ignore or underemphasize the *non-verbal* channels of communication. The value of reading and accurately interpreting non-verbal communication signals, or body language as this process is commonly called, should not be underestimated.

Body language is a valuable data channel because it is so difficult to fake. People cannot see themselves respond, especially the most expressive parts of their bodies—their faces.

The law enforcement officer can achieve a broader understanding of the older person's point of view by observing non-verbal cues. He can also avoid misunderstandings about his own point of view by making sure he does not send out the wrong non-verbal cues to the person being interviewed.

When non-verbal cues seem to match the words being spoken, they are said to be *congruent* with the verbal message. If the non-verbal cues suggest something different than the words being spoken, they are *incongruent*; when this happens listeners have a "vague, gnawing feeling that something is not right." Such a feeling, sometimes called *intuitive*, is usually correct. Rather than intuition, however, the listener is probably reacting to the lack of congruency between the verbal and non-verbal channels.

When communicating with an older person, a variety of non-verbal signals are particularly important.

Eye Contact. Our culture values eye contact during communication. Establishing and maintaining periodic eye contact indicates interest and concern. However, constant eye contact can be upsetting, so it is wise for the officer to establish a pattern of focusing on the other person's eyes, looking away, and then re-establishing eye contact. With older people, eye contact can have a secondary pay-off: the officer may discover that the interviewee is not able to see very well, is uncomfortable, or is ill at ease.

A person is uncomfortable during an interview when he refuses to establish eye contact, deliberately and uncomfortably avoids looking the officer in the face, rolls his eyes and changes their focal point, or squints frequently.[7] A common interpretation of such eye signals might be, "go away, I don't want to deal with you."

Body language varies according to a person's cultural background as well. Officers must take these cultural factors into consideration when interpreting body language signals. For example, it is common in the some cultures to avert one's eyes from a person in authority, particularly if the communication involves an allegation of wrongdoing. To interpret such behavior as indicating guilt or lying might well be inaccurate.

Hand Signals. An interviewee can send a variety of clues about how he feels by using his hands. For example, clenched fists typically indicate that the speaker fully supports what he is saying.[8] The fists communicate forcefulness. However clenched fists are typically a masculine gesture and are seldom used by women.

Clenching the hands together can indicate frustration or suspicion.[9] When the clenched hands progress to the point of a wringing motion, the person may be feeling as though he is on the "hot seat," and the discussion is a threat to him.

Some success in relieving tension may be achieved by using gestures of openness toward the interviewee. Leaning toward him and exposing the trunk of the body will suggest trust and reassurance.

Certain hand signals suggest that the person is evaluating what is being said. It is useful for the officer to be sensitive to whether he is using them. For example, placing the hand under the chin, wrapping the thumb around the side of the chin, and extending the index finger up to the side of the nose indicates evaluation. If this hand motion is accompanied by leaning toward the speaker, the suggestion is often critical evaluation.[10] However, the officer should avoid "steepling" motions when dealing with older persons. The classic "steepling" position of the hands is usually interpreted as a signal of superiority. The person who uses this signal indicates that he is in command of what is happening.[11]

Gestures. Some people use gestures more than others. Usually, the hands and arms are involved. Movements that start away from the body and move toward it generally are viewed as signals of openness and invitation. The more the trunk of the body is exposed (particularly the chest), the more likely it is that the person is being open and honest.

Frequently, a person will make small finger movements, as if he were brushing crumbs off a table. Such movements *away* from the body may indicate rejection; the person is saying, "I don't want you here. Go away."

Folded arms may indicate defensiveness or defiance. This is especially true if the fists are clenched beneath the folded arms or if the person turns at a 45 degree angle to the other person in the conversation.

Posture. Posture is also important when dealing with older persons. Officers are unquestionably authority figures. The officer's uniform, badge, gunbelt and shiny metal only add to that authoritative identity. It is valuable, then, for the officer to lessen any negative consequences of his authority role by sitting down. But once he sits down, the officer's positioning becomes important. Frequently, it is necessary for the officer to sit directly in front of the older person. This lets the older person who has eye or ear trouble see the officer, read his lips if necessary, and watch his facial expressions.

Touch. An older person may touch the officer or hold his arm or hand. The desire for human contact is universal; it affects both the young and the old. However, touching may be particularly important for the elderly person who may have fewer personal contacts due to the deaths of friends and the absence of family members. In some cases the officer will need to touch the older person, either to direct his attention or to reassure and comfort him. While touching may seem awkward for the officer in some situations, due to sociological and age group differences, it is incumbent upon the officer to overcome such inhibitions.

The Non-Verbal Channels: Proxemics

Proxemics[12] is a technical term which refers to the measurement of space around people. Every person is conscious of the space around his body. As others intrude into this space, a person reacts to their presence, consciously and unconsciously, psychologically and physiologically. The reaction depends upon who the person is, the circumstances of their intrusion, and how close they come.

It is safe to say that the closer one person gets to another, the more aware the second person becomes of the intrusion and the higher the level of his discomfort. This is most true when the intruder is a stranger.

Zones

	Intimate
Intimate	Personal
Personal	Social
Social	Public
Public	
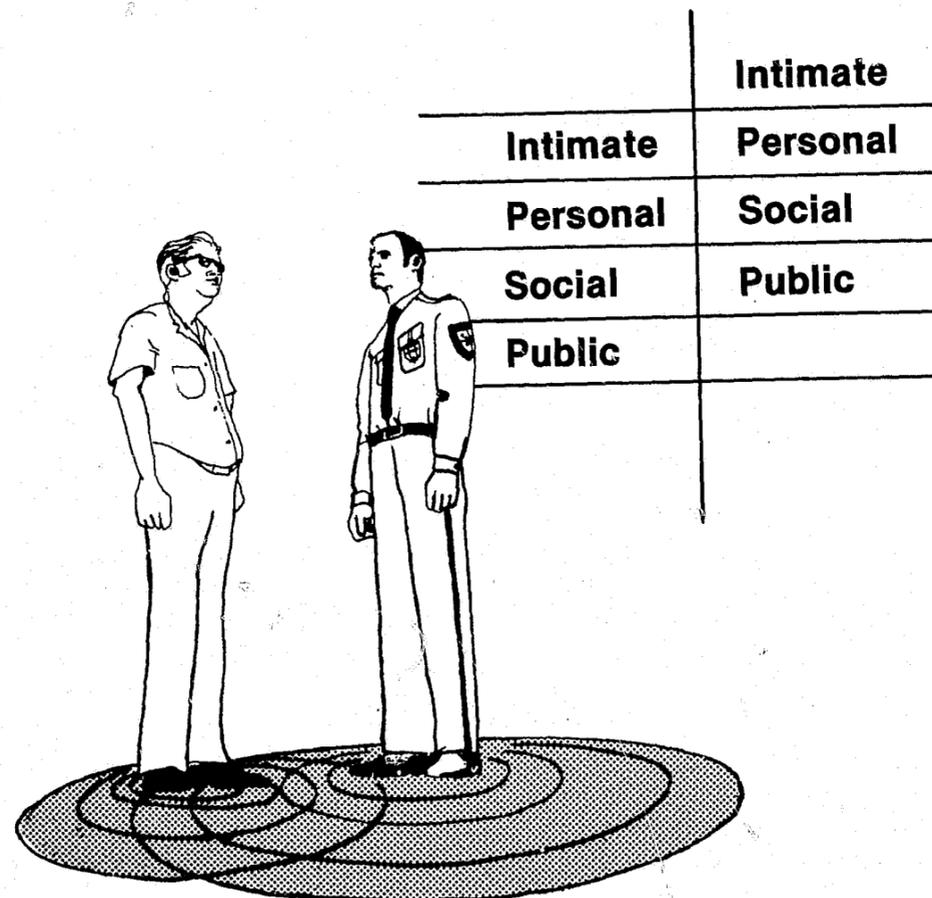
There are four zones surrounding each person, which may be visualized as concentric circles, with the person in the center. As another person moves from the outer edge of the farthest circle toward the center, he increasingly becomes a nuisance or a threat.

The farthest zone is that which typically extends from 12 to 25 feet or more. This distance is usually non-threatening for most people, because someone in it is too far away to be perceived as a danger unless their behavior is bizarre or they are making overt threats. This is the "public" zone.[13]

The next closer zone is the "social" zone.[14] It extends from four to 12 feet. This is the area within which casual conversations may be carried on. It is the comfortable party chatter zone.

The "personal" zone extends from one and one-half to four feet from the body.[15] This area is usually restricted to persons one knows well, such as relatives and close friends. Others who intrude into this zone can make the focal person uncomfortable unless there is a sound social reason for the intrusion, such as a crowded bus. However, one only needs to watch behavior on an elevator to realize how uncomfortable a person can be if he is in such close proximity to a stranger.

The closest zone is the "intimate" zone, which extends from actually touching the focal person's body to about one and one-half feet.[16] This area is restricted to persons who are *invited* to be that close. In the intimate zone, physical touch is the uppermost in each person's awareness.

In most non-crime situations, officers deal with people in either the personal or the social zones. If they have been invited into the personal zone, such as when they are performing a requested service, there is usually no problem. However, if they are intruding that close, they should be aware that the person may react negatively.

Officers are usually taught to take positions in relation to other people that will give the officer the advantage if a physical confrontation develops. This usually means standing slightly to the person's weak side at a 45 degree angle, close enough to be able to grab the person if necessary. Since such training literally helps the officer survive, it is internalized quickly and becomes habitual. Thus, when the officer is dealing with a non-crime related situation, he may unconsciously position himself defensively.

Obviously, there are two drawbacks to the officer's defensive positioning if the subject of the interview is an older person. First, standing to the older person's side may complicate communication if he suffers from a hearing difficulty or failing eyesight. Second, this position usually requires the officer to intrude into the personal zone, which could irritate or confuse the older person. Such feelings can quickly escalate because older persons frequently feel more vulnerable to victimization of any kind than do younger persons.

When dealing with the older victim, witness, or seeker of service, the officer should explain movements to him and ask permission to enter the older person's personal zone. This can be done under the guise of escorting him to a chair, the patrol car, or a more comfortable interview site. Moving into the older person's personal zone provides an opportunity for the officer to test his hearing and eyesight. This is accomplished by speaking at various volume levels and by averting the face to see if the older person can still hear the message without having an opportunity to read the officer's lips.

Sensitivity to the use of space must be learned. Careful observation of how people position themselves in everyday activities will help the officer develop this skill. Most people will unconsciously position themselves at comfortable distances from other people. Regular attention to the tendency to do so will help an officer establish his use of space as a communicative tool.

The Arena In Which Communication Occurs

The arena, or the setting, in which communication takes place influences both the content and the form of messages sent and received. The effective communicator must be aware of his or her surroundings and their impact on the communication flow.

Type Of Space. A first consideration is the type of space in which the communication occurs. Is it out of doors, on a busy street corner, in a patrol car, in the older person's home, in a police department office, or in some other setting? The answer to this question should tell the officer something about how to handle the sending and receiving of messages.

If the setting is familiar to the older person, such as his home, then he will probably be relatively comfortable. The officer should make an effort to build on this. It will influence the conversation's pace as well as the speed with which the officer might be able to introduce traumatic issues or questions.

When the interviewee is in a familiar surrounding, there will be many opportunities for the officer to divert the conversation from the subject at hand if this becomes necessary. Personal possessions may become a topic of conversation, as may photographs. If the older person deliberately diverts the conversation to talk about his personal possessions, then the officer must determine whether it is because the interviewee is uncomfortable with what is being discussed, or whether he finds it easier to deal with things from long term memory. Based on an analysis of the probable cause, the officer can gently lead the discussion back to the original topic.

If the setting where the communication takes place is out of doors, the officer should be aware of the many distractions that will impede the smooth flow of information. Traffic noises, pedestrians, bright sunlight, and a great deal of movement can combine to confuse an older person. It is more difficult for the older person to concentrate when there is constant motion around him. Also, if the older person suffers from the common visual difficulty known as glare resistance, he may find it impossible to distinguish objects from one another.

A high level of noise around him may prevent an older person from hearing spoken words clearly. If the individual suffers from a higher noise threshold than the younger officer, then the officer may not understand the problem and try to compensate by speaking louder. The correct response to this difficulty is to remove the background noise; this means that the officer must move the interview to a more quiet location.

If the officer chooses to move the interview to a patrol car, problems of glare and distracting motions may still persist. In addition, the older person may focus on the radio and other police-related equipment in the vehicle. If the officer takes time to explain what he wants to accomplish and to comment ("small talk") about some of the equipment, the older person's curiosity probably will be satisfied and the interview can proceed. Still, the patrol vehicle is not a satisfactory interview site.

Interviews conducted in a police department office have advantages over those conducted in the street because there is greater control over distractions. However, the older person is in unfamiliar territory and probably will be uncomfortable. Also, the office setting can be sterile and formal. If the officer sits behind a desk opposite the older person, then he is emphasizing his authority and social distance, which may alienate the interviewee. It can be much more difficult to establish rapport with an older person in a police office setting. Preparatory "small talk" may consume more time than would be required in other settings.

The choice of an interview site is not always open. Many times, the officer and the older person meet at the scene of a crime or other traumatic incident. If the officer must quickly broadcast crime suspect data, request other emergency equipment (e.g., an ambulance), or make rapid decisions about a critical course of action, then he will not have time to seek a more suitable location. As quickly as such priority activities are completed, however, the officer should assess the frame of mind of the older person to determine if moving to another site would be appropriate.

Props. The use of props usually brings to mind acting. In a sense, a controlled interview setting is much like a stage, and many people use props to help them "get into their part." If they do so unconsciously, however, they may be missing the true value props can have. But if they use props purposefully, they may increase their effectiveness.

Any physical object that can be manipulated as part of the communicative act is a prop. Common props include eyeglasses, pencils, writing pads, and small items that can be used either to attract attention or to illustrate a point.

Nervous habits sometimes surface through props. The unconscious rolling of a pencil or pen between the fingers or taking off and putting on eyeglasses are excellent examples. Desk items, such as a paper weight or letter opener, can serve the same purpose (which usually is to expend nervous energy).

The conscious use of a pencil as a pointer with which to illustrate or emphasize what is being said is perhaps the most common use of a prop. However, it can be overdone, and it can have negative impact because it is usually perceived as being a very authoritarian gesture.

The use of a pad of paper, when combined with the judicious use of a pencil or pen as pointer, can be very helpful. Older persons will be extremely conscious of note-taking in their presence. If the officer occasionally shows the older person what he is writing, underlining important points, then this action can help make an older person more comfortable. It is also helpful to draw simple diagrams to visually describe physical settings which are important to the discussion.

In the older person's home, most of the available props will belong to him. However, the uniformed officer should not miss the opportunity to make points by using police paraphernalia. For example, the simple act of taking off a hat or helmet when entering the room will be well regarded by the older person. Having notepaper and the appropriate forms readily and neatly available will help give the impression of efficiency and professionalism.

If the opportunity arises, the officer in either a home or office setting can use props to test an older person's sensory perception. Asking him discreetly if he can see certain objects or read

something held at a reasonable distance will give the officer an idea of the older person's visual perception abilities. Asking him to take a small object from the officer's extended hand may provide a clue about both visual ability and coordination.

When using a prop, the officer should try to ensure that it does not become a distraction. Asking the older person to shift his focal point rapidly may result in disorientation for him. It is also important not to let a prop become the sole object of the conversation.

Awareness of the arena and its components will help the law enforcement officer gain greater control over the communication process. The setting, its furnishings, the psychological impact they have on the participants in the communication, and the props available are material elements in the control formula.

THE CAUSE OF THE COMMUNICATIVE CONTACT:
CRIME-RELATED AND NON-CRIME RELATED SITUATIONS

Purposefulness in communication implies that the officer is sensitive to the cause of the contact. Thus, he may tailor the form and substance of the conversation. At the most basic level, officers will contact older persons in situations involving crimes or in non-crime related situations which either require a direct service or a referral to other services.

The crime related situations in which an officer may have to deal with an older person include: the older person as a criminal offender, as a crime victim, or as a witness to a crime.

Older Persons As Offenders

How should a law enforcement officer conduct himself when dealing with an older person who is a criminal offender? Four points are worth special consideration:

1. Don't stereotype the older offender as a vagrant or a "dirty old man."

2. Realize that older offenders are generally apprehended for the same offenses as persons in other age groups. Except for their age, they are really not very different.

3. Understand that any of the following situations may be influencing the deviant behavior:

   a. Loss. The inability to adjust to a loss, whether real or imagined, can lead to deviant behavior. Bereavement, for example, may lead to excessive drinking in later life.

   b. Health Problems. Older persons often incur chronic illnesses and pains. For example, in a case of disorderly conduct the suspect may have undergone an operation or recently absorbed a psychological shock of some kind.

   c. Restraint. There are many physical and social restraints on the lives and activities of older persons, including society's negative attitudes toward sexuality in the older person, which may have influenced an older person to commit some criminal offense. It should also be

noted that the anticipation, as well as the realization of losses, health problems, or restraints may influence older persons and affect their behavior.

4. Realize that the older person must adapt to the stresses and losses that are part of aging. They may be acting out some form of social delinquency to compensate for unmet needs arising from these changes. Of course, while this may be an explanation, it should not be considered an excuse for criminal behavior.

The Older Person As A Crime Victim

The number of all victims who report crime is quite low. Less than half contact the police.[18] Studies have confirmed that this is true among older age groups as well. Some common reasons that older persons give for not reporting crimes include:

1. The police could not do anything and there was no reason to report;

2. The incident was too trivial to report to the police; or,

3. A fear of reprisal, as indicated by the quote: "The likelihood of the offender being sent to jail is negligible and you will have to face him on the streets. Even if the offender is sent to jail, his friends will get even with you."[19]

Dealing with an older victim of a crime requires sensitivity. It is a classic example of a situation in which *efficiency*—getting job done in the fastest possible way — is the *wrong* criterion for success in this regard. The officer instead should strive for effectiveness, and this requires that he deal with the victim as a person in need of help. Quite often an *efficient* officer is viewed as too impersonal and indifferent to the victim's plight. This complaint is lodged more often in cases involving crimes against property than in cases which involve crimes against the person.[20] Such property crimes are so common the officer may become hardened to their human impact; however, to the elderly person, the loss of his property is extremely important and emotionally upsetting, particularly if he lives on a small fixed income.

It is also important for the preliminary investigator to be honest; he should try not to give the older person an *unreasonable* expectation for solution of the crime or recovery of the property. When the probabilities of recovering stolen property are remote, the investigator should be candid with the older victim.

The Older Person As A Crime Witness

Interviewing witnesses requires skill and patience. Admittedly, the officer's attitude toward the older witness will affect his ability to use effective interview techniques. Although some older witnesses will be ineffective because of severe physical impairments, older persons as a group generally may be classified as *very effective* witnesses.[21] Older persons often are keenly aware of other age levels. They exercise mature judgment and have the leisure time for careful observation. An officer should always challenge himself to develop good interview techniques which maximize the effectiveness of a witness; age should be a factor in assessing what techniques to use.

When approaching an older witness, the officer should first identify himself and his department. He should explain his role and responsibilities to older persons, many of whom have probably had more contact with television cops than with real law enforcement officers.

As discussed earlier, one reliable technique to establish quick rapport is "small talk." The officer can win a high level of confidence and trust and can also use "small talk" to evaluate the reliability of the witness as a source of information. While maintaining a businesslike manner, he can turn the simple conversation toward obtaining needed information.

Effective fact-gathering generally requires controlling the problem many older people have with sticking to the subject. However, the officer should not break off an older person's rambling discourse too quickly. Older persons often take longer to process information and to organize and report the facts. Premature interruptions on the part of the investigating officer may keep important facts from being revealed.

If he is writing the report while he is conducting the interview, the officer may find that the older witness becomes more interested in watching what is being written than in relating the facts. The older witness may become hesitant to divulge information if everything he says is being written down. By listening first and then writing the report, the officer can sometimes circumvent such problems. It is also useful to explain to the older person what is being recorded.

During an interview, an older person may not remember all the things he wants to say. Or he may be sensitive about vision and hearing difficulties and want to avoid disclosing this information—he may be embarrassed by his own confusion. It is important for the officer to convince and reassure the older person that he really wants and needs additional information. Basic communication skills, especially responses which indicate that the officer feels sympathetic toward the older person, are good for breaking down these barriers. Saying, for example, "I know how traumatic the experience must have been," can encourage continued communication.

In closing the interview, the officer should explain exactly what will be done in the investigation. He should not give false hopes of solving the crime, but instead should assure the older person that the department is going to do *everything* possible to take care of the situation. He should exit as graciously and cooperatively as possible, even though he may be frustrated and any hope that the case will be solved may be futile at that point. If at all possible, the officer should conduct some kind of case follow-up—a short memo or phone call to the elderly witness will make a difference.

Generally, older people as a group strongly support law enforcement activities and are favorably impressed by police service.[22] However, there is an interesting distinction between older persons who called the police for a general type of service and victims who had called to report a crime. Of those who called the police for general aid, 83 percent thought the response was good. Of all persons who had reported victimization, however, only 68 percent were satisfied with what the police did.[23] Effective and sensitive communication with elderly victims and witnesses of crime will, in all likelihood, keep their favorable impressions of the police at a high level.

Older Person In Non-Crime Situations

There are many non-crime situations in which law enforcement officers encounter the elderly. Some of these problems are described in the material which follows.

Chronic Caller. Many times when older persons telephone the police department, they only may have imagined problems, or they may be lonely and just want to talk to someone. Chronic complainers frequently call about problems with children in their neighborhood. Some assistance in dealing with chronic callers can be obtained by establishing working relationships with social service agencies, or by arranging visits from volunteers.

Care should be taken not to treat "chronic callers" too lightly. On occasion, the problem is real and serious and may require a police response.

Older Driver. Older drivers generally have had many years of driving experience and tend to be more cautious in their driving habits than younger persons.[24] Moreover, the older driver generally avoids driving in bad weather, high traffic areas, rush-hour traffic, and night-time traffic. Nevertheless, studies show that when driving exposure is considered, the older population has a higher crash experience per mile traveled than the middle-aged, and about equal to that of the young.[25]

The older driver has greater difficulty in accommodating visually to varied distances and adapting to dark and light. He may suffer from reduced visual acuity and poor hearing, experience slower reaction times, and show greater susceptibility to confusion when responding to multiple, concurrent stimuli.

The older person may miss traffic lights or signs because of their location, or because his peripheral vision is constricted and he has a slower reaction time. His knowledge of traffic laws may not be up-to-date and he may be unaware of some common safe driving practices. To help elderly drivers, the police officer on patrol can note overhanging traffic lights, stop signs that are higher than usual, and signs obstructed by natural overgrowth. He can then contact the authorities in charge of other city services to get the problems remedied. These measures will help to prevent accidents.

When he encounters an older driver who is having difficulties, the officer might ask certain questions. Does the older person take medication? Has he taken it recently? Does he need to do so? Is he diabetic?

The older person may be preoccupied, may have poor driving habits, a slower reaction time, or vision problems. If so, he needs to recognize his deficiencies. Multiple physiological changes must be adjusted for in a driving situation. Can the older person read the officer's name tag or the patrol car license plate? Does he refuse to try? Or, if the older driver is hard of hearing, can the officer communicate with him?

Re-examination citations, as an alternative to arrest or license revocation, may be given to the older driver who is stopped by an officer, especially in areas which do not require periodic re-examination after the age of 65. The police officer needs to assess the capabilities of the individual older driver, and given the considerations previously discussed, make an intelligent decision in the best interests of the public safety and the welfare of the older person involved.

Wandering Older Adult. Situations involving wandering older adults may vary, from hopeless to discretionary. The hopeless situation is typified by the elderly lady with her shopping bags who is destitute and without a home, family, or friends. She repeatedly runs away after referral to social

service agencies. A discretionary situation can occur when an elderly person, out walking the dog, has simply wandered into an unfamiliar part of the neighborhood and is lost and embarrassed. (One good-natured and sensitive officer explained how he handled such a situation—by dropping an older man off a few blocks from his home so his wife would never know about the accident.)

Family Problems. All experienced law enforcement officers must be prepared to intervene in family problem incidents involving older persons. These may involve such diverse situations as disagreements over family finances, to drunken arguments, and threatened suicides. Good communication skills will determine the officer's success in dealing with any of these situations.

CONCLUSION

Communicative skills are critical tools of effective law enforcement. Planned responses to the many situations in which law enforcement officers will encounter older persons rely on understanding what communication is and how it functions. The officer must be aware of the verbal and non-verbal communication channels, the environment within which the communicating takes place, and the roles he and others play.

Most importantly, the officer must be sensitive to himself, and alert to his own biases, value judgments, and assumptions as well as those of the older person. Such self-knowledge is the key to being able to establish rapport with others. That key will open the door to successful problem-solving in dealing with the entire spectrum of law enforcement and older persons.

SUMMARY

An officer's ability to communicate skillfully probably is the most significant determinant of his professional effectiveness.

Developing effective communication skills requires practice. The officer must learn the elements of communication, how messages are transmitted and received, and factors which inhibit effective communication. When communicating with older persons, the officer should be aware that he may have to utilize special communication techniques because of visual or auditory problems which the older person may have. Effective communication with older persons requires patience on the officer's part. The officer who makes an effort to communicate with older persons will often find that they provide him with valuable and needed information.

In order to communicate effectively with older persons, the officer must be aware of his own biases, value judgments, and assumptions about the aging process.

Officers must be sensitive to the older person's attitudes and points of view; he must realize that the older person also is seeking information and assistance from the communicative act. The officer should leave the older person with a positive attitude about the encounter. His communication with the older person should be effective — the older person should be satisfied both with the content of the message and the manner in which it was delivered.

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LESSON TWO
PROGRAMMING WITH OLDER PERSONS

Law enforcement agencies regularly conduct educational and informational programs for various segments of the community. The elements of a successful program presentation do not vary significantly from one target group to another. However, the emphasis given to each element does differ, as does the ability of each audience to participate in the learning process. Since the older audience has special problems and needs, this lesson emphasizes how to plan, develop, and present effective programs for and to this age group.

Lectures and films, followed by discussions or question-and-answer periods, prove to be better learning experiences for older persons than do formal lecture presentations.[1] In all situations, however, basic communicative skills are needed to deliver the message effectively. To present a program to an older audience, the speaker's talk must be properly paced and well-organized; in addition, the speaker needs to know how to use memory cues and visual aids.

Other factors, such as a supportive environment, audience participation, and meaningful content also contribute to effective programming for older persons. Practical consideration of physical factors such as outside interference, rest breaks, lighting, room temperature, and even accessibility to the meeting area is equally important.

Each of these factors should be considered when designing educational and informational programs for older persons.

PROGRAM PLANNING

Planning a program presentation includes consideration of several factors which are examined in later sections of this lesson. In this sense, it is important not to regard this section as wholly self-contained. Rather, its purpose is to emphasize the importance of careful planning to ensure the proper coordination of all other programmatic efforts.

There are many planning approaches which will yield a successful program. Each has its unique elements. A useful composite approach is represented by the acronym *STAR:* (S)tudents, (T)raining, (A)tmosphere, and (R)equirements. In these four elements one finds the most important planning steps.

Students: Who Are The Targets?

While "student" may not be the most accurate term to represent the person in the older audience, it nonetheless serves to identify the most crucial variable in program planning. The persons who are

to receive information may be viewed as "targets." The outer ring of the program planner's "target" contains the most general descriptions of the audience. Moving toward the center, each successive concentric ring further refines what is known about the audience until, in the bullseye, one finds its most specific characteristics.

The first step in planning a program presentation is to assess the characteristics of potential participants—a useful "target" can then be drawn. The crime prevention or community relations officer responsible for presenting the program should ask a series of increasingly specific questions to ensure that he fully understands the audience's composition and needs. Some of the questions he should ask are:

- What is the source of the program?
- Has it been requested specifically by a sponsoring group or agency?
- Is it one of a series scheduled in advance by the law enforcement agency?
- Is it part of a more encompassing program?

The answers to these questions will begin to establish the context for the program presentation. For example, if the presentation has been requested by a sponsoring group, then the representatives of that group can provide a sense of why they requested it. The program planner should seek answers to such questions as:

- What occurrence or concern led to the program request?
- If there were no specific occurrences or concerns, why did the group decide to request a presentation on a specific crime prevention topic?
- Who in the group specifically wants the program?
- What are the characteristics of the group? Age? Affiliation? Neighborhood? Economic status (if this is not too sensitive a question)? Sex? Ethnic background?

If the program is one of a series scheduled in advance—or even periodically— by the law enforcement agency, the questions may differ. While the planner of a regularly scheduled program is still interested in audience characteristics, his focus shifts somewhat to determine where participants are most likely to come from, such as a specific neighborhood with numerous street muggings of elderly residents. The planner also must examine his own motives for selecting the topic, location, and audience. Are those motives in line with the interests of the target group? Or, are they defined too much in terms of the department's purposes? A successful program is one which says something the participants need to hear.

If the planner is preparing a short presentation which will be part of a larger program, such as a day-long workshop, he must add several questions to those identified earlier. Some additional questions he might want to ask are:

- What is the overall topic of the workshop or conference?
- Who are the sponsors? What are their intentions?

- What are the other elements of the program?
- How are the participants being recruited?
- What is the sponsor "promising" the participants?
- Will every participant be a part of the planner's session, or will they be choosing from among a "menu" of workshops or presentations?

It is impossible to know too much about a prospective audience. It is possible, however, to collect so many details that one loses sight of their use. The purpose for analyzing the audience is to help in making decisions about *what* to say, *why* it should be said, *where* to say it, and *how* to say it.

Training: What To Say And Why

In practice, the "why" question comes first; it is essentially the reason for the program itself. What is the need the program must meet? Was the topic requested by a host group? Did an analysis of crime and service trends conducted by the law enforcement agency suggest a need for programs on the selected topic? Is the audience likely to be receptive? Do they want to hear the message?

The more general the topic, the more applicable it is to a variety of audiences. Conversely, the more narrow-focused the topic, the more relevant it is to a specific audience. The program planner should bear in mind that interest on the part of the listener will relate directly to how the message affects him personally. If an objective of the program is to stimulate action on the part of the audience, then the message must be applicable specifically to that audience. This means that having a series of "canned" programs which are general enough to present throughout the jurisdiction will be convenient for the speaker but less interesting to a given audience.

The program planner must develop a list of objectives for each program. At the top of this list will be the most general and fundamental goal or purpose of the specific program presentation; it will help the planner develop more specific objectives. The fundamental goal statement must reflect whether the program aims merely to *inform* members of the audience about a particular subject, or whether it aspires to *change* the behavior of program attendees.

If the basic intent is to inform, then the more specific objectives may be stated in *passive* terms. For example, an objective may be stated, "The participant will be informed about the most common street crimes committed against persons over the age of 55." Information-oriented objectives may also be stated in *intellectual* terms, such as, "The participant will be able to know (or understand, or perceive) the importance of depositing checks immediately in a bank account."

It is easy to measure whether or not the program presentor accomplishes passively stated objectives. He has succeeded if he has performed his task satisfactorily. For the objective in the preceding paragraph to be met, the program presentor only has to list the most common street crimes committed against the target population. Those crimes may be listed orally, flashed on a screen by using overhead projections, or listed in a handout or brochure.

Intellectually stated objectives, on the other hand, are slightly more difficult to measure. They require that the presentor test whether the program participants—or a selected portion of the participants—can show that they have in fact understood what was said. This can be accomplished rather easily by a question-and-answer period, or by a simple evaluation form distributed at the end of the program for either immediate or later collection.

If the basic intent of the program is to *change behavior*, then the statements of objectives will be drastically different. In this case, they will say something like, "Participants will be able to identify the personal behaviors that make them susceptible to street crimes and will plan behavioral changes to reduce their susceptibility." While this objective falls short of *proving* actual behavioral change, it is probably as much as the program planner can expect. It is not reasonable to require follow-up action to determine whether behavior does change unless the program is part of a more in-depth crime prevention effort.

Recognizing the fundamental outcome desired from a program presentation allows the planner to develop his objectives with a greater degree of comfort than would otherwise be possible. Evaluating program success is also made easier by writing down the expected outcome. It is likely that *some* programs will be solely informational while others will be change-directed. Most programs, however, probably will fall somewhere between these polar extremes.

The program plan should list the objectives in concise, simple language. It is not necessary for anyone else to know the objectives. Their purpose is to guide the planner in developing the program, in selecting message content, in structuring the message, in determining delivery methods, and in personally evaluating the success of a given presentation.

When the "why" question has been answered to the planner's satisfaction and he moves to the point of specifying objectives, answers to the "what" questions flow almost automatically. The problem then becomes one of proper organization.

Atmosphere And Requirements: Where And How To Say It

The final elements of a program plan deal with the physical environment where the program will be presented and with the equipment and resource materials required by the speaker.

The physical environment is a critical factor in successfully delivering a program. There will be times when the program planner does not have any control over the program site itself. When this happens, the only options available to the program planner involve the organization and duration of the presentation—if the physical facility is inadequate and cannot be modified, then the program must be structured to work around the worst physical features. This might require shortening the presentation time, using more (or fewer) visual aids, dividing the audience into smaller groups and conducting "buzz sessions," or making other concessions to cramped, poorly lighted, poorly ventilated, cavernous, or otherwise unsuitable surroundings.

The best way to determine the adequacy of a location is to visit it sufficiently in advance of the presentation to select an alternate site if necessary (and if it is possible). If the program planner cannot

not visit the site, then a telephone interview with the proprietor or with someone familiar with the site will help. Several considerations in planning how to present a program focus on the room itself:

1. What is its size? Shape?

2. What is its seating capacity?

3. What kind of tables and chairs are available? Are they moveable? Are they comfortable?

4. Is the room convenient to other rooms which will be used (such as small breakout rooms for discussions)?

5. What is the entrance/exit layout?

6. Are the building and room accessible to the handicapped (some elderly persons use walkers and wheelchairs)?

7. Are there convenient rest rooms?

8. What is the adequacy of:
   - Heating/air conditioning?
   - Ventilation (especially to remove smoke)?
   - Electrical outlets?
   - Windows?
   - Are there darkening drapes?
   - Lighting? What is the lighting type? Is it rheostat-controlled? May the room lights be dimmed without creating total darkness?
   - Floor coverings: Carpet? Tile/linoleum?
   - What is the room height?

9. Does it have built-in or readily available:
   - Chalkboards?
   - Easels/flip charts?
   - Projectors?
   - Screens?
   - Lecterns?
   - P.A. System?
   - Extension cords?

10. Are there any charges for the equipment listed above? If so, the program presentor may want to use his agency's equipment—the planner will need to make certain that the equipment is delivered to the meeting site and that the program presentor knows how to operate it. In addition, the equipment will need to be returned to the agency.

Other questions focus on the building and area within which the meeting room is located:

1. Is the neighborhood perceived as safe? Is it *actually* safe?

2. What is the accessibility to public transportation?

3. What is the parking availability?

4. Is the meeting room being used for other programs immediately before, during, or after the planned presentation?

Depending upon the length of the program and the planner's responsibility for such things as refreshments, questions might also determine whether it is necessary for the law enforcement agency to supply coffee, water, tea, soft drinks, sugar, cream, cups, glasses, and ice.

Other questions should deal with the availability of telephones, the convenience of restrooms, and what cleanup arrangements must be made.

The law enforcement agency will not always be responsible for attending to these details. In most cases, the planner will simply be preparing a presentation to be delivered to a group at a site of their choosing. However, even if the program planner is not the overall sponsor, it is in his best interests to ask many of these questions. They will help him develop the final plan—for example, if he had planned a program based largely around small group discussions, he better find out in advance if there are breakout rooms for these discussions; otherwise, his meeting room will become very noisy with dozens of people talking at once in groups and gradually the participants will lose interest in their own group's discussion session.

Five conditions, at a minimum, need to be given special attention.

Interference. Outside interference, distractions, and noise in the program area must be kept at a minimum. Selecting a program time which avoids peak use of the facility can help in this regard. It will also help to structure the program so that only one thing happens at a time. Explaining one item well before undertaking a second will minimize concentration difficulties and will take into account the older adult's shorter attention span.

Lighting. Programs should be conducted in a well-lighted room. Any uncontrolled natural light, such as sunlight shining through a large window, can create glare problems. In conditions of artificial lighting, older persons will need more light than younger groups for comfortable vision. Incandescent lights are more comfortable than fluorescent lights. A single intense light source will also create problems with glare.

Temperature. Older adults find it difficult to adjust to temperature changes. Cool or fluctuating room temperatures are the most uncomfortable. Older adults are generally more comfortable in temperatures that may be considered too warm by younger age groups.[2]

Physical Problems. Older adults may experience pronounced discomfort if they are forced to sit for a long period of time. Rest breaks should be provided about every 20 or 30 minutes so that participants can move about and use the restrooms. Tables and comfortable chairs are better for older

persons than are student-type chairs. Well-lighted and unobstructed corridors, hand grips on stairs, and clearly marked room numbers also create a safer and more accommodating physical environment for older people.

Accessibility. The planner must consider time, place, and transportation factors. Mornings and afternoons are generally the times that older persons prefer to go places. The location should be convenient both in terms of available transportation and access to the room where the program is to take place (planners should always be aware that older audiences probably include people who use walkers, canes, or wheelchairs). Churches, senior centers, and locations near the homes of the elderly may be useful sites.

Figure One provides an inventory form which can guide the program planner in identifying the characteristics of a meeting site. With the information obtained from such a form, the planner can more accurately construct the program itself.

SITE CHECKLIST

Verified by: _____

Date/time: _____

Workshop/Presentation Title: _____

Requested by: _____

Sponsored by: _____

Number of Participants Expected: _____ Age: _____

Neighborhood/Community: _____

Ethnicity: _____ Special Characteristics: _____

_____

Meeting Location: Name: _____

Address: _____

Normal Use: _____

Transportation Available:

Public _____ Walking _____

Parking for Personal Cars/No. _____

Meeting Room(s):

No. or Name: _____ Size: _____ ( )

Seating Capacity: _____ ( ) Dimensions: _____ ( )

Access: _____ ( ) Floor/Level: _____ ( )

Convenience to Other Facilities/Meeting Rooms: _____ ( )

Safety Factors (Stair treads, handrails, lighting, etc.):

_____ ( ) _____ ( ) _____ ( )

Type of Furniture: _____ Adequate ( )

Heating/Air Cond. ( ) Elec. Outlets ( ) Lighting ( )

Ventilation ( ) Windows ( ) Darkening Drapes ( )

Carpets/Floor Covering ( ) Restrooms ( ) Refreshments ( )

Availability of AV Equipment: ( )Yes ( )No

Projector—Overhead ( ) Projector—Slide ( ) Screen ( )

Projector—Movie ( ) PA System ( ) Chalkboard ( )

Easels/Flipchart Pads ( ) Extension Cords ( )

PRESENTATION SKILLS

Almost anything which must be absorbed (e.g., a written or spoken message, a physical activity) is subject to some degree of organization. Informational and educational materials must be organized in advance by the speaker to help older adults learn. One useful way to accomplish this is to index and categorize smaller topics into larger ones. The whole program should be summarized for the older audience *before* individual topics are discussed in detail.

This technique has obvious benefits—both for the presentor and for the audience. It forces the presentor to take the objectives he has identified and translate them into *presentation modules* Each module becomes a building block for the overall program. Consideration of one leads logically to consideration of the next.

The listener benefits from that very logic. If the presentor summarizes the program by providing an outline to the members of the audience, they may more easily understand each individual topic. Thus, the program is presented in an orderly way and the audience finds it relatively simple to relate the parts to the whole.[3] Older persons also benefit from the redundancy of both the written outline and the spoken word.

Since members of the audience will be mentally deciding how the material presented affects them personally, the presentation should focus on incidents which are easily identified or have occurred in the neighborhood as one way to drive home important points. This requires some research. While there are numerous national, state, and regional studies which provide statistics and illustrative examples of the crime and service problems of the older generation, over-reliance on such far-removed data diminishes the immediate impact of the message.

It is also important to recognize the potential *negative result* of over-emphasizing statistics which amplify the plight of the older citizen. Obviously, the audience must hear the truth. However, the facts should not cause a frightened over-reaction, for that will tend to close the minds of the participants to the remedies the speaker might wish to suggest. The speaker should provide facts but should not embellish them with unnecessary "war story" illustrations. He should move quickly to understandable and reasonable prescriptions for minimizing risks to the listeners.

Research on the topic is the single most critical determinant of the speaker's success. Even poor delivery can be excused if the speaker establishes that he is a master of the subject. Conversely, nothing is worse than "being caught with your statistics down" by a penetrating question from a member of the audience. It is useful to obtain the following information regarding any study or report which will be used as a basis for statements made in a presentation.

1. Person(s) or institution(s) conducting the study.

2. Sponsor(s) of the study (where did the money come from?).

3. What was the objective of the study?

4. What was the study population by:
   a. Age?
   b. Sex?
   c. Socio-economic status?
   d. Ethnic background?
   e. Neighborhood (urban, suburban, rural)?

5. What was the effective date of the study?

6. Can the study be generalized, particularly to the audience in question?

It can also be helpful to ask someone familiar with survey research to critique study reports. Many studies funded during recent years have serious procedural flaws which reduce their reliability or leave their credibility suspect.

If a study, government report, periodical (e.g., a newspaper or news magazine), book, or speech is to be paraphrased or quoted, a complete bibliographical reference should be available. Members of the audience seldom ask for such references but it is possible that a social service agency representative, a newsletter writer, or a reporter will hear the presentation and seek additional information. Even if this does not occur, the practice of documenting references is a good insurance measure for the presenter.

Public Speaking

An educational or informational program usually revolves around a lecturer, speaker, or moderator. Even if a panel is to be used, someone will have to assume the responsibility for coordinating the various presentations. The spoken word is inevitably an important element of any program.

Occasionally, a crime prevention or community relations officer is fortunate enough to be a "natural orator." More often, however, he is unprepared for the public speaking role which the department has assigned to him and he must suffer through a number of programs to develop an acceptable or comfortable speaking style through that old stand-by process: trial and error.

Audiences react to the tone or mood set by a speaker. If the speaker is tense and uncomfortable, then the audience reaction will be similar. If the method of presentation is stiff and formal, then the audience response will mirror that formality. When conducting a program, therefore, it is good practice *never to read* a speech. The speaker must be intimately familiar with the subject. Then he can use the particular style of delivery which is most comfortable and natural for him.

Notes help the speaker keep to the general format and flow of the presentation. Refreshing one's memory by looking at notes is acceptable; it also provides an occasional pause in the delivery to let the listeners catch up. Scanning the faces in the audience also promotes attention and allows the speaker to take the "participative pulse"—to determine if members of the audience understand what he is saying. Active, alert faces, sporadic eye contact with the speaker, and heads titled slightly to the side are feedback which suggest the listeners are indeed attentive.

The speaker must recognize that older persons may suffer from restricted peripheral vision. Thus, the best place for him to stand is directly in front of the largest segment of the audience, preferably on the same level. Room lighting must be on the speaker's face and not in the eyes of the audience. If the speaker's face is clearly visible, it will facilitate lip-reading and promote concentration.

The speaker should talk in a normal tone without shouting or mouthing words and should project his voice to the last row in the audience. Public address systems do not always help when talking to an older audience, since such amplification can cause distortion for people with hearing aids.[4] Shouting does not help either, since it raises the speaker's pitch, thus making comprehension difficult for older persons who suffer from a diminished pitch range.

Women's voices may pose difficulties for persons suffering from pitch-related hearing difficulties since women's voices are in the higher end of the range. For women who have high-pitched voices, a good public address system which allows for adjustments to the amplified pitch might be useful to flatten pitch peaks.

A chalkboard or flip chart can be used to reinforce what is being said, but explanations of charts or illustrations should be made only when facing the audience. Older adults may understand little or nothing of what is being said if the speaker's back is to them. However, when a chalkboard or flip chart is being used, the speaker should remember that chalk or felt-tip pen lines are extremely thin. When they are made on a dark surface —the chalkboard—or on a glaring surface—a newsprint pad—they will be even more difficult for many older people to read.

Gestures and props are useful to illustrate the message the speaker is attempting to deliver. However, they must agree with the spoken word, and they must be timed properly. Also, the speaker must recognize that when he draws an older person's gaze away from the mouth and toward his hands or a prop, there may be a temporary loss of the verbal message.

Many speakers like to hide behind a lectern or a table. This is a common defensive reaction to the stress which always accompanies public speaking. The speaker should keep in mind that a lectern *emphasizes the different status he has*—it says *"I am the authority here."* Stepping out from behind the lectern occasionally helps to establish a feeling of openness; people feel the speaker is relating to them informally. Moving back behind the lectern tends to reestablish control—it is a good maneuver to make when shifting from a question-and-answer period to a lecture.

If a lectern is not available, the speaker must take care not to move around too much. Pacing back and forth in front of an audience of older persons will make it difficult for them to concentrate. It will also cause variations in volume level as the speaker moves away from one segment of the audience and then moves back again a few seconds later. Occasional movement a few feet each way will add life to the presentation as long as it is not overdone and as long as the speaker maintains eye contact with the group.

Pace Of The Presentation. An older audience requires a *relatively slow delivery* pace. Rapid speech, no matter how significant the message, frequently will be unintelligible to this group. On the other hand, pacing which is too slow can become boring and cause the audience not to pay attention to the speaker. Careful attention to non-verbal clues of misunderstanding or boredom will tell the speaker if the pace is comfortable. The pace should suit the audience, not the speaker.

Sufficient time must be allowed for audience response, as well as for them to process the information being provided. Older adults benefit both from a longer time to hear the presentation and a longer time to respond. Having longer time to respond is of little help if the pace is too rapid.[5]

Memory Cues. Closely related to the pace of the presentation is the judicious use of memory cues. Older persons do not tend to use memory aids unless they are instructed to do so. Developing memory cues to highlight points and to help participants associate the information with their own life and environment will help to get the point across. Even though two or more topics may not seem to be obviously related, there may be something which they indirectly have in common to provide the necessary link.

One common approach is to form a single word out of key letters (acronym). Each letter of the word serves as a trigger for the full piece of information, and the constant order of the letters serves as a cue for each following piece.[6] For example, C.O.P. could be a memory cue for a program theme entitled "Crime and Older Persons."

When illustrating an important point or giving definitions or directions, the speaker should use oral and written presentations to aid the memory. The chalkboard can be used to spell out the spoken word. Directions or important concepts can also be included in handouts. An older person's memory can be helped if the speaker can rephrase the same idea in different words. Finally, the audience can be encouraged to take notes as another memory cue.

VISUAL AIDS

Visual aids can reinforce the spoken word and help an older audience remember ideas. It must be remembered, however, that many older persons have difficulty seeing details. Thus, *all visual materials must be orally reinforced.*

Because a person's peripheral vision tends to constrict with age, all visual objects, devices, and materials should be positioned *directly* in front of audience members—clearly within their field of vision in a well-lighted but non-glare location.

Older persons should not be forced to focus their vision at varying distances within a short time period. For example, instead of lecturing and using the chalkboard and then referring to a hand-out and returning to the chalkboard to make another point, the speaker should first summarize the hand-out using the chalkboard, then have the group read through the handout together. Often it is helpful to pass visual materials through the audience to allow them a closer look.

There are six useful rules relating to the decision to use visuals[7]:

1. When the visuals are to be used in conjunction with oral or other audio materials, they must be directly related to the audio content. Using a visual just to break up the monotony of the presentation or to impress the audience with the thoroughness of the program plan may inhibit desired learning.

2. Excessive redundancy between visuals and the spoken portion of the program should be minimized. Visuals should reinforce, not merely repeat. If visuals are used, for example, to list points the speaker wishes to make, he should allow the audience time to read them before commenting or rephrasing the projected message.

3. Visual displays should not be punishing. They must be legible, which means they must project clear and bright images. They should not be ambiguous. They should be simple and clean in design.

4. Visuals should not be distasteful to the audience. This is particularly important with older persons who may have different values than the presentor or the community-at-large. Attempts at humor are particularly susceptible to errors in judgment. Analyzing the characteristics of the audience during the program planning phase will go far toward avoiding this problem.

5. It is best to design visuals in a horizontal format. This makes it easier for projected visuals to be seen from the back of the room. The horizontal format also coincides with that used by the entertainment media (television and motion pictures), so people are conditioned to expect it.

6. Color usually adds very little to learning. If it adds to the readibility of the visual, it is appropriate. Otherwise, it can detract from the overall message by leading the viewer toward irrelevant thoughts or emotional reactions.

When designing visuals, plan on using one foot of screen width for each six feet of viewing distance from the screen. This is known as the 6W formula.[8] It can be tested in the following manner:

Measure in *inches* the width of the artwork or lettering display to be projected.

Divide your answer by two.

Hold the artwork or display that many *feet* away from a viewer and aks him to read the content or to describe the image. If the viewer is successful, your design is adequate for projection.

Example: Your artwork is 10 *inches* wide; divide it by 2 = 5 *inches.* Have the viewer read the display from a distance of 5 *feet.*[9]

The designer should not test read the visual. Rather, he should have someone else do it. With an older audience, it might be helpful to have an older citizen—perhaps a department volunteer worker—do the test reading.

Films

A movie can be an important visual aid in any program—films often supplement instruction and add credibility to the presentation. However, several cautions should be observed when using films. The facts presented in the film must be up-to-date and must be compatible with the intent of the program. If, for example, in a program for older women, a film is shown which has an actress using karate in self-defense, then the use of this film should be questioned. The audience, while viewing

the film, may think that they are expected to resist the offender. The speaker actually wants to deliver the *opposite* message—older persons who resist an attacker are likely to incur serious physical injuries.

When previewing a film to determine its suitability for older persons, the following elements should be evaluated:

1. *Narration:* Vocal quality should be low-pitched, slow, and relatively loud. The narrator must be enthusiastic and consistent. If, for example, the voice is too soft at a critical point in the plot, the older audience may miss the point. This can be compensated for by manually turning up the volume at that point. It is better to have the spoken words coming from the persons pictured—the actors—than from an off-camera narrator. The latter, called "voice over," can be confusing to some older persons.

2. *Plot:* The film's plot requires good organization. Actors, locations, and props must be clearly visible to those in the rear of the room. If the location or a prop is critical to understanding the film's message, it must be shown long enough for older persons to get the point. Otherwise, the film will not be very useful. Discussion after the film should highlight critical points that may be missed because of poor cinematography. In some instances, a film can be re-shown to the audience after the discussion. This might be especially useful if it is attempting to teach someone how to do something.

3. *Acting:* The actors must speak clearly. They must be identifiable and believable. If, for example, a con artist is very easily identified by his high pressure salesmanship style, then discussion should clarify the difficulties in recognizing a con artist in real life. It is important to avoid films which resort to "grade B movie" stereotypes of criminals.

4. *Message:* The film's message must be presented in a manner with which an older audience can identify. Its purpose should be to inform as well as to entertain.

5. *Length.* The film should not be longer than 20 minutes to avoid over-reaching the older adult's attention span.

Several previews may be necessary to fully evaluate a film and devise methods to compensate for flaws if the film is to be used. Posters, hand-out literature, and demonstrations can supplement a movie or fill the informational gaps of the film.

Posters

Posters can provide flexibility in a presentation. They can be dry-mounted on hardboard and laminated (dry mounting is an adhesive and heat process; lamination waterproofs the poster).

Posters must be large enough to be seen. Loose, individual posters are best. They can be held by the instructor and then passed throughout the audience. Posters should be simple and easy to comprehend, with illustrations as realistic as possible.

Hand-Out Literature

In terms of volume of use, hand-out literature for older persons is the most frequently used visual aid. It can be a record of the program and assist the older person in remembering what he has learned, or it can be used to further supplement law enforcement goals. Hand-out literature must be factual and concise. An older person should be able to read handout literature at one sitting, or it may not be read.

Printing and Layout. If there is no available hand-out literature for programming with older persons, it can be prepared and produced by the law enforcement agency. Four factors to consider are: type, color, paper, and lay-out.

The type size, type style and spacing should be selected to facilitate readability. Large 10-to-12 point type size (the size of this text) is generally suitable for older persons. In selecting type style, or type face, the main principle is to avoid extremely stylized or excessively ornate styles. A good type style to choose is described as times roman (it is quite clean with few embellishments on individual letters).

In spacing type for older persons to read, the lines should not be tightly set (too close together). Spacing between lines, known as leading, is usually expressed with the size of type—10/12, for example, is 10-point type with 12-point leading. Proper print size and style will not be easily readable if there is not sufficient spacing between letters and lines.

Color selection requires high contrast without creating a harsh effect on the eye. Black letters on white backgrounds, although not unacceptable, are *not* the best choices for hand-outs for older persons. Generally, a soft-white, eggshell, or buff-colored paper provides sufficient contrast for the older reader without creating a harsh effect. Dark color prints on pale backgrounds are generally good, while bright pastels, although eye-catching, are harsh. It is also best to avoid light print on dark backgrounds.

In selecting two high-contrast colors for hand-out literature, avoid red-green combinations which cannot be distinguished by color blind individuals (of any age).

Avoid paper types that reflect light, such as glossy finish magazine paper stock. The matte finish papers are all generally very good, and they need not be expensive.

Headings, text, and illustrations should have simple lay-outs. Any illustrations, such as line drawings, should not insult older persons by strong stereotyping. Hand-out literature should be designed to be simple, of high-contrast, and to the point.

Demonstrations

Older persons can actively participate in the program by taking part in demonstrations or in role-playing skits. For example, an older woman can be asked to carry her purse. While she is in front of the audience, proper methods of carrying the purse to deter purse snatching can be demonstrated.

She can also walk through the audience so that everyone can see clearly the proper procedure. Use of whistles and lock displays are other examples where the audience can actually participate in learning how to use these devices.

CREATING A POSITIVE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

Presentation skills alone, no matter how effective, will not guarantee good informational or educational programming for an older audience. The older persons themselves must be motivated to absorb the information into their lives. While the program's presentor cannot motivate everyone, he can do certain things to create a positive learning environment which will enable members of the audience to identify their own motivations in terms of the program's content. Such an environment enhances individual motivation by being supportive, allowing audience participation, providing meaningful content, and showing a personal commitment to the cause.

Supportive Environment

Most older adults experience some anxiety in a learning situation. This anxiety may be reflected in passivity, hostility, or refusal to interact. Conversely, it may result in excessive demands for interaction.

Being in a peer group rather than an audience with different age levels will be more comfortable for the older person.[10] Having an opportunity to get acquainted before the program might also help. The presenter can aid this process by spending a few minutes asking for audience characteristics, either by a show of hands or by asking persons to volunteer to speak.

A supportive environment is a comfortable environment. The speaker should avoid being too formal. Chatting with members of the audience before the presentation begins and during intermission will help. It may also be useful to learn a few names and to use them during the presentation to establish a feeling of rapport.

Participation

An older audience generally will include men and women from diversified social, economic, racial, and cultural backgrounds. Their interests will be as varied as their total life experiences. When they attend a program, they bring with them a fund of rich prior experience and can become quite frustrated when this experience seems of little value in the program.

This experience can be tapped and audience participation encouraged by positively reacting to audience questions and comments, saying such things as, "That is a good question, because . . ." or "That is an interesting comment, because . . ." When presenting a program for an older audience, it is a good general rule never to ignore a question or comment from the audience, no matter how insignificant it may seem. Each individual's contribution to the program should be accepted and dealt with.

Audience participation can be encouraged by the program presentor in a variety of ways:[11]

- Request definitions from the group. Make certain obscure words or phrases are defined. Avoid jargon except where it is a necessary part of the instruction.

- Do not do all the talking. Encourage the group to verbalize concepts. Rather than continually stating facts, attempt to get persons in the audience to verbalize the facts by presenting cases and examples; help the audience draw conclusions. Listening is a valuable tool for both speaker and listener alike.

- Foster self-discovery. Rather than doing their thinking for them, encourage individuals to participate in the learning situation.

- Illustrate concepts by sharing personal experiences that can serve as examples of the ideas you are attempting to teach. Request examples of similar experiences from the older audience.

When using specific examples of traumatic events, the speaker should exercise caution. If someone in the audience has recently been similarly victimized, he may experience a "flashback" reaction, causing a recurrence of the psychological side effects of the incident. The speaker should be sensitive to audience reactions to illustrative stories.

These techniques will not only encourage audience participation—they will also help create a more supportive environment for learning, especially for older persons.

Meaningful Content

To stimulate a desire for participation, information must be meaningful. Ideas and thoughts must be related to an older person's personal experiences or to events familiar to that group. Analysis of the audience and of their crime and service problems during the program planning phase will begin to tell the presenter what meaningful topics can be discussed. These topics can be planned beforehand, and they can be modified as necessary during the program.

What may seem important to a law enforcement officer may be of little or no concern to an older person. Program content must be directed toward meeting the needs and concerns of the audience, not the program sponsors.

Personal Commitment

Although it is very difficult to describe, a significant factor in establishing a positive learning environment is behavior on the part of the presenter which shows that he cares about the audience and its problems. Older persons recognize their vulnerability. They know they are frequently victimized. When they are going to be told even more explicitly that they are vulnerable, they want to hear it from someone who cares about that fact. Otherwise, as the old saw goes, it "adds insult to injury."

It is easy for a law enforcement officer to become hardened to the harsh realities of life, even to the victimization of virtually helpless members of society. This hardness develops partly for the of-

ficer's personal psychological survival. It allows him to keep working without sinking under the weight of frustration, depression, and rage that otherwise develops.

When dealing with the older population to enhance their survival skills, the law enforcement program speaker must not let his cynicism show through. On the contrary, a positive attitude and demeanor are necessary, for they will give hope to the older person who is seeking an indication that help is truly available.

CONCLUSION

Effective programming for older persons requires a commitment to do necessary research, to develop a program plan, to sharpen presentation skills, and to work closely and sensitively with that target group. None of these points individually will be sufficient to ensure program success. When coordinated in a comprehensive program development and delivery process, however, they go far toward providing meaningful service to a significant part of the community.

SUMMARY

Programs with lectures and films followed by discussion or question-and-answer periods are well-suited to older audiences; however, proper planning by the program speaker is absolutely essential.

A plan serves as a road map—it does not have to be followed point-by-point. Essential to the planning process is specifically identifying who the members of the audience are. The program planner must ask a series of key questions to focus in on the audience since a successful program says something the people in the audience need to hear. The program planner, to be effective, needs to know *what* to say, *why* to say it, *where* to say it, and *how* to say it.

A variety of presentation skills contribute to the success of an informational or educational program for older persons.

These skills include research, public speaking, pacing, providing memory cues, and using visual aids effectively. Many crime prevention officers fall into the trap of thinking that because they have presented one, two, or even dozens of programs that they can go into a new one and "wing it." When they do this, they risk providing a disservice to the participants, who regard the law enforcement speakers as a representative of a critical, lifeline service. Professional performance requires cultivation of presentation skills.

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LESSON THREE
NEWS MEDIA RELATIONS

Good relationships with local news media outlets are crucial to the overall effectiveness of police operations. Most agencies assign the media relations function to one or more persons who ensure control over the flow of information. In very small agencies, that person may be the chief administrator or a ranking officer while in larger agencies, media relations may be the responsibility of a public information officer or unit. Regardless of the organizational placement of such responsibility, the law enforcement agency's access to media outlets is a valuable component of successful programs which serve older persons.

The department member who is assigned responsibility for programming for the elderly must be familiar with the agency's media relations policies and procedures. He must establish a productive working relationship with the designated public information officer so that the two may complement one another in their dealings with news outlets.

Much can be gained for a program designed for older persons when a law enforcement agency establishes good working relations with media personnel. First, the law enforcement agency obtains an easily accessible vehicle for communicating with older persons who are potential targets for victimization. Of related value is the ability of the law enforcement agency to heighten the awareness of others in the community to the problems faced by their older neighbors. Finally, a properly coordinated media information effort always conveys an image of professional concern for public safety on the part of police officials.

POLICY CONSIDERATIONS

A policy statement should define the agency's basic position regarding its responsibilities to provide information to organized media outlets. The policy should also cover such things as cooperation between the police and the media, release of reports and factual information, and who may speak for the department.[1]

Cooperation With Media Agencies

There has been much debate in recent years regarding the "rights" of the media to certain kinds of information. This debate has both philosophical and legal elements. In brief, the media have a legal right to information about government operations—including those of law enforcement—*as long as the provision of such information is not specifically precluded by law.* In addition, police agencies are entitled to withhold information about on-going criminal investigations.

Law enforcement agencies have much to gain from cooperating with the media, especially when the media agencies are willing to assist in providing information that citizens can use to better pro-

tect themselves from victimization. However, productive cooperation requires effort *on both sides*. Representatives of the law enforcement agency must develop procedures through which accurate information may be passed to the media in a timely manner. Representatives of the media must recognize the legitimate needs of the law enforcement agency to occasionally withhold information that relates to on-going investigative efforts.

An effective media relations policy should recognize specifically the mutual responsibilities of both parties; it should establish the ground rules for exchanging information and, ideally, set forth a workable method for resolving disagreements.

Release of Information

The media relations policy should describe methods for the proper release of information, providing answers to the six universal questions:

- *Who?*
- *What?*
- *When?*
- *Where?*
- *Why?*
- *How?*

Who? The answer to the first question involves both parties. First, consideration must be given to who in the law enforcement agency is authorized to speak to media representatives. Second, who in the media is authorized to receive such information? In most cases, media inquiries will be referred to a centralized information source designated by the chief administrative officer. However, certain kinds of information may be approved for release by other responsible officers; for example, criminal investigators may be authorized to release facts relating to a crime.

The officer responsible for programming for older persons should seek to be identified specifically as *the agency spokesperson* regarding the crime and service problems of older citizens. Such a designation will help to ensure that the agency's statements are consistent and accurate. It will also legitimize that person's efforts to establish positive, ongoing relationships with key media personnel. However, the program director's designation as the official spokesperson does not relieve other department members from the responsibility of knowing the nature of problems faced by older citizens and being familiar with the agency's responses. Nor does it mean that they will never speak out on issues related to such programs. Rather, this designation of a spokesperson simply assigns a specific responsibility for cultivating positive media relationships and thereby enhances the probability that vital information will be reported quickly and accurately.

The answer to the question of who should be involved in the release of information must also extend to the receiving side of the relationship—*who* is an authorized media representative?

In most cases, media representatives carry credentials issued by their employers which identify them as reporters. Many law enforcement agencies recognize such credentials as sufficient to allow release of information. In other jurisdictions, the major law enforcement units issue passes to media representatives.

The director of the program for older persons must follow applicable departmental authorization criteria in his dealings with media personnel. However, there may be times when non-reporters may be interested in information. For example, disk jockeys, high school newspaper writers, talk show hosts, or neighborhood newsletter publishers may occasionally want information about the law enforcement problems of older citizens. Thus, the agency's policy must be broad enough to include such non-traditional news seekers as recipients of program information and news releases.

What? Each law enforcement agency prohibits its employees from releasing certain kinds of information, such as the names of juveniles who have been arrested, the identity of suspects prior to arrest unless a warrant has been issued, the existence or content of admissions or confessions, the identities of prospective witnesses, the names of victims of sexual offenses (both males and females) and other information which would not normally be available through reports open to inspection under the various "freedom of information" acts. These policies vary from state to state and jurisdiction to jurisdiction. The release of some types of information (such as the names of juvenile offenders) is specifically prohibited by law in many states while the release of other types of information is left to the discretionary judgment of each law enforcement agency. For example, most law enforcement agencies will not release the names of victims of sexual offenses. Others will not list the names and *specific* addresses of burglary victims.

Law enforcement agencies might want to consider prohibiting personnel from releasing *specific* information about elderly crime victims, such as exact addresses. However, such a policy would have to involve cooperation by local news outlets since there may be little or no legal basis for withholding such information.

Information provided to media outlets through news releases or news conferences must conform to these guidelines. In most cases, such department-generated information does not include sensitive details. Rather, it focuses on subjects of general interest or concern. Thus the major consideration for the officer working with older persons is to establish an understanding with his supervisors concerning the types of news releases he can issue directly as a function of his assignment. Coordination with the central media relations officer, if the department has one, must be maintained. Usually that person will refer inquiries about older persons to the program director, since reporters always ask to talk to the department's "expert" on specific subjects.

When and Where? There are basically *two kinds of information* required by reporters: that involving a developing news story and that which is feature information. "Developing news" refers to events that are unfolding at the time of the reporter's inquiry. Examples are crimes that have just occurred or investigations that are under way.

Usually, the director of programming for older persons will not be involved in providing such "hot" news. Even if a crime involves an elderly victim or perpetrator, it is probably best to let the media relations officer handle inquiries. However, the director of the program for older persons should be willing to assist with providing specific details if necessary. For example, if an 80-year-old man was arrested for shoplifting in a grocery store, reporters might want to know if this is a common problem among elderly residents in the community; with such a question, the media relations officer might ask the director of programs for the elderly to provide statistical information to reporters.

Feature information usually includes stories that are less time-specific and provide more interpretive content than do "straight" news stories. Such information is uniquely suited for dissemination by the director of programs for the elderly, since he is the substantive expert in the agency. This type of information may be provided in advance through a news release or it may be provided during an activity, such as a seminar or conference, through the medium of an interview. It also may be provided after-the-fact through either a news release or interview.

It is a good rule to provide information sufficiently in advance of a planned event to ensure that it is received in time to be used by the targeted media outlets. This requires knowing press-run or broadcast deadlines of the affected outlets. It also requires knowing where to deliver the information and the proper format for the information.

If the program director finds himself in the position of providing information about a sensitive issue, he should make every effort to be responsive to questions without being "put on the spot." One authority on media relations suggests keeping several "do's and don'ts" in mind during a crisis situation.[2]

MEDIA RELATIONS IN CRISIS SITUATIONS

DO:
—get exact question wording
—give the facts
—answer "what are you going to do?"
—show concern for the public
—treat accusers as sincere, but uninformed
—respect deadlines—return every call
—keep your cool
—advise employees and public promptly
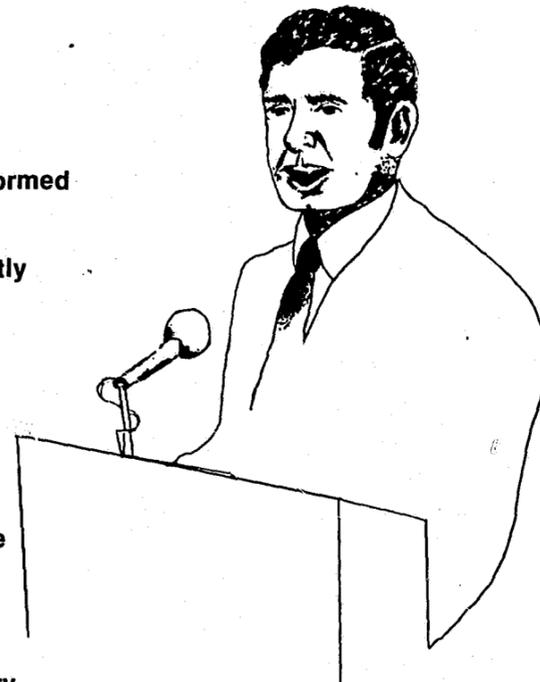
DON'T:
—go off the record
—guess
—lie
—use complicated sentence structure
—say more than you intend
—answer what you don't understand
—lose your temper
—be funny or sarcastic
—go "No Comment" unless necessary

The department's program director for the elderly should also be aware of the setting in which information is provided. Spot news information frequently is provided by officers at the scene of a crime or other emergencies; at an on-the-scene event, the person providing the information to the media usually cannot select his setting and background. However, it is important to be aware of such things, especially when dealing with television crews. When there is an opportunity to control the setting for TV interviews, the officer should try to select a site which is uncluttered and which contributes as much as possible to the tone he wishes to convey as part of the overall message.

Why and How? Timely information should be provided to news media outlets *because it is to the law enforcement agency's advantage to do so.* A wellplanned and orchestrated flow of information conveys an image of concern and responsiveness. It also helps to establish the context within which subsequent news stories will be cast by reporters. It allows the department to tell its story. And, it establishes and helps to nourish productive relationships between members of the department and representatives of the media.

The goals and objectives of the public information component of the program conducted for older persons should be carefully considered. They will help to guide subsequent activities and will contribute to the success of the overall program.

Contacts with media representatives will be both formal and informal. Formal contacts include news releases, news conferences, structured announcements, and responses to media inquiries. Informal contacts include social visits (e.g., lunches), occasional calls to "keep in touch," provision of background information, and recognition of reporters' contributions to program success through telephonic, written, or personal messages of thanks.

Conclusions. Each of the preceding elements should be considered as the agency develops its policy regarding relations with news media. Each of these elements has significance in the broader context of overall department operations. In addition, each element also has specific significance for specialized programs to serve older citizens.

One major concern of each law enforcement agency must be the coordination of its media relations efforts, particularly if these responsibilities are to be shared by various department units. One mechanical method for maintaining control involves the use of a Media Contact and Activity Report, such as that illustrated in Figure One. Each department member who deals with reporters should complete this form weekly or monthly. When submitted to the central public information unit, the cumulative picture is useful in outlining the totality of the agency's media contact program.

Terms And Definitions

It is important to establish a precise vocabulary to describe the department's efforts in dealing with older persons. There can be various definitions of "older," "elderly," "aged," and "senior citizen." It is to the agency's advantage to select the term preferred by the community it serves and to define that term for use by *all* members of the department. The definition should specify the age range included.

It is also important to sensitize members of the department to the need for using standard terminology and for avoiding the use of words or phrases which negatively stereotype the target population. For example, the use of the word "senile" is generally discouraged as being too imprecise and too negatively loaded to convey a useful message to the public.

Sharing the department's approved vocabulary with representatives of the media will accomplish three purposes. First, it will provide insight on the department's thoroughness. Second, it will ensure common understanding. Third, it will provide insight to the department's philosophical stance toward older persons.

KNOW THE MEDIA

It is unfortunate that many law enforcement officers and administrators have a vague, poorly defined mental picture of "the media." An effective system of media contacts requires knowing what the media outlets are, where they are, and who represents them. The person responsible for programming for older persons must analyze the media network in his community. This will ensure sufficient working knowledge, not only to further departmental goals, but also to respond to the media's need for information.

Depending upon locale and demographics, developing an accurate picture of the media network may be easy or complex. In either case, certain information is required.

Identify The Outlets

There are variety of media outlets in almost any community. The most obvious are those that are most visible in everyday life. They typically include the major newspapers and broadcast stations serving the area. Depending upon the population and degree of urbanization, the newspaper grouping may include a local or regional *daily*, a local or regional *weekly*, neighborhood newspapers, and "shoppers" or "throwaways" delivered through pick-up distribution points or door-to-door.

The broadcast media include local or regional television and radio outlets. Sometimes these are locally owned and programmed. In other cases, they are affiliated with chains or networks and many programming decisions are dictated for them.

Regional magazines are enjoying increasing popularity. They tend to focus on issues of concern to local residents, frequently from a promotional point of view. Their audience is typically the younger, more affluent person with a significant disposable income. However, this fact should not preclude efforts to reach them with information and stories. But it does require that articles be written in a way which appeals to the magazine's target group.

There are also many specialized magazines devoted to audiences which have something in common, e.g., those who enjoy a particular sport or share a hobby, those of a particular ethnic heritage, or those in a particular age bracket. These magazines may be published at some distance from the local community. However, they might be interested in a locally generated story if they feel it has general applicability or if there is a significant subscriber population in the area.

Finally, there is the "grass roots" media network comprised of club, church, association, and neighborhood newsletters. These publications have restricted distribution, but they are usually hungry for information to fill their columns. They are also read avidly by subscribers, so there is significant potential for getting the message across.

Develop A Media Profile

It can be useful to construct a media profile to aid in determining the distribution of information. This profile should include the name of the publication or broadcast outlet, its publication frequency, its affiliation (owners, network relationships, etc.), the circulation or coverage in numbers and geographically, publication or air deadlines for various types of stories, names of relevant editions and reporters, address, telephone numbers, and any special consideration, e.g., preferred types of stories.

Some of the information required in developing a media profile may be obtained from *The Ayer's Guide*, which is the "bible" in the public relations profession. Other information may be gathered through interviews or a questionnaire, depending upon the number of outlets involved. Once collected, it is also important to keep all of the information up-to-date.

The profile can be used to prepare a distribution list. This need only be a one-page form with the media outlet and specific editor or writer printed on it. It should provide space to log the name or number of a news release and the date of its mailing or delivery to the outlet. Such a control device is useful in keeping track of information flow and in checking one's "track record."

MEDIA CULTIVATION

In most law enforcement agencies, the officer responsible for programming for older persons has had little or no experience in working with the media. The suggestion that this person should assume a major role in such dealings will elicit varying reactions, usually of apprehension or outright dread. This need not be the case, however, because as the substantive expert, the program director possesses the vital element required of every effective media relationship—accurate information on the subject at hand. All that is required to establish a good working relationship with reporters is to structure the delivery of that information.

When the department has a designated public information officer (PIO), the program director for older persons can follow the PIO's lead, deferring to his authority and to established policy and procedure when questions arise. When there is no centrally identified information officer, the program director has a broader responsibility. In either case, however, the primary function, and that which will consume most of his media time, is to "cultivate" the media.

Much as the term implies, media cultivation involves efforts to create conditions under which media outlets will be positive in their coverage of the department. Even if a media outlet is critical of the department in some way, effective cultivation efforts can contribute to keeping that coverage objective.

Media cultivation is an on-going process. It includes such simple practices as being available to reporters, returning telephone calls promptly, and providing occasional updates on activities. It need not be elaborate, but it must be continuous. There are six key elements to the process:

- Be accessible.
- Provide background information—make the reporter look good.
- Initiate information flow.
- Generate ideas.
- Set the context.
- Follow through.

Accessibility requires more than answering the telephone. It starts with making a commitment to news people to answer questions in a reasonable and timely fashion. It includes setting ground rules so that all parties recognize that some questions cannot be answered, and that when such questions arise the officer will tell the reporter that such is the case. It further requires occasionally providing a bit more information than has been requested.

One of the major payoffs for being accessible to the media is that the process is reciprocal. A good reporter, much as a good law enforcement officer, nurtures his information sources. Reasonable effort expended in developing a good working relationship pays dividends to both parties.

Providing background on department activities—in the case at hand on programs for older persons—serves at least two objectives. First, it helps to promulgate the agency's message. Second, and perhaps more importantly, it helps to make the reporter look good. A reporter who has a firm grasp of the fundamentals of a problem will develop a better story, more quickly, and with less effort than would otherwise be required. This makes him look good, both to his supervisors and to the listeners to a broadcast or the readers of a newspaper. The result should be a degree of gratitude to the sources who contributed to the successful news gathering effort.

Background information starts with a basic "media kit" on the target topic. It might include a summary statement of the problem, an overview of the department, background statistics, illustrative examples of the problem and of the department's response, and the names of key information resources, both within and outside the department. This can be updated occasionally as new statistics become available or as the director of the program for older persons encounters new information or initiates new activities.

Providing background information leads logically to *initiating and maintaining a flow of information* from the department outward. Being a regular source of information keeps one in the reporter's mind. Every news organization has "slow news days" when they have extra column space or air time available. Editors and news directors will fill such space with information at hand. Why not something about how the local law enforcement agency is working to help older citizens in the community?

It can be helpful to create a "tickler" file, perhaps by month, in which to drop items that might later prove useful or interesting. In the early winter months, for example, remind the local media about the dangers of hypothermia to older persons. In the spring, a note about the probable upsurge in home repair frauds might be interesting.

Generating ideas in this way can occasionally be discouraging—they will frequently not be used—but in the long run it usually pays off. A quick telephone call to a reporter to pass along information about a study one has recently read or about a case that appears to have some human interest appeal might be received at just the right time to get in the next edition or on the next newscast.

It is also a good practice to develop feature story ideas. A short outline with photo suggestions can be filed by the local media outlet for development at a more opportune time. Even if the ideas are not used in their original form, they will contribute to the reporter's overall understanding of the problem and the department's efforts to deal with it.

Internally written news releases will frequently suffer the same fate as generalized story ideas. News releases are most likely to be used by smaller, less frequently published newspapers that have small news staffs. It is still productive for the agency to disseminate news releases, however, because even if they are not published as written they may spark enough interest for an editor to assign a reporter to follow up.

An almost inevitable result of these several media cultivation practices will be to *set the context* within which the news outlet deals with the crime and service problems of older persons. When a reporter is completely unfamiliar with a story topic, he will cast about for a "peg" on which to hang a story. The "peg" will emerge from interviews with various sources and reviews of available written material. A successful cultivation effort will make such searching less necessary. The more prior awareness the reporter has, the more likely it is that he will develop the story to somehow reflect that point of view.

An addendum to each of these cultivation activities must be to *follow through*. Follow through on inquiries; follow through on story ideas; follow through even if the contact was initiated by the other person. It should not be over done, but a note or telephone call thanking a reporter, providing another item of information, or commenting favorably on a story is almost always in order and appreciated.

One could easily identify other practices which might help in cultivating the media. In a sense, however, mechanical steps are less important than is having a philosophy which recognizes the value of positive media relationships. When such a philosophy is actualized through the several activities described, the payoff to the law enforcement agency can be significant.

INTERNALLY PREPARED NEWS RELEASES: DOING IT YOURSELF

Sometimes the best way to get a story told is to tell it yourself. That requires a rudimentary knowledge of how to prepare a news release. If the message is aimed at broadcast media, a public service announcement (PSA) may be used. And, if the need is to publicize a special event, such as a conference or speech, coordinative activities must be added to the repertoire.

Preparing The News Release

One does not just write a news release. Stringing the thoughts together is only part of the process; first, it is necessary to understand how to prepare a news release so that it has the greatest chance of being used. This involves understanding style, structure, and format.

Style. All news outlets mandate a particular writing style, which includes rules governing grammar, spelling, abbreviations, and punctuation. One of the most common formats used by many media outlets is that of the Associated Press; their stylebook is readily available from book dealers. If there is a dominant newspaper in the area, the department may wish to use their preferred style.

Regardless of the style adopted, it is important that the department include rules to cover terms and definitions adopted locally as a matter of policy. Adherence to the stylebook should be mandatory.

Structure. News releases usually are written according to a structural skeleton known as the "inverted pyramid." This means that the most significant facts are presented early, at the beginning, or "top" of the story. Less significant information, which serves primarily to elaborate on the basics, is placed in subsequent paragraphs. This structure aids the reader by giving the most important points first. Then he may decide whether to read further. It also serves the editor, who can easily cut material from the end of the story to keep it within space limitations.

Usually, the most important facts involve *who* the story is about or *what* is is about. Less important is the *why*, and less important yet are the *when, where,* and *how.* There are obvious exceptions to these rules. The writer must determine what he believes are the most important story elements and lead with them. Figure Two provides an example of a routine news release written in the "inverted pyramid" structure.

Format. News copy should adhere to a standard format. It should be typed, double-spaced, with paragraphs indented five spaces. Margins should be wide. Words should not be divided between lines and paragraphs should not carry from one page to the next. If there is more than one page, the word "more" should be typed at the bottom of each page except the last. Either the symbol "-30-" or an acronym such as "-CPD-" (for City Police Department), should be typed, centered, at the end of the story.

All releases should have the name of the writer or principal contact person typed at the end of the narrative. Pages should be firmly fastened together at the top left corner.

Public Service Announcements

Radio and television stations must provide free air time to public and non-profit agencies; this requirement is mandated by the Federal Communications Commission as part of the broadcast outlet's licensing procedure. When the license comes up for renewal, the station must demonstrate to the FCC that it provided a specific amount of free air time for public service announcements.

A good design for a public service announcement uses the acronym AIDA:

A— attention; grab the listener or viewer.
I— interest; promise a benefit; how will the listener or viewer gain?
D— desire; make the listener or viewer want to do something.
A— action; tell the listener or viewer what to do.

The information must be specific enough to get key ideas across. It must maintain interest from beginning to end. It can be done in script form for the radio or television station to use, or it can be done on tape. As a rule, however, remember that:

- A 10-second spot has approximately 20 words.
- A 20-second spot has approximately 50 words.
- A 30-second spot has approximately 75 words.
- A 60-second spot has approximately 150 words.

A television PSA usually will require either slides or video tape for the visual element. These can be expensive to develop. If the agency is interested in a television spot, it is advisable to seek expert assistance, either from the television outlet, from an independent consultant or advertising agency, or from a local college or university.

Special Events

Occasionally, the department's program director for older persons will need to promote a special event. A conference, a seminar, or a crime prevention fair can involve many people and generate the need to accommodate a variety of news reporters, camera crews, and photographers. The University of Southern California's News Service outlines several steps required to help ensure a successful media relations component to a special event.[3] Everything that *can* be done in advance, *should* be done in advance. The day of the event will go most smoothly if advance arrangements have been properly made.

Prepared Information. A media kit is in order. It can be a simple manila folder, or something more elaborate, but it should contain certain background information.

- Fact sheet
  —event name
  —sponsor(s)
  —goals/purposes of the event
  —origin of the event
  —number of participants
  —participant breakdown; job, organization, etc.
  —PR person to contact for follow-up
  —media workroom location
  —telephone location
  —nearest eating place
  —nearest restrooms

- Map of location, parking, buildings

- Event schedule

- Biographical Summaries; a paragraph on each speaker or panelist

- Question-and-Answer sheet regarding the event topic

- Advance copies of speeches

Logistical Support. A variety of activities will make the media representative's job easier. They will also make the sponsor's job easier by minimizing potential last-minute problems.

A media information table is helpful if a significant number of reporters is expected. It serves as a starting point and a reference and information center. It should open at least one-half hour before registration for the event starts. Staff should be well-versed on program plans and activities. At least two knowledgeable persons and two runners should be on hand. The table should never be unattended. Persons working at the media information table should meet before the program to ensure that they understand the mechanics of the conference and their own responsibilities.. The table should be well marked. Staff should have easily readable nametags. All media representatives should also have nametags identifying them as "MEDIA" and giving their names and organizational affiliations.

Staff should maintain a telephone, directories, a media sign-in sheet, a supply of media kits, and staff business cards.

Media Workroom. A reserved work area with telephones, tables, chairs, and, if possible, typewriters can be a boon to reporters. They also will appreciate coffee or other refreshments if it is possible to provide them.

Electronic Media. Radio and television reporters and crews have some special requirements. A connection box that allows taping from the public address system is useful. Television cameras will benefit from bright stage lights. If individual interviews are to be conducted by television reporters, set aside a spot that displays the conference or department logo in the background. Also ensure that there are sufficient electrical outlets and maneuvering room for camera crews and sound technicians.

Arranging Interviews. Frequently a reporter will not know who to interview. The media coordinator of the event should be able to suggest people and topics. It can be embarrassing if staff members cannot easily recognize speakers or panelists. Try to have photographs of those persons available or identify participants or other staff members who can point them out. Be sure that speakers and panelists are aware they might be signaled out for individual interviews so that they are not surprised.

CONCLUSION

Positive relationships between the law enforcement agency and the news media will do much to enhance the effectiveness of programs to serve older citizens. The extent and sophistication of the media relations program mounted by department programmers will vary. Seldom will efforts such as those described in this lesson fail to yield benefits, however. Careful attention to the flow of information to news outlets can help to reach more people and generate a broader support base than is otherwise possible.

SUMMARY

The department's program for older persons can derive numerous benefits if the department has established an effective working relationship with local media outlets.

Media relations activities can be beneficial to the director of the department's programs for older persons. Such activities enhance the department's ability to communicate with the target group, heighten the awareness of the entire community to the problems of older persons, and improve the department's image.

Police personnel are prohibited from releasing certain types of information, either by the agency itself or by state statutes.

The media has a legal right to receive certain types of information from law enforcement agencies. However, departmental policies may prohibit the release of specific types of information, such as the names of victims of sexual assaults. In addition, some states prohibit, by statute, the release of specific types of information, such as the names of juvenile offenders. Each department must develop a media relations policy statement which spells out the types of information which can and cannot be released to the media. It might be advisable to develop a policy to withhold certain information about older victims, such as exact addresses, in order to help prevent further victimization.

The director of the program for older persons should serve as the department's spokesman for information about crime problems involving the elderly; however, he should coordinate his activities with the department's public information officer or media spokesman.

The director of the program for older persons should become proficient in media relations techniques. This involves: knowing who the media representatives are; developing an on-going working relationship with them; understanding what types of information they need; and learning how to prepare news releases and public service announcements, conduct news conferences, and plan for media coverage at special events.

Media Contact and Activity Report

Responded to . . .

R-1—Request for Information
R-2—Request for photo
R-3—Request for interview
R-4—Request for use of for
      photographic purpose
R-5—Follow-up on release or
      story idea
R-6—Other

Initiated Call

I-1—Call about story
I-2—Invitation to campus
I-3—Sent letter or memo
I-4—Lunch/Entertainment
I-5—Follow-up
I-6—Hand delivered material
I-7—Other

MEDIA CONTACT AND
ACTIVITY

_____
(Dates)

_____
(Officer/Employee Submitting)

DATE	ORGANIZATION	CONTACT'S NAME	TYPE	RESULTS, COMMENTS, EVALUATIONS

Sample News Release

MAIN CITY POLICE DEPARTMENT

NEWS RELEASE

For Release Immediately

NOTED GERONTOLOGIST TO SPEAK IN CITY

Dr. Edgar Hufnagelerian, professor of gerontology at the University of Southern California, will discuss *"Aging and the Incidence of Crime Victimization"* at the *Main City Civic Center* on *Wednesday, April 3.*

The presentation is part of a Main City Police Department series highlighting the needs of older citizens.

Hufnagelerian is an expert on the crime issue. He served as director of a statewide blue ribbon panel studying the crime problems of older persons. He is the author of several books on the subject of aging.

The Main City Police Department has relied on Hufnagelerian's assistance in designing their crime prevention program for older residents in the city. Sergeant William Harrigan directs a staff of two officers and two civilians who work with citizen groups throughout the city.

All of the presentations in the current series are held on Wednesdays from *7 to 8:30 p.m.* Admission is free. Refreshments are available after the presentation. Hufnagelerian will be available to answer questions.

For information on other speakers and subjects: *telephone* the *Main City Police Department Crime Prevention Bureau* at 123-4567.

-MCPD-

William Brubaker
123-4567

March 20, 1980

REFERENCES

1. Jerry V. Wilson and Paul Q. Fuqua, *The Police and the Media,* Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1975, pp. 131-136.

2. Spencer Boise, *Emergency Public Relations: Managing the Crisis:* (Unpublished paper: Seminar before the Los Angeles Area Chapter, Public Relations Society of America, 1979) p. 5.

3. University of Southern California, "Special Events Media Relations Tips" (Unpublished Notes on Public Information at USC, 1979).

MODULE FOUR
VOLUNTEERS IN LAW ENFORCEMENT

Older Persons As Volunteers In Law Enforcement
Starting A Local Volunteer Program
Implementing A Volunteer Program
Recruiting, Selecting And Placing Older Volunteers
Support And Training Of Older Volunteers

LESSON ONE
OLDER PERSONS AS VOLUNTEERS IN LAW ENFORCEMENT

This lesson examines the involvement of older volunteers in law enforcement and considers ways that older volunteers can add new dimensions to a law enforcement agency by providing support services.

HISTORY

From the earliest civilized times, police agencies have been aided by civilian volunteers. For example, in the mid-1200s Henry III of England asked householders to volunteer to help the head constable keep the peace.

Centuries later the spirit of providing a helping hand to neighbors was carried by settlers to the New World. The willingness of these pioneers to help each other survive became a way of life in America because of the dangers and perils which existed: neighbors *had* to help each other or all might perish. Various academicians attribute the belief in volunteerism in America to the pioneer's religious sense of responsibility to his fellow man, enhanced and made more immediate by the problems of life in a harsh and strange land. Established religious institutions took the lead in assuming responsibility for works of mercy and for the management of organized groups of volunteer members. Even today, the churches of America sponsor the greatest number of volunteer groups, followed by hospitals, fire departments, and law enforcement agencies.

After the Revolutionary War, groups of immigrants formed volunteer societies in order to aid newcomers of the same ethnic background. Later in the 18th century, organizations were formed to combat specific social problems, such as providing food to the needy, rather than to give aid solely to persons from one country or from one religion.

The frontiers could not have been settled without the help of citizen-neighbors who banded together to raise barns, build schools and homes, and protect each other from attacks by criminals.

With the advent of the Industrial Revolution, the leaders of American communities began to realize that they needed to develop programs which would combat the problems generated by a new social order. Families, communities, and society as a whole were facing stresses brought about by the process of industrialization and urbanization. Because of an increase in social disorder, the need for professional police services became apparent. Thus, by the 1870s *every* major city in the United States had a fulltime paid police force.[1] With the development and acceptance of these departments, the citizen volunteer was no longer needed. The concept of volunteering for police duty gradually disappeared, both in the United States and abroad.[2]

IV-1

During the Depression there was a large increase in the number of volunteer organizations, although law enforcement agencies generally were hesitant to use untrained civilians for police work. However, World War II created severe manpower shortages and greatly increased civil defense requirements. The reserve/auxiliary volunteer concept developed and grew during this period as a partial alternative to the personnel shortages of law enforcement agencies. These units were trained primarily for civil defense work, but many police departments established courses to teach the volunteers basic police procedures. During the later years of the war when the threat of enemy attack upon the United States diminished, many volunteer police units disbanded.

However, the Korean conflict soon created new demands on the male work force, resulting in the revival or reorganization of a number of these units. Law enforcement agencies have been training civilian volunteers both for enforcement and non-enforcement duties since that period. To a great extent, volunteers have become a permanent part of the agencies which utilize them. In recent years the number of criminal justice agencies which use volunteers has increased and these volunteers have been given broader responsibilities.[3] It has been estimated that there are over 500,000 voluntary associations in the United States today, including 100,000 voluntary health and welfare agencies; 100,000 fraternal, civil, veterans and related organizations; and over 300,000 churches which offer some kind of health and welfare services.[4]

Even though there are over 500,000 volunteer organizations in existence, there is a need in society for additional assistance from non-paid workers. The demand for trained volunteers in law enforcement programs, for example, far exceeds the available personnel. Police officials realize the value of the assistance they obtain from crime prevention advisory committee members who serve without remuneration, the professional person who provides expertise and advice at no charge to the taxpayers, and the volunteers whose talents are utilized in every possible way.

The untrained volunteer can be trained in formal classes and on-the-job by professional police officers. Once they are properly trained, volunteers can contribute many needed skills to improve the effectiveness of the community's law enforcement programs.

These volunteer programs stress *participation* and a *partnership* between the private and public efforts needed for effective law enforcement. Volunteerism, in the sense of citizen participation and involvement, cannot be limited to the traditional, long established, so-called "power structure" of the communities. It must include leadership and fellowship across the whole community.[5]

The recent public initiatives for lower taxes and improved productivity from public agencies leave little doubt that law enforcement agencies will, in the future, need to rely heavily upon volunteers, especially for crime prevention duties.

One source of volunteers that has barely been tapped, at least in law enforcement, is that of the senior citizen. The old adage that "a person who retires from a job has not retired from life" has been proven true often by those law enforcement administrators who have augmented their shrinking budgets with the labor of older volunteers. Law enforcement administrators are keenly aware that 80-85 percent of their total budgets are for the salaries of personnel. When portions of that money can be redirected because of volunteer labor, then, hopefully, the agency can increase its efficiency. The two primary functions of police officers are enforcement of laws and providing general

community safety services. Many studies have demonstrated that *enforcement* activities require only about *one-fourth* the police officer's time; community service activities occupy the larger share of his workday.

Many service delivery functions can be assumed by civilian volunteers, freeing the police officers for enforcement duties.

In addition, it appears that many municipal and county governments are turning down requests for additional sworn personnel and that some jurisdictions are cutting existing positions due to budgetary restraints. Many governments would prefer to pay highly trained professional police officers a higher wage to perform their enforcement activities if older volunteers are available for community service duties.

LAW ENFORCEMENT INTEREST IN OLDER VOLUNTEERS

The willingness of older volunteers to provide public services is attracting the attention of many law enforcement agencies across the country. The demands and needs for police services are growing while the resources to meet those demands and needs are not. Shrinking budgets are forcing police administrators to find alternative ways to deliver services normally provided by highly skilled law enforcement professionals. Because of shrinking budgets, police executives are transferring various duties to paraprofessionals and volunteers.

Older persons as a group have been identified as a valuable resource to meet the need for volunteers. They provide many benefits to a law enforcement agency and can augment current services to enable the department to meet service delivery needs. Since older volunteers provide assistance at a low cost, budgeted departmental funds which would have been used to pay the salaries of fulltime employees can instead be allocated to vital service delivery areas.

From a management perspective, volunteers provide many benefits to a police department. Internal police operations are improved as sworn personnel are freed from low priority and time consuming tasks and allowed to concentrate their professional efforts on "police work." Fulltime employees are able to make fuller use of their technical skills and training. Thus, professionalism increases, both for the department and for each officer.

With improved service delivery by law enforcement officers and volunteers, the public image of the police department is enhanced. When a law enforcement agency opens the door to volunteers, it also opens the door to the community. Many volunteer programs, as part of their activities, help explain the police role and function in society to the service population. Volunteers open new communication channels between the community and the department.

When a police department delegates meaningful duties and responsibilities to the volunteers, the community becomes involved in the prevention of crime and takes a greater interest in supporting the work of police officers. The police department gains stature as community members look toward law enforcement officers and administrators as community leaders. Public confidence in the police department and in local government as a whole grows.

There is another benefit which is often overlooked. When volunteers increase community involvement in law enforcement activities, the political support for the department increases as well. With increased political support, may come such attendant benefits as salary increases for police employees, funds to purchase needed equipment, and so forth.

Volunteer programs can also be viable tools for effecting change in the community and representing departmental concerns for the quality of police service delivery.

Inevitably, volunteerism can improve the proficiency of the entire criminal justice system. More crimes will be reported. Communities also find that more criminals are apprehended and prosecuted as a result of the alertness of law enforcement volunteers. *Law enforcement agencies assisted by volunteers can reduce crime.* Every law enforcement professional, from the line patrol officer to the chief, can benefit from the experience and expertise of the community's residents, who may be willing to serve as volunteers. Through a volunteer program, the officer can increase his effectiveness in dealing with both the community and the department. Volunteers provide the officer with greater flexibility to meet his law enforcement duties and responsibilities—the officer can focus on tasks which require his special skills and training while volunteers handle some of the more routine functions and service activities. In addition, volunteer programs require the officer to use managerial and supervisory skills, enabling him to demonstrate whether or not he has executive abilities and the potential for promotion to leadership roles in the department.

The results achieved by the volunteers mesh with the work performed by the officers. Involving older volunteers in police work is a great opportunity which can provide many benefits for both the police department and the community as a whole.

CHARACTERISTICS OF OLDER VOLUNTEERS

It is important to consider how much *factual* evidence there is to support the stereotyping and prejudices that link age with senility, incompetence, and lack of worth both in the labor market and as volunteers. Law enforcement agencies are recruiting older persons who have many qualities which enhance their effectiveness as volunteers, bringing into question the factual validity of the prejudices associated with the aged.

The productivity of older persons in working situations has been researched and documented by industries. Many such reports identify particular companies in various parts of the United States which have continued to be profitable and efficient with workers well into their 70s and 80s. U.S. Steel has permitted more than 153,000 nonoffice employees to continue working as long as they can maintain satisfactory levels of performance and can pass medical examinations. Polaroid has found that those employees who choose to remain on the job after age 65 tend to be better performers. Even among older workers whose jobs entail heavy physical demands, high performance is maintained. Among sales workers, older persons have achieved superior standing and have remained as high performers. Reports from insurance companies, auto dealers, and large department stores suggest that age and experience improve performance.[6]

Many law enforcement agencies select and *prefer* older persons as volunteer resources. Older persons possess certain abilities and characteristics which match the law enforcement organization's needs. Among these are the following attributes:

- *Available.* There are potential older volunteers in nearly every community. Over 40 million Americans are 55 years of age or older. That's 20 percent of the total U.S. population—one out of every five persons—a percentage that is increasing yearly. Although few law enforcement agencies have taken full advantage of this volunteer resource, a growing number of retirees have time to give and want to provide volunteer service. Older persons generally no longer face the time and energy-consuming responsibilities of fulltime work or raising a family. However, many retired volunteers have to manage their living expenses on fixed (and often very limited) incomes. Incidental expenses, such as lunch money, public transportation fares, parking fees, mileage for the use of a personal car, and an increased fee for personal insurance premiums (necessitated by volunteer work) may have to be provided for the older volunteers. The availability of older volunteers may be limited because they may not be able to absorb out-of-pocket expenses.[7] But older persons are available. They have time to serve.

- *Skilled.* Many older persons do not possess diplomas and educational certificates often associated with today's job functions and requirements. Very often however, their experience and skill levels more than compensate for this lack of formal education. This age group contains a considerable number of "self-made" persons. General intellectual abilities do not decrease with old age, and some of these abilities are enhanced by experience, assuming that mental faculties receive regular exercise and use.

  Those who perceive the elderly as inflexible and "set in their ways" overlook the social, economic, and technological changes that have occurred—and the elderly have adapted to—in the last few decades. Older persons have had to adapt to radical changes brought about by the two world wars, the Great Depression, and modern means of travel and communication. This adaptability has required flexibility in their lifestyles and points of view.

  Older persons can offer a wide range of experience, knowledge, insights, know-how, and personal contacts to a law enforcement agency. They show more interest in getting the job done than they do in agency politics, day-to-day bureaucratic practices, or office gossip and socializing.

  At least half of the persons in this "retired" category already have the skills to serve as volunteers, or can easily be trained to do so.[8]

- *Conscientious.* The majority of today's older citizens relate the work ethic to their self esteem and value as an individual. Older persons often experience a loss of their life role and a change in their status as they retire from their jobs. They are often motivated to volunteer because they want (and need) to continue to make a valuable contribution and to be involved in meaningful work. Older persons appreciate the opportunity to provide service and are conscientious about carrying out assignments.

  Research shows that older people are more conscientious in the evaluation of decision criteria before making a decision. They require a 75 percent chance of certainty before committing

themselves, while younger people will take far greater risks. Industrial studies show that older persons in managerial positions are less willing to take risks and have a lower estimate of the value of risk in general. Older decision-makers tend to take longer to reach decisions. However, they are better able to accurately appraise the value of new information.[9]

- *Dependable.* Older volunteers and older workers have impressive attendance records and low turnover rates and they show steady performance in their work. They possess the patience necessary to persist with a task—the result of maturing experiences of their earlier years—until it is completed. These findings indicate great reliability among older persons.

- *Influential.* Often, older persons are actively involved in many community activities and can provide a valuable community relations function for the police department. Many older persons have personal contacts in business, industry, government, and the local community. They are able to form groups to support law enforcement programs.

- *Informed.* The older person may demonstrate a knowledge and awareness of the community's needs and concerns which are unknown to and sometimes overlooked by law enforcement officers. Long-time residents possess a sense of the life and history of the community. They can offer valuable perspectives to law enforcement programs and activities. With their knowledge and reasoning and discriminatory capacities, the elderly provide unique contributions as law enforcement volunteers.

- *Supportive.* Gerontological research indicates that older persons are often more "system-oriented" than other groups. Generally, older persons strongly support the police and the criminal justice system in particular, while their feelings toward the court system often reveal ambiguity and dissatisfaction.[10] Older volunteers are advocates for law enforcement.

Older volunteers are involved in law enforcement in many communities throughout the United States. Their activities reflect the value of the unique qualities they possess.

OLDER VOLUNTEER PROGRAMS IN LAW ENFORCEMENT

Since the involvement of older volunteers in law enforcement is a relatively new concept, a look at some on-going programs may prove helpful. These programs have been selected to illustrate the possible roles for older volunteers in large and small departments, and in urban and rural settings. Older volunteers are now performing community services, police services, and court services.

Community Services

Older volunteers, in supplementing responsibilities traditionally assigned to law enforcement agencies, have contacted citizens, maintained liaisons with social service agencies and other community organizations, assisted with citizen referrals, arranged meetings and lectures, conducted tours of the police department, and implemented community service projects (such as the Vial of Life) under the sponsorship of the departments.

For example, in a West Virginia city of 75,000 people, older volunteers and the police department provide a useful and necessary service to isolated elderly and handicapped persons. (Nearly 20 percent of the population consists of older persons.) Operation Lifeline offers a daily phone contact to each program member, checking on basic needs for medical, fuel, and food services. The emergency intervention capability, combined with regular telephone reassurance, are activities which enhance the quality of life for program recipients. Operation Lifeline can be structured to serve large or small communities, both urban and rural. For a small commitment, the police department, the volunteers, and program members reap great rewards.

Another area of community service—crime prevention education programs— focuses attention on older volunteers performing active roles to protect themselves. In some cases, older people provide crime prevention education and delivery programs to the entire community. They also organize Neighborhood Watch programs.

In a rural area of western Oregon, for example, a police department trained older volunteers in burglary prevention. They visited homes, assisted in property identification, and conducted security surveys. In a three year period the volunteers delivered crime prevention education services to more than 1,000 households at a cost to the city of approximately $200 per year. The Senior Citizens Crime Prevention Program has had favorable results in terms of burglary reduction and has established the older volunteers as community leaders on many issues. The program has also created strong ties between the police department and the community.

In other crime prevention programs, older volunteers serve as beat representatives; organize residential public housing security and escort teams; cooperate in Neighborhood Watch and vacation checks; promote crime reporting; and work with community leaders, businesses, and youth groups.

For example, in Florida a long-standing crime prevention education program for youth is operated by older volunteers. The Sheriff's Department Junior Deputy League program in one Florida county was founded and incorporated by a group of concerned older citizens in 1958. As a private, charitable, non-profit corporation, the League is able to give presentations on traffic safety, drug awareness, crime prevention, and other topics to all schools, both public and private. Supervised by sheriff's department deputies, the older volunteers make presentations and conduct fund raising activities to support program costs. For the older volunteers, there is satisfaction in making a worthwhile contribution. For the Junior Deputies, the benefits will continue into the future.

Police Services

Law enforcement agencies utilize older volunteers for community service activities, but may not realize the support they also provide in police services. They assist in evidence packaging, identification (as fingerprint or photography technicians), proofing lab reports, supplementing communications, providing follow-up on investigative tasks, assisting with administrative and clerical functions, and helping with specialized tasks, such as search and rescue and emergency first aid. Older volunteers can perform many tasks normally assigned to sworn personnel.

For example, senior aides in a California police department's crime analysis unit perform various tasks, including encoding data on incident reports, entering and checking computer data, and study-

ing false burglary alarm reports and intrusion incidents. The older persons who work as part-time police employees supply manpower and skills to complete work within the department's time and budget constraints. Senior aides offer a new alternative for police managers.

The most diverse police support roles are provided by volunteer posses. In an Arizona county, for example, the sheriff has the right of *posse comitatus* (formation of the sheriff's posse), and county residents have been actively engaged in general posse functions for over twenty years. Since 1973 a retirement community of 50,000 people has been patrolled by volunteer posse members 24 hours a day, seven days a week. Posse members receive many hours of training; they have citizen arrest powers and assist in escort services and crowd and traffic control. The posse is funded entirely by community donations for patrol cars, uniforms, and a communications system; members also contribute funds. The uniqueness of the posse program has led to replication and adaptation by other agencies.

The sheriff's posse in a Florida county, which is managed by sworn deputies, consists of many retired civilian volunteers. The posse provides communications support through ham radio operators; crime prevention education programs at homes, businesses, shopping centers, and fairs; search and rescue assistance with four-wheel drive vehicles; waterway rescues and patrols with posse members' boats; mounted police; motorcycle escort; and victim advocacy. In short, the volunteer posse lowers costs to the sheriff's department and to the public. Posse members contribute thousands of manhours to police services.

Court Services

Older volunteer program activities in court services reflect the ambiguity and dissatisfaction many older persons feel toward the court system.

For example, citizens in a California town established a group known as the Community Criminal Action Committee (CCAC). This committee promotes better prosecutions of career criminals by serving as a liaison between the police department and the district attorney's office while criminal cases are proceeding through the system. Committee activities integrate the police, the prosecutor, and the citizens in an area of mutual interest.

The volunteers, who are almost exclusively older persons, watch the court process while following a case, research criminal records, and work with the district attorney. They keep performance records for all judges in the jurisdiction and analyze questionable legislative proposals. A member of the police department serves on the CCAC decision-making board with three volunteer leaders. This board recruits, selects, and trains volunteers and establishes guidelines for activities and donations.

When concerned citizens join together to demand accountability from the criminal justice system, law enforcement must be willing to offer support and guidance.

Another court-related program established by a California police department deals with the criminal victimization problems of the elderly. The activities of this program *go beyond* crime prevention education efforts to reduce vulnerability. Rather, this program has been designed to

assist older crime victims and individuals with *civil* problems. Older volunteers work in crime prevention and community education program delivery, as well as victim assistance and information and referral. Police officers conduct both civil and criminal investigations. Together, they benefit many of the city's older residents.

The broad range of programs possible with older volunteers enables law enforcement agencies to develop new areas of concern and successfully attack traditional problems.

ROLES AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR VOLUNTEER ASSISTANCE

How can older volunteers assist officers in their duties? Older volunteers have been fulfilling the following roles in many police departments throughout the United States:[11]

1. Community services;
2. Crime prevention;
3. Public relations;
4. Communications;
5. Crime analysis;
6. Patrol;
7. Clerical;
8. Investigation;
9. Traffic control; and
10. Consulting on technical problems.

There are many jobs in police departments which are not being accomplished primarily because the department does not have enough personnel to assign to these tasks or because personnel who do have time available feel the particular task is "not in their job description." These jobs could be assigned to volunteers. There are also service-type jobs which take up a police officer's time; this work, too, might be assigned to volunteers.

However, placing older volunteers in law enforcement agencies might seem to be a very complicated task in itself—enough of a complication to scare off some departments. For example, there can be hidden program costs and out-of-pocket expenses, professional staff tensions toward the volunteers, and concerns about potential liability situations. These considerations cannot be overlooked. Because they are so important, they will be covered in detail in the next lesson. While these are general issues common to all volunteer programs, if they are addressed during the program planning stage, then it is likely that a successful volunteer program can be implemented. The advantages to be gained by sharing work and service responsibilities with older volunteers need to be thoughtfully and carefully assessed. *Current volunteer programs in law enforcement which utilize older persons clearly demonstrate that the advantages outweigh any problems.*

CONCLUSION

Law enforcement officers and volunteers have been traditional partners. In order to maintain effective service delivery programs under the constraints of shrinking budgets and limited manpower, police administrators have recruited older volunteers. The efforts of older volunteers in community service functions and police assistance roles have met the organizational needs of departments while enhancing their community involvement and public support. As the older population continues to expand, law enforcement and volunteering will grow together—allies in the fight against crime.

SUMMARY

Since the earliest days of United States history, volunteers have been assisting law enforcement agencies.

The demand for trained volunteers in law enforcement far exceeds the available personnel. Many law enforcement agencies are turning to older volunteers as a source of needed manpower for specific jobs, since the older volunteers possess specific attributes which are valuable to a police or sheriff's department. These attributes include availability, skills, conscientiousness, dependability, influence, and support. In addition, older volunteers are often well-informed about the problems and needs of the community's residents.

Law enforcement agencies have been finding that volunteer programs can be viable tools for increasing the professionalism of the department and improving overall operations.

Older volunteers are able to supplement certain responsibilities traditionally filled by fulltime officers, thus freeing the officers to concentrate on enforcement activities. Among the community service activities which older volunteers are successfully handling in many law enforcement agencies are: citizen contacts, maintaining liaisons with social service agencies, assisting with citizen referrals, arranging meetings and lectures, conducting tours of the police department, and implementing community service projects under the sponsorship of the police department. Older volunteers are also able to assist with crime prevention programs and certain types of police services, such as providing follow-up on investigative tasks.

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STARTING A LOCAL VOLUNTEER PROGRAM

Identification of potential roles for older volunteers in a law enforcement setting is a necessary, but not a completely sufficient, condition for deciding to develop a volunteer program. Other factors must be considered by individuals who want to establish such a program. This lesson describes four general issues which need to be addressed *before* actual program development begins. These issues are:

1. Agency commitment
2. Agency costs
3. Potential liability
4. Departmental environment

These issues underlie such questions as:

- Would the department be willing to have the assistance of older volunteers?
- How much does a volunteer program cost?
- Who would administer the program?
- Where would the program be placed organizationally and physically in the agency?
- What sort of problems could elderly volunteers present to the department?

Analysis of questions such as these will assist police department officials in determining whether or not to pursue a volunteer program and how to prevent or reduce any potential problems.

COMMITMENT

An agency cannot have a volunteer program no one knows about and cannot have a volunteer program no one wants. This statement addresses *the* essential factor in any decision to establish a volunteer program—*agency commitment*.

There must be a willingness on the part of an agency and its personnel to become involved in and supportive of new endeavors, such as volunteer programs. Commitment does not exist in a vacuum. If a law enforcement agency wants to establish a program which utilizes older persons as volunteers, then a necessary first step is to make administrators aware that such a program could exist and that the program could be beneficial both to the department and to the community.

As a first step, the *idea* of the volunteer program must be presented at various levels of the agency or department. The program ideas should be discussed with those personnel who would be most likely to have the greatest interaction with the older volunteers. If departmental officials want to ob-

tain the commitment of personnel to the program, then these affected personnel must be made aware of the potential benefits and drawbacks of the program so that they can express their support or resistance while the program is still in the planning stages. Sometimes the idea of a special program is discarded on the *assumption* that there would be no support for it. Agency officials say that no interest in the program had been expressed by departmental employees. However, no real opportunity was offered to them to express their interest.

Once a program idea has been presented and discussed, the agency's administrative officials may enthusiastically offer their commitment. Or it may require a considerable amount of persuasive efforts by program developers to obtain their support. Outside groups in the community which support the program can help in efforts to enlist the commitment of agency administrators.

The second step involves assessing the reactions of agency personnel to the idea of a volunteer program in terms of their *levels* of commitment. If no one is interested in the program, it will never get off the ground. However, this rarely occurs. But equally rare is unanimous support for the program. It is more common to encounter mixed reactions.

An administrator's reactions toward the program can generally be classified into one of five positions: supportive, tolerant, ambivalent, isolationist, and resistive. The supportive position is the most desirable. With a tolerant response, no support is given and the individual will usually comply with the program if it is initiated. An ambivalent or vacillating response is, in the long run, most likely to be detrimental to the success of the program. The isolationist may condone the program but want it kept separate and distinct from the rest of the department. In the long run, this would also decrease the possibilities for a successful program. Finally, the resistive response is an open rejection of the program idea.

Assessment of organizational commitment requires consideration not only of the *frequency* of each type of response encountered but also of the *departmental position* or *rank level* of the responding employee. A response supportive of the program from upper-level administrators can overcome ambivalent and even resistive responses from lower ranking employees. Conversely, supportive responses at lower levels in the agency may be to no avail if the top administrators are resistive. It is doubtful that any workable volunteer program can be implemented without at least a *tolerant* response from top administrators and an *ambivalent* response from the majority of those personnel who will work most actively with the volunteers.

Agency commitment is an essential element for program success. Consideration of this element necessitates that appropriate agency or departmental personnel be made aware of the program and the level of their support assessed. If the agency response is favorable, then planning for program implementation should begin. If not, a major barrier has been encountered. Considerable work must then be done to develop a positive agency attitude. Otherwise, the program will be rejected.

Other obstacles or issues also will be raised before commitment to the program is obtained from departmental personnel. These issues, which require further consideration in determining the feasibility of the local volunteer program, are: agency costs, potential liability, and the departmental environment.

AGENCY COSTS

It is often incorrectly assumed that a volunteer program costs no money. After all, the volunteer does contribute his services free of charge. However, a volunteer program *does* cost money, and these costs have to be regarded as a budgetary matter. The two budgetary issues of primary concern in considering a volunteer program are its costs relative to the benefits (or services rendered) and the source of funds to support the program.

Estimating and accounting for agency costs in a volunteer program are important for several reasons. The agency may have to secure additional funds to operate the program, or reallocate existing financial resources for this purpose. Then, too, one of the reasons often cited for initiating a volunteer program is to provide desired services at reduced costs. Only with a sound cost-estimate and accounting system does the agency have a basis for making valid cost comparisons and determining the budgetary feasibility of a volunteer program.

Cost estimates for a volunteer program are minimal, but are difficult to categorize or account for. Sound cost estimates and budget projections will identify the areas which require operating funds.

Some costs are readily identifiable. For example, with older volunteers the cost of transportation to and from the location of volunteer service and the cost of a hot meal are directly identifiable and may be included in budget projections.[1]

However, there are some hidden costs. No volunteer program can succeed without the involvement and support of police employees. Paid staff time will be consumed in recruiting, placing, training, motivating, and supervising volunteers. These costs are hidden in the day-to-day work of paid staff members. They are often difficult to identify and to document.

Estimates of staff time invested in assisting and supervising volunteers should be projected and translated into dollar figures. Thereafter, records of time spent can be tabulated periodically to document the hidden costs. These records will provide a more accurate picture of the *actual costs* of the volunteer program.

Cost Items

What are some of the cost items to be considered in developing and maintaining an elderly volunteer program?

Personnel. The salary of the officer in charge of volunteer services is a program cost item. If supervising the volunteer is a part-time responsibility for the officer, then the officer's salary should be prorated by the average time spent working on the volunteer program. The same prorated cost analysis procedures would also be applied to the salaries of other administrators, officers, and secretarial or clerical personnel who perform services related to the volunteers.

In most volunteer programs, the major personnel costs are related to training, supervision, and actual program implementation. Since these are continuing activities, it is necessary to keep track of

the amount of time consumed. For example, the non-profit Pinellas County, Florida Sheriff's Junior Deputy League, Inc. shares personnel costs with the Sheriff's Department. The Sheriff's Department covers personnel costs for the program coordinator, four unit commanders, and four secretaries. The League contributes approximately 30 percent each year.

Even when volunteers are paid minimum wages, a program can still operate at costs lower than those required for most fulltime employees. For example, in San Diego, California, senior crime analyst aides are paid $3.00 an hour. When their wages and work are compared to a fulltime clerk typist's salary, the savings to the department are nearly $5,000 *each year* for *each aid*.

Fringe Benefits. A cost analysis should also include the fringe benefits for each paid staff member who works with volunteers, prorated on the basis of the time he spends on volunteer program activities.

Travel. Some older volunteers will require transportation assistance. Taxi fares, fuel and depreciation for police department vehicles, and a mileage allowance for volunteers who use their own vehicles should be computed in the cost analysis. Some transportation costs might be eliminated through contributions. For example, the volunteer program in Cottage Grove, Oregon involves extensive transportation. A crime prevention van, which is donated by a local dealership, is recalled after a minimal mileage is accumulated and reclaimed for retail sale. The volunteers are then provided with a new van. There are many community resources available to meet transportation needs and costs.

Equipment. Any additional equipment needed by older volunteers or for program implementation should be listed in the cost analysis. In Huntington, West Virginia, for example, the major equipment cost for Operation Lifeline is a telephone line and a desk.

Supplies. A good record-keeping system assists in evaluating a volunteer program. The costs of the forms needed to keep records on the volunteers should be projected. Printed materials may be needed to train volunteers and to operate the program. Additional stationery and office supplies will be consumed.

Contract. If the law enforcement agency hires consultants to work on the program, contracts with outside agenices, or pays speakers, then these costs should be included in the program's budget.

Other Costs. Adequate insurance coverage for volunteers to protect both the agency and volunteers from potential lawsuits may be necessary. The expense of "riders" on city or agency insurance policies and the costs of other forms of protection must be taken into account.

Indirect Costs. As a general rule, add 15% to the program's costs to cover contingencies and indirect costs not identifiable in a visible manner.[2]

Once the direct and hidden costs for the program have been identified, a comparative cost analysis can be developed to show the ways in which volunteers can reduce service delivery costs for the police department. This budgetary justification for the program can serve as a convincing fact to share with the department and the community in firmly establishing the volunteer program. An accounting system should be developed to permit these cost comparisons.

If such a budgetary analysis demonstrates a potential cost savings to the department then program managers must identify a source of funds for the volunteer program. Will the funds come from the department's budget? If there is no supporting budget line item, then consideration must be given to developing a funding source. A possible source of funds is other areas in the departmental budget. Budgetary categories which can be used to absorb anticipated costs should be identified in conjunction with the possiblity of reallocating existing financial resources. Potential Federal, state, and local sources of funds also should be reviewed.

No savings can be realized if the initial funds needed to start a program are not available. An accurate assessment of program costs and budgetary support are crucial elements for consideration in the establishment of a volunteer program.

Funding Sources

Some possible funding sources are:

- Federal funding agencies, such as the Departments of Justice; Health, Education, and Welfare; and the Administration on Aging.

- Federal programs such as ACTION, which coordinates volunteer programs nationwide.

- State planning agencies within the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration network.

- Regional and local planning agencies.

- Local service clubs and groups.

- Local chambers of commerce.

- Area agencies on aging, and other social service agencies.

- Banks and savings and loan associations.

- Community civic groups and churches.

POTENTIAL LIABILITY

The possibility exists for incidents to occur which lead to legal liability. This is another important factor to consider while reviewing the feasibility of establishing a volunteer program which involves older persons. These situations can arise out of what is known as tort claims. Torts are civil, as opposed to criminal, legal wrongs. They bring about liability. Liability may lead to an award of money damages.

The best defense against civil litigation is to avoid it in the first place. Law enforcement agencies need to plan for potential liability situations confronting volunteer programs with which they may be associated. A great diversity of laws and statutory provisions have been enacted by most states to

prevent liability-related problems from interfering with the operation of volunteer programs. In states where these laws do not *entirely* eliminate potential liability situations, the agency utilizing the volunteers ought to secure private insurance coverage. A comprehensive plan should be developed to protect the state, the law enforcement agency, and the volunteers.

Although the question of liability is a complex one because circumstances differ greatly from one state to another, a simple and effective solution can be developed once the specific areas of potential liability have been identified.

Types Of Liability

There are various kinds of liability inherent in volunteer program operations:

Tort Claims Against The State. Every state except Maryland provides some method of recovery by the injured party for the tortious acts of its *agents* and *employees.* Law enforcement department personnel are usually considered as employees of the state. A volunteer is not generally considered to be an *employee* of the state, since there is no contract for hire or compensation. However, there are a series of cases indicating that the volunteer may be considered as an *agent* who renders a valuable service to the state. In such cases the state is liable for the tortious acts of the volunteer within the scope of such service. A person who suffers an injury or a loss as the result of the negligence of a volunteer performing duties under the direction of an organized volunteer program may, therefore, recover damages from the state.

Tort Claims Against The Department Or Volunteer Program. Volunteers who are harmed or injured in the course of their program work may attempt to hold the program or the department accountable. The department has a duty to assure that the volunteer's visit and stay at the department is a safe one. If this duty is violated, then the agency may be liable to the volunteers.[3]

Tort Claims Against The Volunteer. Once a private citizen has volunteered to perform an act on behalf of the police department, then he owes a duty of care to others in the execution of that act and can be held *personally* liable for tortious conduct. In practice, the legal tactic often used is to sue the principal or employer (i.e., the state) where there is a greater likelihood to collect money to pay damages. The issue of confidentiality is relevant to this area. All volunteers who work in confidential areas (e.g., handling records of arrests and convictions) need to be *thoroughly* trained to use this information appropriately. This can be done by proper screening and training procedures and need not be a problem.[4]

Liability Remedies

Potential liability remedies are contained in the city or county charter (or other applicable special acts); general or professional liability insurance policies; the Workmen's Compensation Act; and local rules, regulations, or court decisions. *It is essential that legal counsel be consulted on this matter.*[5] Perhaps the best method of protecting the state, the agency, and the volunteer is securing general private insurance coverage. Many states have liability insurance which covers the state and its agencies—the state accepts its full responsibility for tort liability situations and, at the same time, protects the public treasury. The insurance should also provide for legal defense.

It is essential to check with the state attorney general's office and obtain legal counsel for clarification of the law in each jurisdiction. Depending on the state, volunteers may be placed under existing insurance policies by:

1. Defining the volunteers as employees or agents of the state;
2. Amending the policy to specifically cover volunteers; or,
3. Making volunteers "salaried employees" by paying them a dollar a year.

In addition, the liability relationship between the department and the volunteer can be limited and controlled by such provisions as:

1. All states have Workmen's Compensation laws, which cover employees injured while at work. Some states have extended coverage to include volunteers. Check with the state labor department to ascertain their policy.

2. Waivers are employed, not so much to avoid liability, but to inform volunteers that their work, as is true in any occupation, may contain potential liability situations and that they may want additional protection.

3. Some sheriffs' departments cover volunteers under the *posse comitatus* laws.

Liabilities are of great potential concern when considering the establishment of a volunteer program. However, experience demonstrates that when the volunteer is properly trained and adequately supervised, liability situations rarely occur. With adequate preparation, the possibility of losses due to liability litigation is minimal.

DEPARTMENTAL ENVIRONMENT

The implementation of any new program in a police department or criminal justice agency brings about change. Within an agency, administrative operations, chain-of-command, co-workers, and even the physical location of personnel may change because of a new program. These changes are most pronounced and frequent in those sections or units where the new program is located. However, other parts of the agency will also be affected to some extent. In considering the feasibility of a local volunteer program, some thought should be given to the effects that the presence of older volunteers would have upon the agency or department. The creation of a suitable program requires that the departmental environment be mapped out and the needs and requirements of the organization in relation to the program be understood and addressed.

Administrative Requirements. The initiation of a volunteer program, whether it assists with present activities or provides new services, will require some new and different administrative responsibilities. There will be more people to supervise and coordinate. More police officers will be involved in supervisory roles and they may require additional training to meet this responsibility.

Scheduling may become more complex. Volunteers may be able to work for only short periods of time or during daylight hours, for example. Additional space may also need to be secured or current space adapted to accommodate volunteers.

There will be new internal communications requirements related to the sharing of information throughout the agency. Volunteers should be given a sense of belonging, provided with an opportunity to work and share together at peer levels, and receive feedback from supervisors on how they are doing. Information on organizational policies and administrative practices should be provided to volunteers. To create a sense of belonging and teamwork, departmental employees must be encouraged to communicate with the volunteers.

Discipline must be maintained. Quality performance standards, too, must be kept at high levels—for volunteers as well as paid staff. Nevertheless, the agency must maintain a flexibility in its own production schedule for the personal and developmental needs of volunteers.[6] This is especially important for older volunteers who seek in volunteering a sense of fulfillment no longer available in a regular work life.

Volunteers are extremely useful in supplementing the efforts of patrol officers. The volunteers can be trained to perform routine service delivery tasks, thus enabling patrol officers to concentrate on major law enforcement functions. However, the officer will need to assume the responsibilities for supervising and counseling the volunteers and providing them with on-the-job training. This may involve further administrative complexities and the realignment of responsibilities.

Adjustments also will have to be made in the agency's normal administrative practices for program planning and organizing and managing the volunteers. Coordination will have to be constant in order to eliminate unproductive or counterproductive practices that often crop up in an increasingly complex administrative system.

Staff Relationships

Every effort must be made to convince departmental employees to accept the volunteers, if the volunteer program is to succeed. The introduction of this new element in an already established personnel structure can produce tensions and resentments.[7]

Tension may stem from a variety of sources. First, there are a series of myths that some professionals maintain about volunteers in general: "They don't get paid, so they come and go as they please," or, "They meet their own needs and not ours and they take too much professional time to consult with and supervise."[8] There are also myths that may affect relationships between fulltime employees and older volunteers. For example, older volunteers may not be looked upon as a valuable resource due to a persistent belief that aging is associated with decreasing work productivity and an inability to learn. Unless these beliefs are seen as myths and not as realities, unnecessary tensions may result. Sharing the experiences of other law enforcement agencies regarding the valuable contributions made by older volunteers can help to correct such attitudes.

Another possible source of tension lies in the beliefs held by some officers that volunteers are intruders. Paid employees may look upon the volunteer as a threat to job security or as an indication that paid staff members are not doing their jobs. Many times an officer's attitude toward his job is reflected in his attitude toward volunteers. The majority of older volunteers are retired persons who do not want fulltime work and need not be viewed as threats.

Under the pressures of tight budgets and frozen levels of paid personnel, volunteers may be assigned work that police officers have neither the time nor the resources to do. Conversely, tension may result when volunteers are assigned tasks that officers received satisfaction in performing in the past.

Departmental personnel may encounter greater job stress when they take on the increased responsibility for the training and coordinating of volunteers. Special burdens may be placed on these agency personnel in designing rewarding opportunities for older persons whose interest in voluntary work stems from a desire to gain relief from a routine, monotonous, and fragmented lifestyle.

The older person may require support from paid staff members to help with physical problems or learning difficulties. Extra time and care may have to be given to some older volunteers.

Professional staff resistance to volunteers can be expected to increase as the volunteers assume more diversified duties. This problem should not be discounted. Working out effective relationships between departmental personnel and volunteers requires care and attention. Proper training for *both* groups concerning the volunteer program can help reduce potential tensions.[9] Organizational commitment to and planning for this type of training effort is most important for a successful program. A careful examination of an agency or department's capability in this area should be considered in any plans for local program implementation.

Unions

If there is a union or association of police officers, this group needs to be consulted at the initial planning stages and involved along the way. Although each manager of a volunteer program must decide on his own course of action insofar as union involvement is concerned, he must, nevertheless, agree upon working relationships with the union *before* any volunteer activity is initiated. Otherwise, misunderstandings, disagreements, and apprehensions may destroy the program. A resistive response on the part of a strong union will severely diminish administrative support for the program.

Some questions about volunteer programs that have arisen in the past and have been easily resolved were based on the following concerns of unions and police associations:

- Volunteers would eliminate paid positions.

- They would inhibit promotions.

- They would interfere with sworn personnel.

- They would limit preferred assignments (which would bring better working hours and easier working conditions).

- They would cause a reduction in fringe benefits such as overtime pay.

The unions need to be made aware that volunteer programs can actually enhance their professional standing and ensure better pay levels.

CONCLUSION

Before a law enforcement agency make a final decision to recruit and involve older volunteers in the agency's operations, a number of factors need to be considered in relation to the viability of a local program. Of primary importance is the issue of organizational commitment to the program. This requires both a presentation of the volunteer program idea to agency personnel and an assessment of the response in terms of support. As part of that commitment process, other major issues also must be addressed in order to determine the feasibility of utilizing elderly volunteers successfully. These other issues have been identified as: agency costs, potential liability, and the departmental environment.

All of these issues are important and the possible problems they present are not insurmountable. However, a failure to consider each issue and its ramifications could lead to the inappropriate implementation of a program or create unintentional resistance. Some primary concerns are:

1. Although volunteers work free of charge, volunteer programs will cost the agency money to operate.

2. While the likelihood is remote, liability suits are possible in a volunteer program.

3. With volunteers, the law enforcement agency will have to make administrative changes and initiate new administrative procedures.

4. Volunteers could become a source of tension and resentment to paid personnel.

A law enforcement agency should not initiate a volunteer program until each of these considerations have been carefully examined and decisions made regarding them.

SUMMARY

To be successful, a program utilizing older volunteers must have the firm support of police department personnel.

If departmental administrators are not supportive or tolerant, the volunteer program stands little chance of succeeding. To gain this support, the program coordinator must present the *idea* of the volunteer program at all levels of the department and provide employees with an opportunity to express their support or resistance while the program is still in the planning stages. If resistance is encountered, considerable work must be done to generate a positive agency attitude.

A police department which wants to establish a program utilizing older persons as volunteers must carefully consider the costs to the agency, potential liability, and the impact which the program will have upon the departmental environment.

A failure to consider each of these issues and their ramifications can lead to the inappropriate implementation of a program or create unintentional resistance once the program has been established.

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LESSON THREE
IMPLEMENTING A VOLUNTEER PROGRAM

If, after careful consideration of the factors discussed in Lesson Two, it is felt that sufficient commitment and support for a volunteer program can be obtained, and the identified obstacles overcome, then the most difficult task of implementing a program begins. Program implementation requires a great deal of effort and involvement on the part of many people. For a volunteer program to survive and grow, strong commitments are needed from everyone involved with it. According to the National Information Center on Volunteerism, Inc., one out of every four or five volunteer programs fails within the first two years of operation.[1]

Program implementation involves three major components: planning, initiation, and monitoring. The volunteer director/coordinator plays a critical role in overseeing or managing these processes, as the diagram below illustrates in a simplified format.

Phases of

VOLUNTEER PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION
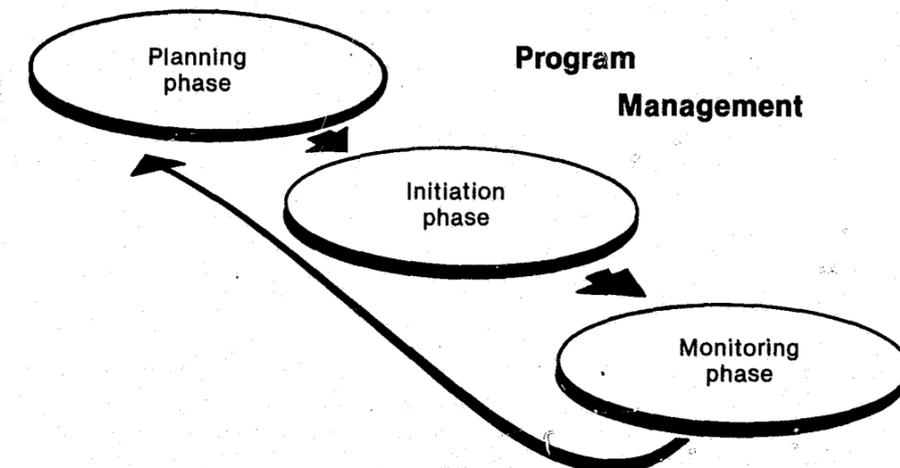
The program management component encompasses the entire implementation process. The absence of strong program management *in any phase* can result in program failure.

IV-25

As the diagram points out, the program management component encompasses the entire implementation process. Strong program management is necessary to progress through each of the phases; its absence *in any phase* can result in program failure. By applying effective management techniques in each of the program phases, the issues and obstacles raised in previous lessons can be overcome.

The diagram also illustrates that the program phases run in a continuous loop—even after a program has been set into operation, information or feedback gathered in the monitoring phase should be used to generate new plans for improving, revising, or expanding the program. Thus, new program phases continue to be initiated and subsequently monitored; the program, if it is effective, becomes self-perpetuating.

The three major phases of planning, initiation, and monitoring represent a developmental sequence. It is not uncommon to find programs which are performing poorly because they were initiated with little planning or permitted to continue operating without adequate monitoring. The planning phase establishes the nature and scope of the program within the agency. If considerable efforts and resources are expended in this phase, then potential problems can be greatly diminished. The initiation phase represents a fairly short *but critical period* when changes in personnel and procedures are established and the program itself is actually put into operation. Management sensitivity to program needs and the capability to "get the program launched" is most important at this time.

The monitoring phase involves utilizing various management methods and tools to continuously assess the program's daily operations. Each of these three phases is discussed in more detail in the following sections.

PLANNING PHASE

When an organization becomes aware of a particular need or problem, or learns that funds are available for a certain type of program, there often is a strong desire to "do something about it." Like the diver who forgets to check the water level in the pool before he jumps off the high board, the organization which "leaps before it looks" often ends up in serious trouble. Organizations which neglect the planning component usually initiate programs which, *if they do not fail entirely*, spend much of their first 12 months trying to decide what they are supposed to be doing. The logical premise that "careful planning must precede initiation" often is overlooked in the rush to "do something." *Planning is the first phase of program implementation and it cannot be skipped*. An effective planning process considers the agency's needs and climate as a first step. The second step consists of actually designing a volunteer program, using the information gathered in Step One.

Planning Principles For Volunteer Programs

In general, planning should define the *scope* and *purpose* of the volunteer program. It should represent the integration of agency and staff needs with volunteer resources. Planning is a dynamic process which must involve everyone who will be affected when the plan is implemented. Supervisors, patrol officers, and civilian employees who will work with the volunteers should participate. They can assist the program manager by *identifying* unmet needs in their work, volunteer opportunities, and requirements for translating needs into opportunities. The specific program objectives for volunteer services within each division or unit should be formulated with the active participation

of staff members. Planning must also involve others who have the skills needed to *promote* the program, such as the law enforcement agency's public information officer, civic leaders, directors of other volunteer agencies, and the local media. Program plans should be flexible enough to allow for future changes while avoiding the pitfall of multiplying too quickly the number of tasks and assignments which volunteers are expected to fulfill.

It is possible to both *underplan* and *overplan* a program. The scope of the planning process and the time involved should reflect the resources which can be allocated to the program. Except for very simple, small programs, the planning process usually requires two to six months. Longer planning times without program startup tend to dissipate enthusiasm for the program.

Planning efforts should begin by focusing on a few activity areas at a time. Planners often benefit by visiting the directors of other volunteer programs and asking questions about operational methods and problems. It never hurts to learn from the experiences of others. However, each program is unique. Law enforcement planners should remember that they cannot simply copy another program and expect it to work with equal success.

The planning process should involve the agency's chief administrators, who should review and approve the program plans as they are developed. Their informed commitment is required to promote the involvement of staff members at other levels in the agency. It is this administrative group who can establish the policies necessary to implement the program.

Needs And Climate Assessment

Simply stated, a needs and climate assessment addresses the questions of: what can volunteers do in the agency and where can they do it? To answer these questions, a number of procedures and techniques can be used. Representatives from various sections and units of the agency can be assigned to a planning task force or committee to identify needs. Questionnaires or surveys can be administered or the program manager can informally talk to various staff members at all levels of the agency about the work which volunteers could perform.

A task analysis of various jobs in the department may identify some areas for the utilization of volunteers. For example, the program manager can ask agency personnel to identify those tasks they have performed in the past few days which they rather would not do (in order to free their time for better use). Or personnel can be asked to identify jobs which need to be done but which they seldom have time to accomplish. The program manager should also ask these *same* staff members how they would feel about having elderly volunteers perform each of these tasks. But whatever techniques or methods are used, a list of tasks which could be performed by the older volunteer should be compiled. Some possible roles and opportunities for utilizing elderly volunteers in law enforcement agencies were presented in Lesson One; these roles and task functions might serve as a starting point for the program manager as he conducts a survey of the personnel in his agency.

Once the job task list is compiled, then three other planning operations should be initiated. First, job tasks requiring *similar* levels of responsibility and capability should be grouped to define a job or position for the volunteer to fill. Second, those jobs or positions which require *more* responsibility and commitment from volunteers should be separated from those which require less. Finally, a

priority ranking should be assigned to those positions which are more important to the agency's needs and which should be filled first.

A good rule for planning a potentially successful volunteer program is to *develop jobs at every skill level* which have some interesting and challenging components. Simply dumping all the menial and distasteful tasks onto volunteers is a sure way to shorten the program's life expectancy. It is also a good rule to start small—it is unwise to attempt to meet *all* the agency's needs at once. A small program in which the volunteers do a few things well will be more satisfying to all concerned. Such a program can easily expand in the future.

Once the positions to be filled by elderly volunteers have been identified and ranked, then the program manager must analyze the organizational climate in order to determine where the volunteers should be placed. Some sections or units where the volunteers would have to be located in order to perform specific job tasks may provide little or no support. Resistance to volunteers on the part of staff members or supervisors may create an unfavorable work climate for the volunteers. Ideally, volunteers should be placed into, or work closely with, sections or units where they are performing the roles which were asked as "first priorities." Because the roles were considered to be so important by agency staff members, the environment should be one of support and appreciation. Planning decisions are most difficult when the more important volunteer roles would require interaction between the volunteers and the most resistive members of the department. Under such circumstances, other *lower priority* job assignments should be considered or plans should include a major effort to orient and educate those agency personnel who will work with the volunteers.

Planning should also consider the physical environment where the older volunteers will be working. Locations which would require extensive walking or climbing stairs should be avoided if at all possible. Other factors to consider are *noise* (will the volunteer be working in areas with constant background noise?), *lighting* (can written materials and writing assignments be comfortably read?), and *safety* (will the volunteer worry about his personal safety or be too concerned about protecting his personal property, such as a wallet?).

Once the law enforcement agency's needs and climate have been assessed, jobs identified and ranked, and potential organizational placements considered, the program director should begin working on the second step in the planning phase: designing the actual volunteer program to meet the agency's needs.

Program Design

A program design is comparable to a master blueprint; it provides the program director with a step-by-step guide for developing the program, initiating it, and monitoring it. A program design defines the goals and objectives of the program, its structure, operational procedures, timelines, budget, and staffing needs. It indicates what resources will be needed and who will do what, when, how, and for what purpose. Preparing a good funding proposal for a volunteer program is an exercise in program design.

Based upon the needs assessment, the first step in designing a program is to develop *goals* (the end result of the volunteer program effort) and *objectives* (specific actions that need to be taken in order

to reach or achieve a given goal.) Next, a workplan should be drawn up detailing the activities that need to be undertaken to reach the objectives. This workplan should indicate the time frames in which each activity will take place and describe who will be involved in the activity (people should be described by job positions, not by names. For example, if a job task must be performed by both a volunteer radio operator and an officer, then these *titles* will be used in the work plan. The plan would *not* specify: "Officer Mark Thompson and Volunteer Jim Snow will work together...") A budget should be developed, in as much detail as possible, outlining the costs to establish and operate the program. Recruitment, selection and placement procedures for the volunteers should be established along with the necesary forms, such as job descriptions.

When the volunteers arrive to begin work, it may be necessary to adjust the schedules of some supervisors, police officers and civilian employees. Any contemplated adjustments should be incorporated into the program design. The program director will also need to plan time for training, since the paid staff members who will be working with the volunteers may need to develop new skills if they will be expected to supervise, counsel, and train the volunteers. Extra time should be built into the schedules of fulltime employees who will be providing on-the-job training for volunteers, attending staff meetings and maintaining records dealing with the performance and supervison of the volunteers. Methods which will be used to monitor and evaluate the program should be described in the program design.

The design plan should also address any necessary administrative changes that will accompany program implementation. New agency policies and procedures which will be necessary to facilitate volunteer program operation should be specified. Existing policies and procedures should be modified if necessary and consideration should be given to changing any unwritten policies which may interfere with the effectiveness of the volunteer program.

The organization of the program itself and its relation to the law enforcement agency's organization structure should be spelled out. A good design describes the lines of authority within the volunteer program and between the program and the agency. Areas of responsibility for volunteers and agency personnel are clearly indicated. Individuals with policy-making responsibilities are identified.

Generally speaking, the administrative structure of a volunteer program can be classified as one of two types. One type views the volunteers as an unpaid staff member while the other views the volunteer as part of an independent auxiliary. In the first structural type, volunteers are placed in the agency directly under the supervision of paid staff members. This requires that agency personnel, who may have had little experience in directing the work of others, must now learn how to supervise. Under this structure, the program director must provide the fulltime employees with training and orientation to the volunteer program; in addition, the importance of the roles of the fulltime employees will need to be explained carefully, or some employees may begin to feel that an extra burden is being placed upon them. There may also be some discontent from employees who do not want anyone interfering with their jobs; often this type of problem arises when employees who have been fulfilling a specific job for several years are asked to make changes in the job. Some of these employees may resent the *idea* that someone else, such as the volunteer program director, would even know anything about their job, let alone have the audacity to suggest how it could be changed to accommodate volunteers—this happens because the employee thinks he *owns* the job and is the *only* person who knows how to perform the job tasks. He may not want to supervise

anyone else, and may be especially resistant if he is being asked to teach a volunteer how to handle specific components of his own job.

When volunteers are used as an independent auxiliary, they may operate as a fairly self-contained unit, fulfilling a certain role for the agency while they also manage their own organization; with this type of program, the volunteers handle their own recruiting, screening, training, and administration. More complex programs may involve elements of both types of administrative structures.

Once the program design has been fully developed, a formal endorsement of the plan should be obtained from the agency's chief administrators. This is important since it emphasizes that the agency has fully committed itself to a particular plan of action rather than the earlier, unspecified support for a volunteer program idea. Throughout the entire design phase, the chief adminstrators should be informed that their feedback and support is welcomed— the program director can solicit feedback by forwarding tentative design plans and related problems or questions to the administrators.

Once the design has been approved, major work can then begin on the initiation phase of the implementation process.

INITIATION PHASE

The planning phase of the program implementation process ends with a program design. Like a recipe, it specifies on paper the ingredients and directions for creating a volunteer program. As with a recipe, the actual act of combining the ingredients as prescribed may be subject to a great deal of variability and unforeseen circumstances.

The second phase of the implementation process—initiation—addresses the actual activities involved in the program startup process. For purposes of discussion, these activities have been separated into two categories: program development and interventions. The first category, program development, includes those preliminary activities outlined in the program design which are necessary to prepare for the first volunteers in the agency. Interventions are those administrative actions which must be conducted when the volunteers first begin work. The initiation phase is fairly brief—two weeks to two months—depending upon the size and complexity of the program.

Program Development

Program development activities may encompass a wide variety of functions; however, only the more common elements will be presented in this section. For the most part, preparatory activities are directed towards either fulltime employees or the volunteers.

Most efforts usually focus on orienting fulltime employees since an effective working relationship between staff members and volunteers is critical to program success. Special training or orientation sessions should be provided to agency personnel in those sections or units where the volunteers will be placed. If the program plan calls for supervision of the volunteers by agency personnel who have had little or no previous experience in management, then some type of supervisory training may be helpful.

Orientation sessions should inform agency personnel about what to expect from the older volunteer, what each person's responsibilities are, and how problems will be handled. Reactions and suggestions of staff members should be considered by the program director and incorporated into revised plans.

The objectives of staff training programs should be to develop positive and realistic attitudes toward what older volunteers can do and to provide staff members with the skills necessary to supervise the volunteers. Role playing experiences and case studies may be effectively used to sensitize staff members to the capabilities and concerns of older volunteers. Presentations by personnel from other agencies who have worked with older volunteers also can be effective, especially when these presentations are coupled with staff site visits to already existing volunteer programs. Simply providing agency staff with an opportunity to openly ventilate their feelings can reduce tensions. It is important to remember that staff members must also receive some feelings of satisfaction from the volunteer program if it is to be successful. Properly preparing staff members to work with the older volunteers can enhance the possibility of such feelings.

Other agency program development activities should involve obtaining any supplies and equipment (e.g., desks, chairs, etc.) which will be needed by the volunteers.

All members of the law enforcement agency should be informed of the program's startup whether they are directly involved or not. This includes the formal dissemination of any policy or procedural changes which accompany the volunteer program.

Checking on the physical location where the older volunteers will be working to ensure that any necessary preparations have been made is also recommended.

Major program development activities which focus on the volunteer include recruiting, selection, training, and placement.

One of the first program development activities is the preparation of job descriptions for the positions which the volunteers will be expected to fill. These positions should have been designated during the planning phase but, for purposes of volunteer recruitment, a description of each position should be produced. At a minimum, each job description should specify the following:

1. The objectives of the job and major responsibilities;

2. Lines of accountability;

3. Time required to perform the job;

4. Qualifications for the position; and

5. Relationship between the job holder and other personnel, both fulltime staff members and volunteers (when applicable).

(The following is a sample job description for a senior citizen communication monitor and program aide.)[2]

Job Description For A Volunteer: A Sample

Position: Senior Citizen Communications Monitor and Program Aide

Objectives:

1. To provide monitoring for civilian patrols who communicate with the precinct civilian patrol desk by civilian band radio.

2. To provide support services for the crime prevention and community relations programs operated from precinct headquarters.

Major Responsibilities:

1. Answer, take messages, and communicate on telephone and civilian band radio.

2. Do general office work such as filing, typing forms, and operating office machines.

3. Serve as receptionist for the precinct community relations and crime prevention specialists.

4. Aid in the operation of selected police-community programs, such as —but not limited to—Operation Identification, bicycle registration, block watches, information bulletins (crime prevention) and the visual inspection program.

5. Disseminate information to senior citizens and assist them through referral.

Responsible To: Crime prevention specialist

Time Required: The minimum participation will be four hours, one day per week.

Qualifications: Possesses communication skills. Can do general office work and be taught to operate office machines. Is able to fill out police forms and reports. Is not incapacitated through poor sight or hearing, and has adequate diction and speaking ability to communicate over the telephone.

It may also be desirable for recruitment purposes to prepare written promotional materials about the volunteer program and distribute them to interested individuals and groups. Audio-visual aids also should be developed if presentations about the program will be made to civic and volunteer groups.

Recruiting, selection, training, and placement procedures to be followed in setting up the program should have been identified in the program design. In the program development component of the initiation phase, these activities actually begin. It is at this point that the program director begins to contact community sources of volunteers. The volunteer candidates are interviewed and those selected are trained. On the basis of their performance during the training program, volunteers are either placed in the program or, if they prove to be unsuitable for a law enforcement agency, they are referred to outside volunteer groups.

The volunteer training program significantly determines how well the volunteers eventually perform on the job and whether or not they are accepted by agency staff members. Program develop-

ment activities in this area should not be overlooked. The time and personnel needed to conduct volunteer training should be allocated *prior to the first recruiting contact.* This program preparation also includes the development of any training manuals or other materials designed to help volunteers perform their jobs. Program development training activities for volunteers should be realistic. The classes should:

1. List the most important elements of the volunteer's job and focus on the areas of performance which are of paramount importance.

2. Explain how the job fits into overall agency operations.

3. Contrast examples of desirable and undesirable job performance.

4. Provide the volunteer with an opportunity to handle the job on a tentative basis.

5. Identify criteria which supervisors will be using to evaluate the volunteers.

6. Identify what is expected of the volunteer in terms of appearance, conduct, confidentiality, and supervision.

7. Provide the volunteer with an opportunity to acquire the skills needed for a particular assignment.

Participating trainers should include the agency staff members who will be supervising the volunteer, the director/coordinator of the volunteer program, and any other outside or agency personnel who help the volunteer prepare for the job.

As the first group of volunteers begins to work its way through the recruitment process and into agency jobs, the program begins to take on its own identity. Guided by the program design blueprint, the real program will begin to vary from it to some degree as a result of people interacting and coping with each other. It is at this point in the initiation phase that the *interventions component* begins.

Interventions

Plans and people are imperfect and, in accordance with Murphy's Law, "if something can go wrong, it will." As the volunteers being to work, problems and conflicts will arise; the program will begin to "develop" itself and establish some structural boundaries around previously unspecified and unforeseen working relationships. How these problems are handled, or not handled, in the early stages of program implementation can have a strong impact on the program's future. *Program managers must be especially alert and responsive to events which transpire in the first one or two months.* Corrective actions are more easily undertaken then while the program is still in a state of flux.

Problems may arise when agency staff members encounter unanticipated "hidden costs" in terms of the time or efforts required of them. Volunteers may have similar complaints if their actual work deviates substantially from the job for which they volunteered and were trained. Inappropriate or

insufficient training, unsuitable volunteers, and personality conflicts in work groups also can occur. The program manager will be "tipped off" that he needs to investigate program activities if he hears comments from agency staff members and older volunteers such as "things aren't quite the way they expected" or "should a volunteer really be doing that job?" Expectations which are not met when the actual program begins can lead to faltering commitments and increased tension on the part of both volunteers and agency staff members. When these sources of tension arise between or among agency staff member and volunteers, then it may be necessary for the volunteer program director and other involved administrators to intervene in the situation. Left to resolve a source of stress themselves, the groups or individuals may adopt isolationist positions or "win-lose" strategies as a means of handling the problem. While these responses may result in some immediate resolution, the long-range implications for the overall program are not as good.

When the program administrator intervenes in a dispute he should attempt to facilitate a participative, problem-solving approach to the issue at hand.

Briefly, when conducting an intervention among groups or individuals, the program director should:

1. Define the source of tension or conflict as a mutual problem which can be solved through cooperation.

2. Analyze the problem.

3. Emphasize goals and objectives which are held in common.

4. Develop alternate solutions: i.e., creative agreements or arrangements that are satisfying to all concerned or present a mutually acceptable compromise.

5. Decide upon the best solution. This may require bringing in outside parties to help resolve the matter.

6. Convert the solution into action: i.e., ensure that the new arrangements are implemented, or agreements maintained.

One critical element of successful intervention is that it involves *all* parties who have a vested interest in the outcome. In addition, a climate of mutual respect, trust, and flexibility must be emphasized. Such a climate can be facilitated by recognizing that the volunteers are non-paid staff members who are subject to the *same standards*, responsibilities, and privileges as paid employees. To do less diminishes the credibility and acceptability of both the individual and the volunteer program.

As the program activities begin to fall into a routine, established pattern, intensity of contact needed during the intervention period is reduced and replaced by the more formal and regulated monitoring phase of the implementation cycle.

MONITORING PHASE

After a program has moved through the planning and initiation phases, administrative concern should then be directed toward establishing and maintaining records and program activity data. This material is necessary for management, evaluation, and future planning purposes. The main thrust of the monitoring phase is the development of a data base and information system that would enable the program director to know:

1. The who, what, when, where, and how of daily program operation;

2. Whether these operations are in conformance with the program design; and

3. Whether the program is accomplishing its goals and objectives.

Record-Keeping

Record-keeping represents the cornerstone of a good evaluation plan. Whether it is done in a formal study, or informally by the volunteer program director, no evaluation can be conducted without the facts or data elements supplied by program records. Exactly what kind and how much information should be collected can be difficult to determine. However, if the program objectives have been written to have the quality of measurability, then these objectives will dictate what type of information should be collected. Program design and agency policy and procedures will usually dictate whatever else may need to be acquired. Where possible, volunteer program record-keeping should be made a part of the already existing procedures for paid staff members. The program director should also allocate sufficient time and personnel to maintain an adequate record-keeping system for those data collection needs which cannot be incorporated into agency procedures.

Some standard files which should be maintained by the program are a "volunteer file" and a "program file."[3] The "volunteer file" would include some background information on each volunteer from the application or registration form, the dates and types of training he received, and his work assignment.

VOLUNTEER FILE

NAME_____

ADDRESS_____ PHONE_____

ASSIGNMENT

Department _____

Duty _____

Day _____

Location _____

Responsible To_____

ORIENTATION COMPLETE_____

In-Service Training _____

The "program file" would contain a catalog of the different volunteer jobs within the agency. Included for each position would be a description of job duties, the location of the job, name or rank of the supervisor, the number of volunteers needed, and the hours to be worked. A running, updated record of volunteers assigned to each position should be included in the "program file" and the time spent on each job assignment should be maintained and corroborated with the individual service records kept for each volunteer. This provides an accounting of services rendered. These figures can be converted into a monetary value in order to assess volunteer contributions to the program. Individual budget and expense records are also necessary, along with data on the types and hours of training provided.

DEPARTMENT							
LOCATION							
HOURS							
DAYS	M	T	W	TH	F	ST	SN
VOLUNTEERS NEEDED							
DUTIES							
RESPONSIBLE TO							
ORIENTATION							
IN SERVICE							

(Front)

ASSIGNED

MONDAY	2:00-4:00 P.M.	1. _____	2. _____
	6:30-8:00 P.M.	1. _____	2. _____
TUESDAY	2:00-4:00 P.M.	1. _____	2. _____
	6:30-8:00 P.M.	1. _____	2. _____
WEDNESDAY	2:00-4:00 P.M.	1. _____	2. _____
	6:30-8:00 P.M.	1. _____	2. _____
THURSDAY	2:00-4:00 P.M.	1. _____	2. _____
	6:30-8:00 P.M.	1. _____	2. _____
FRIDAY	2:00-4:00 P.M.	1. _____	2. _____
	6:30-8:00 P.M.	1. _____	2. _____
SATURDAY	2:00-4:00 P.M.	1. _____	2. _____
	6:30-8:00 P.M.	1. _____	2. _____
SUNDAY	2:00-4:00 P.M.	1. _____	2. _____
	6:30-8:00 P.M.	1. _____	2. _____

SUBSTITUTES:

(Back)

Record-keeping should also incorporate qualitative as well as quantative data on the services being provided by the volunteers. Supervisory assessments of volunteers and volunteer assessments of the program ought to be collected on a regular basis. Periodic progress reports, which summarize volunteer activities, should be submitted by the employees who are supervising volunteers. All data which is collected over a set period of time (usually monthly or quarterly) should be aggregated to supply program and agency administrators with a current overview of the program's operations. In addition, good files and records can prevent or reduce mistakes, identify good volunteer characteristics, substantiate claims, identify outstanding performance, and serve as part of a local contribution (or match) in a *Federally-funded* project budget.

The maintenance of files should be a continuous activity. Accuracy is of primary importance. Duplicate, irrelevant, or miscellaneous information should not be collected. If it has been, it should be discarded. Emphasis should be placed upon the consolidation and centralization of all information files, limiting access to others. This will reduce the possibility that information will be lost; in addition, it will provide a specific location to which agency personnel can forward records and reports about volunteer activities.

Good record-keeping provides continuity to a program. This is of considerable importance when changes in key management personnel occur. Not only can new managers learn more quickly about the program, but they also can avoid the problems of their predecessors.

Evaluation

Evaluation is the mechanism by which the program takes a look at itself to see if it has done what was intended and if it is working as planned. Besides being a requirement which many volunteer programs face as a stipulation for funding, evaluation can identify which aspects of the program work or don't work. In addition, evaluation procedures point out whether the program needs improvement, modification, expansion, or termination. The actual act of evaluation:

- Lends further credibility to the entire effort in the eyes of the staff and the volunteers;

- Sharpens the understanding of the purposes, goals, and problems of the program for administrators and staff members; and

- Identifies indicators of success.

Evaluation may be *informal* (e.g., a review of program reports and files by program administrators) or *formal* (e.g., methodology, designs, and surveys are developed). It may be conducted by someone within the agency or program or an outside, independent consultant. Outside evaluators may be beneficial if there is internal tension among volunteers, staff members, and program administrators, or if there is a question of continuing the program. Evaluation reports should be timely and not assess what happened last year; they should be written clearly enough so that agency personnel can comprehend the methods, purposes, and results of the study. Most importantly, they should have meaning. Interesting but trivial data will be of little value in helping to make the program function better. Evaluation should assess the *significant elements* of the program.

In general, an evaluation addresses two broad areas—the program itself and the individuals working within the program. Insofar as the program itself is concerned, the goals and objectives of the program design will dictate the types of analyses which need to be performed. Data obtained in the record-keeping process will be the basic source of information about the volunteers and staff members who are involved with the program. The attitudes, perceptions, and experiences of these individuals are also part of the evaluation process.

Because evaluations can be undertaken for many reasons, the particular study design used will vary depending upon the purpose and the evaluation questions being addressed. In order to ensure that an appropriate study is done, it is important that the *purpose* of the evaluation be clearly formulated *before* the data is collected and analyzed. The following chart provides a very brief overview of the more common evaluation types and purposes. Sample questions and data used in assessments of volunteer programs are also provided. This chart is not comprehensive. Rather, it is presented only to serve as an example for the types of questions which need to be asked when evaluating a volunteer program.

Evaluation Designs

Type	Purpose	Questions	Data Source
Effort/Monitoring	To determine what has been done and how well it has been done.	How many volunteers have been trained in the program as compared to the number specified in the program objectives?	Training Record
		How many hours of volunteer service have been provided?	Individual Volunteer Record and Program File
		How well are older volunteers able to handle their job responsibilities? (Some questions depend upon program goals and objectives and roles played by volunteer)	Volunteer Performance Evaluations by supervisors
Outcome/Impact	To determine how well the program is working; what effect it is having.	(Most questions depend upon program goals and objectives and roles played by volunteers). Have criminal apprehensions attributable to crime analysis increased since volunteer analysts began work?	Agency arrests
		Have burglaries decreased since volunteers began conducting security checks?	Agency Offense Reports
		Have reports been processed faster since volunteer aide began work?	Supervisory Progress Reports
		Has the scope of crime analysis activities increased?	Program File

Evaluation Designs (continued)

Type	Purpose	Questions	Data Source
Cost-Benefit/ Efficiency	To determine if the program benefits or services provided are reasonable and justifiable in terms of costs-money, time, personnel, etc.	What is the length of service and turnover rate of volunteers compared to agency time spent preparing volunteer?	Volunteer Records
		What is the ratio of time spent by staff supervising volunteers to time contributed by volunteers?	Volunteer Records and Survey of Supervisors
		What is the cost per volunteer in a given position compared to that of paid staff?	Program budget, agency budget, and hidden cost analyses
Process	To determine how the program works, what factors have brought about its current state of operation, and results.	What is the degree of acceptance and support of the volunteer program by agency staff?	Supervisory progress reports, volunteer assessments of the program
		Was staff prepared in terms of what to expect from volunteers?	Same as above
		Does the training prepare volunteers for their assignments?	Volunteer performance evaluation by trainers and supervisors

Each type of evaluation is interrelated with the others and it is not uncommon for an evaluation study to incorporate the elements of several types. In addition, some types of evaluation are more appropriate in the early stages of the program (e.g., effort and process) while others are better applied after a stable operation over a period of time, allowing for an increased data base (e.g., outcome, cost-benefit).

A chronic and consistent problem with evaluation has been the under-utilization of results. If an evaluation is to be used for the purpose it was intended, its results must be acted upon. This requires that the evaluation findings be distributed to those personnel in the agency and program who can address the issues raised by the evaluation. Next, meetings should be arranged to discuss the evaluation results and recommendations; plans should then be developed to resolve any problems identified. Evaluations that are read and filed benefit no one. Evaluation results that are dismissed as inaccurate or incomplete undermine the true purpose of the process—which is to critically examine the quality and worth of the program. Once a program has begun, evaluation provides the inputs for each new planning phase.

OVERALL PROGRAM MANAGEMENT

It is necessary that sound management principles be applied throughout the three phases of the program implementation process. In addition to the planning and monitoring functions described in the previous sections, volunteer program managers must also be able to make decisions, motivate people, coordinate their work efforts, communicate with them, and delegate authority to them. Because there is *no single role* for a manager, but rather a diversity of roles, the program manager must develop the flexibility needed to skillfully respond to many different types of situations and people. In the law enforcement agency, these managerial skills and abilities are critically important since older volunteers may have little understanding about the nature of police work; it is up to the program manager to effectively use the skills of the volunteers by assigning them to jobs they can handle and then providing them with the necessary training, support, and supervision required for program success.

Program managers have three major concerns in the planning phase of program implementation. The *first concern* is to develop strategies for involving agency staff members in the implementation process. This task can be accomplished by:

1. Providing staff members with ample opportunities to express their feelings about the program in a non-threatening environment.

2. Exposing staff members to personnel in other agencies which use volunteers and asking representatives of these agencies to discuss the types of services rendered by older volunteers, their strengths as "employees," and problems which may occur, as well as methods of solving these problems.

3. Soliciting and using suggestions and recommendations from staff members during the program planning phase.

4. Identifying receptive individuals and working with them; the program managers should not attempt to convince *all* employees that the volunteer program is beneficial—there will be some staff members who have negative attitudes toward the program.

5. Building the program so that volunteers will work with receptive staff members, not those who are negative.

6. Being aware that some personnel will express verbal commitment but do little. The program managers should be wary of employees who suggest only trivial roles for volunteers, those who say nothing at all, or those who keep asking the same questions over and over again when the program manager has already answered these questions satisfactorily.[4]

The *second concern* is to identify a few job task areas where superior performance by the volunteers will produce outstanding, and immediately visible results. It is not sufficient to simply start the program small so that resources and effort will not be spread too thin. Points of maximum program impacts and benefits should be considered. This can be done by setting and sticking to priorities. But too often, when resistance is encountered within an agency, then only the safe and easy things are tried. However, good management *requires* innovation—with a focus on future opportunities and an avoidance of past problems.

Properly delegating work and responsibility is the *third major management concern* in the planning phase. No one person can do everything well; nor can one person do everything. Effective program management requires that other individuals—both staff members and volunteers— take charge of certain program areas. Knowledgeable, competent, and willing personnel must be identified and responsibility for a program area delegated to them. Effective administrators learn to recognize their own limitations and their appropriate role as a "manager" of people rather than as a "doer" of things. Effective delegation requires:

1. That the responsibilities being delegated to each person are defined clearly and comprehensively;

2. That the tasks delegated form some unified whole and are not bits and pieces;

3. That individuals are chosen for assignments which utilize their strengths and avoid their weaknesses;

4. That standards of performance are mutually set;

5. That individuals with delegated responsibility have a voice in decision-making; and

6. That individuals with delegated responsibility are kept fully informed.[5]

Finally, effective delegation requires that the program manager *really allow* individuals to perform without constantly "looking over their shoulder" and directing them.

During the initiation phase of program implementation, heightened managerial concern should be focused on coordination of activities. When the program design was being prepared, activities should have been planned in their proper "real-life" sequence and relationship to each other; thus, if the manager assigns an employee to obtain desks for the volunteers, this activity should be planned so that the task is completed *before* the volunteers show up for their first day on the job. Effective managers will oversee the *entire* program development operation to ensure that the right hand knows what the left hand is doing, and that tasks are accomplished in their proper sequence.

This requires that *all* groups be kept informed about each other's progress; it also means that the manager will need to conduct regularly scheduled coordination meetings to deal with problems of delayed schedules.

While motivating others is a constant and pervasive managerial role, it becomes particularly important in the program initiation phase when older volunteers are being brought into a law enforcement agency for the first time. The key to successful motivation and recruiting is to identify and emphasize the role of the program in meeting the volunteer's basic human needs. In surveys of the reasons why people volunteered, some responses given by the majority of the respondents were:[6]

- Wanted to help others
- Enjoy volunteer work itself
- Had sense of duty
- Rewarding relationship with people served
- Enjoy being with people
- Work is extremely interesting

The program manager should keep these reasons constantly in mind when talking to older volunteers, who often obtain many positive personal benefits from donating their time to a law enforcement agency. In addition, designing the jobs to fit the older volunteers' needs for peer-group relationships with others or achieving success from accomplishing needed work will ensure their continued motivation on the job. This is where the manager should also consider the benefits to be gained by recognizing work that has been performed well—while a public recognition (such as a newspaper article about a volunteer) goes a long way in motivating volunteers to achieve, so, too, does a "thank you" or a few words like, "You did a great job, John! Your analysis really helped tell us we need to put more cruisers in that neighborhood!"

In the monitoring phase, managerial emphasis should focus on the continuing concerns of program operations, such as public relations, recruiting, program diversification, in-service training, funding, and evaluation. During this phase, the interpersonal skills of the manager become increasingly relevant as the program recycles itself. In order to retain personnel, obtain program improvement suggestions, and/or diversify the program, managers must effectively communicate with their supervisors, peers, and subordinates. Some guidelines to keep in mind during this process include:

1. Recognize and relate to each person as a human being who has feelings, opinions, and goals that are as important to him as yours are to you.

2. Realize that each individual has certain strengths and weaknesses.

3. Recognize that people will do things for their reasons and not yours. Translate your needs into theirs and the chances of a favorable response increase.

4. Make the most of your time with someone—plan your meeting and rank those things you want to discuss in terms of their importance.

5. Keep individuals informed. When people are left out, they tend to reciprocate.

Recognition and support of the older volunteers are especially needed at this time in order to maintain their interest and enthusiasm for the program. Managerial failure to attend to such matters shortens the length of the volunteer's service commitment and increases turnover. Conversely, the manager must not permit lower standards of service or performance for volunteers because lower standards will negatively affect the program's credibility. High performance standards must be maintained although this may, on occasion, necessitate some type of disciplinary action against an older volunteer.

Life-Cycle Of A Program

Managerial effectiveness throughout the entire program implementation process can be enhanced by an awareness of and sensitivity to the *life-cycle* of any new program. Chances of success can be increased if everyone knows what to expect in terms of program commitment. There will be attitude shifts which develop in accordance with a predictable sequence; both individuals and groups will change their attitudes toward the new program. The graph below illustrates this "life-cycle" sequence of a program.[7]

Life Cycle of a Program
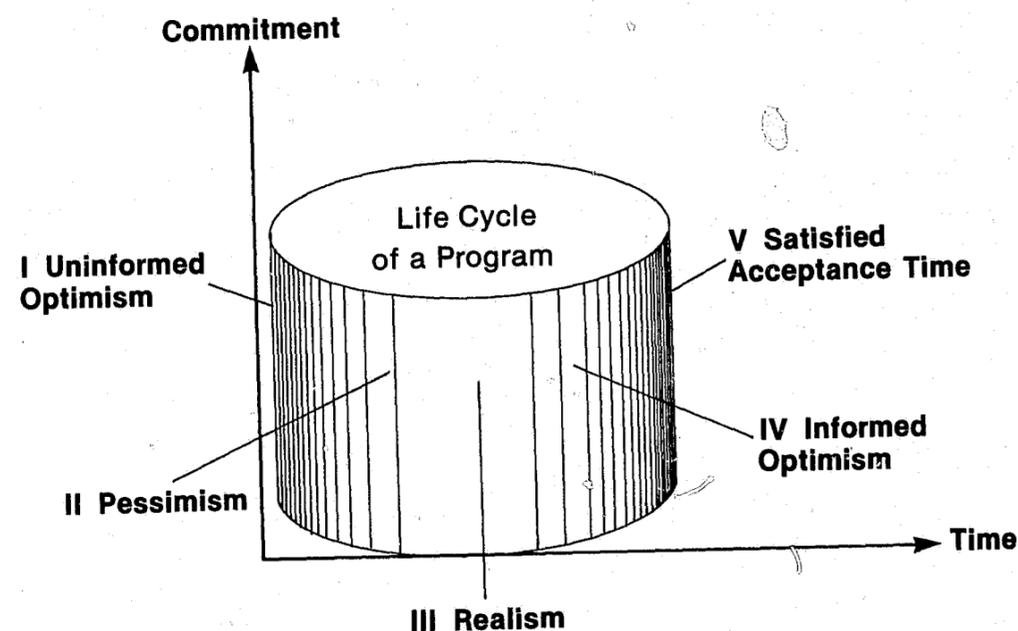
The stages of a program's life-cycle can be described as follows:

I. *Uninformed Optimism*: A preplanning state of implementation—the program concept sounds good and there is verbal support. Problems and obstacles have been discussed and feelings are strong that they can be overcome.

II. *Pessimism*: Real planning and program initiation begins, but problems and obstacles are tougher than expected. The department may "forget" the program by withdrawing its financial and organizational support. Volunteers may feel that their work is pointless.

III. *Realism*: If the pessimism state is overcome by determination, planning, and support, then the program is about to turn the corner. Perceptions of what can be done are realistically explored. The program begins to operate within the confines of the agency. Volunteers know and accept their responsibilities and limitations.

IV. *Informed Optimism*: The services provided by the volunteers begin to be recognized as valuable contributions to agency functioning. There is a fresh burst of energy and support. Additional, realistically feasible roles for volunteers are identified and efforts are expanded into these areas. Because of experience, problems and obstacles are handled more effectively.

V. *Satisfied Acceptance*: The program's place in the agency is ensured. A niche has been created for the volunteer operations and, when new agency problems arise, the program is considered as a viable response.

Director/Coordinator Of Volunteer Services

The most crucial management position in any volunteer program is that of the director or coordinator of volunteer services. With the possible exception of some early activities in the planning phase, this individual, as program manager, will have *primary* responsibility for program implementation and operation.

The quickest way to gauge the potential success or failure of a volunteer program is to look at this individual. If the program is being taken seriously by the law enforcement agency, the program manager is a capable, carefully selected person who is in a paid supervisory position within the agency. He was hired or involved at the beginning or in a very early phase of the planning process. While this is not always practical since funds may not be available until the program begins, it should receive priority consideration. If not, the program manager has the problem of instituting plans which someone else has made.

The director/coordinator should be considered as a member of the law enforcement agency's regular administrative staff and have *direct access* to the agency's policy-makers and chief administrators. When a manager is being selected or hired, job qualifications should include experience with the agency, one like it, or the criminal justice system; in addition, service as a volunteer program director is also a factor to be considered. It is also desirable to select a program manager who is familiar with the community from which the volunteers will be drawn.

CONTINUED

If the program is going to use 30 to 50 volunteers or more, then a fulltime director/coordinator is suggested. With fewer than 30 volunteers, a half-time manager should be adequate. For five to ten volunteers, a volunteer should be able to direct the program or a current staff member can absorb the program management responsibilities.[8]

Because the director/coordinator spans the boundaries between the law enforcement agency, the volunteers, and the community at large, he serves as a crucial linking pin. As a controller of communication, this person plays a major role in dispelling the myths about elderly volunteers which can prevent a positive program experience.

CONCLUSION

Implementing a volunteer program involves three major phases: planning, initiation, and monitoring. The program manager plays a critical role in coordinating each phase of program implementation. The planning phase, which establishes the scope and purpose of the volunteer program, involves two steps: first, a needs and climate assessment, and second, a detailed program design. Once these steps are completed, work can begin on the initiation phase of the implementation process.

The initiation phase addresses the actual preparatory activities to involve older volunteers with staff. Program development activities in this process include orientation sessions for full-time employees, and recruiting, selecting training and placement of older volunteers. Interventions, or how various problems are handled, or not handled, in these early stages of program implementation can have a strong impact on the program's future. As the program continues, the need for more formal and regulated monitoring arises.

During the monitoring phase, record-keeping systems and evaluation designs are established. This material is essential for management and future planning purposes.

In addition to the planning, initiation, and monitoring functions, the director/coordinator of volunteer services must also be able to make decisions, motivate staff and volunteers, coordinate their work efforts, communicate with them and delegate authority to them. The program manager must develop the flexibility needed to skillfully respond to many different types of situations.

SUMMARY

Careful planning must precede the implementation of the volunteer program

Program implementation requires a great deal of effort and involvement on the part of many people; because so many people are involved, the volunteer program must be planned carefully. The planning process establishes the nature and scope of the volunteer program within the agency and involves a consideration of the agency's needs along with actually designing the program. This process involves four major principles: (1) It should define the scope and purpose of the volunteer program; (2) The scope of the planning process and the time involved should reflect the resources which can be allocated to the program; (3) Planning activities should begin by focusing on a few activities at a time; and (4) The planning process should involve the agency's chief administrators.

If the agency expects its volunteer program to be successful in the long run, then agency officials must carefully monitor program activities in order to detect and deal with problems as soon as they surface.

Program administrators must establish procedures to maintain records and program data in order to manage and evaluate the program and plan for the future. The main thrust of the monitoring phase is the development of a data base and information system which will enable the program director to know: (1) The who, what, when, where, and how of daily program activities; (2) Whether these operations are in conformance with the program design; and (3) Whether the program is accomplishing its goals and objectives. Record-keeping represents the cornerstone of a good evaluation plan. However, before a record-keeping system is established, administrators must clearly formulate the purposes of program evaluations. Once evaluations are conducted, the results must be acted upon and problems which have been identified should be resolved.

The absence of strong management for the volunteer program can result in program failure.

The volunteer program coordinator plays a critical role in overseeing the program. Sound management principles must be applied throughout the program planning, initiation, and monitoring processes. The program manager must develop the flexibility needed to skillfully respond to many different types of situations and people. The interpersonal skills of the program manager become increasingly relevant as the program recycles itself.

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LESSON FOUR
RECRUITING, SELECTING AND PLACING OLDER VOLUNTEERS

The process of recruiting, selecting, and placing volunteers must be an ongoing activity in an agency which takes advantage of volunteer services. Otherwise, the agency's programs stagnate from a lack of adequate personnel. When recruiting, selecting, and placing older volunteers, the manager of volunteer services should attempt to mesh individual needs with organizational goals in such a way that the volunteers can fulfill their needs by doing the agency's work.

There are seven "key steps" involved for a police or sheriff's department in recruiting, selecting, and placing older volunteers. These "steps" involve:

1. Developing contacts with resource agencies;
2. Developing personal contacts with candidates;
3. Conducting an orientation and informational meeting;
4. Accepting formal applications for volunteer service;
5. Interviewing volunteer candidates;
6. Conducting a pre-service training and screening process; and
7. Placing the volunteers within the agency.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES

The law enforcement agency should be selective in its use of time when it is recruiting and placing volunteers—otherwise, this process can become very time consuming. For example, it is too time consuming for the agency to attempt to recruit by using the general media. Issuing broad and vague appeals in the various media will produce a large number of people who want to be volunteers, but most of them won't meet the agency's needs. Such a generalized public appeal also places a burden upon agency personnel who must screen and train the potential volunteers. The best recruiting method is to draw upon outside resource agencies which can assist in attracting and selecting the types of volunteers the law enforcement agency needs. The director of the law enforcement agency's volunteer program should establish contacts with individuals who deal with older persons on a face-to-face basis.

Another source of assistance in the recruiting process is the older volunteers themselves. Older volunteers will be able to help recruit other older volunteers—happy, productive volunteers are the program's best recruiters. The enthusiasm older volunteers generate about their work and the law enforcement agency staff make them effective recruiters, especially since it is a relatively new idea to allow older volunteers to work in law enforcement agencies.

While recruiting older volunteers, law enforcement agencies should assure them that they will be accepted and made to feel wanted by the agency personnel with whom they will work. The significance and the challenge of the work should also be highlighted. *The quality of the volunteer program itself is an important recruiting attraction.*

The law enforcement agency volunteer program manager should identify a variety of specific job assignments prior to initiating a recruiting drive; in addition, he should also determine how many volunteers he needs to recruit. Before asking for a commitment from the prospective volunteers, they should be taken on a tour of the law enforcement agency so that they can understand the agency's operations and needs—many older persons have never been inside a police station and their total concept of what a police station is like comes from watching television "cop shows". It is best for the agency to show these older persons the inside of a real police department *before* they commit themselves to the volunteer program.

If it is possible, recruiting efforts should focus on forming groups of older volunteers who can work together on the same day and at the same time. This provides opportunities to enhance the personal and social relationships valued by older persons. It is best to recruit an older volunteer for a specific assignment and for a specific period of time—not to exceed one year — an agreement which can then be terminated or renewed by mutual consent. A "people" file should be established to provide a source of volunteers or volunteer references to meet future needs.

The recruitment and placement process should move as quickly as possible to involve older persons in volunteer work at the height of their interest and enthusiasm. At the same time, the recruitment process should be continuous, not sporadic, in order to establish new groups, expand existing ones, and maintain a high level of participation. Older volunteers are available almost anytime of the year, but concentrated recruiting drives should not be held during the holiday seasons when everyone is involved in other plans and activities.

RECRUITING, SELECTING, AND PLACING VOLUNTEERS

Step One: Contact Resource Agencies. Initiative is the key to a successful recruiting effort. Volunteers must be sought out. One of the better methods of finding potential volunteers is for the law enforcement agency's volunteer program coordinator or director to write a letter to service agencies, businesses, and civic organizations which are involved in regular face-to-face contact with elderly persons. The letter lets the directors of these agencies or organizations know that in the next few months the law enforcement agency is going to recruit a certain number of elderly volunteers. In addition, the letter provides a general idea of the kinds of volunteers who will be needed and seeks the names of older persons who can fulfill police department needs.[1]

Some typical groups which have face-to-face contacts with elderly persons on a regular basis include:[2]

- Senior citizen centers;
- Retired Senior Volunteer Program (RSVP);
- Social service agencies and public housing departments;

- Area agencies on aging;
- Labor unions and companies with a retired persons club;
- Service Corps of Retire Executives (SCORE):
- Service clubs (which often have retired business men and women as members);
- Retirement villages;
- Bank officers (who may be able to provide leads); and
- Church groups.

A community volunteer coordinating agency, such as a volunteer bureau, may be particularly helpful. As an organized service, the volunteer bureau is able to generate more publicity and reach more groups and, as a central coordinating service, it often is able to match a volunteer's skills with the most suitable job.

In some instances, it may be necessary for the law enforcement agency's volunteer program director to make presentations to these groups. These presentations should focus on the work to be done and the kinds of older volunteers who are needed. Blanket recruiting messages should be avoided to prevent people from volunteering for the wrong reasons.

The resource agencies may also be a source of other program support for the law enforcement agency—in some cities they offer to provide additional finances and sponsorship.

Step Two: Develop Personal Contact With Recommended Candidates. When the directors of the various resource agencies have responded with their recommendations, the law enforcement agency's volunteer program coordinator should write a letter to each recommended older person who seems to be a possibility. If appropriate, the letter can mention who suggested his name. This letter should explain that the law enforcement agency is recruiting a number of volunteers and the person is invited to an orientation meeting and public discussion of the proposed program.

Step Three: Sponsor Orientation-Information Meeting. At the orientation and public information meeting, the volunteer program is explained—preferably by a uniformed officer. A tour of the department's headquarters should be provided at this time. If the volunteer program itself is already operational, it should be a focal point of the tour. The orientation meeting will serve as a further weeding-out process; generally, if the presentation is effective, 40 to 60 percent of the people attending the meeting will want to volunteer to participate in the program. Those who wish to consider participation should be handed a "Volunteer Program Information Sheet." The volunteer program coordinator should allow the participants time to examine the sheet and ask questions if they have any. He should explain volunteer opportunities clearly so that the prospective volunteers can make a choice. A time limit should be set for returning the sheet on which the prospective volunteer indicates his assignment preferences. There should be adequate time for questions and answers at the orientation meeting.

Step Four: Receive Formal Applications for Service. Older volunteer candidates should be provided with a sufficient amount of time to think over the matter of volunteering, to work out their own feelings about it, and to justify accepting the volunteer opportunity. They might need time to convince relatives and friends that participation in the program will be worthwhile for them; in some cases, adverse reactions from friends and relatives will cause the prospective volunteer to drop out.

VOLUNTEER PROGRAM INFORMATION SHEET

Application Number _____

Name (Mr.
(Mrs. _____ Date _____
Miss

Address _____ Apt. No. _____

City _____ State _____ Zip Code _____

Telephone: (Home) _____ (Business) _____

Social Security Number _____ - ____ - _____   Age: Under 21 _____   21-45 _____
                                                          45-60 _____   60 + _____

Present work _____

_____

If retired, former occupation and position _____

_____

_____

Special interests and skills _____

_____

_____

Any special physical limitation or needs as a volunteer _____

_____

_____

When would you be available (days and time of day) _____

_____

Ways in which you would like to serve as a volunteer _____

☐   ☐
☐   Other _____
                     Do you object to background check?

Emergency contact person _____

_____

Why did you apply to work _____

_____

Any other information or comments _____

_____

_____

_____
Signature

_____
For Office Use Only

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Many unforeseen circumstances can prevent an interested older person from sending in his formal application within the set time limits. For those who fail to respond before the deadline, the program coordinator should write a letter saying that he is sorry they did not respond in time. He should ask if they are still interested and seek a new commitment. The coordinator should ask them to write back and he might want to enclose a stamped, addressed envelope. If these persons respond favorably, the program coordinator should follow up with another letter letting them know that there will be other opportunities and that he will be back in touch later. He should follow up on this promise.

Step Five: Interviewing Volunteer Candidates. Those persons who formally apply as volunteers by filling out the "Volunteer Program Information Sheet" should be invited to an interview, which should be structured with both the needs of the agency and the individual in mind.

The interview process involves three steps: pre-interview preparation, during-interview activities, and post-interview decisions.

A. Pre-interview preparation: An interviewer, particularly one who has little experience with this process, must become familiar with the purpose of an interview and the techniques and qualities of a good interviewer. Inexperienced interviewers often may feel uncomfortable screening elderly volunteers because they feel it is inappropriate to interrogate people who are volunteering their services. When the interviewer feels this way, then only the most casual and superficial interviews are conducted. *However, blind acceptance and inappropriate placement of volunteers in an agency can do more harm than good for everyone concerned.*

The basic goal of the interview process is to select and place those volunteers who are most clearly suited to the jobs or tasks which the agency needs to have performed. This requires that the interviewer understand the jobs or tasks which the volunteer will do and the requirements or qualities needed to perform them. In order to accomplish this, the interviewer must:

1. Get to know the volunteer as a complete person; and

2. Convey to that person the essential facts about the agency and the job or jobs which are available.

There are a few general guidelines which can always be applied when interviewing elderly volunteer candidates. The most basic is to always be concerned about the individual candidate as a person, not as an object to do a job for the agency. It is necessary for the interviewer to listen attentively and hear accurately what the volunteer has to say. The interviewer's attitude toward the volunteer candidate will determine the *quantity* and *quality* of the information which the candidate discloses. In addition, a positive personal attitude will help to establish and maintain a favorable rapport, which is a crucial requirement for a good interview.

Adequate time without interruptions is another prerequisite for a good interview. Sensitivity to the comfort needs of older persons should be taken into account. This may be a simple matter of arranging seating close enough for easy hearing, shutting out outside noises as much as possible, or arranging chairs so that the older person does not face the sun streaming through a window, bright light, or glare.

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Awareness of his own personal biases is also important to the interviewer. An interviewer's personal dislike of certain types of volunteers because of their style of dress, appearance, behavior, and so forth should be held in check and not allowed to influence the conduct of the interview or subsequent decision-making. Interviews should not be conducted in a mechanical fashion using the same manner and pattern—each interview should be tailored to the individual volunteer. However, there are certain basic steps which the interviewer should follow at the beginning of the interview:

1. Perform introductions and express appreciation for the volunteer's visit and interest in the program.

2. Explain the purpose of the interview—match the volunteer's interests and schedule with the agency's needs.

3. Have the volunteer complete any short forms, if necessary.

4. Start with broad, open questions to get the volunteer to talk. Questions should start with *what, why, where, who,* or *how;* the interviewer should avoid questions which could be answered with a short yes or no.

The interviewer should set a time limit in advance for the interview, usually not to exceed one-half hour. Those older persons who are lonely or isolated may tend to hold onto the interview because the personal contact and attention means a lot to them.

Perhaps the most difficult yet interesting aspect of conducting a good interview is the establishment of rapport, or open communication, with the interviewee. Invariably, some interviewers seem to do this better than others. They seem to have certain qualities that are helpful in interviewing volunteers. Some of these desirable characteristics have been identified and include:[3]

- Ability to converse easily with a stranger;

- Acceptance of people;

- Skill in observing or sensing other people's reactions, attitudes, concerns, and personality traits;

- Ability to speak clearly and explain matters in simple terms;

- Capacity to recognize individual strengths and potentials;

- Familiarity with the volunteer program; and

- Ability to guide the conversation efficiently without sacrificing sensitivity or purpose.

B. *During-interview Activities.* Once the preliminary introductions are over and some rapport has been established, the activities of the interviewer fall into two general categories.

First, in order for the volunteer to be fully informed, the interviewer should tell the volunteer about:

1. The agency or department's organizational structure and function;

2. The role and place of the volunteer in the agency and the particular tasks that will be performed;

3. The relationship between the volunteer's service and the total services provided by the agency; and

4. The areas of volunteer and staff responsibility.

Second, in order to determine the suitability of the volunteer for the job, the interviewer must ask questions about the motivation, interests, skills, abilities, and personality of the volunteer. In addition to obtaining the necessary biographical information about the volunteer's experience and job skills, the interviewer must assess his motivation to work, his attitudes and values about the specific job, his emotional stability, his work habits, and his interpersonal relations with others in the work setting. Insights into such factors can be gained through the use of non-directive questions which allow the volunteer to decide what the content of the answer should be. Some examples of non-directive questions are:

1. What would you consider the ideal volunteer job for you?

2. What have you enjoyed most in previous volunteer assignments? What have you enjoyed least?

3. What kind of supervision do you prefer?

During this process, it is important for the interviewer to avoid some of the more common *errors* made by interviewers, such as:[4]

1. Making decisions too early in the interview;
2. Failing to understand or describe the job in sufficient detail;
3. Letting the pressure of duties shorten the interview time;
4. Doing more talking than is necessary; and
5. Failing to direct the interview.

As the interview progresses, the interviewer should attempt to get an impression of the volunteer's personality, especially as it relates to the tasks that are to be performed. It is often helpful to have some sort of structured form which reflects a profile of the particular worker characteristics preferred for the job. For example, "must like to work alone" may be an important consideration. This form then can be used as a guide in conducting the interview and assessing the interviewee on the relevant dimensions required for the job. If there is a great discrepancy between the preferred job characteristics and what the volunteer has expressed or what the interviewer has observed, then there is less likelihood that the volunteer would be suitable for the job. The possibilities of mutual dissatisfaction later on are increased.

C. Post-interview Decisions. After the interview has been completed, the interviewer must make a decision concerning the prospective volunteer. Assuming that the volunteer interviewee has not, during the course of the interview, decided against becoming further involved in the program, a decision must be made on whether or not to continue with the volunteer's application. Volunteers who are clearly unsuited for the position should be thanked for applying and informed that they can't be used. This should be done with consideration and sensitivity. An explanation of "why" should be provided if the volunteer wants to know. If an immediate decision to reject the applicant has been made, the interviewer should not hide the fact with responses such as, "We will get in touch later when we can use you." If the decision is to continue with the volunteer's application, then arrangements should be made to provide additional orientation and pre-service training. In some instances, if an outstanding volunteer is encountered who doesn't fit the requirements of the available job, then consideration should be given to *creating a job* to fit the person. However, such a job should still be responsive to both the needs of the agency and the volunteer.

Step Six: Conducting A Pre-Service Training And Screening Process. If the interview session has been successful, then the volunteer candidate should be provided with pre-service training as soon as possible. Depending upon the complexity of the job to be performed, this may be as simple as a probationary—or "try-out"—period on the job. Or the agency might want to establish a formal training program for several volunteers. A combination of both procedures may also be used.

The purpose of the preliminary training or probation period is to obtain a true idea of whether or not the placement will work out. It should be made clear to the volunteer that this is part of the selection process and that the older person should not feel obligated to continue if he finds the training or job is not to his liking. It should also be made clear that, based upon the volunteer's performance, a decision will be made by law enforcement officials at the end of the training or probationary period on whether or not to use the volunteer and in what job. If the training program sets standards of performance, it is easier to release those volunteers who turn out to be unsuited for the job.

After the training or probationary period is over, a follow-up interview with the volunteer should be held to discuss both his own decision and that of the agency. Volunteer feedback at this time can help to improve the pre-service training program itself. The follow-up interview also involves the older volunteer in a participative decision-making process concerning his job placement.

Step Seven: Placing The Volunteer Within The Agency. Throughout the recruiting and selection procedure there will be certain points in the process where it becomes obvious that some volunteer candidates will not work out. Often the elderly volunteer will be the first to recognize this and drop out. If so, the volunteer program coordinator should not dissuade him. However, other unsuitable candidates will not be so perceptive and they must be "de-selected." This is difficult to do because a free gift of time and help has been offered and is being rejected. The volunteer who is rejected may develop feelings of inadequacy toward himself or hostility toward the program or law enforcement agency.

When the need for termination arises, honesty and courtesy is the best approach for the volunteer program coordinator to use. He should emphasize the strengths of the volunteer and discuss other agencies where the volunteer's services might be needed. It is a good idea to have a reciprocal arrangement with other groups which utilize older volunteers. Even if an older volunteer cannot serve

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in police work, he may be suited to the work of another group. The Retired Senior Volunteer Program (RSVP) is one organization that will attempt to place a retired volunteer.

For the volunteer who is accepted into the program, several placement considerations may be relevant depending on the complexity of the program. If there is more than one kind of job which is available, some thought must be given to which job would be best for the individual volunteer. Agency needs or volunteer preference can resolve the matter. If the structured job profiles and interview forms that were discussed in Step Five are used, they may indicate which position is most compatible with the volunteer's characteristics.

In general, the volunteer should not be placed in jobs which are unchallenging and menial compared to his abilities.

Agency personnel and supervisors also should be considered in the placement of the elderly volunteer. Various staff groups create different types of work environments and supervisors vary in their styles of management. If at all possible, elderly volunteers should be placed with those personnel who will be supportive and appreciative of the volunteers' efforts. Some volunteers may work quite well in a busy or crowded environment; others may be at their best working in solitude. Such factors should be taken into account where possible.

A final phase of the entire process consists of following up on those volunteers who have been placed in order to gauge the effectiveness of the selection, training, and placement procedures. Feedback should be obtained both from volunteers who stayed with the job and those who resigned shortly after placement. Information about their experiences while going through the placement process can help the program coordinator revise and improve the recruiting, selection, and placement processes.

CONCLUSION

In general, law enforcement agencies should follow these strategies in recruiting, selecting, and placing volunteers:

- Know what tasks or positions will be filled by volunteers before beginning recruiting and selection processes.

- Engage other groups and individuals in assisting with the process.

- Move as quickly through the recruiting and placement processes as efficiency will allow to capitalize upon an older volunteer's interest and enthusiasm.

SUMMARY

For the law enforcement agency which has established a program utilizing older volunteers, the process of recruiting, selecting, and placing volunteers must be an on-going activity.

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The department should establish a "volunteer pool" in order to have qualified applicants available to fill volunteer program job vacancies. Otherwise, the agency's programs may stagnate from a lack of qualified personnel. Recruiting, selecting, and placing volunteers involves seven key steps; in order for the program to be effective, the director should follow each step in sequence. These key steps include: (1) Developing contacts with resource agencies; (2) Developing personal contacts with candidates; (3) Conducting an orientation and informational meeting; (4) Accepting formal applications for volunteer service; (5) Interviewing volunteer candidates; (6) Conducting a pre-service training and screening process; and (7) Placing the volunteers within the agency.

The employee selected by the law enforcement agency to recruit, interview, and place elderly volunteers must possess special skills and abilities as an interviewer of older persons.

The basic goal of the interview process is to select and place those volunteers who are most clearly suited to the jobs or tasks which the law enforcement agency needs to have performed. This requires that the interviewer understand the jobs or tasks which the volunteer will do and the requirements or qualities needed to perform them. However, it also requires that the interviewer understand how to communicate effectively with older persons, their special needs during an interview situation, and how to establish rapport to elicit information. In addition, the interviewer must be a compassionate person who has the ability to tell a prospective volunteer that his services are being rejected, without appearing cruel—the interviewer must be a person who is sensitive and considerate of the feeling of older volunteers.

REFERENCES

1. For the general framework of the seven steps below and the charts and graphs see National Retired Teachers Association, American Association of Retired Persons, and Action for Independent Maturity, *Widowed Persons Service: Organizational Manual*, Washington, DC: NRTA-AARP, 1973, pp. 23-31.

2. For outreach ideas see Janet S. Sainer and Mary L. Zander, *Serve: Older Volunteers in Community Service*, Committee on Aging, Department of Public Affairs, New York, NY: Community Service Society of New York, 1971, pp. 16-20.

3. This list is partially adapted from Stanley Levin, "How To Interview and Place Volunteers in a Rehabilitation Facility," *Volunteers in Rehabilitation*, Washington, DC: Goodwill Industries of America, Inc., 1973, p. 4.

4. Marlene Wilson, *The Effective Management of Volunteer Programs*, Boulder, CO: Volunteer Management Associates, 1976, p. 125.

LESSON FIVE

SUPPORT AND TRAINING OF OLDER VOLUNTEERS

Successful program operation depends upon the effective utilization and retention of older volunteers. This can be accomplished by providing training and support which is responsive to the needs and concerns of the older volunteers. The older volunteer who feels ill-prepared for the job or unaccepted at work will quit since job satisfaction is of primary importance to the older volunteer, not monetary incentives. Thus, the program's training and support functions have a considerable influence in retaining the older volunteer in the law enforcement agency.

ELEMENTS OF SUPPORT

The underlying purpose of all support activities is the development of a climate which provides a feeling of acceptance and worth to the volunteers. While the provision of support does not necessarily motivate a volunteer to do more productive work, the lack of it may "demotivate" him and have a negative impact upon productivity.[1] Since sources of job satisfaction vary from volunteer to volunteer, each element of support will be more gratifying to some volunteers than to others. However, it is suggested that *all* support elements be developed and utilized in order to provide a comprehensive support system which will have maximum effectiveness in the retention and productivity of the volunteers. Seven "key elements" have been identified; these involve peer interaction, staff interaction, appreciation or acknowledgement, performance evaluation, skills development, security needs satisfaction, and physical needs satisfaction.

Peer Interaction

Confidence-building or mutually supportive relationships with other volunteers are very important to the older volunteer. Volunteers who are close to the retirement transition period (five years on either side of retirement) enjoy having a friendly understanding with others in similar circumstances. Whatever builds possibilities for peer support should be maximized by the volunteer program coordinator. This could include team approaches, cooperative projects, or social events. It could take the form, for example, of organizing several older volunteers to share responsibility for one job position. This will encourage the volunteers to share experiences related to their common assignments as well as provide them with flexibility in the use of the time each commits to the task. Volunteers supporting other volunteers have a "multiplier effect" in terms of satisfaction and productivity.

Staff Interaction

While the provision of peer interaction opportunities can do much to provide the older volunteer with a satisfying work environment, the quality of staff interaction with him plays a critical part in

his productivity and acceptance of his role in the agency. Good relationships between volunteers and paid staff can virtually ensure the maintenance of volunteers in the program. Volunteers are basically people who care; they would not be offering their services otherwise. They expect, in return, the care and concern of their organizers and supervisors. Increasing the skills of staff members who work with volunteers can be more important than training the volunteers themselves. The more capable the front-line staff members become in working with volunteers, the more capable volunteers will become in working with them.

Staff members who make a special effort to know the names of volunteers and something about them personally demonstrate to the older volunteer that he is a valued member of the work group. Small things which staff members can do, such as greeting volunteers in a friendly manner, also can help. Thanking the volunteer for "a job well done" also will be appreciated. When volunteers speak with paid staff members about things not formally related to the program or ask advice on personal matters, this should be looked upon as a measure of the volunteer's respect. It's at informal moments such as these that trust, mutual respect, and support are strengthened.

Acknowledgement and Appreciation

The third support element is the formal and informal acknowledgement or appreciation shown the volunteers by the law enforcement agency. Since volunteers don't take money for their work, a sense of recognition for what they are doing becomes more important. A pat on the back for a job performed correctly demonstrates to the older volunteer that his efforts are being noticed and the results are being appreciated. In a more formal mode, some examples of volunteer reward suggestions, adapted from a manual for court volunteer development, include:[2]

1. Volunteer I.D. cards or lapel pins;

2. A swearing in ceremony;

3. A personal appreciation letter at the beginning of service or after a successful year of service;

4. A volunteer recognition certificate at the end of a term or for outstanding service;

5. "Volunteer-of-the-Month" or "Volunteer-of-the-Year" awards, noted in a program newsletter and/or in the public press;

6. Publicized, "newsy" human interest items about the volunteers in the local media;

7. An honor roll of active volunteers; and

8. Volunteer recognition banquets, usually held about once a year and, less formally, picnics and parties.

More informally, volunteers who are thanked for doing that extra piece of work, or spending that extra hour, know that their efforts are recognized. Asking and then following the advice of the older volunteer is an excellent form of compliment for earlier work done well. Praising the volunteer to other staff members and giving the volunteer more complex assignments also can serve as effective forms of recognition.

Performance Evaluation

Volunteers need to know honestly how they are doing. They also need to communicate their feelings and suggestions for the improvement of the program to their supervisors. Regularly scheduled review periods to examine progress and needed improvements provide support for both the volunteer and the program.

The review can take place in a conversation in which both the volunteer and his supervisor discuss how the volunteer has done and what he can do to improve his performance. The volunteer should be free to express his feelings about the treatment he receives from the supervisor and other leaders in the program. Open conversation of this kind enables feelings to be expressed easily and conflicts to surface and be resolved. The fact that the volunteer's performance is reviewed like that of paid staff members demonstrates to the volunteer the agency's perception that the job demands his best performance.

Skills Development

Insofar as the performance evaluation process serves as a mechanism to demonstrate, in a challenging way, the agency's interest in and concern for the volunteer's work, helping the volunteer to develop new skills serves a similiar function. Supportive supervisors will create an environment in which volunteers are productive because they are constantly stimulated to utilize new skills. To accomplish this function, the supervisor needs to know what skills the volunteer brings to the job through his former work and experience as well as his present hobbies and interests. (A "Volunteer Program Information Sheet"—see Lesson 4 for sample—should be filled out by the volunteer and reviewed frequently by the supervisor"). Because volunteers tend to choose initial assignments in which they feel comfortable, supervisors should be on the watch for new skills as the volunteers master each task they are assigned. Again, it is the stimulation and opportunity for accomplishment which provides the older volunteer with the personal satisfaction necessary for retention in the program.

Security Needs Satisfaction

Retired volunteers often have suffered from a loss of their role and status in life[3]. They may require added encouragement and support in order to assure them that they are needed and wanted by the regular law enforcement force.

Like everyone, they fear the unknown and will be insecure if they do not know what to expect or worry about what might happen to them. This is especially true when the volunteers first begin working in the police department. Entry-level volunteers often fear putting themselves in a "bad light" or making a mistake. Sometimes they hesitate to take on new tasks or assignments because they do not know what will be required of them and, because they are afraid to ask for explanations, they worry that they might perform the new task poorly, bringing ridicule upon themselves.

Many of these fears and insecurities can be alleviated through a careful orientation process, through linking the new volunteer with the experienced or "veteran" volunteers, through sensitivity on the part of professional staff, and through allowing each older volunteer to progress at his own pace. Reassurance at times when the older volunteer is hesitant or unsure of his task may alleviate his anxieties and facilitate better performance.

Physical Needs Satisfaction

Taking care of the physical needs of the older volunteer is an important element of support. If the volunteer's physical needs and comforts are seriously neglected, then his morale and productivity suffer.

What physical needs of the older person need special attention? If the older volunteer has no convenient means of transportation, then arrangements should be made to help them avoid the stress of public transportation by providing them with a ride to and from work. A special room set aside in which the volunteers can get together for work, relaxation, or social purposes is another possibility. If the older volunteer serves through the noon hour, providing a hot meal will contibute nutritive as well as social benefits. Such small items as having coffee or tea available free of charge should not be overlooked. Finally, with most retired volunteers who live on fixed incomes, providing them with out-of-pocket expenses will avoid taxing their limited financial resources; if his volunteer service ends up costing the older volunteer money, then this may be a price too high for him to pay and he may have to drop out of the program, even though he is highly motivated.

At its most basic level, the provision of support to older volunteers requires a sincere interest on the part of fulltime employees in the volunteers as people. Staff members, supervisors, and program organizers must be genuinely concerned about the well-being of the older persons who have *donated* their time to fulfill agency needs. If the staff members do not consider the work and workers worthy of their personal involvement, then neither will the volunteers.

AN ONGOING TRAINING SYSTEM

How does a law enforcement agency plan to train older volunteers? Training includes anything that helps to increase the realization of the volunteer's potential.[4] More often than not, training of older volunteers should be informal and personal. As a general rule, a volunteer should start on the job as soon as possible to capitalize on his initial interest and enthusiasm. General orientation sessions should be provided for all volunteers since these sessions are an important component of the recruitment and placement process—they help program coordinators make the correct judgments about the capabilities of each volunteer. It is best to present orientation sessions informally, with formal pre-service training reserved for those situations in which detailed information about the assignment is necessary in order to get the volunteer started on the job.

Once he begins work, the volunteer's training should normally be on-the-job and continuous. Initially the training is related to the specific job but it is gradually broadened to include information about the total law enforcement agency and issues of special concern to older persons. In this way the older volunteers can begin with assignments comfortable to them; then, after some on-the-job experience, they can broaden their horizons and progress to tasks requiring greater responsibility, each at his own pace.

A training system that takes into account these needs has four parts: orientation, pre-service training, in-service training, and performance review training.

Orientation

Orientation begins with the recruiting process and enables the volunteer to take a look at himself and his own skills and at the job that needs to be done. Orientation can include a tour of the agency and should provide opportunties for the candidates to chat informally with present volunteers and staff members. Time should be allotted for the volunteer to discuss his observations with staff members assigned to the orientation program.

What orientation consists of depends upon the kind of job for which the volunteer is being considered. If the volunteer is skilled enough to fill a variety of jobs, it might be useful to let him work briefly on a few different jobs so that a more informed choice can be made about a permanent assignment. Potential volunteers can also spend some time observing staff members at work.

If possible, group meetings involving other potential volunteers should be held so that the candidates can talk with one another and share each other's questions and ideas. The candidates also need to meet with someone who can speak with authority about the law enforcement agency; this will help them clarify their own roles and enable them to develop an understanding of work performed by fulltime employees.

A useful component of an orientation program is to provide volunteers with brief "try-out" experiences in the jobs which they could be performing. This could be done by developing "role-playing" situations related to the jobs: for example, during a training session volunteers could practice greeting clients, working with a supervisor, using the telephone properly, and so forth. For example, if a volunteer finds, through "role playing," that he is uncomfortable answering a telephone, then the supervisor might want to assign him to the crime analysis unit to work on data analysis assignments which do not involve direct contacts with the public.

In summary, orientation sets the stage for later service. It can be quite informal. The volunteer program supervisor should maintain a flexible approach so that whatever he does is in the best interests of both the potential volunteer and the law enforcement agency. The orientation process can include, but not be limited to:

- A tour which includes informal chats with staff members and "veteran" volunteers.

- Brief service in a few jobs or observation of staff members at work.

- Group meetings.

- Practice opportunities with observation and constructive suggestions.

Pre-Service Training

Depending upon the complexity of the jobs to be performed and the extent of orientation training, the agency might also want to provide pre-service training to the older volunteer. If tasks are fairly complex and the orientation experience is narrow in scope, volunteers should be provided with a detailed review of the job by the immediate supervisor and close supervision during the first few days on the job. This training relates to the actual beginning of work—it is at this time that the

volunteer's store of resources and his skills are least known and his feelings of insecurity are most pronounced. Practical and immediate assistance is in order to elicit the volunteer's best efforts.

One technique successfully used in pre-service training is to ask the supervisor, trainer, or an experienced volunteer to hold a conversation with the new volunteer at the conclusion of the first day's work. The purpose of the conversation is to give immediate attention to the solution of problems that have come about as a result of inexperience at the job. Another process involves pairing the new volunteer with a more experienced one. The two go through the first day together and discuss what happened at the end of the day.

Group meetings can also be held to allow volunteers to discuss with one another and with staff members what happened and what could have been done differently. Another method might be to have new volunteers record part of their work, such as a telephone conversation, for a critique later.

Pre-service training involves creatively assisting the new volunteers in an informal manner to resolve the immediate problems that arise on the job. This training should continue until the volunteers have gained enough experience and confidence to function on their own. "Learning by doing" is the best experience when the learning occurs in an environment of acceptance and assistance on the part of the staff members.

In-Service Training

The purpose of in-service training is to increase the volunteer's skills, to keep him from falling into poor work habits, to help him learn newer and better ways to do a job, and to stimulate his desire to assume greater responsibilities.

What opportunities can be utilized for in-service training? Meetings of the volunteers themselves can provide such occasions—the volunteers can share their own ideas about improving job performance. Input sessions of various kinds can be scheduled to enable a staff member or an outside resource person to present ideas relevant to volunteer performance. Staff meetings with the volunteers should not be overlooked; part of the meeting can be used for educational or training purposes.

Volunteers could also be invited to attend meetings of the paid staff members as part of their ongoing training. When outside speakers come into the agency to address the regular force, volunteers could be invited if the topic relates to their work. Opportunities can also be sought in continuing education programs in the community. The main point here is that the volunteer program coordinator must provide regular in-service training opportunities—he should structure a flexible program to assure continuous growth opportunities for the volunteers. If the agency is willing to invest training resources in the volunteers, it demonstrates to them the value of their continuing contribution.

In-service training also should focus on those volunteers who, because they performed well at one level of service, are promoted into positions of more responsibility and complexity. While volunteers often perform just as well in these new roles, there is no guarantee that they will, especially if they are called upon to serve as supervisors in their new job. Providing some type of transition training can be very helpful under these circumstances. If the new assignment involves *completely*

different tasks and functions for the volunteer, then the orientation, pre-service and in-service steps previously discussed should be followed again—this new training program can be instituted while the volunteer continues on his present assignment.

Performance Review Training

A final type of training which can be provided to volunteers is based upon an evaluation of the volunteer's performance and the types of orientation, pre-service, and in-service training he received. As such, it is part of the feedback process. Its purpose is to improve the performance of both the program and the volunteer.

As training, the performance review process allows the supervisor to teach the volunteer the requirements of his assignment. What may have been an academic point during the orientation process or earlier forms of training can now be dealt with from the point of view of actual experience.

Performance review training should be flexible and informal, adapted to the actual conditions of the work setting. It should also be part of the evaluation process. For example, those volunteer assignments which require little more than general orientation prior to service (e.g., typing and filing tasks) should be evaluated at the end of two weeks as part of the placement process. Incorporated into this evaluation should be explanations and demonstrations of those activities or roles that may have been issues or problems for the older volunteer. A friendly supervisor should be available to explain things, give feedback, and encourage good work.

Periodic review and feedback meetings should be held at regular intervals, perhaps quarterly. Where appropriate, an individual work plan, based upon the responsibilities of the written job description, should be agreed upon at the beginning of a work quarter and reviewed three months later. If the assignment consists of routinely recurring tasks, the job description itself can be the basis of review.

The review process enables the supervisor to provide feedback to individual volunteers on how they are doing and additional instructions on how they can improve their performance. It gives the supervisor an opportunity to listen to the volunteer's suggestions.

After individual review and feedback meetings, it may be helpful for the supervisor to hold a group meeting for volunteers who have similar work assignments so that they can share work plans and feelings about how activities can be improved. The supervisor should also consider this a learning experience for himself.

Periodic review training will result in an improvement in the volunteer's knowledge, skills, and job performance. It also offers some other benefits, such as:

• Reinforcing the volunteer in tasks which he is performing currently.

• Suggesting the need for redesigning present assignments or creating new ones as the result of volunteer performance.

- Indicating the need for terminating or transferring the volunteer, or preparing a volunteer for higher responsibilities.

- Helping the supervisor learn how he can work more effectively with the volunteers.

Whatever type of training is offered, an evaluation of the training itself should be part of the process. As problems or shortcomings in the training program are identified, new training objectives should be developed; in addition, necessary changes should be made in the curricula, methods, or instructors; and the revised training should be instituted. As part of the training program evaluation process, it is helpful to know:[5]

1. The emotional reactions and feelings of the volunteers;

2. The usefulness, value, and clarity of the information provided;

3. The effectiveness of trainers and the group processes utilized; and

4. Suggestions for future sessions and general comments.

CONCLUSION

Maintaining volunteer effectiveness requires support and training. Included in the provision of support are the following elements:

1. Effective peer support among the volunteers themselves;

2. Promoting good relationships among volunteers and paid staff;

3. Showing appreciation to volunteers and providing them with a sense of accomplishment;

4. Letting volunteers know how they are doing and giving them the opportunity to express their own feelings and suggestions;

5. Providing volunteers with additional responsibility when they are ready for it;

6. Satisfying the needs of volunteers for encouragement and security in their work; and

7. Taking care of the physical needs of older volunteers.

An ongoing training program will take into account the needs of older volunteers, including informal approaches and development at their own pace. Such training will include these four elements:

1. Orientation beginning with recruitment and terminating with the successful placement of a volunteer in an assignment;

2. Pre-service training which assists new volunteers with immediate problems that arise on the job, until enough experience is gained to function on their own resources;

3. In-service training which provides opportunities to learn better ways of doing a job, as well as preparation for transition to new tasks; and

4. Performance review training which allows evaluation, instruction and reinforcement on the basis of experience gained in the performance of the job.

SUMMARY

In order to retain the older volunteer, the law enforcement agency must provide support and training which is responsive to the needs and concerns of the volunteers.

Successful program operation depends upon the effective utilization of older volunteers. The program's training and support functions have considerable influence in retaining the older volunteer in the law enforcement agency. Key elements of support include: peer interaction, staff interaction, appreciation or acknowledgement, performance evaluation, skills development, security needs satisfaction, and physical needs satisfaction. The underlying purpose of these support activities is the development of a climate which provides a feeling of acceptance and worth to the volunteers.

An on-going training program should take into account the needs of the older volunteers for informal approaches and for development at one's own pace.

The training program should contain four essential elements: (1) Orientation which begins with recruitment and terminates with the successful placement of a volunteer in an assignment; (2) Pre-service training, which assists new volunteers with immediate problems until enough experience is gained to function on their own resources; (3) In-service training, which is a flexible program of opportunities to learn better ways of performing a job and preparation for transition to new jobs; and (4) Performance review training, which allows evaluation, instruction, and reinforcement on the basis of experience gained in the performance of the job.

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3. Margaret E. Hartford, *The Senior Years: Working With Older Adults In American Life: A Mini-Text*, prepared for Older Americans Volunteer Program pp. 13-15.

4. See Stanley Levin, "How to Prepare Volunteers To Help in a Rehabilitation Facility," *Volunteers in Rehabilitation*, Washington, DC: Goodwill Industries of America, Inc., 1973, pp. 25-35.

5. Wilson, *op. cit.*, p. 150.

RESOURCE PROGRAMS:

MODELS AND CURRENT CASES

RESOURCE PROGRAMS:

MODELS AND CURRENT CASES

The time has probably already passed when police administrators can argue productively about whether it is better to use a trained professional or a volunteer to carry out a new program. Most of the evidence appears to be in on that question. The answer is: if the criminal justice system had sufficient money and personnel to use trained professionals for *all* its projects, that would be preferable. The stinger is that the money and the manpower aren't there. The real choice that has to be confronted today, therefore, is between performing a new task with volunteers or not attempting it at all.

This section of the manual provides information about a large variety of ways in which volunteers, most notably older volunteers, have been used to implement new programs in cooperation with law enforcement agencies.

The following pages present ten model resource program types and seven detailed case reports. This material is provided so that informed decisions can be made about the relative benefits and difficulties involved with implementing a particular type of program. Space limitations demand that entries be kept brief, but an attempt has been made to identify the pros and cons of various types of programs.

In each case, the model program type is first described in terms of its overall structure and purpose. Specific program goals are identified. Operations of either a typical or exemplary program of that type are described in some detail. Roles performed by volunteers are identified, and certain limitations or problems that might be anticipated are called to the reader's attention. In most cases, three or more actual examples are reported where program variations have been used at different law enforcement agencies. The police departments involved are identified in order to provide resources for contact if more information is desired. Finally, a selection of references or recommended readings is provided which includes information relevant to each model resource program type.

DEFINITIONS

Differences of opinion about definitions are to be expected. The special characteristics of each model resource program type are discussed in the first few paragraphs of each section, but opinions

about proper classification may vary. It is conceded, for instance, that Operation Identification as a program type could both fit under Crime Prevention Education and Security Surveys as a program type could both fit under Crime Prevention Education and, perhaps all three could be bracketed under still another label. Categories have been selected here with an eye toward whether or not a sufficient amount of useful information can be conveyed by focusing attention at that particular point. In other words, a degree of scholarly precision has been sacrificed in order to be a little more useful.

The model resource program types that will be discussed are:

- Operation Identification (a seed program)
- Security Surveys
- Community Crime Prevention Education
- Crime Reporting Programs
- Neighborhood Surveillance and Patrols
- Protective Senior Escort Service (a seed program)
- Health and Personal Security Programs (seed programs)
- Victim/Witness Assistance
- Court-Watching
- Direct Police Support Services

Reference to a "seed" program in the above list means that a program has certain characteristics that make it particularly useful as an instrument to introduce new participants to additional crime prevention activities and programs.

Following this presentation of model resource program types are seven Case Reports. These reports provide more detailed information about operating characteristics of law enforcement agencies that have made notable commitments in terms of developing volunteer assistance programs.

Case Reports are provided for the following law enforcement agencies:

- Jacksonville, Florida (Duval County)
- Pinellas County, Florida
- Huntington, West Virginia
- Sun City, Arizona (Maricopa County)
- San Diego, California
- Santa Ana, California
- Cottage Grove, Oregon

Each Case Report is linked to development of a particular type of community involvement or crime prevention program. The Case Reports also help to make clear that the best programs are multifaceted, incorporating elements from several program types in order to adapt to and derive the optimal benefit from local conditions.

BENEFITS OF USING OLDER VOLUNTEERS

We have heard about the "graying" of America. People live longer now. They remain active longer. Despite the fact that there are many isolated and destitute elderly citizens, it is also true that

much of the nation's wealth, knowledge, and political influence is controlled by the nation's senior citizens. Law enforcement agencies can expect increasing pressure to provide improved services to the elderly. In order to accomplish this mission, most agencies will have to make use of the energy and resources made available by elderly volunteers.

Volunteers require training, supervision, and a substantial amount of personal attention. Since the older volunteer is either unpaid or receives only nominal compensation, intangible rewards are important. He must be praised frequently. The volunteer must be told that his efforts are recognized and appreciated. Programs that utilize volunteers should also be structured to include opportunities for social activities.

In return for this attention, older volunteers provide numerous tangible benefits to the law enforcement agency. Some are listed below:

- Cost effectiveness. Money saved by using volunteers can be channeled into high impact expenditures.

- Manpower effectiveness. Sworn personnel may be relieved of routine chores to perform more professionally satisfying functions.

- One trained police officer, acting as trainer/supervisor for a volunteer group, can multiply his effectiveness.

- Crime reporting increases in response to community programs.

- Arrests and convictions may increase as the community becomes more alert to the needs and demands of the criminal justice system.

- Attitudes about crime in the community change as volunteers become less fearful and more responsible in security matters.

- Police department prestige increases as community leaders turn to law enforcement professionals for guidance and support.

OBSTACLES

None of the benefits just listed happen automatically. Obstacles must be overcome. For instance, planners worry about two fundamental attributes of volunteer performance. There is concern over volunteer competence and concern over volunteer perseverance.

Since competence is a product of training and supervision, this obstacle can be overcome by attending to those matters. Perseverance, on the other hand, is a product of organization. Sufficient opportunities for emotional and social rewards must be provided to keep the volunteer on the job. While both obstacles can clearly be overcome, the implication is that a certain amount of professional guidance will be required if the law enforcement agency expects to receive all the possible benefits of the volunteer group. Conversely, a volunteer organization that is left entirely on its own,

without any police commitment of support or guidance, stands a very good chance of failing to clear the competence or perseverance hurdles.

In more practical terms, two more important areas of concern can produce obstacles for volunteerism: (1) police labor unions; and (2) liability problems.

Superficially, volunteerism appears to run contrary to the modern trend toward police unionism. Actually, volunteers often make it possible for professional police officers to be more effective by extending the outreach of the department. Volunteers also create opportunities for sworn officers to do the kind of work that they prefer. The planning of a volunteer program, however, should involve police union representation, and officers should be assured that the program is intended to enhance and extend current capabilities, not to displace personnel.

The liability issue worries many police administrators. Some police planners are inclined to turn a deaf ear to the potential of volunteer assistance programs because they fear that a volunteer may do something, through ignorance or infirmity, that could create a catastrophic loss for the police department. The trigger word is "liability." What if, during the course of working with the police, a volunteer should become injured or maimed? What if, through unprofessional conduct, the volunteer injured or otherwise damaged another citizen? Suppose the normal operations of the department were in some way temporarily disrupted? Suppose citizens started bringing lawsuits against the police department? These are frightening thoughts.

They seem even worse than they really are because they involve matters that lie outside the career experience of most law enforcement officials. Fortunately, experience about liability risk management is available from insurance companies. The same kind of liability problems posed by police volunteers are faced every day by hospitals, manufacturers, utilities, and various service industries.

The answer is simply this: volunteers do not represent entirely free labor. If you want to use 10 or 12 volunteers, you will probably have to set aside enough to pay at least one full-time salary in order to cover your liability risks. That will be accomplished through the terms of some kind of limited group liability policy. Check into who provides insurance coverage for the largest hospital in your community. How about the largest industrial firm and the local newspaper? Haggle with the insurance man if you like, and get some legal advice. But, in the end, buy the policy. Then settle back and enjoy your volunteers.

MODEL RESOURCE PROGRAM TYPES

Operation Identification
Security Surveys
Crime Prevention Education
Crime Reporting Systems
Neighborhood Surveillance and Patrols
Protective Senior Escort Service
Health and Personal Security
Victim/Witness Assistance
Court-Watching
Direct Police Support Services

OPERATION IDENTIFICATION

DESCRIPTION

Operation Identification is a well known crime prevention activity which was initiated, at least in a formal sense, at Monterey Park, California, in 1963. Since then, the Operation Identification program has been publicized periodically by national law enforcement organizations and has been incorporated into a variety of regional and local crime prevention efforts. Special support for this program is now provided by the National Sheriffs' Association, 1250 Connecticut Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C.

Operation Identification is essentially a property marking program which is designed to discourage burglary by rendering stolen property more easily identifiable. At locations where property has been marked, a decal is displayed which announces that the owner is participating in the Operation Identification program.

Operation Identification is usually included as part of most "target hardening" packages made available to concerned citizens. Certain characteristics of the program, however—most notably its capacity to utilize volunteers effectively—make it particularly useful as a "seed" program. In this context, the basic Operation I.D. program is used to stimulate citizen interest in crime prevention and to recruit participants into additional crime prevention programs.

PROGRAM GOALS

Goals of a typical Operation Identification program might be summarized as follows:

1. To reduce the incidence of property theft in an affected area by reducing the ease with which stolen property can be resold.

2. To discourage theft of marked property by increasing the likelihood that it can be traced to a legitimate owner.

3. To increase chances for recovery of stolen property by rightful owners.

4. To increase conviction rates of apprehended burglarly suspects by increasing positive identification of property.

OPERATION

The concept of indelibly marking personal property to discourage theft is not a new idea. Animals have been notched or branded for centuries. Machine parts are frequently manufactured with identifying numbers, and printed currencies nearly always bear identifying serial numbers. Operation Identification merely applies this basic principle to the problem of establishing positive identification of stolen property. Such positive identification is required for both successful prosecution and the return of discovered property to a rightful owner.

With local variations, an Operation Identification program is normally conducted in the following way: engraving tools or other appropriate marking instruments are made available, free of charge, to citizens who are interested in protecting personal property. Marking tools are borrowed from such local distribution centers as the police department, a library, a fire station, or the office of a sponsoring civic organization.

Distribution is normally accompanied by a degree of publicity to heighten public awareness of the service during a planned "campaign" period. A certain amount of instruction is provided to the citizen at the time of tool borrowing, either verbally or through literature. This instruction may include operation of the tool and recommended marking locations for various types of property (such as television sets, binoculars, typewriters, etc.). An authorized number is also suggested for use in marking property.

One common variation of this basic procedure requires the concerned property owner only to contact a distribution center, which then schedules or dispatches an operator with marking equipment to the home of the citizen. The engraving is then accomplished by a trained operator on property designated by the owner. The operator/visitor then places the Operation I.D. decal in an appropriate location to deter future burglaries.

VOLUNTEERS

Volunteers may be used at several points during a successful Operation I.D. program. Volunteers may participate in the advertising or public awareness phase of the program as well as in the distribution or operation of engraving equipment. As is the case in many other volunteer programs, the use of older citizens offers particular and special advantages. For example, older volunteers have been useful in the following ways:

- To contact and influence sponsoring or supporting community organizations, such as fraternal clubs or social and civic groups. The older volunteer may have long years of personal association with group members or leaders.

- To conduct door-to-door distribution of program announcement literature, or to make some other form of program announcement, such as might be accomplished at PTA meetings, senior citizen gatherings, or other public assemblies.

- To arrange for informal neighborhood meetings at which persons attending will receive familiarization with Operation I.D. material.

- To staff Operation Identification information booths in local shopping centers or in downtown shopping areas.

- To assist in the routine paper work required for enrollment and orderly progress of the engraving program.

- To operate or control distribution centers where engraving tools are picked up by participating citizens.

- To visit homes of participating citizens in order to mark designated property. Even basic "pickup" programs may be supplemented by home visits by volunteers to residences of elderly or disabled citizens who want to participate.

- To maintain property inventory records for the police department which is conducting the property marking system.

In addition to these operational contributions, older volunteers offer a police department certain special benefits that are directly related to mature age. For instance:

Peer Support. The older segment of the population, which may be the segment most vulnerable and needful of the Operation Identification program, may be more communicative and honest with an older volunteer. The older citizen may be reluctant to admit ignorance or lack of understanding before a much younger person, and may refrain from asking important questions. There is some difficulty, for instance, in communicating the court's requirement for positive identification of property before a burglary conviction is possible. The older volunteer may be better able to communicate with his or her peer group, since persons of the same generation may use familiar terminology or share other attitudinal bases for communication. The crime prevention message also enjoys increased credibility when presented by someone of the same peer group.

Leadership. To the degree that older volunteers are well known in the community or are representatives of established organizations, the older volunteer may be perceived as "setting an example" for the community. Also, the volunteer's seniority and greater experience lend credence to his role as advisor to younger participants in the program.

Experience. The older volunteer usually can offer the program more than time and attention. If the person is retired, he brings to the crime prevention program all of the career skills accumulated during a lifetime of work. While it is impossible to anticipate precise benefits in this area, it is a foregone conclusion that the older volunteer's career experience will contribute to his effectiveness.

One form that this benefit takes is a need for minimum supervision. Program directors report that the older volunteer—who may have 25 years in government service or in a sales position—works best as a self-starter. Supervision consists of establishing guidelines and setting program goals. Goal accomplishment is usually left to the imagination and skill of the older volunteer. Using this approach, a Montgomery County, Maryland, program that originally hoped to contact 2,000 Operation I.D. participants ended by reaching 23,000.

LIMITATIONS

A police department that is planning to implement an Operation Identification program will want to be aware of realistic limitations and/or disadvantages experienced by other departments utilizing the same program. Some are itemized below:

- Operation Identification is not a new program. It has been used in various forms by many departments throughout the nation. Consequently, it may suffer from an "old" or "failed" image in a community, particularly if the program was used some years before, then permitted to decline or atrophy, and is now being resurrected for another try. Too much emphasis on Operation Identification's effectiveness could be counter-productive. Generally, it is better to portray (and implement) Operation Identification as *part* of a more comprehensive crime prevention program.

- Lack of a standard "authorized" marking number weakens Operation I.D. as a national crime prevention instrument. Over the years, various localities have used Social Security numbers, telephone numbers, automobile registration numbers, and a variety of other codes that are logged for reference. While it cannot be said that a universally acceptable standard number is used in all cases, the modern consensus appears to favor use of a state driver's license number when one is available. While some property owners do not drive a motor vehicle or may prefer to use a more easily remembered code, such as a Social Security number, the emergence of increased sensitivity to privacy has, in some cases, made identification of discovered property by Social Security number impractical. The driver's license, on the other hand, can be routinely identified by police to locate the name and address of a property owner.

- Property acquired after the initial Operation I.D. marking is frequently left unmarked, which leads to a gradual decline in security coverage as items are replaced. It should be noted that this need for a periodic "booster" campaign can be turned to some promotional advantage when recognized.

- Program evaluation is difficult. Some local studies have determined that homes exhibiting the Operation I.D. decal had substantially lower burglary rates than homes that were not marked. Also, individual property owners have reported lower burglary rates after participating in the program than before that experience. These superficial evidences of success, however, are offset to some degree by findings that burglary rates for an overall area can remain virtually unaffected. At the same time, there is no evidence that property marking has actually facilitated the return of stolen property; nor has it significantly reduced opportunities to fence stolen property.

Given these mixed results, most observers attribute the reduction in burglary rates to the tendency of Operation I.D. participants to become more sensitive to crime prevention needs in general and to build upon the Operation Identification experience to participate in more comprehensive crime prevention programs.

OPTIMAL BENEFIT EXAMPLES

It seems clear that if Operation Identification is best implemented as a separate and single effort, only minimal and temporary benefits can be expected. The program is most beneficial when operated as a "seed" program, attracting participants to additional information and activities.

For instance, Operation Identification creates an opportunity to schedule a residential security survey. The security survey will be the next Model Resource Program Type discussed in this chapter.

With reference to optimal benefits obtained from the use of older volunteers to implement Operation Identification, several examples are available. Three are listed below:

- The St. Petersburg, Florida Office of Crime Prevention has enlisted the assistance of squads of older volunteers. These volunteers, equipped with electric engraving tools and crime prevention literature, have contacted over 20,000 residences, a large proportion of which are occupied by members of the senior citizen population. These older volunteers receive training in residential security evaluation as well as operation of marking equipment. They are, therefore, in a position to conduct a security survey on the spot when an owner is interested. Program leaders expect that peer pressure from these volunteers is a factor in obtaining compliance with security recommendations.

- The Montgomery County, Maryland Police Department uses senior volunteers primarily to assist in promotion of Operation Identification. Four senior volunteers contact civic associations and make a presentation of the program to a leadership group. If the association accepts the program, literature and support materials are made available for distribution to members. Volunteers also carry out marking of property in apartment complexes housing large numbers of elderly or handicapped residents.

- The Police Department at Natick, Massachusetts, provides another example. In this case, an Operation Identification program was carried out almost entirely by a 20-member group of volunteers from the Natick Senior Citizens Center.

Several Operation Identification variations have been developed to stimulate enthusiasm for the program within special interest groups. While these programs may be described as placing old wine in new bottles, the practice does occasionally improve marketability for the program. Variations utilized by various departments and evaluations of effectiveness are included in the following references.

REFERENCES

Title: *Denver—Operation Identification — Final Report*
Author: G.R. Kirchmar, Colorado Div. of Criminal Justice, Denver, Colorado
NCJRS* accession number: 09900.00.045978

This document describes and evaluates the Denver Operation Identification program effected by one program director, one administrative assistant, two team leaders, two clerk typists and nine

engravers. Team leaders were key figures who were responsible for making assignments, conducting surveys, checking inventories, and overall trouble-shooting. While the program failed to accomplish its goals, those goals may have been under unrealistically high. A major variation described here is Project Identification for commercial locations. The purpose of this variation is to reduce theft by employees. Evaluations of this program segment were positive, indicating that thefts and cash value losses were reduced while providing accurate information on stolen items to police. Advertising procedures for introducing the program, accounting methods, and program statistics are included in the report.

Title: *Operation Identification—A Police Prescriptive Package*

Author: T. Zaharchuk and J. Lynch, Office of the Solicitor General of Canada, Ottawa, Ontario

NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.04564

This publication describes the Ottawa Police program including selection of distinctive identification marks, recommended tools, methods used for marking, and promotional techniques. Sample radio commercials are presented. Designs for posters and decals are illustrated. One variation of the basic program was a presentation specially designed for senior citizens. Another was aimed at owners of vacation homes that were frequently burglarized. A final section includes suggestions for other police departments who wish to implement similar programs.

Title: *Evaluation of the Portland Neighborhood-Based Anti-Burglary Program*

Author: A.L. Schneider, Oregon Research Institute, Eugene, Oregon

NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.036499

This neighborhood crime prevention program employed Operation Identification engraving equipment as a "seed" program. Citizens attended meetings to discuss crime prevention techniques, which included the program of engraving possessions and displaying a decal warning. The evaluation assessed the extent of burglary reduction for participating households, and found that homes displaying stickers had lower burglary rates than homes that did not. Program participation also appeared to increase other crime reporting activity by participants.

Title: *Evaluation of Operation Identification—Summary of the Assessment of Operation Identification Effectiveness, and Plans for Evaluating a Single Project*

Author: A.D. Gill, R.A. Kolde, and S.R. Schimerman, Institute for Public Program Analysis, St. Louis, Missouri

NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.028909

This document provides a condensation of the major findings of the study. A plan is also presented for evaluating individual Operation I.D. projects. The plan includes standard data elements to be collected, methods of collection, and suggestions for analyzing and interpreting data.

SPECIAL RESOURCES

The success of any crime prevention program (see introduction to this section) depends on the ability of program leaders to obtain assistance and support from existing community resources.

Financial and personal support should be solicited from service clubs, civic groups, and other community organizations. With particular reference to Operation Identification, some assistance may be available from distributors or manufacturers of engraving equipment, either in the form of discounted merchandise or operational literature. Most notably, special support for participating organizations—including free decals for Operation Identification participants—is provided by the National Sheriffs' Association, 1250 Connecticut Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C.

SECURITY SURVEYS

DESCRIPTION

The security survey is one of the basic programmatic tools that is available to a police department for the purpose of hardening burglary targets and thereby reducing the incidence of the crime within a jurisdiction. It also serves as a point of friendly contact between the police department and ordinary citizens in the community who are concerned about their safety or the security of their possessions.

The security survey, while it may be implemented in numerous ways, remains basically a site inspection. The location is visited by a person who has been trained to detect predictable weaknesses. The site is observed systematically, and observations are recorded by the inspector. Normally the survey concludes with certain recommendations being made for improvements. The same process might be followed for purposes of increasing fire protection or evaluating the property's true market value. In this case, the survey is directed toward reducing the chance of burglary or other criminal entry at the inspected site.

Within the context of crime prevention programs, the security survey is frequently linked to Operation Identification programs. The loan of engraving equipment or the scheduling of volunteers to accomplish engraving in the home offers an excellent opportunity to schedule a security survey at the residence.

The premise upon which the security survey program is based states that prospective burglars are attracted to locations where security deficiencies can be observed. The security survey is considered to be a highly effective means for enabling the average citizen to recognize and correct inadequacies in home security before they are observed and acted upon by a prospective burglar.

PROGRAM

Goals of the typical security survey program are virtually synonymous with other "target hardening" efforts. These goals might be summarized as follows:

1. Delay any prospective intruder through the installation of appropriate locks on doors and windows and through observance of fundamental security precautions.

2. Deter the prospective burglar through installation of outdoor lighting, removal of screening and landscape features that might permit unobserved entry, or use of devices that give the home an occupied appearance when it is empty.

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3. Deny the burglar any reward for an illegal entry by keeping valuables out of sight and well protected in areas that cannot be easily violated.

4. Detect any illegal entry into the home through installation of alarm systems, if appropriate.

OPERATION

While police departments in various parts of the nation conduct security surveys in ways that best satisfy their own local needs and are compatible with local resources, a prototype such as the following is generally recognizable.

Whether the initial contact is made by the police, a volunteer, or the concerned citizen, a security survey is scheduled at some future date at a time that is mutually acceptable. Frequently, security surveys will be requested by residents in a neighborhood that is experiencing current difficulties with burglary or other forms of illegal entry. When it is possible to group surveys by neighborhood, by all means do so to avoid unnecessary travel time on the part of the inspector.

The inspector—who may be a police officer, a special service technician, or a trained volunteer—arrives at the location with crime prevention literature and an approved home security checklist. The inspector is accompanied by the homeowner through the residence in order to observe anticipated security deficiencies. When deficiencies are observed, they are recorded on the checklist. Simultaneously, security weaknesses are pointed out to the resident, and specific advice is provided to enable the resident to make appropriate improvements.

Frequently, the inspector brings engraving equipment to the survey site in order to mark property designated by the owner. Alternatively, the marking tool may be borrowed by the resident in order to mark his property after the survey has been completed.

In the best security survey programs, the security checklist used during the survey is then filed in a safe place for a period ranging from 60 days to six months, at which time a "follow-up" contact is made to check on compliance with recommendations. It is the responsibility of the private citizen to carry out recommended improvements at his own discretion. It is not in the role of the security survey inspector to enforce compliance with recommendations, but the "follow-up" contact may be an important impetus to encourage citizen compliance, particularly if inactivity has resulted from simple procrastination or indecision.

VARIATIONS

Security survey programs are normally divided into three general types, which are identified below:

Residential Security Surveys. The inspection is conducted here to identify and correct opportunities for illegal entry onto residential premises. Inspection includes a tour of the interior of the

residence and surrounding grounds, if any. Recommendations are provided on the spot to a concerned resident. The person conducting the survey may or may not assist in making some actual improvements. Use of volunteers as residential survey inspectors is very common.

Commercial Security Survey. An inspection is made of commercial properties, ranging from storefront establishments and office building suites to industrial or manufacturing firms. The purpose of the survey is to minimize opportunities for illegal entry and to reduce opportunities for theft. This might focus on opportunities for shoplifting or removal of heavy equipment or supplies from the premises.

It will be obvious that a degree of specialized knowledge about business loss problems—in addition to general security fundamentals—is helpful in conducting a useful commercial security survey. For this reason, a greater degree of specialization is helpful when available, and the use of volunteers is correspondingly diminished, except in circumstances where a volunteer brings needed skills to the program.

Public Building Security Surveys. Inspection is made of public buildings within the community. The purpose of the survey is to reduce opportunities for theft and illegal entry, and also to minimize the opportunity for vandalism or unauthorized use of property or grounds. Locations might include schools, government offices, controlled assembly areas, and other public property of a local government.

Since virtually all improvements to these properties must be documented through bureaucratic channels, the security survey must be conducted in a "professional" manner, with full attention to technicalities that might obstruct compliance with recommendations. Volunteers are infrequently used for this type of survey, since a great deal of time and expertise are required to complete a single survey.

VOLUNTEERS

Older volunteers have provided invaluable support for hundreds of security survey programs. Some of the services commonly performed by older volunteers are listed below:

- To promote a security survey "campaign" through distribution of literature, either door-to-door or through the intervening support of a community organization or civic association.

- To carry out telephone surveys of selected neighborhoods to encourage scheduling of security surveys during the times when inspectors can be used efficiently.

- To staff a telephone watch maintained to answer calls from concerned citizens who want to schedule security surveys or obtain other crime prevention information.

- To assist with the routine paperwork that is involved in the scheduling of security surveys of all types.

- To conduct residential security surveys, often in connection with other crime prevention activities, such as implementation of an Operation Identification program.

- To conduct commercial security surveys, usually in areas or types of activities that are familiar to the volunteer as a result of career experience.

- To train additional volunteers in the proper methods of conducting a residential security survey.

- To maintain files of site surveys and to make appropriate "follow up" contacts with citizens to check on compliance with recommendations made during the surveys.

LIMITATIONS

Large scale use of security surveys for target hardening and dissemination of crime prevention information nearly always implies utilization of volunteers to conduct surveys. Without volunteer assistance, the security survey program normally becomes a service almost exclusively used by the business community. Residential security surveys represent too great a drain on available police manpower unless supplemented by volunteers.

The security survey volunteer, however, must be a *trained* volunteer. Before deciding to make widespread use of residential security survey, the police department will want to consider the limitations inherent in this type of volunteer program. Some of these are listed below:

- Transportation. Volunteers may be expected to donate time or make it available at minimum expense, but the cost of visiting locations throughout the jurisdiction will have to be borne by the department, or transportation made available for the volunteer.

- Recruit selection. Volunteers used for security surveys must be selected very carefully. They must be intelligent, alert individuals who are capable of making realistic judgments about security needs. Furthermore, the volunteer's character must be appropriate to the role of representing the police department within the homes of private citizens. The department must expend a certain amount of time to carefully screen volunteer candidates who would perform this sensitive task.

- Training. Volunteer survey candidates must be trained. Recognition of security weaknesses constitutes the core of this training, but development of interpersonal communication skills is nearly as important. Ultimately, the fact that the performance of the survey inspector may be an important influence—pro or con—in obtaining compliance is the bottom line. Particular attention must be paid to developing a realistic approach to risk management. Security recommendations made by the inspector must be compatible with the value of property being protected and the ability of the owner to pay for security. Recommending expensive alarm systems to low-income housing residents is not helpful. This training time must be expended at the outset of any successful program.

- Compliance data becomes difficult to handle. Unless someone accepts personal responsibility for maintaining survey records, the normal tendency is to gradually downgrade priorities for handling this material, leaving it vulnerable to any interruption in routine. One study of security surveys determined that less than 20 percent of surveying agencies maintained compliance rate data, and within that 20 percent, definitions of compliance differed.

- Evaluation is difficult. Lacking uniform compliance data, the effectiveness of security survey programs remains unclear. One national evaluation effort (1976) ended by recommending that the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration *not* support a further evaluation of security surveys alone. Instead the funding agency was urged to evaluate the *combined* results of security survey programs, Operation Identification, and crime reporting programs.

OPTIMAL BENEFIT EXAMPLES

Like Operation Identification, a security survey program apparently offers the greatest benefit when incorporated within a broader crime prevention effort. This may include residential security activities as well as techniques more applicable to commercial locations. Since the scope of the security survey depends upon the services of volunteers or service technicians who must be invited into the homes or businesses of citizens, the public acceptance generated by a broad-based crime prevention campaign may be critical for the program's success.

Some examples of ways in which the security survey has been used are listed below:

- The Seattle, Washington Police Department initiated an ambitious crime prevention program, including residential security inspections, in response to a citywide survey which indicated that citizens were more concerned about burglary than any other crime. The program utilized six paid "organizers" and several "home service technicians" who visited residences to make security surveys and to mark property with engraving tools. Participants in the security survey program were encouraged to become active in a Block Watch program that was simultaneously developed. Post-campaign data indicated a 48-to-61 percent reduction in burglaries at inspected households.

- The Cottage Grove, Oregon Police Department conducted an extensive crime prevention program aimed particularly at senior citizens in the community. For this program, four older volunteers were recruited and given special training. These trained individuals then conducted a door-to-door campaign in which crime prevention literature was distributed and residential security surveys were conducted. In addition to identifying security deficiencies, inspectors also informed senior citizens of the many local, state, and federal agencies in the area that provided services or emergency aid to older residents. Survey reports were filed, and one follow-up call was made to each surveyed location.

- A slightly different variation of the security survey was conducted for the Lincoln Guild Housing Corporation, Manhattan, New York City. In this case, through the instrument of an active tenant association, which held meetings to encourage safety rules for residents, a security survey was conducted in a large apartment building and contiguous outdoor areas. The survey resulted in improvements made by the building management, including the addition of outdoor lighting and restrictions to free building entry.

REFERENCES

Title: *Introduction to Security and Crime Prevention Surveys*

Author: A.A. Kingsbury, Charles C. Thomas Publishers, Springfield, Ill.

NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.015238

This book explains the predominant methods and techniques used to conduct security surveys. A framework for security surveys hinges upon the examiner's ability to identify risks and prepare realistic recommendations. Eighty survey examples are provided to show types of problems encountered at manufacturing sites, small businesses, government facilities, private homes, apartments, and shops. Appendix items include specific recommendations classified by type of security violation.

Title: *Crime Prevention Security Survey—National Evaluation Program—Summary Report*

Author: International Training, Research and Evaluation Council, Falls Church, Virginia

NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.034858

The purpose of the national evaluation program was to gather and access information relating to the security survey as a form of community crime prevention. Certain important gaps in knowledge are identified, and areas are suggested for additional research. Future evaluations are suggested in combination with community crime reporting programs and property marking programs. A seven page bibliography is included.

Title: *Crime Prevention, The Citizen and the Security Survey*

Author: C.M. Girard and T.W. Koepsell, California Attorney General's Building Security Commission

NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.041481

This report appeared originally as an article in *Crime Prevention Review*, Vol. 4, No. 2 (January 1977). The purpose of the research was to assess information and prior studies of the security survey program. The report focuses on how security surveys are conducted, how success might be defined in terms of the program goals, and how success of a security survey program might be measured. Certain implications based on existing knowledge are identified, and attention is drawn to new areas for research that would be necessary to support or reject these conclusions.

CRIME PREVENTION EDUCATION

DESCRIPTION

The term "crime prevention" has been the subject of much academic debate. The National Crime Prevention Institute (NCPI) regards crime prevention as ". . . an elegantly simple and direct approach that protects the potential victim from criminal attack by anticipating the possibility of attack and eliminating or reducing the opportunity for it to occur."

Crime prevention, according to NCPI, is a "direct" crime control method, as contrasted with indirect methods such as delinquency diversion, apprehension, court action, imprisonment, and the example set by those activities. Others contend that it is difficult to draw a fine distinction between the concepts of crime prevention and crime control.

Crime prevention education could theoretically include Operation Identification and security surveys, as well as neighborhood surveillance and patrol programs. Such a classification, however, would be purely academic. The purpose of this section is to identify programs that are limited to dissemination of information — as expressed in literature, by a speaker, a film, or demonstration — and distinguish that kind of program from one where the citizen is expected to be more than an interested audience. For instance, the end result of crime prevention education may indeed be to stimulate a citizen to take certain target hardening measures or become involved in some cooperative means of protection, but the education program itself focuses only on dissemination of useful information.

Both NCPI and the Texas Crime Prevention Institute favor a definition of crime prevention based on the philosophy of dealing with crime in a proactive manner. This widely accepted definition characterizes crime prevention as "the anticipation, the recognition, and the appraisal of a crime risk, and the initiation of some action to remove or reduce it."

Crime prevention education programs work to increase citizen awareness of risk, and provide information that can be used to reduce the risk or eliminate it.

PROGRAM GOALS

Goals of a crime prevention education program may be expressed at different levels, some of which are itemized below:

1. To distribute X pieces of literature to X number of households. A purely quantitative goal of this kind might also be expressed as: to give X number of appearances before X number of

community groups, or X number of films or demonstrations at X number of schools. Purely quantitative goals do not sound very idealistic, but a tangible, comparable figure is produced that relates directly to less easily evaluated goals of the education program.

2. To encourage increased membership in more participatory types of crime prevention programs, such as Operation Identification, security surveys, Block Watch, Neighborhood Watch, or other surveillance programs. This goal could be expressed in more general terms as increasing citizen awareness of risk. However, membership figures in related crime prevention programs provides a more tangible goal, although results are obviously affected by the content of the participatory program itself.

3. To reduce citizen apprehension about crime in the community. Apprehension of this type is measureable before and after a crime prevention campaign by use of a simple community survey. When evaluating goal achievement, one must be careful not to measure citizen *awareness* of crime, because this should actually increase. Reduction is sought in feelings of helplessness, frustration, and vulnerability before the perceived crime risk.

4. To reduce the incidence of a specific type of crime in the community, such as rape, burglary, auto theft, etc. The education program, of course, must be designed to emphasize defenses against this particular type of crime.

5. To reduce overall crime rates in an affected jurisdiction. The crime prevention education program, in this case, is assumed to be a contributory factor in goal achievement.

OPERATION

Crime prevention education programs include hundreds of variations in form and content. To some extent, however, the operation phases or segments of this model program type can be discussed in terms of the following general steps:

Supply. The program leader must obtain sufficient quantities of literature, films, or other program aids from a dependable source of supply. This phase includes recruitment of speakers or demonstrators and acquisition of any special equipment that will be required to implement the program.

Support. Sources of financial assistance in the community, sources of volunteers, persons or organizations who can help with mailing, packaging, deliveries, provision of meeting rooms or other facilities should be contacted early in the planning stages of the program.

Promotion. To some extent promotion *is* the program when goals are expressed in terms of public awareness, public attitudes, or public responsiveness. No form of communication should be neglected if possible. Possible options include billboards, posters, bumper stickers, decals, newspaper advertising, newspaper editorial coverage, radio spots, and announcements made at meetings of civic groups and service clubs.

Distribution. With reference to crime prevention education literature, such distribution may include door-to-door campaigns; pickup racks at libraries, bus stations, and cooperating businesses; distribution to members of organizations; or direct mail contacts.

Demonstration. When the education program includes public speaking engagements, film showings, or demonstrations of recommended techniques or methods at public gatherings, all such activities must be carefully scheduled so as to coincide with available supplies and/or volunteers.

VOLUNTEERS

Volunteers are an almost indispensible element in a successful crime prevention education program. Very few police departments, if any, are in a position to do all that could (and should) be done without using the services of interested citizen volunteers. As always, older volunteers prove to be resourceful and dependable sources of assistance.

Many of the services performed by volunteers during an education program duplicate roles performed and already described under Operation Identification and Security Survey programs. In addition to those functions, volunteers may also be helpful in the following ways.

- Volunteers may review literature, advertisements, catalogues, magazine files, etc., in order to identify possible program aids, such as films, advertisements, and so on, which can be selected by the program leader.

- If the volunteer is knowledgeable in the program area, he may actually review sample films, brochures, posters, etc., to assist in the selection process and weed out inappropriate materials.

- During the critical promotion period of the educational program, volunteers can assist in the distribution of posters and decal reminders. Program promotion must be done skillfully. Your "advertisement" will be competing with the best nationally advertised products for the attention of your audience. In terms of professional polish, your local materials may come up short in this competition. Your big advantage is quantity. With good volunteer support, your message can reach everyone in the community several times a day. Do not neglect the possible assistance of other city departments, such as signs displayed on sanitation trucks or transit vehicles. Volunteers can distribute these materials or place them for display.

- Good speakers are hard to find, but many volunteers can handle a carefully structured presentation. For example, it may require an experienced police officer to give a 30-minute speech and respond to a group's questions. However, a volunteer could deliver a five-minute introduction to a film or audio-visual program. Any following questions that ranged beyond the volunteer's own experience could be recorded and referred to a police officer for response.

LIMITATIONS

Few unexpected limitations are forthcoming with reference to the use of volunteers for crime prevention education programs. Among those occasionally listed are the following:

- Speakers who participate in the program must be willing to travel to diverse locations, usually during evening hours. Occasionally there has been some hesitancy among volunteers in accepting assignments in areas where crime prevention programs are most needed.

- Again with reference to public speakers, there has been some difficulty maintaining interest over the course of a lengthy campaign. If possible, this situation can be averted by using a larger number of volunteer speakers, each of whom works fewer assignments, or keeping the education campaign limited to a shorter time period.

- Except in a purely quantitative goal measurement, evaluation of crime prevention education is difficult. Numerous additional factors contribute to the outcome anticipated by the education program, and these factors often cloud the impact of the crime prevention education program itself. As with other programs sharing the same goals, the education program is probably best evaluated in combination with its supporting activities.

VARIATIONS AND EXAMPLES

Because there are so many possible variations on the central theme of crime prevention education, optimal benefit examples have been arranged here to describe diverse program types. In each case, however, a program leader must proceed through the fundamental steps described under the preceding section on Operations. Opportunities for effective use of volunteers varies by program type, but remains a constant potential in all programs discussed.

Rape Prevention. Forcible rape offenses increased 23 percent between 1973 and 1977. Whether this figure represents more crime or more reporting of crime, the result has been increased attention to rape prevention by both police agencies and citizen groups. One program in this field is known as SAFE. The word is an acronym representing four "rules" for avoiding rape.

— Secure the environment.
— Avoid vulnerable circumstances.
— Flee any threatening situation.
— Engage the attacker physically if necessary.

Considerable controversy surrounds the question of when and how to physically engage an attacker if necessary. Some rape victims report that physical resistance was impossible; others report that resistance caused the attacker to become more violent. Most rape prevention programs place greater emphasis on the first three rules.

Volunteers can be particularly effective in rape prevention programs, particularly if a volunteer is also a former victim. While a volunteer of this type may occasionally offer advice that is questionable or overly aggressive, that can be quickly put into perspective by an attending police officer. Meanwhile the prevention program gains immensely in credibility and effectiveness.

The Dallas, Texas Police Department conducts a rape prevention program aimed at high school students. Police instructors visit schools during gym classes to discuss the "On Guard" program. A

number of rules and warnings are itemized for the purpose of protecting students against sex offenders. The officers then demonstrate self defense measures that can be taken during an emergency.

Auto Theft. Several police departments periodically carry out campaigns aimed at educating the public about the risk of auto theft. The campaign usually includes placing a "ticket" on the windshield (under a wiper blade) of any car left unlocked at the curb or in parking lots. The content of the ticket varies, but one of the more popular is headed "Gotcha!" and refers to the fact that the ticketer—if he were a thief—could have stolen the car. Volunteers from numerous community groups are used to distribute tickets.

Foreign Language Groups. In major cities, police often are confronted with persons who do not speak the English language, and are therefore at a disadvantage when it is necessary to report either a crime or fears about potential crime. One positive approach to this problem is to provide members of a foreign language community with a specialized English vocabulary list that can be used to report crimes.

The Baltimore, Maryland Police Department has developed a pictograph that can be used to identify key features of an assailant or suspect. This pictograph is distributed to Korean businessmen. It illustrates various physical characteristics and identifies each by Korean and English words. Volunteers within the Korean community assist in identification of businessmen needing assistance and in distribution of the reporting aid.

Rural Crime. Special problems presented by rural crime investigations and special difficulties in establishing effective preventive measures have led to recognition of this special crime category during recent years. Some wide-ranging citizen patrol programs have begun in rural counties, and crime prevention education programs are being developed to meet the needs of rural citizens. The American Farm Bureau is one national organization that operates a program to reduce rural crime.

Hands Up. Another volunteer program active on the national level is the "Hands Up" program, which is conducted by the General Federation of Women's Clubs. Over 1,200 clubs are involved in more than 4,000 projects, many of which would be described as crime prevention education programs. The national effort seeks to increase awareness of the citizen's role in crime reduction and to encourage formation of local action groups to recommend and implement crime prevention programs.

Crime Prevention Coalition. In November, 1979, the Crime Prevention Coalition launched an ambitious crime prevention information program. The campaign included advertising on television and radio as well as print media and outdoor advertising. The effort is a joint undertaking of the Advertising Council, Inc., the National Council on Crime and Delinquency, and the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA). The campaign features a trench-coated dog who advises citizens to "take a bite out of crime." Citizens are encouraged to ask for crime prevention information.

REFERENCES

Title: *CAPTURE—Citizens' Active Participation Through Utilization of Relevant Education—Final Report*
Author: J. L. Coppock, M. D. Turner, and V. Leavitt. CAPTURE, San Mateo, Calif.
NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.036375

This is the final report of a project that was undertaken in response to a perceived lack of standardization and coordination between the law enforcement agency and various community crime prevention efforts. In order to achieve project goals, a public awareness campaign was launched using mass media techniques. CAPTURE programs included judicial forums, women's awareness programs, and a junior crime prevention officer program. The report details program publicity efforts, public speaking presentations, and literature.

Title: *Crime Prevention for Senior Citizens*
Author: New York City Department for the Aging, Senior Citizen Anti-crime Network (SCAN)
NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.050587

Detailed instructions are provided for preventing certain crimes against persons. Information is also provided on the criminal court processing system and victim assistance services available in New York City. Benefits of small groups of senior citizens working closely with police and other public officials in the area of crime prevention are discussed.

Title: *Rural Law Enforcement Program—Seminar on Crime Resistance and the Elderly in Rural Areas*
Author: C.M. Girard, Public Administration Service, Washington, D.C.
NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.037461

This publication reports the proceedings of a seminar that focused on rural crime with emphasis on problems of the elderly. Seminar was sponsored by the F. B. I. and the American Association of Retired Persons. Roles of selected national organizations in relation to fighting rural crime are identified. Seminar findings are presented on the use of older citizens to accomplish rural law enforcement and crime prevention.

SPECIAL RESOURCES

Numerous organizations sponsor national programs in the area of crime prevention. Space limitations preclude a complete listing here; however, some organizations that have not already been mentioned in this section are listed below:

- American Legion
- Kiwanis International
- National Alliance for Safer Cities
- U.S. Jaycees
- National Council of Senior Citizens

Frequently a community organization, a newspaper, or a leading bank in a community may offer monetary rewards for information supplied by anonymous callers. The crime reporting system exists essentially to receive and make record of these calls, and to direct any earned reward into the hands of the caller without compromising his or her anonymity. Some crime reporting systems which protect informants in this way are operated within a police department by sworn police officers. Others are operated almost entirely by private or volunteer organizations which relay useful information to the police. In this section we are concerned primarily with those organizations that utilize volunteer services.

CRIME REPORTING SYSTEMS

DESCRIPTION

In contrast to crime prevention activities discussed thus far in this section, crime reporting systems normally come into operation *after* a crime has been committed. The focus of activity is on providing assistance that will lead to the arrest and conviction of a suspect.

With reference to the use of television to promote and publicize crime prevention education programs, it should be noted that a series of TV "spots" emphasizing various crime reporting and prevention messages has been developed by the International Association of Chiefs of Police. Information about acquisition and use of these spots may be obtained from the Public Affairs Division of the IACP, Eleven Firstfield Road, Gaithersburg, Maryland 20760.

Crime reporting systems are known under several names. They are often described as secret witness programs, informant protection systems, or tipster incentive programs. All share the purpose of increasing the flow of information from citizens in the community to the police as an aid to law enforcement.

PROGRAM GOALS

1. To encourage increased crime reporting by citizens within a community, particularly with reference to identification of suspects associated with selected crimes.

2. To provide a safe outlet for persons in the community who want to share information about criminals, crimes, evidence, or criminal intentions of associates.

3. To increase arrest and conviction rates in a community by attracting large numbers of protected informants into the secret reporting system.

4. To provide an instrument through which local businessmen and other volunteers can take positive action to improve law enforcement in their own community.

OPERATION

The key principle in a successful crime reporting program — whether or not a financial reward is offered for information — is preservation of the anonymity of any participating informant. Only one lapse in security is required for the entire program to suffer a major setback. This is true because informants may choose to participate in the reporting program for any number of reasons not related to financial reward: sense of duty, guilt, contrition, etc. The informant, however, will not risk exposure in a flawed program, and will quickly drop out if he feels threatened.

Perhaps the most common technique used to preserve anonymity is assignment of code numbers to callers. The following operational example is based upon the experience of Operation BUST (Business United to Stop Trouble) in Baltimore, Maryland.

Operation BUST is supported financially by a coalition of 10 trade associations which represent various types of small business enterprises in the city. Small business owners had long been victimized by robberies and other crimes, and they wanted to take positive action to improve law enforcement. Business represented in the supporting coalition include liquor stores, grocery stores, taverns, and restaurants. One salaried director and office space are budgeted for the program, and all other participants are volunteers. In addition to the crime reporting system, Operation BUST also operates a multi-faceted crime prevention education program.

A special telephone line has been publicized to receive anonymous calls related to crime reporting. Callers simply dial 685-BUST. A first-time caller is typically nervous and overly concerned that he may say something revealing that might make identification possible. To overcome this natural fear, the volunteer who answers the telephone asks, "Would you like to have an identifying number?"

After assigning a number to the caller, it is explained that any information will be recorded and brought to the attention of police investigators. The caller is instructed to call back after two weeks to learn whether or not a reward has been earned. The caller is told to identify himself by the *assigned number only* at the time that the second call is made.

Information provided by the informant is then recorded by the volunteer. Whether or not a reward is merited cannot be stated in advance. Nor can any dollar amount be negotiated. It may be mentioned that information leading to an arrest for a major crime—such as armed robbery—usually involves a substantial amount.

The decision to pay a reward and the dollar amount of any reward paid is technically the responsibility of a leadership committee. In practice, a police department liaison recommends whether or not to pay and how much, and that recommendation is nearly always followed.

Payoffs are made by a two-man team consisting of one BUST board member and one police officer. Frequently the informant simply stops by the office at a pre-arranged time, identifies himself by number only, and picks up a payment in cash. No receipt is required. Occasionally payoffs are made in a park or on a street corner, but always a two-man team is involved, including one police officer. No one ever learns the tipster's name.

With some variation in the manner of initial contact and in procedures for making payment of earned rewards, this basic operation characterizes most crime reporting systems now in use.

VOLUNTEERS

The crime reporting system is essentially a volunteer activity. Considerable police guidance must be provided at the outset of the program, and close police cooperation is needed to preserve the integrity of the system. However, once established, the crime reporting system is almost entirely independent. The salaried staff, if any, assumes the problems of fund raising and program management, while telephones are staffed almost entirely by volunteers.

Older volunteers have proven to be particularly valuable. Many are knowledgeable about specific problems of sponsoring businesses and can suggest preventive measures that might be recommended by program staff. With reference to the telephone watch, older volunteers adjust well to the long hours of inactivity that are sometimes necessary, and they often prove to be tactful, perceptive interviewers.

LIMITATIONS

- Care must be taken that the secret witness line does not become merely a complaint vehicle for citizens who "do not want to get involved." Use of the special telephone line for this purpose is a common problem, and must be handled tactfully but firmly by the person receiving the call. Complaints about noise, loiterers, and other current problems should be directed to the normal police call number.

- Volunteers who become involved in an interesting activity such as this may tend to gossip about their experiences. This is entirely acceptable, so long as it is done with discretion. Volunteers must be warned not to repeat anything which may tend in any way to identify an informant or to in any way obstruct or interfere with an ongoing investigation. Volunteers should tell their tales in general terms that cannot be linked to any specific investigation.

- Crime reporting activity is very uneven. It is affected by publicity, current events, and numerous other factors. There may be long periods of boredom, which can be frustrating to unprepared volunteers.

OPTIMAL BENEFIT EXAMPLES

- One of the nation's more ambitious private crime reporting systems is operated by the Albuquerque, New Mexico Crime Stoppers. Like other programs of this type, the Albuquerque group maintains a special telephone line to accept anonymous calls. Reports of criminal and suspicious activity are accepted. The program is funded by contributions from the public and is controlled by an 18-member civilian board of directors. This board establishes the amount of reward to be paid to informants, if any. The Albuquerque program, however, goes farther than passively awaiting calls.

In the case of unsolved crimes, the group provides selected case reports to newspapers, which provide additional publicity. Sixty-second public service announcements are prepared for local radio stations. These announcements encourage witnesses or informants to call the special number with

information pertaining to a particular case. A local television station participates by screening a two-minute segment on the "crime of the week," also urging witnesses or informants to use the anonymous call number.

- The TIP program, which was organized in Tampa, Florida during the early 1970s, has been imitated successfully in a large number of cities throughout the nation. TIP stands for Turn In a Pusher. It consists essentially of a special toll-free telephone number that is set aside to receive anonymous calls from witnesses and informants. As its name indicates, TIP was originally aimed squarely at drug dealers. Supportive publicity in the community drew public attention to the community's problem with narcotics, and a concerted effort was made to improve law enforcement in this targeted area of concern.

- In Houston, Texas, a local newspaper, *The Houston Post*, initiated a secret witness program that stimulated crime reporting throughout the city. The newspaper offered relatively large sums as rewards for information ($4,000 for a murder arrest, $3,000 for rape or armed robbery). While the newpaper was in a unique position to publicize its own program, very close cooperation was required with police officials in order to assure that neither investigations nor trials were compromised by the release of sensitive information.

- Crime reporting by children is a special problem. Rarely will a child use even a protected anonymous telephone line to report a crime. One program that opens possibilities for communication in this area is the "Helping Hand" program. Helping Hand, like the Block Parent and similar child protection programs, is usually classified under neighborhood crime prevention activities. However, it should be noted that maintenance of well-marked homes where children know they can obtain help in an emergency, also contributes to crime reporting. The child may report suspicious situations or persons more freely at these "official" stations than at home before parents.

REFERENCES

Title: *National Evaluation Program—Citizen Crime Reporting Project*
Author: L. Bickman, et. al., Loyola University of Chicago, Ill.
NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.034140

This report contains a discussion of issues related to citizen crime reporting projects. Project types and structures are described, citing relationships with the criminal justice system. Two major categories are used to describe programs. The first category consists of projects which facilitate crime reporting, while the second includes projects which use an educational approach to encourage witness reports. Possible side effects of crime reporting projects are also examined.

Title: *Public Safety's Additional Eyes and Ears*
Author: J.C. Zurcher and R.M. Blackwell, Palo Alto, California, Police Dept. Community Radio Watch
NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.034753

This report was originally published as an article in *Police Chief Magazine*, Vol. 43, No. 6 (June 1976). It contains a description of a community radio watch program at Palo Alto, California. With an investment of only eight police man-hours per month, the department has added 66 observers to its ranks. Cab drivers, municipal employees, and Citizen Band (CB) radio operators (both club members and individuals), are members of the program. Each participant is briefed on reporting procedures and is presented with a logo decal. Monthly meetings are held. This type of program overlaps to some degree a classification as a mobile patrol, but its initial thrust was to stimulate crime reporting of all kinds.

Title: *Reporting and Non-Reporting of Crime by Older Adults*
Author: M. Ernst and F. Jodry, North Texas State University
NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.038138

This study explores factors that influence failure to report crime by older victims. Consequences of reporting and not reporting are examined. The report concludes that older citizens who do report crime are people who seem to be able to exercise control over their life situations and who retain a sense of social responsibilty. On the other hand, older citizens who do not report crime appear to be more withdrawn from the system and more isolated from the society. Interview responses of 466 persons beyond the age of 55 who live within the geographic boundaries of Dallas, Texas provide the substance of this report.

Title: *Community Crime Reporting Programs—Information Package*
Author: National Crime Prevention Institute, Louisville, Kentucky
NCJRS accession number: 09900.00051116

This information package has been designed for use in conducting community crime reporting programs. It was compiled by the National Crime Prevention Institute at the University of Louisville. Among several kinds of citizen participation programs outlined are included procedures for establishing a beat representative program and a secret witness program. Materials in the package include outlines of specific steps in crime prevention activities and a correct example of a radio alert program report.

NEIGHBORHOOD SURVEILLANCE AND PATROLS

DESCRIPTION

Although it is understood that neighborhood-based crime control nearly always includes crime prevention education and target-hardening, neighborhood-based surveillance and patrol programs are distinguished by their reliance upon collective means of protection. Each member is expected to take appropriate measures for individual protection, but the true value of the group surpasses the sum of individual efforts. Surveillance and patrol programs rely on cooperative group action to make entire city blocks, apartment houses, suburban developments, or parts of a rural county less vulnerable to crime.

Typically, a neighborhood surveillance or patrol group is formed in a neighborhood that has experienced recent criminal activity which has aroused the public. Frequently, the patrol group is organized within the context of an existing community service club, a homeowners' or tenants' association, a PTA, or some other relatively stable organization. In addition, many groups are formed from "scratch" in reaction to local increases in criminal activity.

Professionals within the criminal justice system tend to regard citizen patrols and surveillance networks with mixed feelings. To the degree that crime reporting is enhanced and citizens become more sensitive to their own security needs, the volunteer groups are generally favored. Some law enforcement leaders have gone much farther, actively encouraging volunteer groups that offer direct assistance to the police crime fighting mission. On the other hand, police officers also are skeptical about the real contribution made by such groups, since they are typically short-lived, represent some danger of vigilantism, and tend rather to displace criminal activity than to truly eliminate it. From the point of view of the volunteer participant, of course, displacement of crime from his own neighborhood is sufficient reward for the effort.

PROGRAM GOALS

1. To increase the preventive capability of the local police department by organizing volunteer observers who report activities to a central station.

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2. To increase reporting of suspicious and criminal activity within the member area.

3. To improve relations between the neighborhood and the police department through regular meetings and cooperative programs.

4. To deter criminal activity by openly displaying decals, armbands, warning signs, and other notices that a patrol or surveillance network exists in the neighborhood.

5. To reduce the incidence of crime in the affected neighborhood.

OPERATION

Neighborhood crime control programs can be divided into those programs that are primarily fixed surveillance networks and programs that depend on an organized patrol function for their effectiveness.

The fixed surveillance networks may report directly to a special number at the police department. The patrol group, on the other hand, usually makes use of CB radios or walkie-talkies. Patrol members communicate to a central station monitor/dispatcher. Any communications to the police department are made from this central station.

Perhaps the best known neighborhood program using the fixed surveillance network is the Neighborhood Watch program, which is now supported by the National Sheriffs' Association through a grant from the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA). This program incorporates many elements of crime prevention education and crime reporting into the neighborhood or block organization.

Neighborhood Watch is based on a degree of preliminary block organization. Residents are encouraged to meet and assign supporting roles to members. "Block watchers" are selected to serve as a focal point for a number of crime prevention activities. Sometimes a person whose home or apartment overlooks a key area is selected for that reason. Older persons are particularly valuable as block watchers because they are often at home and they have leisure time available.

An interview project involving several admitted burglars revealed that the presence of a neighborhood watch program was an effective deterrent. The majority of inmates interviewed said that merely being noticed by a neighbor was enough to deter them. All indicated that they would leave an area if challenged by a neighbor.

Citizen patrols come in various forms, including building patrols, neighborhood foot patrols, and mobile vehicle patrols. All have been effective under different circumstances.

The building patrol most closely approximates the fixed surveillance. In some cases it is limited to restricting access to an apartment building. This is accomplished by posting a "registration" desk in the lobby, which is staffed by a volunteer. Building patrols may also systematically make observations of hallways, stairwells, and adjoining grounds.

Both foot patrols and mobile patrols are normally walked or driven in pairs. The patrol team carries whistles, walkie-talkies, or CB radios in order to communicate with a third volunteer at a base station. This patrol seeks out observable suspicious behavior. When observed, such behavior is reported to the base station. It may or may not be relayed to police for response.

Obviously, the patrol function represents a higher degree of organization than the fixed surveillance network. Success depends on the ability to recruit and maintain a large number of active participants who are willing to put in from two to 12 hours per week on patrol. Typically, patrol groups consist of a very small nucleus of two or three very interested participants, who put in many hours of work, and a larger number of "pool" members who assist to a lesser degree.

The citizen patrol group may be formed without any prior contact with the police department. However, the need to establish a two-way radio command center and the opportunity for financial assistance quickly brings the new patrol organization into contact with the police department. A degree of training by the police, if not direct control, is essential if the police agency is to realize the benefits of the community organization without risking its worst limitations. Patrol members must be taught to report criminal and suspicious activities without intervening in any police response. The neighborhood patrol, at its best, is a very ambitious community response. With proper support, it can be an extremely valuable crime prevention program.

VOLUNTEERS

Neighborhood surveillance and patrol programs may be entirely volunteer activities. Professional police input is most effective in terms of volunteer training and liaison services. Older citizens have proven to be particularly valuable volunteers in neighborhood organizations. Some functions performed by older volunteers are listed:

- Neighborhood surveillance groups are particularly fortunate to have an older citizen, preferably retired, as the focal point for a blockwatching program. Since retired persons are often at home and can be expected to have leisure time available, they can perform effectively as observers for much longer periods of time than younger volunteers, whose time and attention are demanded by numerous family responsibilities.

- An older resident can be designated to accept deliveries for persons who are away from home. This avoids the possibility that the merchandise might be stolen or that it might advertise the absence of the homeowner.

- An older volunteer can keep house keys for youngsters or other family members in the event of an unexpected or emergency absence at a neighborhood home.

- Being familiar with the normal daily routine of the neighborhood, an older resident can easily observe and make a record of any unusual truck traffic (which might later be linked to residential burglaries).

- Similarly, the older resident is alert to any door-to-door solicitors in the area (who might be looking for opportunities to burglarize an unoccupied residence).

- In neighborhood patrol groups older members have provided excellent support as radio monitors or control station operators, receiving messages from other members who are conducting the foot or vehicle patrol.

- Older volunteers frequently staff a volunteer "security desk" as part of a building patrol. In addition to registering visitors (which inhibits opportunistic criminals), many older residents find the security desk involvement a rewarding social experience.

OPTIMAL BENEFIT EXAMPLES

Literally hundreds of examples are available that might illustrate beneficial use of older volunteers in neighborhood surveillance and patrol programs. The following selection represents sources where additional information is available.

- Chicago, Illinois. A wide ranging network of civilian patrol programs is coordinated in the office of the director of the Preventive Programs Division, Chicago Police Department. Patrols function in all types of neighborhoods, from expensive high-rise condominiums and elite residential sections to inner-city, high-crime areas and public-housing projects. Civilian radio patrol members are brought together four times a year at police headquarters for a meeting. In addition to a training update, the meeting provides an opportunity to discuss problems and to swap tips on surveillance techniques.

- New York, New York. For sheer numbers and variety of programs it is hard to top New York City. It has been estimated that 6,000 volunteers routinely participate in CB-equipped mobile patrols. Another 10,000 volunteers participate in blockwatch programs, and independently organized tenant patrol groups in apartment houses may number another 24,000. The citywide coordinator of civil patrol groups operates out of the office of the deputy police commissioner.

    One particularly notable private patrol, which has been imitated elsewhere, is the Parent League Patrol, operating in upper Manhattan. This is essentially a child protection patrol. Parents patrol city streets during morning and afternoon hours when children are traveling to and from school. Volunteers wear bright orange capes, carry whistles and write daily reports of activities. Reports are dropped off at a designated neighborhood store, and police officers drop by routinely to pick up the reports.

- Shelby County, Alabama. A county-wide application of the Neighborhood Watch program is being implemented, with support from the National Sheriffs' Association, through the office of the county sheriff in Alabaster, Alabama. The area covered by the program includes suburbs south of the city of Birmingham, small towns, and rural communities.

- Oakland, California. Oakland has been an innovative contributor to the field of citizen involvement in crime prevention for several years. The "Home Alert" program began here. More

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recently a "Radio Alert" program has involved an estimated 3,000 CB radio users in the program. Observers report traffic accidents and road conditions as well as crime prevention information.

- Boston, Massachusetts. When deteriorated urban housing in the Rangefield area of Boston became a center for renovation, residents who had moved back to the city to restore the properties encountered high crime rates. The Rangefield Neighborhood Association sponsored a citizens' foot patrol, which proceeded to patrol the two blocks then encompassed by the townhouse renovation. Not only did crime rates drop, but the restored neighborhood became more cohesive, partly through the increased social contact provided by patrol experience.

LIMITATIONS

While neighborhood surveillance and patrol groups offer great promise in the crime prevention field, they must be carefully nurtured and guided by police professionals if their full potential is to be realized. In an operational sense, little or no police manpower is required. However, a certain amount of time for liaison services, guidance, and feedback is advised by agencies with experience in this area. Limitations to be expected are listed below:

- Surveillance networks can grow too large for their own good. Evaluative studies have revealed that the effectiveness of the network seems to relate more to the degree of involvement of members rather than to overall size of membership. Very large programs that require only minimal participation from each member may also result in mimimal improvement in overall crime conditions. On the other hand, evidence suggests that smaller programs that demand greater inputs from participating members can have a more positive and lasting effect on the community.

- Certainly the greatest limitation of any patrol program is a danger of tending toward vigilantism if the volunteers are left unguided by professional police officers. Following are some general guidelines that have been established with reference to citizen patrols. It should be noted at the outset, however, that the presence of responsible older citizens within the group often creates a stabilizing element.

1. Patrol members should be at least 18 years old.

2. Patrol members should be issued personal identification cards by the local law enforcement agency.

3. Patrol members who operate radio equipment should possess appropriate FCC licenses.

4. Automobiles used by patrol members should be identified in some obvious manner.

5. Patrol members should not be permitted to carry weapons of any kind.

6. Patrol vehicles should not be equipped with sirens or emergency lighting, although spotlights are permissible.

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- Similarly, the older resident is alert to any door-to-door solicitors in the area (who might be looking for opportunities to burglarize an unoccupied residence).

- In neighborhood patrol groups older members have provided excellent support as radio monitors or control station operators, receiving messages from other members who are conducting the foot or vehicle patrol.

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LIMITATIONS

While neighborhood surveillance and patrol groups offer great promise in the crime prevention field, they must be carefully nurtured and guided by police professionals if their full potential is to be realized. In an operational sense, little or no police manpower is required. However, a certain amount of time for liaison services, guidance, and feedback is advised by agencies with experience in this area. Limitations to be expected are listed below:

- Surveillance networks can grow too large for their own good. Evaluative studies have revealed that the effectiveness of the network seems to relate more to the degree of involvement of members rather than to overall size of membership. Very large programs that require only minimal participation from each member may also result in mimimal improvement in overall crime conditions. On the other hand, evidence suggests that smaller programs that demand greater inputs from participating members can have a more positive and lasting effect on the community.

- Certainly the greatest limitation of any patrol program is a danger of tending toward vigilantism if the volunteers are left unguided by professional police officers. Following are some general guidelines that have been established with reference to citizen patrols. It should be noted at the outset, however, that the presence of responsible older citizens within the group often creates a stabilizing element.

1. Patrol members should be at least 18 years old.

2. Patrol members should be issued personal identification cards by the local law enforcement agency.

3. Patrol members who operate radio equipment should possess appropriate FCC licenses.

4. Automobiles used by patrol members should be identified in some obvious manner.

5. Patrol members should not be permitted to carry weapons of any kind.

6. Patrol vehicles should not be equipped with sirens or emergency lighting, although spotlights are permissible.

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7. Ideally, every patrol member should have some basic training in first aid and a basic familiarity with laws and ordinances.

8. Patrol members should be instructed never to intervene in any police response to a report; nor should patrol members answer any police calls in or near the patrol area.

9. Police liaison officers should make every effort to obtain some feedback for the group, with reference to reports made by members, arrests made as a result of volunteer participation, etc. Lack of feedback from police agencies is probably the most common complaint from volunteers who have been active in patrol programs.

REFERENCES

The field of neighborhood surveillance and patrol programs is particularly rich with reference sources. Each of the following selections offers valuable insight into the operations, benefits, and special requirements of various forms of citizen participation programs for crime prevention.

Title: *Mobilizing the Elderly in Neighborhood Anti-Crime Programs*

Author: W.J. Arnone, U.S. Administration on Aging

NCJRS accession number: 99900.00.050559

This report originally appeared as an article in *Aging* magazine (March/April 1978). It describes the development of the Senior Citizens' Anticrime Network (SCAN) in New York City. Two target areas with significantly different characteristics were selected as anticrime demonstration sites. Community organizers set up store-front offices and hired part-time aides from the community. Their task was to mobilize existing community groups to undertake anti-crime activities, particularly with reference to the needs of older citizens. SCAN activities are based on the premise that the elderly are able to carry out effective neighborhood anti-crime initiatives.

Title: *Patrolling the Neighborhood Beat — Residents and Residential Security*

Author: R.K. Yin, Rand Corporation, Washington, D.C.

NCJRS accession number: 0990.00.046729

This study examined over 200 residential security patrols in 16 urban areas. A typology is suggested for various kinds of patrols: building patrols, neighborhood patrols, social service patrol (including para-medic or ambulance service), and community protection patrols (which monitor police performance as well as potential criminals). Field interviews support descriptions of varying group experiences with respect to organization, funding, membership, operations, and relations with local police.

Title: *Fourth Power In the Balance — Citizen Efforts to Address Criminal Justice Problems in Cook County, Illinois*

Author: L.A. Gibbs, et.al., Chicago Law Enforcement Study Group

NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.045007

This study reports on the creative range of criminal justice programs operated by non-professionals through the metropolitan Chicago area. Details of program content are included along with information about direction of programs, crime reporting, policy-making apparatus within program groups, and advisory services available from professional sources.

Title: *Burglar At Your Window — A Handbook for Homeowners and Apartment Dwellers on Prevention of Residential Crime Through Individual and Community Effort*

Author: D.J. Scherer, Reymont Associates, Rye, N.Y.

NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.054393

This is a handbook for homeowners and apartment dwellers for the purpose of assessing security systems and evaluating the use of citizen patrols and/or private guards in various situations. After describing devices available for target-hardening, the advantages and disadvantages of patrol programs are discussed. Citizen patrols are seen as relatively inexpensive, effective in performing a surveillance function, and reasonably successful in improving the ability of residents to deal with crime. However, patrol groups also are described as short-lived, since interest in patrolling flags with success and overall community interest fluctuates.

Title: *Citizen Involvement in Crime Prevention*

Author: G.S. Washnis, D.C. Heath & Co., Lexington, Mass.

NCJRS accession number: 0990.00.038925

This text describes several types of community involvement projects based on a review of 37 specific projects and a survey of programs in 100 cities. The text describes the multiple ways in which citizens assist police and ways in which police cooperate and work with citizens for better crime control. Both successes and shortcomings are described. The focus of the book is the citizen organization rather than elements of the criminal justice system. Five major activities areas are defined: (1) citizen block associations and related crime reporting, surveillance, and foot patrols; (2) mobile patrols; (3) special projects, such as high-rise security, employee protection, and child safety; (4) police-community councils; and (5) anti-crime crusades. Elements of a crime prevention plan for police departments are outlined with implementation suggestions.

PROTECTIVE SENIOR ESCORT SERVICE

DESCRIPTION

Volunteer escort services are relatively new and highly specific crime prevention programs. The protective senior escort service, for instance, is designed to respond directly to the fears of older citizens concerning various forms of street crime. The basic idea is to provide a companion, who will accompany the older person during trips to the grocery, the bank, the doctor's office, or some other destination. The presence of the companion is expected to deter any attack upon the older person that might otherwise have been contemplated.

Older citizens are justifiably afraid of street crime. One study of a successful prevention program in Wilmington, Delaware revealed that crimes committed against the elderly occurred as often away from a residence as in or near it. Types of crime included pursesnatching, robbery, muggings, and sex crimes, although the most common offense was pursesnatching. Crimes were usually committed during the day, and they usually involved white, female victims.

The existence of a protective escort service can be an effective deterrent, according to the same study. Incidences of crime against older persons dropped 21.5 percent during a two-year period, which included implementation of the escort service as well as other crime prevention education programs.

PROGRAM GOALS

1. To reduce the incidences of street crime directed against older citizens.

2. To diminish fear of street crime and the effects of that fear, such as severely restricted mobility, among older segments of the population.

3. To involve the youth of the community, a population group frequently perceived as threatening, into a protective relationship with older citizens.

4. To develop a more cohesive sense of group membership among older citizens in the community through organization of this form of cooperative protective service.

OPERATION

There are two distinctly different types of protective escort service programs for older persons. One utilizes the services of community youth as companions for older residents. Teenagers may either be assigned one or more older "clients" to assist and protect as needed, or a pool of young

escorts may be held available on request. The second form of escort service involves organization of male members of the senior citizens group into a volunteer escort service, which may function either as an "on call" service or as a form of neighborhood patrol.

The program involving community youth as escorts is probably the more popular at the present time, perhaps because of available funds now apportioned under Comprehensive Educational Training Act (CETA) resources. These funds are available to hire unemployed young persons during summer months so long as useful training is provided in a job situation. Several cities have taken advantage of this opportunity to recruit young persons into a protective escort service for older persons.

Based on a program of this type, which involved 95 "junior police cadets" in the city of Detroit, Michigan, the following training might be provided to prospective escorts: sensitivity to the psychological aspects of aging; community resource identification; fire prevention techniques and precautions; team-building; the role of a police officer in the community; recognition of cardiac and breathing problems; and crime prevention responsibilities.

In the Detroit experience, cadets would escort older citizens to shopping centers, medical facilities, and banks. In addition, cadets served as monitors at various community service centers and churches where they could be helpful if needed. Some cadets were assigned to make telephone calls or house visits to older citizens in the community simply for the purpose of providing some reinforcement against depression or loneliness. This type of program obviously exceeded the goals of a simple crime prevention patrol or companion service, which was the immediate benefit sought by the older persons who participated.

The alternative form of protective senior escort service is probably best known through the experience of the Wilmington, Delaware volunteers. In this form, older men are organized as volunteer escorts or patrol members who accompany older women during trips. In addition to an escort on foot, there is also available a vehicle patrol, and women are offered rides to or from various points in the neighborhood.

VOLUNTEERS

Youth patrols are not really volunteer programs, since all of the young participants are actually being paid for their time through CETA or some comparable source of funding. Considerable attention must be paid to appropriate training and assignment of these youths, but that may be accomplished by a salaried staff member.

The senior volunteer escort service, such as that organized in Wilmington, is a volunteer program which requires a considerable amount of guidance and supervision. Older volunteers, of course, make up virtually the entire program, which is designed primarily to protect older women in the community. The men who serve as escorts may be no more formidable physically than many of the women they protect, but numerous studies have indicated that the mere presence of any other person significantly diminishes the chance of an attack.

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Volunteers who serve as escorts must be carefully screened by the program leader. Background checks are appropriate, as are character references. Men serving as approved escorts should be assigned personal identification cards from the local law enforcement agency. This identification should be displayed when offering services in order to avoid any misunderstanding or embarrassment.

In addition to performing escort services, the volunteer may also distribute crime prevention education materials, conduct security surveys at residences, and encourage participation in other crime prevention programs, such as a neighborhood watch. In this sense, the escort service is considered a "seed" program, comparable to Operation Identification. While performing the immediate task for which the program was formed, its participants also introduce others into additional crime control programs.

LIMITATIONS

- The use of CETA-supported youths as protective escorts is a highly beneficial experience for both young and old. However, the program tends to be concentrated in summer months only, which gives it the aura of a "one shot" program, not at all appropriate to the longterm needs of the older community.

- Locations that have utilized youth patrols for senior escorts uniformly praise performance. Detroit reported that not one of 1,150 participating older persons was assaulted or robbed during the duration of the program. Nonetheless, insufficient time has passed to fairly evaluate any negative consequences that might yet be forthcoming from the experience.

- Transportation could become a problem, particularly when youths are assigned to visit the homes of older persons on a regular basis. Detroit solved this problem through a cooperative arrangement with the city Department of Transportation. The 95 cadets were permitted to travel on public transportation free upon exhibition of a special identification card issued by the police department.

- With reference to the all-volunteer Wilmington escorts, rather unexpectedly it appears that many women are reluctant to accept rides in the patrol vehicle, even when men clearly show their proper identification. It seems that peer pressures work both ways, and if the gentleman does not seem acceptable.... The experience suggests that successful volunteer programs of this type may require considerable input from the target group that is to be helped. In other words, it may be necessary to also treat the potential victim as a volunteer participant in the program.

EXAMPLES

- Wilmington, Delaware. Older women are escorted by a volunteer escort service organized among older males in the community. Many of the details of this program have already been described. All volunteers must be over age 50. The initial volunteers to start the program were furnished from the Wilmington Rotary Club and from the Kiwanis Club.

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- Nashville, Tennessee. Primarily a summer program, this youth patrol consists of approximately 100 low-income teenagers who are hired to provide escort service and other help to older citizens. Many of the young escorts are used at housing projects where older citizens have been victimized in the past. Youth escorts carry walkie-talkies through high-crime areas and serve as liaisons with police. The title of the program is "Community Youth Relations Aides of Tennessee."

- Milwaukee, Wisconsin. A Neighborhood Security Aid Program, headquartered in the Milwaukee Courthouse, provides escorts for older residents during trips to stores and banks in order to prevent robberies. The escort program is used as a "seed" program. Participants are encouraged to permit security surveys and to undertake a measure of target-hardening or participatory action in cooperative prevention programs.

REFERENCES

Title: *Experience Exchange*

Author: Administration of Aging, U.S. Dept. of Health, Education, and Welfare

This article appeared in *Aging* magazine (March-April 1978). It highlights several local programs that beneficially involve older citizens in community crime resistance or related programs. Discussed are block watch programs, victim assistance, and a summer youth patrol organized to provide protective escort service to older citizens. The escort program (Nashville) is reportedly helping to dissolve a climate of fear that had existed among elderly residents of housing projects.

Title: *Wilmington, Delaware — Crime Resistance Task Force — Final Report*

Author: Wilmington Police Department

NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.050766

Several crime resistance programs initiated in 1976 are described. Programs involve service to counter various crimes against the older population. The operation of an escort system using older persons as escorts for other of the same peer group is part of this report. Other programs include a "hidden pocket" program for concealing purses and more traditional crime prevention education. An evaluation of community involvement in crime resistance programs revealed that residents of high-crime areas were more likely to show commitment to prevention programs than were residents from safer areas. The gravest problem was a difficulty in overcoming an apparent distrust of others evidenced by many older citizens. Deep concern and frustration over crime and victimization could not quickly or easily be transformed into practical action. Many older victims remained skeptical and apathetic.

Title: *Safeguard Against Crime — A Project Guide for Voluntary Organizations*

Author: Kiwanis International, Chicago, Illinois

NCJRS accession number: 0990.00.040400

While this text does not directly address formation of a protective escort service, it does cover all of the organizational steps that must be considered in developing a volunteer program of that dimension. Eight steps are identified in the organization of an effective crime awareness and abatement program. These include: understanding the objective, identification of resources, education of members, determination of priorities, planning, implementation, publicity, and evaluation. Some general commentary is provided for each step.

HEALTH AND PERSONAL SECURITY

DESCRIPTION

In a sense, the senior protective escort sevice described in the preceding section has provided a convenient bridge from programs that are predominantly centered on crime prevention to programs that perform a more social and/or health-related function, although still in the general area of increasing personal security.

Particularly with reference to the kinds of additional helping services performed by some youth patrols, an effort was made to assist older members of the community in ways not directly related to crime. For instance, youth workers telephoned older residents or made visits to homes simply to make contact, to diminish the loneliness or isolation of the older person. Similarly, youth patrol members were taught how to recognize certain symptoms of serious physical and mental health problems in order to be able to make referrals when appropriate.

Some health-related programs serve well as primary "seed" programs, which can be used to introduce the client to additional social or crime prevention programs that might be beneficial. These "seed" health programs are promoted separately or at the outset of a larger crime prevention education plan because these health-related programs are expected to be of particular interest to older persons in the community. Older citizens are realistically concerned about their health and personal security, particularly if they live alone.

Two health-related "seed" programs are described in this section: the Vial of Life, and Operation Lifeline. Both utilize volunteer services to meet a specific need of older citizens, and simultaneously they serve to introduce the older client to additional programs and services.

PROGRAM GOALS

1. To identify older persons and others in the community who are afflicted with special health problems.

2. To provide a means for improving emergency health services to those persons when needed.

3. To reduce the possiblity of tragic error caused by ignorance or delay in administering emergency health care.

4. To reduce the anxiety of older or ill citizens with regard to their potential emergency health needs.

5. To introduce participating members to additional programs and services that may be beneficial to their well-being.

OPERATION

Vial of Life uses volunteers to contact and assist persons who are concerned about their special health needs in the event of any accident or emergency which could leave them incapable of communicating their needs to responding emergency personnel.

The Vial of Life refers to a plastic or glass container which contains any special medicines required by the participant in the program and instructions for the use of those medicines in the event of an emergency. The container is placed inside the refrigerator at the home of a program participant. A decal is then placed on the door of the home or apartment so that responding emergency personnel (police officers, firefighters, etc.) will be alerted to the presence of the vial.

In addition to medicines and instructions for use, the Vial of Life also contains general health information about the participant. For instance, information concerning allergies, addictions, description of any physical handicap, and a record of drugs or prescription medicines currently being used by the resident are all considered appropriate to include in the Vial of Life. The working principle of the program is to provide any responding emergency personnel with sufficient information to make accurate, on-the-spot judgments about the immediate needs and condition of the resident.

The name, address, and telephone number of a relative or close friend who lives in the same community should be included, as should the name of any next-of-kin located in some other part of the country.

Operation Lifeline was designed to enable older and handicapped persons who live alone to keep in touch with a source of assistance in the event that accident or illness incapacitates the person or makes it impossible to summon help.

In essence, the program establishes a regular telephone contact initiated by the participant. If that scheduled contact is not made, an attempt is made to telephone the individual. Failing there, a police officer or an ambulance is dispatched to the address.

A special telephone number established for the Lifeline program may be maintained by the crime prevention unit of the police department. Participants enroll in the program simply by agreeing to call the number daily at a scheduled time. Volunteers are utilized to receive calls.

VOLUNTEERS

Both Vial of Life and Operation Lifeline depend on volunteers for optimal effectiveness. Volunteers are used in the following ways:

- Program promotion. Volunteers distribute literature and announce the program at club and community organization meetings.

- Media contact. Volunteers provide announcements to newspapers and radio and television stations and gain support from these important community resources.

- Enrollment. Volunteers maintain paperwork related to enrolling new participants in the program, and may contact members of the community to encourage membership.

- With reference to Operation Lifeline, volunteers operate virtually all aspects of the program once it has been established. Their primary function here is to staff telephones during hours when calls are scheduled.

- In the Vial of Life program, volunteers may make house visits to new participants in order to assist and instruct the person in correctly filling out information to be inserted into the vial.

OPTIMAL BENEFIT EXAMPLES

Additional information about operating details of the two programs described in this section are available from the following sources:

- Scottsdale, Arizona. Crime Prevention Section, Office of the Sheriff. A Vial of Life program in Scottsdale has reportedly distributed 18,000 units to various participants in the metropolitan area. The vials that are used in the program are dispersed daily by the Scottsdale Memorial Hospital, which is a major source of support for the program.

- Huntington, West Virginia. Counseling Section, Crime Prevention Unit, Huntington Police Department. Calls are made to the police department each morning from 9 a.m. to 11 a.m. Volunteers staff the telephones. The cost to the department is maintenance of the telephone line only. The salary of the project coordinator is paid by an LEAA grant.

LIMITATIONS

While health and personal security programs, such as Vial of Life and Operation Lifeline, provide valuable services for persons served by them, several valid criticisms have been made. Program leaders must be alert to ways to avoid the following difficulties or respond adequately to them.

- Some critics point out that these programs, while requiring considerable volunteer organization, respond to the needs of only a very limited group. In terms of numbers the criticism is valid. However, the small number of people affected do have a legitimate need. When the health program is used as a "seed" program to stimulate participation in other programs, some of the "too small" criticism is undermined.

- The Vial of Life program in particular may be perceived as a "one shot" program. Once the vials are completed, the program ends. Again, use of the program to "seed" other activities is recommended. Ultimately Vial of Life, Operation Lifeline, and similar programs are aimed at breaking down the isolation of older and handicapped persons.

- Vial of Life information gets out-of-date unless it is periodically reviewed. Information should be dated when recorded. Participants should be instructed to review information periodically to be sure that data is current.

- Vial of Life information related to children should be accompanied by a photograph of the child. The participant must keep in mind that the information must be used by someone who has absolutely no information about the family.

- Some police administrators fear that encouragement of health-related programs may lead the public to expect medical advice and medical services from the police. While emergency care is frequently administered by a police officer who is first upon the scene, police administrators are reluctant to accept emergency health care as a routine police responsibility. In this case, both the problem and the answer lie far from the point of need.

- Operation Lifeline and similar programs work well in small cities, but the number of phones and volunteers needed to cover a major metropolitan area make the system unworkable, say some critics. In its classic form, this is true. One alternative for larger cities is a pyramid or "chain-letter" organization of the telephone network. Groups of three or four persons must be organized, one of whom is designated group leader. The group leader calls a section leader to report "all accounted for." The section leader calls a district leader, and so on. Actual calls to the police department are reduced to manageable proportions.

REFERENCES

Title: *Operation Reassurance*
Author: G. F. Michel, *"Law & Order Magazine"* (June 1974)
NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.014427

This article described a telephone contact program developed to serve older citizens who live alone. The program is operated by the Police Department of Haworth, New Jersey. If a participating older person does not call in by 10 a.m., a patrol car is dispatched to see that everything is all right.

Title: *Huntington, West Virginia, Police Department — Operation Lifeline*
Author: Huntington Police Department
NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.028006

This 30-page publication describes the phone-in service established for senior citizens and handicapped persons in the Huntington area.

Title: *Crime Prevention Programs for Senior Citizens*
Author: P. J. Gross, International Association of Chiefs of Police
NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.037444

While this directory includes crime prevention programs, as the title implies, it also lists police departments throughout the country which have established a variety of service programs that also assist elderly and handicapped residents. The directory was compiled as a reference tool for agencies considering establishment of similar programs. Entries are listed alphabetically by the city in which the program is headquartered.

VICTIM/WITNESS ASSISTANCE

DESCRIPTION

The effectiveness of the criminal justice system relies on the cooperation of victims and witnesses, but the system has often ignored or even abused these persons who have experienced the effects of crime in their own lives. Some law enforcement and legal spokesmen believe that greater attention to these programs is critical, not only for purely humanitarian reasons, but also as a precondition for any significant improvement in crime control.

Victim/witness assistance perhaps has been neglected for so long because the function seems to fall into a gap in our planned provision of needed services to citizens. Virtually all of the helping services needed by a crime victim are available within existing governmental organizations, but the bureaucratic mechanisms that have been established to maintain control over these services sometimes work to deny access to persons *at the time that they need it*.

The failure, in other words, does not seem to be a lack of services, but a shortage of alert, sensitive liaison personnel who are in a position to identify persons in need, refer them to proper sources of help, and intervene when problems arise. That liaison role is essentially the function sought by most victim/witness assistance programs.

Various distinctions can be made between assistance to victims and assistance to witnesses. Within this model volunteer program type we are considering programs that are directed toward helping the victim or witness deal with the physical and emotional consequences of victimization and involvement in the criminal justice system. The next section in this chapter describes court watching programs, victim advocacy, and relatively impersonal court-oriented programs that assist in the prosecution of criminals. Unavoidably, there is overlap because in many cases the victim and the witness are the same person.

PROGRAM GOALS

1. To identify and offer immediate assistance to citizens who have become victims of crime, whether or not a suspect is involved.

2. To help victims recognize and cope with the immediate consequences of victimization, such as transportation, food, medications, and identification of the suspect.

3. To relieve anxiety and emotional dislocation caused by victimization.

4. To counsel the victim/witness in terms of the expectations of the criminal justice system.

5. To improve treatment for the victim/witness through the various phases of criminal prosecution.

OPERATION

The purpose and goals of victim/witness assistance programs can be expressed in broad terms that apply to all citizens within a jurisdiction. In practice, however, such indiscriminate assistance is not really available. Neither governmental agencies nor private voluntary resources have yet developed a truly comprehensive victim/witness assistance program. Instead, victim/witness assistance tends to be delivered with reference to special crimes or special interest groups, for which there is available funding or sufficient volunteer interest to implement the program.

Currently, victim/witness assistance programs are most evident with reference to: (1) crimes against the elderly; (2) child abuse; and (3) rape victims. To a lesser extent, private volunteer assistance has also been mustered in response to other crimes against women (battered wives, etc.) and crimes against members of specific racial or ethnic groups. Within this section, the primary description is of operations of programs which assist older victims and rape victims, as well as witnesses who become involved in the criminal justice system as a result of a crime in one of those two areas.

The first imperative of a victim/witness assistance operation is prompt identification of the person in need. Response to the victim must be made within 48 hours if the assistance is to be meaningful. Identification depends in virtually all cases on prompt referral.

This is usually accomplished by a police agency or by some volunteer unit housed within the police agency or working closely with reporting police officers. Referrals are accepted from other public service agencies, from senior citizen groups and services, or from family members and friends of the victim. Police officers may carry pocket-sized referral cards to distribute to victims who may not initially request assistance but may recognize a need for it at some later time.

Upon referral, clients are offered immediate aid as needed. Crisis counseling is offered and encouraged. A limited emergency fund is usually available for victims who lack other resources. For the most part, however, service to victims is accomplished through familiarization and liaison assistance to existing community resources. Some are listed below:

• Food allotments (Emergency Services Unit, Dept. of Social Services)

• Lock replacement (Hardship Unit, Dept. of Housing and Community Development)

• Medicines to replace stolen items (City Health Department)

• Transportation (reduced fare bus tokens from City Transit Dept.)

• Counseling (Senior Citizens Center, Dept. or Administration on Aging)

• Home security assessments (Police Departments)

• Escort service (Police Dept. or sponsoring community organization)

• Legal assistance, with reference to seeking reimbursement from insurance companies or available restitution programs (District Attorney's Office)

• Recovery of stolen property (Police Department)

These services are normally extended to include preparation of the victim/witness for involvement in various stages of the criminal justice system if a suspect is identified in the case. Repeated contact for purposes of reassurance and provision of updated information pertaining to the case is ideal, but this type of service depends on dedicated volunteer support. Particular attention should be paid to receipt and response to complaints about harassment or threats experienced by the victim/witness.

VOLUNTEERS

Since most jurisdictions lack sufficient funds to fully implement victim/witness assistance programs, the use of volunteers is, in most cases, a critical element. With allowances for the form and content of local programs, volunteers might be used in the following ways:

• To make initial telephone contacts with reported victims upon referral, and to make follow-up calls as needed.

• To assist in maintaining paperwork related to requests for services made to other agencies on behalf of the client, and to follow-up as needed to obtain victim assistance.

• To receive telephone calls requesting assistance, and to receive calls related to harrassment of witnesses.

• With appropriate training, to make house calls upon victims for the purpose of counseling and further referral services.

• To perform direct assistance, such as grocery shopping, when the victim has suffered physical injuries or has been otherwise incapacitated by the victimization experience.

• To inform the victim/witness of developments in the case as they occur; to keep information concerning appointments, trials, etc., current and accurate.

• To assist the victim/witness with transportation, child care, or other services required in order to participate in hearings, trials, or other criminal justice system demands.

LIMITATIONS

Innumerable things can go wrong, but most problems of victim/witness assistance programs can be reduced to two great shortages: money and skilled personnel. Money is occasionally available

through grant funding, particularly when some innovative element is included in the local program. At other times a shortage of money can be partially offset by the use of volunteers. A lack of skilled personnel, however, can never be offset or overcome. At root, the victim/witness assistance program is important because it offers personal attention to individuals during a time of extraordinary stress. Interpersonal contacts under these conditions demand well-motivated, well-trained personnel if optimal benefits are to be achieved.

There is also some difficulty in documenting goal achievement or conducting evaluations of experimental victim/witness assistance programs. Most persons involved in the process believe that benefits are real and meaningful, but there is continuing difficulty with documentation.

OPTIMAL BENEFIT EXAMPLES

- Saint Paul, Minnesota. Through an organization known as Elderly Victims of Crime (EVOC), volunteers visit older victims at home to offer reassurance and direct assistance. Many of the volunteers are seniors and were also victims of crime. Group meetings bring together persons who share the victimization experience for the purpose of group support during the stressful aftermath and recovery period. Volunteers assist in obtaining lost Social Security cards, Medicare identification, etc. Volunteers also conduct security surveys. EVOC was begun in the St. Paul Police Department, but now is operated out of the mayor's office.

- Canton, Ohio. The Canton Victim/Witness Coordination Program was one of five national programs selected by the International Association of Chiefs of Police as demonstration programs in the field of assistance to older persons. Trained volunteers provide a broad range of services which include direct aid, counseling, and contact referrals to available sources of assistance within the community.

- Fort Lauderdale, Florida. An innovative program is operated within this jurisdiction. Two "victim/witness advocates" are attached to the Police Department. They are trained civilians, although not volunteers. Operating from the Police Department, these persons are often able to offer victim assistance *at the scene of a crime* or immediately after the police officer has interviewed a victim. They arrange transportation home for the victim, arrange a visit to a doctor, contact a welfare agency if that is necessary, and attend to numerous other forms of immediate assistance.

- Tucson, Arizona. Victim assistance programs are operated through a shared organization involving the Pima County Attorney and the County Sheriff's Department. A paid staff of seven persons is augmented by about 40 volunteers. Numerous direct assistance activities are undertaken. Burglary victims are shown how to go about the process of recovering stolen property, if it has been found by the police department. Volunteers intervene with employers and landlords when necessary on behalf of the victim. They obtain time off for employed victims to assist the prosecution or help defer rent payments if money for that purpose was stolen.

- Huntington, West Virginia. The chief of police of this city initiated a unique counseling service that uses older volunteers to help rehabilitate senior citizen *offenders*. Senior offenders were usually charged with committing minor crimes, such as shoplifting. The reasoning here was that

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incarceration was unlikely and other court-imposed penalties ineffective, whereas the peer pressure brought by senior volunteer counselors could produce results.

REFERENCES

Title: *Criminal Victimization of Elderly Women — A Look at Sexual Assault*
Author: P. Fletcher, Syracuse Rape Crisis Center, Syracuse, N.Y.
NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.042843

Statistics on crimes against the elderly are given in this brief (7-page) publication, with particular attention to the crime of rape. Principles for counseling elderly rape victims are suggested. Factors to be considered when counseling include: fear of other people finding out about the rape, a major alteration of lifestyle because of the rape, feelings of helplessness and confusion, and feelings about sexual identity.

Title: *Implications for Crime Prevention — The Response of the Older Adult to Criminal Victimization*
Author: M.A. Rifai, Multnomah County, Oregon, Sheriff's Department
NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.039048

This article originally appeared in *Police Chief Magazine* (Feb. 1977). The report is based on findings of a Multnomah County study (including Portland, Oregon) regarding victimization of the elderly. Responses were recorded relative to potential and actual victimization, and implications were cited for crime prevention strategies. Out of 300 case reviews and a random selection of 500 adults in the Portland/Multnomah County area, findings indicated that older adults are *not* victimized more than other population segments. However, fear of victimization is much higher than actual rates among older citizens. The report also indicated that 62.5 percent of the persons victimized had taken positive action towards better protecting themselves.

Title: *Crime Against the Elderly — A Challenge to the Criminal Justice System*
Author: P.H. Hahn, Sam Houston State University Criminal Justice Center, Huntsville, Texas
NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.050667

This paper was originally presented at the Institute of Contemporary Corrections and the Behavioral Sciences 12th Annual Interagency Workshop in 1977. Characteristics of the vulnerability of older persons to crime are described, as are the consequences of victimization. The Bronx, N.Y., Senior Citizen Robbery Unit is cited as an effective law enforcement attack on crimes against older persons and the techniques used by that unit are described in some detail.

COURT-WATCHING

DESCRIPTION

Following on the heels of victim/witness assistance programs are various organizations and activities that take the process one step farther, into the realm of victim advocacy. While victim advocacy programs normally include some assistance to victims, they also include components that are directed less at the victim than at the criminal. Aid to victims is usually provided in order to improve or assure testimony at time of trial.

Victim advocacy programs candidly support the prosecutor during the course of a criminal trial. Most programs are organized within the office of the district attorney. Advocacy programs generally seek to deny the defense any chance to win by default. Programs include:

- Timely notification of delays or changes in trial schedule, so that witnesses will not make needless trips to court;

- Provision of transportation to court if it is needed;

- Intervention with employers to explain and request employee absence in order to appear in court;

- Provision of support services, such as babysitting;

- Provision of volunteer guides and receptionists at the courthouse for the benefit of newcomers to the criminal justice system.

Through such programs it is hoped that the victim/witness can be shielded from much of the discouragement and frustration that might otherwise lead to abandonment of the case.

Court-watching is an advocacy program designed to bring pressure to bear on the judge at a criminal trial. It is based on the premise that much of the efforts of law enforcement agencies and prosecutors have been frustrated in the past by lenient sentencing in the courts.

The essence of the court-watching program is the use of volunteer observers in the courtroom to systematically record information about the behavior of lawyers and judges, specifically including the severity of sentences given convicted criminals. With the passage of time, a record is constructed that will identify judges who tend to deliver inordinately light sentences. This record may then be used to seek dismissal of the apparently biased judge or to affect changes in his behavior.

PROGRAM GOALS

- To create a public record of court performance, particularly with reference to the severity or leniency of sentences given convicted criminals.

- To influence the courts to deliver sentences that are not inordinately lenient.

- To discourage questionable defense tactics, such as witness intimidation, by creating a public record of courtroom behavior during a criminal trial.

VOLUNTEERS

The victim advocate within the office of the district attorney is not a volunteer position. On the contrary, recommended qualifications for that role are: (1) at least a bachelor's degree, preferably related to law or the social sciences; (2) experience in crisis counseling; (3) familiarity with local community resources; and (5) 24-hour availability to victims. The victim advocate is a demanding full-time job.

Court-watchers, on the other hand, are definitely volunteers. They must also be trained to perform their task accurately and objectively. They must be intelligent, responsible people who are capable of establishing rapport with other courthouse functionaries. They must not be over-zealous, and must protect the credibility of the record they create. And, beyond all else, they must be prepared to spend many, many hours in court.

The role practically demands an older volunteer.

LIMITATIONS

A court-watching program is necessarily outside the operational realm of a law enforcement department. It is not in the best interests of a department to officially adopt an advocacy position on a judicial case. The department is limited to support of and assistance to court-watching and related efforts pretty much from the sidelines.

The department can and should be as cooperative as possible in its contacts with such a program, but must always be cognizant of the liability dangers possible by its *active* participation in program functions.

OPTIMAL BENEFIT EXAMPLES

- Monitors Aiding Justice in Court (MAJIC). This court-watching program in Wilmington, Delaware concentrated the abilities of older volunteers to bring about changes in courtroom

behaviors. MAJIC volunteers sought permission to attend juvenile hearings, and eventually observers were permitted to compile a record of juvenile court decisions. MAJIC volunteers claim credit for the introduction of a new law that would set mandatory sentences for repeat juvenile offenders.

- Citizens for Law and Order (CLO). This is a national organization that brings together people inside and outside the criminal justice system who believe that the courts should be more stern with convicted criminals. CLO claims more than 2,500 members in 197 cities. Among programs recommended for members, court-watching is suggested as a key instrument for bringing pressure on judges to deliver stiffer sentences. CLO is based on Oakland, California.

- Vera Institute of Justice. Vera is based on Brooklyn, New York. Among the court-oriented services provided is a telephone alert system that can be used to inform police officers and other witnesses about scheduled court appearances. Time can be limited when necessary to a 30-minute notice. The computerized court notification process is implemented by volunteers.

- Women United Against Rape. This organization provides crime prevention education and defensive material related to the crime of rape, but its main thrust is to influence legislators and the courts to take decisive action to improve the situation of rape victims in court. Public information campaigns and direct lobbying are utilized. Court monitors are recommended to observe and record behavior during rape trials. The organization is based in Indianapolis, Indiana.

VARIATIONS

In addition to court-watching, other closely related volunteer programs in the courthouse help the prosecutor gain a conviction in a criminal case by improving waiting room conditions for witnesses. An example is provided by an organization known as RSVP in Baltimore, Maryland.

Volunteers serve as receptionists outside the Baltimore City Juvenile Court. Each day 60 to 75 clients, witnesses, social workers, and attorneys may spend up to six hours in the waiting room before a case is heard. The frustration level was understandably high, and some witnesses left before they were needed. The RSVP volunteers now take the name of persons as they arrive, tell them where they will be going, and answer questions. Volunteers explain court procedures to newcomers, and answer questions about the court's agenda for the day. The wait is still just as long, but the atmosphere is more relaxed and there are fewer drop-outs.

Volunteers are predominantly elderly and female, but they have adjusted well to the tension of the court waiting room. Each volunteer works six hours per day, five days per week. Meetings are held each month to share experiences and learn from the previous month's activities.

REFERENCES

Title: *Senior Citizenship — Courtwatching*

Author: J.A. Meier, American Association of Retired Persons

NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.038459

This report is extracted from *Modern Maturity* magazine (April-May 1974). The basic principles of court-watching are reviewed with particular emphasis on the appeal of the program to older citizens. This report centers attention on court-watching activities in Santa Monica, California.

Title: *Youth and Senior Citizens in Creative Rural Courts*

Author: S.D. Tate, National Council of Juvenile and Family Court Judges.

NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.006994

This article originally appeared in the *Juvenile Court Journal*, Vol. 22, No. 3 (Fall 1971). It recounts a successful juvenile probation program in a rural area. The innovation was to utilize older citizens within the community as voluntary probation officers appointed by the court. The linkage among older citizens, the courts, and young offenders proved beneficial. Young probationers assisted their older partners with tasks such as shoveling snow and mowing lawns. Older citizens took an interest in the problems of young people. Both gained from the experience of interaction.

Title: *Crime Against the Elderly — The Role of the Criminal Justice System in New York City*

Author: A.F. Japha, Nova Institute, New York, N.Y.

NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.049967

This publication lists programs operated by the police and courts of New York City to reduce the impact of crime for older persons. Recommendations are made for both criminal justice agencies and social service agencies who want to undertake similar programs. Programs are described that help older citizens obtain information about a case in progress that affects them as a victim or witness. Other programs help to get the elderly citizen to court in order to testify, while others aid in the recovery of stolen property. The court is acting to limit the number of appearances an older victim must make in order to prosecute a case. The court monitoring project of the East Bronx Council on Aging is described in some detail.

SPECIAL RESOURCES

Victim advocate programs, including court-watching, are encouraged and to some extent supported by the National District Attorneys Association. Support takes the form of excellent publications that describe program components and related job descriptions. A nearly comprehensive directory of victim/witness assistance services throughout the nation is also distributed by the association. Programs described in detail include: property return, restitution, social service referral, witness brochures, reception center, transportation, witness briefings, escort service, employer intervention, witness intimidation, witness fees, and child care service. The directory of witness/assistance services includes 195 individual programs operated in 42 states, usually out of prosecutors' offices. The National District Attorneys Association is located at 666 North Lake Shore Drive, Chicago, Illinois.

One such justification might be that the volunteer performs the task better than the sworn officer. Such tasks as typing, filing, statistical analysis support, computer operation, property management, and public relations may in fact be performed better by a supervised volunteer than by a sworn officer who must also perform professional law enforcement duties.

The use of volunteers within the police department is no easy accomplishment. Certain basic security measures must be applicable. The volunteer, furthermore, must be made a fully participating partner whose efforts are recognized and appreciated. Like any volunteer, rewards must be offered in terms of attention and gratitude for the service performed. Daily personal attention is frequently required from a supervisor if the program is to work smoothly. Much of the same principle is applicable to part-time civilian employees, particularly if skilled older persons are involved. The supervisor must keep in mind that the older volunteer who works within the police department may not be compensated with quite the same social benefits as might be gained by participation in a group of peers in some other activity area. Attention and appreciation keep the volunteer on the job.

Although volunteers donate services, other cost considerations must be considered when planning to implement a program with volunteer help. Office space must be made available. Supplies and any supporting equipment must be provided. The cost of telephone calls, transportation, and other normal consequences of the activity must be considered. The bottom line, of course, is that hardly anything is free. The real question is whether or not it represents a good investment.

DIRECT POLICE SUPPORT SERVICES

DESCRIPTION

Most of the model volunteer program types thus far described have been programs that in some way *extend* the reach of police agencies. The use of volunteers in these cases makes it possible to provide services that could not be offered within the limitations of normal police budgets and manpower allocations.

Crime prevention education programs—including Operation Identification, security surveys, and crime reporting systems—extend the police function by alerting citizens to their own security needs and providing the means for them to take personal protective action. Neighborhood surveillance groups, citizen patrols, and escort services all serve to deter criminals within a protected area by extending or multiplying the normal patrol function of the police agency.

In health-related programs and witness assistance programs, innovative services are provided that go far beyond the capabilities of the law enforcement agency. Through court-related programs, such as court watching, volunteer groups support police through activities in other parts of the criminal justice system.

In this concluding section, we will itemize some programs that not only seek to *extend* the reach of the police agency, but actually make it possible to *replace* police officers with volunteers. For some it is a controversial topic.

PROGRAM GOALS

- To replace police officers with volunteers or other civilian personnel in properly supervised police department activities.

- To use sworn police officers more effectively by transferring some tasks that do not require professional training or skills to civilian or volunteer workers.

- To use the special skills or career experience of older volunteers to more effectively perform police department tasks that lie outside the professional or technical background of available law enforcement personnel.

OPERATION

The kinds of work that can be performed directly for the law enforcement agency by civilians or volunteers are limited only by the total activity of the police department and the resources available within the civilian community. The following itemization serves as a general checklist:

- Clerical duties (typing, transcribing, filing)

- Administrative support (standard forms, routine reports, statistics)

- Crime analysis (computer operation, systematic reporting)

- Maintenance (routine cleaning, repairs, improvements)

- Communications (telephone messages, routine correspondence, announcements, response by form letter, and standard form)

- Crime prevention (liaison services, literature distribution)

- Property management (inventories, supplies, security details)

- Evidence packaging (sealing, labeling, preserving custody)

- Public relations (writing skills, photography, public speaking)

- Investigative assistance (laboratory skills, senior experience)

- Technical consulting (special skills, special equipment)

VOLUNTEERS AND LIMITATIONS

Selective use of volunteers for routine police functions offers the possibility for more effective use of professional officers. Because sworn officers are not burdened with routine tasks that could be performed at lower skill levels, the officer is free to do more "real" police work. This is true only when the demand for "real" police work actually exceeds the ability of the department to supply it under normal working arrangements. If the time thus gained is not fully utilized in a higher or more specialized police skill category, the replacement program may have to be justified on other grounds.

One such justification might be that the volunteer performs the task better than the sworn officer. Such tasks as typing, filing, statistical analysis support, computer operation, property management, and public relations may in fact be performed better by a supervised volunteer than by a sworn officer who must also perform professional law enforcement duties.

The use of volunteers within the police department is no easy accomplishment. Certain basic security measures must be applicable. The volunteer, furthermore, must be made a fully participating partner whose efforts are recognized and appreciated. Like any volunteer, rewards must be offered in terms of attention and gratitude for the service performed. Daily personal attention is frequently required from a supervisor if the program is to work smoothly. Much of the same principle is applicable to part-time civilian employees, particularly if skilled older persons are involved. The supervisor must keep in mind that the older volunteer who works within the police department may not be compensated with quite the same social benefits as might be gained by participation in a group of peers in some other activity area. Attention and appreciation keep the volunteer on the job.

Although volunteers donate services, other cost considerations must be considered when planning to implement a program with volunteer help. Office space must be made available. Supplies and any supporting equipment must be provided. The cost of telephone calls, transportation, and other normal consequences of the activity must be considered. The bottom line, of course, is that hardly anything is free. The real question is whether or not it represents a good investment.

OPTIMAL BENEFIT EXAMPLES

- Crime Analysis. The San Diego, California Police Department has made extensive use of senior citizens within the crime analysis unit of the department. Older persons were hired to gather data from incident reports and manually code the data onto other forms. That initial task led to additional functions which have included on-line entry of data, quality control checks, some rudimentary analysis, and other activities involving the use of computer terminals. This program is described in greater detail in the following CASE REPORTS section, which makes up the second half of this section of the manual.

- Team Patrolling. The city of Rochester, New York carried out an experimental pilot program that paired police officers and civilians together to perform a foot patrol in various parts of the city. The program was known as PAC-TAC, an acronym for Police and Citizens Together Against Crime. Sixteen patrol teams were fielded to cover beats in four different patrol areas. The experiment included use of different kinds of patrol techniques. Bicycles were used to increase mobility by some patrol teams. The project was funded by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration.

- Search and Rescue. Citizen volunteers who possess special skills and/or special equipment can be extremely valuable for successfully completing search and rescue missions. Both the Maricopa County, Arizona Sheriff's Department and the Duval County, Florida Sheriff's Department make use of volunteer posses to meet special needs of this kind. (Both agencies are discussed in detail in the CASE STUDIES that follow.) The posse at Wickenberg, Arizona, located near a virtually uninhabited stretch of mountainous desert, is frequently called upon to help locate lost campers or downed aircraft. The volunteer organization makes available various forms of special equipment to local law enforcement. Special sub-groups operate airplanes, four-wheel drive vehicles, and a horse patrol. A Jacksonville posse also supplies an off-shore patrol group to look for lost boats or persons missing and feared drowned. The special skills and technical expertise provided to the law enforcement agency by these groups have proven to be invaluable.

- Holiday helpers. Numerous police agencies accept assistance every year from community groups that offer to staff telephones and perform other routine clerical tasks in the police department over the Christmas holidays. Work performed by volunteers at this time makes it possible for a few additional police officers to spend time at home with their families during the Christmas season. Groups most frequently associated with this gesture are B'nai B'rith and local senior citizen groups.

REFERENCES

Title: *Directory of Community Crime Prevention Programs*
Author: J.L. Lockhard, J.T. Duncan, R.V. Breener
NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.047126

This directory contains a list of national and statewide community-based crime prevention programs. Information on related community resources is included. The purpose of the directory is to facilitate the flow of knowledge and ideas among agencies and groups with interests in the crime prevention field. All programs listed have citizen participation as a major component and seek to implement strategies to reduce criminal opportunity. Each listing identifies the organization, program title, address and telephone number, sponsoring agency, program goals, services, resources, and publications. Entries are current as of April-May, 1978.

Title: *Community Crime Prevention Manual*
Author: League of California Cities, Los Angeles County Division
NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.046681

This publication is directed to municipal and public safety officials rather than to members of the public. It lists a number of crime prevention programs and citizen participation activities that might be encouraged in order to stimulate interest in crime resistance and appropriate protective action. Guidelines for implementing community-based crime prevention programs are offered. Areas discussed include direct involvement by municipal government, crime prevention programs within city government, selection and planning of programs, development of program resources, staffing and structure, and program evaluation.

Title: *National Women's Crusade Against Crime — Final Evaluation Report*
Author: A.D. Gill, N.B. Heller, Institute for Public Program Analysis, St. Louis, MO.
NCJRS accession number: 09900.00.040367

This is the final report of an evaluation of the Women's Crusade Against Crime, a project that was undertaken in response to a perceived need in other cities for information about organizational and operational aspects of citizen crime prevention programs. The stated objectives of the Crusade included dissemination of technical assistance and prescriptive material to persons interested in developing community crime control programs. The Crusade prepared and distributed booklets, starter kits, and a variety of instructional materials to several communities. A national workshop was also sponsored. Effectiveness was evaluated by mailed questionnaires and telephone contacts. Community response was generally favorable.

CASE REPORTS

Cottage Grove, Oregon

Huntington, West Virginia

Jacksonville, Florida

Pinellas County, Florida

San Diego, California

Santa Ana, California

Sun City, Arizona

CASE REPORTS
Cottage Grove, Oregon

The Cottage Grove Police Department serves a small community of 7,200 in a rural area of western Oregon. It has a staff of 22 and a limited budget with which to serve a growing community.

In 1975 the Police Department budget was reduced, necessitating the elimination of two civilian positions. At the same time, however, Cottage Grove was experiencing a 25 to 30 percent increase in burglaries from the year before. Developing an approach to solve this problem became a priority of the department, despite the fact that there were fewer fulltime employees.

Police officials realized that a crime prevention program was necessary to address the problem of the Cottage Grove community. Faced with a decrease in manpower, the department was forced to look toward alternative approaches to the situation. Department officials then decided to adopt a volunteer program utilizing older citizens, since people aged 60 and over make up 23 percent of the population.

SENIOR CITIZEN CRIME PREVENTION PROGRAM (SCCP)

The primary objective of the Senior Citizen Crime Prevention Program is to not only check the alarming increase in the crime of burglary, but to reduce its frequency overall. Burglary was the most frequent of the Part I offenses committed in Cottage Grove. Further, the amount of burglaries committed had dramatically increased in recent years and had reached alarming rates by 1975.

Because of this, department officials adopted a goal of reducing the number of burglaries in the community by five percent a year, hoping that these "small steps" could reverse burglary trends, as the following graph illustrates:

Senior Citizen Crime Prevention
Cottage Grove, Oregon Police Department

Impact On Burglary Rate
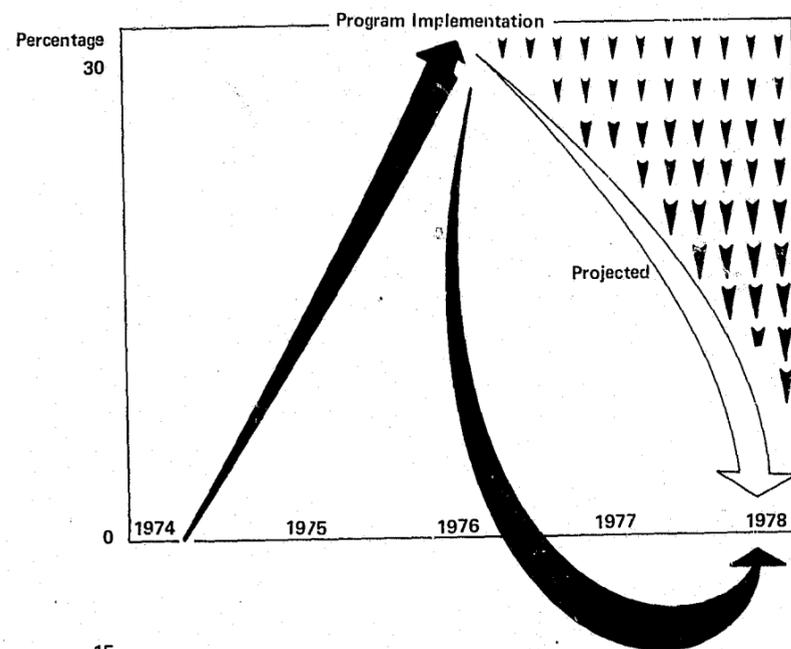
The SCCP Program was also designed to establish better community relations for the department and to actively involve the community's residents in the law enforcement and criminal justice processes.

A final goal of the SCCP Program was to focus crime prevention attention on the older population in the city and provide them with the knowledge necessary to assist in protecting themselves. By volunteering to actively participate in the program, these individuals would have an opportunity to serve their community.

Since the program has been designed to orient the public to crime prevention techniques, especially burglary prevention, volunteers visit homes in and around the city. They travel door-to-door by request and demonstrate the worth and methodology of property identification systems. They also conduct security surveys to help residents identify problem areas within their homes.

SCCP activities also include, but to a far lesser degree, contact with crime victims to provide comfort and possible assistance. In addition, volunteers serve in a liaison role between the community and the Police Department for occasional functions, but the greatest thrust is in crime prevention education.

This crime prevention education thrust addresses directly the need to reduce the number of burglaries in the community. When the program was established, the approach of property identification systems and security surveys was deemed appropriate by the project director, who was then a captain in the department. Responsibility for the program was placed at this high level of command to help ensure its acceptance and success, both within the department and the community.

PROGRAM OPERATIONAL PROCEDURES

The SCCP Program is staffed by older volunteers and the project director, who is now chief of police. The number of volunteers fluctuates according to availability, but the chief and two volunteers who have been active since the program's inception serve as the decision-making body. As new approaches are considered, the volunteers can accurately describe the points of view of the community's residents. The chief must weigh the effects of new program ideas upon the department and its functions. Ultimate responsibility for all program activities lies with the chief.

Initially, volunteers were recruited by "word-of-mouth" by the project director. The screening process now includes a personal interview with the director and a background investigation.

Training consists of a one-day orientation to the criminal justice system and the Cottage Grove Police Department. All volunteers then attend a two-week regional training seminar on crime prevention conducted in Eugene, Oregon. On-going training consists of participation in the activities of the Crime Prevention Association of Oregon.

The program is highly motivational for the volunteers, since their activities provide personal satisfaction and a sense of accomplishment, as well as recognition from the community and the department. Volunteers have received several awards from the city and state for their accomplishments and a great deal of support from the department for their dedication and commitment to purpose.

The costs of the project are an important aspect of the SCCP Program. Since its inception it has received no federal or state funding, and in three years has delivered crime prevention education to over a thousand households at a cost to the city of approximately $200 per year.

All staff time is *gratis*, including the time of the project director. The volunteers devote anywhere from 15 to 40 hours per week, and the director monitors and provides input to the project as necessary.

The SCCP program uses a crime prevention van which is donated free of charge by a local dealership. Before sizeable mileage is accumulated, the dealer reclaims the van for retail sale and provides the project with a new one. This virtually eliminates maintenance costs and assures reliable transportation at all times for the staff.

The evaluation of program impact is part of the routine crime analysis procedures conducted on a regional computer time-sharing basis. The statistical information is reflected in the annual report of the Police Department.

The minimal cost of the program and the exclusive use of local resources serve to maintain the SCCP on a continuing basis. Local control and protection from external contingencies are desirable and effective aspects of the program.

In addition to benefiting the Cottage Grove community, the SCCP Program has garnered favorable media attention, both locally and nationwide. The program has been described in *Parade Magazine* (1977) and its director received a Special Citation from *Parade* and the International Association of Chiefs of Police.

PROGRAM RESULTS

Because the program was established in early 1975, results could not be measured until the following year in terms of burglary reduction. The following chart represents the burglary data tabulated for the years 1975, 1976, 1977, and 1978.

Year	Number of Burglaries	% of Change	
1975	195	+ 31%	
1976	152	− 23%	(*year one of program)
1977	122	− 20%	
1978	134	+ 10%	

The data reflects a significant impact on the rate of burglary, with important qualifications. First, many factors are involved in both the causation and reduction of crime, not just one program. Second, the very nature of the program will increase the number of contacts between the police and the community, thereby improving the reporting rate of crime. This can help to explain the 10 percent rise in burglary rates experienced in 1978. Further evidence of this is the significant increase of in-progress reports of all crime types, a benefit attributed to the SCCP Program.

The program has also created strong ties between the department and the community. The department participates in many community functions and overall receives a great deal of positive attention from the public.

The volunteers carry on their activities beyond the city limits of Cottage Grove. They are active members of the statewide Crime Prevention Association, and are well-received as resource persons throughout Oregon.

Finally, this program has established the older volunteers as community leaders on many issues. They enjoy increased influence in their city and can have a direct impact upon many problem areas.

Through the initiative of a concerned Police Department and the support of its community, a program effectively addressing the problems shared by both groups has been developed. The Cottage Grove Police Department now has a greater input into community decision-making and is expanding the realm of services it provides. Additionally, it is now involving its older volunteers in such departmental functions as property and evidence processing. This will allow even greater use of the professional resources in the department in an era of decreasing budgets.

CASE REPORT
Sun City, Arizona

Maricopa County, Arizona is one of the largest counties in the United States, encompassing an area of over 9,000 square miles. This far-flung county contains a population of over 1,000,000 in its urban and rural setting with mountains, lakes, and deserts interspersed with cities and towns.

The size and terrain of Maricopa County represent an enormous responsibility for the Sheriff's Department, and yet this vast region receives outstanding law enforcement service from a department with only 350 sworn deputies. *This is possible only because of the extensive use of community resources by the Sheriff's Department.*

The Sheriff's Department has existed since the county was founded in 1871—41 years before Arizona became a state. Under subsequent Arizona law it has enjoyed the right of *posse comitatus* (the formation of the Sheriff's Posse), and county residents have been actively engaged in general posse functions for more than 20 years.

The department took an active role in organizing posses throughout the county, by area and function. Today volunteer posses perform a wide range of activities, including:

- Land, sea, and air patrol and search and rescue;
- Desert rescue and survival training;
- Underwater diving search and rescue;
- Mounted and jeep patrol;
- Paramedic rescue;
- Clergy;
- Crime prevention;
- Communications; and
- Corrections.

Over 2,000 volunteers provide their time, vehicles, equipment, and money to assist the department county wide.

Posses are also formed for specific geographical areas in order to provide *immediate* law enforcement services to residents. Sun City is one such area served in this fashion. Unique in a number of ways, the city has a population of nearly 50,000, which is considered to be high for sparsely-populated Arizona. It is a retirement community of individual homes and condominium developments. The Sun City Sheriff's Posse is made up entirely of city residents, who are by definition older volunteers, and they provide their community with quick and efficient law enforcement services.

THE SUN CITY SHERIFF'S POSSE

The members of the Sun City Sheriff's Posse, Inc., which was established in 1973, serve as *the eyes and ears of the sheriff*. It is their role to provide a law enforcement presence for their community at all times, as it is physically impossible for the sheriff or his deputies to do this.

As a service organization, the Posse defines its purpose in Section 1.01 of its By-Laws:

"To assist the Maricopa County Sheriff's Office in maintaining peace, law, and order in our community at any time and in any manner as and when requested to do so; to be public spirited; to promote good fellowship; and to promote the support of law and order and the law enforcement system."

A further goal is to support Sun City and address the needs of its residents by whatever roles are called for, be they law enforcement functions or not.

The primary function of the Sun City Posse is to patrol the community and report any suspicious activity to the Sheriff's Department. This patrol is performed 24 hours a day, seven days a week. Importantly, Posse members do not arrest or detain possible violators of the law. Possemen have citizen arrest powers *only*; they do not have police powers. They are to report suspicious behavior or situations to the department, and allow sworn officers to investigate and deal with these problems.

Secondary activities of the Posse cover a wide range of services needed by the community. Traffic direction is a major part of this, as is crowd control during special events. When needed, escort services are provided for visiting personalities, and more often for the more frail members of the community.

Some Posse members are trained in the use of firearms and ride with and assist the regular deputies. This is not the case with all Posse members, since firearms training is voluntary and is a lengthy, rigorous process to complete. Only those members who have met Arizona Law Enforcement Officer Advisory Council (ALEOAC) standards may carry a weapon.

The Eyes And Ears Of The Sheriff

Sun City, Arizona Posse

- Patrol
- Traffic Direction
- Crowd Control
- Escort Services
- Crime Prevention

PROGRAM OPERATIONAL PROCEDURES

The intial Posse developed from what had been a Civil Defense Team. The approximately 30 members of that group officially became the Sun City Sheriff's Department Posse when they were sworn in by the sheriff in 1973.

A Board of Governors was elected by the Posse members and, when the Posse was first established, it consisted of one commander, six lieutenants, and the sheriff or his designated deputy. As the program developed and expanded, additional functions were assumed and the Posse now provides for as many as 12 lieutenants.

The volunteer Possee members are recruited by "word-of-mouth" and through media contacts. Prospective members are screened by an Oral Board Committee, which consists of current members serving on a rotating basis. The Board of Governors makes the final decision on prospective enlistees.

All new Posse members receive basic training in the following areas:

- The Posse, its organization, rules and regulations;
- The uniform requirements;
- The relationship of the Posse to the law;
- The communications system of the Posse;
- Traffic control;
- Vacation watch; and
- Red Cross first aid and cardio-pulmonary resuscitation procedures.

Specialized training is offered to qualified members in traffic control, self-defense, and firearms. The firearms training includes classroom instruction and practice on the Posse range. Trainees must also qualify on the sheriff's range in order to carry guns, in accordance with ALEOAC standards.

Posse training is conducted in churches, banks, and recreation centers. A single facility to house all Posse activities is being planned.

Once a new member fulfills his training requirements, he is assigned to a patrol shift. Patrols are carried out on foot and in the Posse cars with emergency lights and emblems. Members are supplied a yellow jump suit, helmet, and whistle, and are kept in communication with headquarters by two-way radio. All radio communication is taped for records and future recall.

The costs of the Posse are borne entirely by members and community donations. There is an annual fee of $2.00 per member, and donations have provided for Posse patrol cars and uniforms, as well as for the communications system. There is no outside funding sought or received by the Posse.

While the motivational aspects of participation in the Posse lie mostly in personal satisfaction and community prestige, a certificate also is awarded to each member upon completion of training. The sheriff selects an "Outstanding Posseman of the Year" for formal recognition.

Media recognition of the Posse has been overwhelming. Posse activities are well known throughout the community, and there has been a great deal of outside attention.

PROGRAM RESULTS

As Sun City grows toward its limit of 50,000 people, the Posse grows with it. What had initially been a "vacation watch" conducted by the Posse has now expanded into a full-scale Neighborhood Watch Program for the entire community. The Posse patrols have helped to reduce the crime problem. The FBI Uniform Crime Reports show Sun City to have the *lowest* crime rate of any city of its size in the country.

In addition, the Posse has assisted at numerous public functions by providing escort services and crowd and traffic control. This has allowed the Sheriff's Department to deploy its deputies elsewhere rather than be tied up at such functions.

Another vital benefit of Posse activities is the furtherance of crime prevention education in the community. Through Posse presentations and actual neighborhood involvement, citizen awareness of the deterrents to crime is high in Sun City.

CASE REPORT
Santa Ana, California

The Santa Ana Police Department, prior to 1975, had established crime prevention, rape education, and community relations programs. These programs typified the *one-way* community education approach found in many law enforcement agencies.

However, in October, 1975, the department adopted the concept of Community Oriented Policing, which established a variety of approaches to meet the crime prevention needs of the Santa Ana community and, most importantly, involved the citizens in action programs to benefit both themselves and others. Over 25,000 Santa Ana residents are actively involved in the various programs today, out of a total population of 186,000.

By January of 1976 the Community Oriented Policing Program (C.O.P.) had become fully operational and now encompasses the following activities:

- Crime Prevention Programs: educational/action programs (surveys, etc.) which were already being conducted by the department. Only now these programs are conducted in concert with other C.O.P. activities.

- Lady Beware: a rape prevention program also conducted in coordination with other programs.

- Community Relations Programs: continued activities previously conducted by the department exclusively, which now include citizen involvement.

- Neighborhood Watch Programs: consisting of over 1,000 groups in the city, coordinated into four police service areas. Each group has a block captain who channels information both to and from the respective areas.

- Juvenile Crime Prevention Education: presenting the techniques of crime prevention as they are applicable in the home, at school, and in the community.

- Victim Assistance Program: actively supports the victim through the trauma of the incident itself and the rigors of the criminal justice process.

- "Grey Hammers" Program: provides home improvement and security to older persons, primarily through the area Kiwanis Clubs.

- Community Criminal Action Committee: a court watch program consisting of criminal case research as well as actual court monitoring.

- Senior Citizen Assistance Program: attacks the impact of crime upon older persons and the vulnerability of the aged to crime. It further serves to assist older persons with civil difficulties.

Each program actively involves the citizens of Santa Ana in volunteer capacities, and two activities—the "Grey Hammers" and the Senior Citizen Assistance Program—are targeted exclusively for older persons. The Community Criminal Action Committee and the Senior Citizen Assistance Program use older volunteers to carry out their activities.

Community Oriented Policing

Santa Ana, California Police Department

Neighborhood Watch

Crime Prevention

Community Relations

Community Criminal Action Committee
Senior Citizen Assistance Program

Juvenile Crime Prevention

"Lady Beware"

"Gray Hammers"

Victim Assistance Program

COMMUNITY CRIMINAL ACTION COMMITTEE (CCAC)

The Community Criminal Action Committee was conceived in November of 1977 to monitor the criminal justice process. As the name implies, the community takes an active role in the process. Because of the variety of activities undertaken, it is unique in the area of crime prevention programming.

The philosophy or purpose of the CCAC is to promote better prosecutions of career type criminals through the criminal justice system by maintaining an open liaison with the Police Department and the District Attorney's Office on current criminal cases. This integrates the police, the prosecutor, and the citizen in an area of mutual interest.

The linking of the community with the police and the courts serves the following objectives:

- Police officers continue to actively apprehend criminals.

- The District Attorney's Office actively prosecutes criminals without plea bargaining.

- The Probation Department submits thorough past histories and follows up probation violations.

- Judges consider past histories and sentence offenders appropriately.

These objectives are compatible with the goals of the criminal justice system itself. However, the citizens of Santa Ana had felt that the system was no longer living up to these standards, and three concerned individuals formed the Committee to monitor the processes.

The Committee expanded rapidly since 1977 and its membership continues to increase steadily. The volunteers are almost exclusively older persons and, as the Committee grows, so do the functions of the members.

The Committee volunteers watch the court process when following a case and research criminal records for information pertinent to the case. Committee members help the District Attorney gather information on a case, and inform the presiding judge about activities carried out by the Committee.

Related activities include a legislative watch program, with criminal justice-related proposals and legislation highlighted and analyzed in the C.O.P. (Community Oriented Policing) Bulletin. Further, every election year the Committee publishes a record of the performance of all judges in the jurisdiction.

The Committee was established because there was an apparent need for the case monitoring process, based on the dissatisfaction of the community with the workings of the criminal justice system. In order to effectively work within such a system, credibility had to be established with the police, the presiding judge, the Office of the District Attorney, and the Clerk of the Court's staff. This was accomplished primarily by the program's three founders, who maintain close working relationships with all four offices and receive the full cooperation of each.

The legislative watch and the judicial performance record reviews were viewed by Committee members as enhancements of their initial activities; the benefits of these activities were related to their long term goals of an effective criminal justice system, Committee members felt.

The responsibility for all of these activities lies with the three individuals who initiated the Committee. The personal credibility established by these individuals permitted the committee to successfully implement its various activities.

PROGRAM OPERATIONAL PROCEDURES

The CCAC's membership consists entirely of volunteers, mostly older, retired persons. The decision-making board includes the chairman, vice chairman, a secretary, and a Santa Ana Police Department liaison officer. The board members receive input from the other volunteers. This board is responsible for recruiting, screening, and training the volunteers, as well as establishing guidelines for Committee operations. Further, each board member supervises either a case following procedure, court watch, or the public relations process.

The volunteers are recruited by word-of-mouth and through a brochure. Training consists of an introduction to the various functions of the Committee by stages; the initial stage is to serve as a court observer. A trainee is assigned to an experienced volunteer, who explains the various processes of the court and, at the same time, determines the suitability of the trainee for assignment to a particular case to monitor. From there, the volunteer moves into researching court records, and eventually to interaction with the District Attorney's Office.

All volunteers receive in-service training once a month on the procedures and goals of the Committee. This session is conducted by the board and, because of the advanced age of the volunteers, is generally limited to one hour. Court watchers are briefed on pertinent developments in the half hour preceding the start of the session.

There is a very low turnover rate, and a program volunteer has never been dismissed. The ongoing screening process serves to determine the appropriate level of involvement within the Committee by the volunteer.

The low turnover rate is an indication of the self-reward experienced by the volunteers. Certificates are awarded to the volunteers after 25, 75, and 150 hours have been logged, and the Committee has received an award from the California Crime Prevention Officers Association.

The costs of the program are relatively small. The printing, postage, and post office box are paid jointly by the members. Each volunteer provides his own travel. The Committee operates out of the homes of the volunteers, although the growth rate will necessitate office space and a telephone in the future.

There is no outside funding sought or received by the Committee. Donations will be accepted in the future as office needs materialize.

The actions of the Committee have received media attention, but such attention has been limited. The Santa Ana Police Department has initiated news stories about the Committee on several occasions, but the local newspapers have shown limited interest. As the activities of the Committee become more widely known, media interest will correspondingly increase.

Committee activities have not been formally evaluated beyond maintaining records of cases followed. Necessary changes in Committee procedures are decided at board meetings and volunteer meetings with board members.

PROGRAM RESULTS

Although the Committee was formed in November of 1977, actual program implementation did not begin until February, 1978. In a one-year time span, over 3,000 hours in court had been logged by Committee members, and 15 felony cases involving habitual criminals had been followed from start to finish. Of those 15 cases, 14 resulted in longer sentences being imposed than in similar, non-monitored cases.

More importantly, the criminal justice process has received greater public scrutiny than ever before, and the decision-makers within the system have been made acutely aware of that scrutiny. Public accountability has produced significant results.

The significance of the Community Criminal Action Committee, beyond effecting changes in the criminal justice system, lies in the approach taken by its members. Concerned citizens of Santa Ana saw a problem within a massive system of government, and took it upon themselves to try to correct it. Using their own resources—primarily time and interest—they were able to effect change for the better interests of the criminal justice system and the community it serves.

SENIOR CITIZENS ASSISTANCE PROJECT (SCAP)

The Santa Ana Police Department initiated its Senior Citizens Assistance Project on March 1, 1978. This program, as the name suggests, deals exclusively with older persons and the problems they face in the community.

The purpose of SCAP is to actively attack the crime problem as it relates to older persons. Beyond this, however, an effort is made to reduce the vulnerability of the older person to criminals and to provide assistance to the victim after a crime occurs. A further effort is made to assist individuals in civil problems as well. These programs necessitate a wide range of interaction between the police and older persons.

The primary objectives of SCAP are to deliver crime prevention techniques specific to older persons and to provide assistance to older victims. As needs can be identified, other police-related services are included. These objectives focus on the department's goal of aiding older persons, as well as providing the SCAP volunteers with a vehicle to provide assistance when and where necessary. An officer of the Santa Ana Police designed this strategy, and he is now program coordinator.

SCAP's activities include:

- Crime prevention program delivery;
- Community education programming;
- Victim assistance;
- Information and referral; and
- Civil and criminal investigation.

These activities are carried out by three Police Department staff members and a steadily increasing number of older volunteers. The volunteers are included in all activities with the exception of the investigation process.

The department recognized the need for this type of program in the community, and allowed the coordinating officer to devote his full attention to it. He initially contacted senior citizen groups and established an Advisory Board. This Board assisted in referring him to existing programs for older persons, which established the inter-agency contacts necessary for successful implementation of the SCAP activities. The personal interest and initiative of the officer was important in making the project a reality.

PROGRAM OPERATIONAL PROCEDURES

The SCAP project was established in the Police Department by a verbal commitment from the chief, the captain in command of the Field Operations Division, and the area commanding lieutenant. This commitment was attained by personal meetings between the coordinating officer and each of the decision-makers, demonstrating the need for and benefits of the program idea.

The area lieutenant agreed to serve as director, on a part-time basis, with the SCAP officer serving fulltime as coordinator. Assisting him are an administrative assistant and a service team coordinator. The volunteers are split into service teams and make up the bulk of the project staff.

Two paid staff members were acquired through the CETA and Manpower programs; the volunteers were recruited through the media and by word-of-mouth. All staff members, who were screened by the coordinating officer, received specialized training in the aging process, crime prevention, and volunteer services. The Orange County Department of Mental Health assisted in the training process.

Since the inception of the program only one volunteer has left, due to fulltime employment elsewhere. This staff retention rate indicates the degree of personal satisfaction the volunteers receive from the work they do. A lunch program and procedures to award certificates of achievement to volunteers have also been developed by the coordinator.

Project costs consist primarily of the salaries of the coordinating officer, the administrative aide, and the service team coordinator. The Police Department pays the salary of the coordinating officer as well as minor printing costs. The salaries of the administrative assistant and the service team coordinator are paid by CETA and Manpower funds. Office space is provided by the department and a local senior citizens center, both at no cost to the project.

The program has been publicized by the local newspaper and radio stations. Media attention is periodically stimulated by the department's public information officer.

The project is continuously monitored by the coordinator, who provides progress and achievement reports to his supervisors. There is no formal evaluation system.

PROGRAM RESULTS

The SCAP project became fully operational on August 1, 1978. During the following six months:

- Over 50 crime prevention meetings were conducted.

- Assistance was provided to victims in over 550 cases.

- The program is represented on four advisory boards of senior citizen service agencies.

- On-going criminal and civil investigations have been conducted by SCAP staff for cases involving older victims.

In this brief time span the growth of SCAP has increased the realm of volunteer activities in Santa Ana, and members are now divided into service teams.

The primary beneficiaries of SCAP are the older residents of Santa Ana. The program is designed to serve their needs and is continually expanding its efforts. The staff of the project, both paid and volunteer, receive a great deal of personal satisfaction from participating in program activities. The Santa Ana Police Department benefits from a favorable public reaction to its efforts.

SANTA ANA: CONCLUSIONS

The initiative of the Santa Ana Police Department has greatly affected the way of life in its community. Using a broad range of programs, the department has taken the traditional police role and augmented its activities with exceptional community involvement. The result has been the development of new areas of law enforcement concern and a successful attack on traditional problems.

The citizens of Santa Ana are highly involved in *their* criminal justice system. The interaction between the system and the community has created public accountability in areas traditionally left to the arbitrary decisions of vested interests. These programs have also fostered community awareness and interest in the positive actions of criminal justice. For the Santa Ana Police Department, this has meant the support of its citizens.

CASE REPORT
San Diego, California

In many law enforcement agencies, older persons are involved in crime prevention education and community service activities. Senior aides in San Diego, California are employed by the Police Department to provide a variety of support service duties—from analyzing crime data to participating in long-range planning activities.

The San Diego Police Department employs 1.37 sworn personnel per 1,000 population and 1.85 total personnel per 1,000 population at an annual operating cost of $43.76 per capita. San Diego covers 320 square miles and has a total population of over 830,000.

SENIOR AIDES IN SAN DIEGO'S CRIME ANALYSIS UNIT

The San Diego Police Department employs senior aides as part of its Integrated Criminal Apprehension Program (ICAP), which was established with funding support from the U.S. Justice Department's Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. ICAP seeks to identify, apprehend, and prosecute career criminals. The crimes selected as the initial targets of the program in San Diego were robbery, rape, child molestation, and burglary. When ICAP was initiated in 1976, San Diego's Crime Analysis Unit, which employs eight full-time personnel, faced a massive task of encoding information from thousands of police reports and criminal records to establish a computer data base for an automated analysis capability. The involvement of older persons as part-time employees in the Crime Analysis Unit was recommended by LEAA as an effective way to provide the needed police support services.

Eleven senior aides began work at the Police Department in 1977. They are paid $3.00 an hour and work on four-hour shifts, three-to-five days a week. When the program was first established, senior aides were assigned rudimentary crime analysis tasks, but they now perform many other jobs. Among the tasks performed by senior aides are:

1. Encode data from police reports.
2. Use the computer terminal to enter and check data.
3. Make data correlations for quality control purposes.
4. Develop graphs and logs.
5. Publish and distribute "daily alert" or "investigative supplements."
6. Correlate photos with Identi-Kit composites.
7. Study false alarms involving burglaries and intrusions.
8. Provide administrative assistance, including typing and filing.
9. Update criminal history records.
10. Conduct inventories.

11. Match recovered property with lost or stolen property lists.
12. Write publishable articles on crime prevention and other police operations.
13. Give speeches to community awareness groups.
14. Organize and coordinate Citizens' Band radio groups.
15. Provide long-range crime prevention planning, e.g., engineering and environmental design.
16. Perform basic statistical functions and bookkeeping.

Senior Aides In Crime Analysis

San Diego, California Police Department

- Encode Data
- Enter/Check Data
- Data Correlations
- Graphs/Logs
- Statistical Functions

  - Publish "Daily Alert"
  - Publish "Investigative Supplements"
  - Correlate Suspect Photos
  - Update Criminal History Records
  - Match Recovered Property to Lists

    - Administrative Assistance
    - Inventories
    - Publish Articles
    - Speeches
    - Coordinate CB Groups
    - Crime Prevention Planning

PROGRAM OPERATIONAL PROCEDURES

The coordinator for San Diego's Office of Community Services assisted the Police Department in establishing the senior aide program by identifying potential applicants and conducting an initial screening to assess their health, transportation needs, availability to work, and previous work experience. The ICAP project manager then met with each applicant to outline the requirements of the job. Before a senior aide is hired, a background investigation is conducted and a job sample test is administered.

Each senior aide who is hired by the Police Department is assigned to a team leader who trains and schedules the new employee and monitors his work, checking for quality control. Although there was some resistance by department staff to the idea of older people working in a law enforcement environment, this resistance disappeared once the senior aides demonstrated their capabilities and competence.

The amount of supervision required for senior aides is the same as for regular full-time employees and less than that required for typical temporary help. Senior aides in San Diego are more amenable to directions and more inclined to ask questions than are many full-time employees. Furthermore, the seniors' positive job outlook is reflected in their exemplary attendance records and low turnover rates.

The program attempts to keep administrative procedures short and simple. An outside agency was contacted to identify older persons for the available senior aide positions. This procedure cuts down on calls to the Police Department from potential applicants and minimizes the amount of time spent in interviewing unacceptable applicants. Department staff members conduct on-the-job training so that the senior aides are available to provide the Crime Analysis Unit with skills and active program support within the shortest time possible. Day-to-day supervision requires minimal record-keeping. Evaluations of the capabilities, needs, and limitations of each senior aide involve redefining tasks performed by the aide to meet program priorities and needs. Short, simple administrative procedures assure program success.

PROGRAM RESULTS

The involvement of senior aides in San Diego's Crime Analysis Unit is a mutually beneficial arrangement. The department is obtaining skilled services which are cost-effective and produce results. For example, 168 work hours per month cost $504 when provided by a senior aide but cost $885 ($704 salary and $181 in benefits) if the same services are provided by a clerk typist, the basic entry-level clerical position in the Crime Analysis Unit. The savings to the department are $381 a month, or $4,572 a year, for *each* senior aide employed.

The senior aides are highly motivated to do a good job. The older persons who work with San Diego's Crime Analysis Unit feel that they benefit, not just from the salary, but from being actively involved in providing a meaningful service to the Police Department and their community.

Police administrators throughout the nation are constantly confronted with the problem of insufficient manpower to complete a given job within the constraints of time and budget. San Diego has established a successful program which offers an alternative for police managers.

CASE REPORT
Jacksonville, Florida

The Sheriff in Jacksonville, Florida is responsible for the largest geographical area of any city in the nation—over 840 square miles—which is a result of consolidation between Jacksonville and Duval County. A small force of full-time deputies, coupled with sharply rising law enforcement costs resulting from inflation, contributed to the sheriff's decision in 1975 to solicit help from non-paid volunteers, who now serve in a variety of posses and reserve units.

The sheriff's posses augment police services to the community and foster community involvement and support in crime prevention activities. The concept of volunteerism is the foundation for each posse—there is no monetary reward system.

THE POSSE PROGRAM

The Police Public Services Division, which has 20 full-time professional employees, manages a cadre of over 600 civilian volunteers, many of whom are retired persons. The varied backgrounds and abilities of the volunteers enable the sheriff to utilize their services in a variety of law enforcement functions—from uniformed patrol activities to the implementation of social change. For example, posse volunteers provide the following services:

1. *Duval Sheriff's Community Posse, Inc.*

Most of the members are ham radio operators who have set up communications for volunteer groups, assist Records and Identification Personnel, and provide communication for SWAT Team exercises.

2. *Community Posse.*

This posse serves as the primary crime prevention unit. The members assist in crime prevention educational programs, conduct security surveys of homes and businesses, establish Neighborhood Watch Programs, distribute Vials of Life and whistles, and staff exhibits in shopping centers and at fairs.

3. *Four-Wheel Drive Posse.*

The first posse to be established, this group serves as an off-road search and rescue unit, looking for lost or missing persons, stolen vehicles, and crashed aircraft over 400 square miles of underdeveloped land. They also furnish security for marijuana seizures, assist in traffic control for football games and other public events, and patrol beach areas.

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4. Marine Posse.

The members provide 34 boats which are equipped to patrol all the waterways of Duval County and assist in crowd control, searches, rescues, and police operations on the waterways.

5. Mounted Police.

The Jacksonville Mounted Police Unit conducts search, rescue, and police operations in areas suitable for horses. They also serve as crowd control personnel, assisting the police reserves.

6. Sheriff's Motorcycle Escort.

This posse provides motorcycle escort services for a variety of occasions. The volunteers supply 20 matching Harley-Davidson motorcycles.

7. Duval County Sheriff's Watch.

Fourteen volunteers assist the Office of the Sheriff by monitoring Citizens' Band Radio Channel 9, the emergency channel.

8. Victim Advocate Program.

Since 1976, an elderly volunteer has administered this non-funded program to assist victims of crime. Victim advocate volunteers refer crime victims to appropriate government agencies. Police operational personnel (patrol officers and detectives) are taking an active part in informing victims about the program.

Sheriff's Posse

Jacksonville, Florida

Communications — ham radio operators

Crime Prevention Education — homes, businesses, shopping centers, fairs

Search & Rescue — 4 wheel drive

Waterway Patrols and Rescue — boats

Mounted Police

Motorcycle Escort

Victim Advocate

PROGRAM OPERATIONAL PROCEDURES

The requirements for volunteers vary slightly from posse to posse, but all posses share the same basic recruitment and training concepts. Prospective posse members are required to apply in person. Ages of volunteers range from 18 to 75. Each applicant undergoes a background investigation, which includes checking his arrest record, traffic record, and personal references. After the investigation has been completed, an Oral Review Board, which consists of one posse member and two sworn officers, determines the applicant's reasons for wanting to join, his attitudes, and other pertinent information.

Once he has been selected, the new posse member must participate in a basic training program, which includes first aid, search and rescue, defense tactics, and firearms training (a minimum of 15 hours at the range). With the exception of the Community Posse, each volunteer carries a firearm. All volunteers buy their own uniforms and pay their own expenses. No volunteers receive salaries.

Sworn, full-time deputies are assigned as coordinators for each posse to supervise the performance of all duties by the volunteers. If a volunteer does not follow rules and regulations, he is relieved of duty. Careful recruitment, screening, placement, and training of each posse member has provided the Sheriff's Office with a large number of volunteers.

PROGRAM RESULTS

The volunteer posses provide a large number of needed personnel to the Sheriff's Office at no charge to the taxpayers. The following chart details the support provided by volunteers in 1978:

Posse	Number of Volunteers	Manhours	Other
Communications	30	1,300	
Community	42	8,342	59,262 miles
Four-Wheel Drive	150	18,295	5,900 gals.
Marine	65	8,076	4,200 gals.
Mounted	8	478	
Motorcycle Escort	20		
Victim Advocate	2	2,855	1,116 contacts
TOTALS	317	39,346	

Although the posses have contributed thousands of manhours to the Sheriff's Office, they are only called upon when needed. The successful continuation of a volunteer program such as this requires that the law enforcement agency sustain the motivation of the volunteers by providing them with an opportunity to perform necessary community services. Jacksonville's posses benefit the department, the community, and its members.

CASE REPORT
Huntington, West Virginia

In the city of Huntington, West Virginia, older persons and police have established a cooperative program to provide community services to elderly and handicapped citizens. The "cornerstone" of the program is older volunteers, who contact program recipients daily by phone to check on their well-being. With this "Lifeline" program, many lives have been saved.

The city of Huntington, in the West Virginia portion of the Ohio Valley, covers a land area of approximately 16 square miles in Cabell County. Of its 75,000 people, approximately 20 percent are above the age of 60.

OPERATION LIFELINE

Operation Lifeline provides a daily phone check for any interested older citizen, handicapped person, or individual living alone. The lifeline telephone call provides daily reassurance for individuals that someone cares about them and will provide services if an emergency situation occurs.

Operation Lifeline was established in 1974 and was staffed by police personnel on a volunteer basis. However, other law enforcement duties reduced the amount of time police officers could devote to Lifeline activities. New volunteers from a local university assumed responsibility for the daily phone calls, but academic needs and campus activities created scheduling conflicts. The police then asked older volunteers to manage the program. Lifeline now has seven older volunteers who coordinate their own schedules. Volunteers work from 9:00 a.m. to 11:00 a.m. to receive calls from program members, who call Lifeline every morning during those hours; as each member calls, the volunteer marks off his name for that date. Should a member fail to call, the volunteer will call him. If the person cannot be reached by phone, a police officer will be dispatched to his house.

To obtain membership in Lifeline, an older citizen or handicapped individual calls the Police Department's Crime Prevention Unit or the special Lifeline number and asks to be placed on the list.

Lifeline activities include:

1. Free blood pressure check once every three months.

2. Vacant house check when member is on vacation or in the hospital for extended time period.

3. Programs on crimes against the elderly.

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4. By request, the Hi Y club boys will assist members in activities requiring strenuous physical efforts.

5. Dinners sponsored twice a year for members.

Operation Lifeline

Huntington, West Virginia Police Department

Provides reassurance and affects the quality of life for older persons
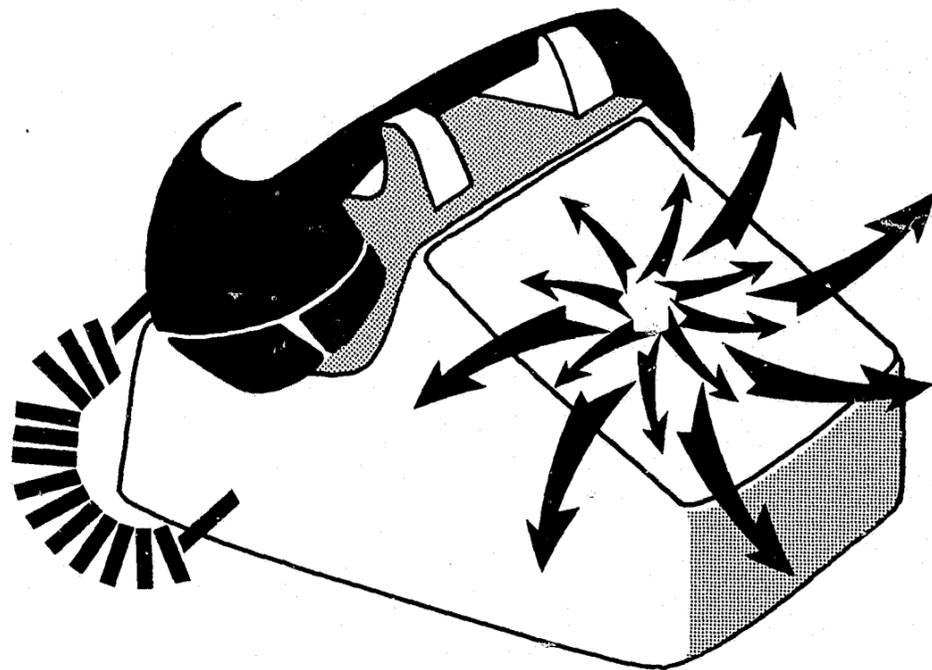
Program Operational Procedures

Volunteers for Lifeline are recruited with the assistance of the media and civic organizations. Training by the Police Department is not required—new volunteers receive "on-the-job" training. Volunteers coordinate their own work schedules and provide their own transportation.

The opportunity to provide a needed service and civic recognition are the only rewards volunteers receive. Their dedication is exemplified by longevity, stability, and dependability as program volunteers. Since the Police Department began recruiting older citizens to staff Lifeline, there has been little turnover in personnel. Those volunteers who have left gave reasons of poor health or personal necessity.

PROGRAM RESULTS

Lifeline began with 20 members and now provides daily contact services to approximately 300 older persons and handicapped citizens. The program benefits for members, volunteers, and the police cannot be measured in statistical terms. However, the Police Department has significantly improved its relations with the community at little cost (the fees for telephone extensions) and has received maximum benefits. Lifeline members receive reassurance and positive contacts with law enforcement personnel. In several instances, lives have been saved when members were contacted in time. The older volunteers themselves benefit by knowing that they are providing a useful service which might not otherwise exist.

Police agencies throughout the country are limited in providing needed community services because of budgetary and manpower restrictions. Through the use of older volunteers, as in the Huntington Lifeline program, an effective community relations program which provides a useful and necessary service can be implemented and maintained at little cost to the agency.

CASE REPORT
Pinellas County, Florida

The Sheriff's Department in Pinellas County, Florida has actively utilized community resources for several years. Its volunteer program is one of the most extensively developed crime prevention/education efforts in law enforcement.

The jurisdiction of the county includes the cities of St. Petersburg and Clearwater, each with substantial retirement communities. Persons aged 65 and older make up a large percentage of the county population and thus have a great deal of input in community affairs. It is this input and a genuine desire on the part of older residents to better their community that have contributed to the success of the crime prevention/education program.

JUNIOR DEPUTY LEAGUE

The Pinellas County Sheriff's Department Junior Deputy League, Inc., was founded by 12 concerned older members of the community in 1958. At that time it was felt by the older population that the new generation of youngsters in the county did not have an adequate understanding of the purpose and need for law enforcement, specifically the Sheriff's Department. Positive steps to correct this problem, the older residents felt, would help maintain a good community spirit throughout the county.

The League was established to develop an educational program for the schools in the county—public, private, and parochial. This program, as a functional component of the Sheriff's Department, teaches elementary school children about law enforcement while at the same time develops their respect for the system itself.

The program leaders also targeted junior and senior high school audiences for presentations in specific aspects of law enforcement, primarily in the areas of crime prevention and awareness. These presentations also are made available to interested adult groups in the community.

The involvement of the older community was a primary concern to program leaders, since the program was initially established to provide an opportunity for older citizens to contribute a service to their community while at the same time stimulating an awareness of crime prevention among younger residents.

Because of the emphasis placed upon early orientation of youth to law enforcement, the League primarily involves itself with the elementary schools in the county. A regular schedule of presentations is maintained for each school, covering such topics as traffic safety, drug awareness, crime prevention, building a respect for law enforcement, and other criminal justice concerns.

The volunteers use a variety of approaches in their presentations in order to stimulate the interest of the children. Along with lectures there are slide and film presentations, display kits, and pamphlets. The children participate in simulated traffic situations and have an opportunity to see such law enforcement aids as fingerprinting kits and training dogs.

As each group of children goes through the program they become junior deputies. Most important to them is the badge they receive, but they are also given a Junior Deputy Manual and pamphlets on topical areas of law enforcement.

The presentations to junior and senior high school audiences are conducted less frequently than are the elementary school programs. These upper-level programs focus on one topic, such as drug use, and are much more detailed—this is due to the increased comprehension level of the audience and their need for specific information.

The Crime Prevention Unit also makes presentations on crime awareness and prevention to citizens' groups. These progams are scheduled by request only, and participants receive the program's accompanying literature. Presentations to adult groups are made by older volunteers. Under the supervision of Sheriff's Department Crime Prevention Unit deputies, volunteers are trained as needed to conduct the presentations and are provided with the necessary accompanying materials.

Junior Deputy League

Pinnellas County, Florida
1978
Sheriff's Department

1968

1958
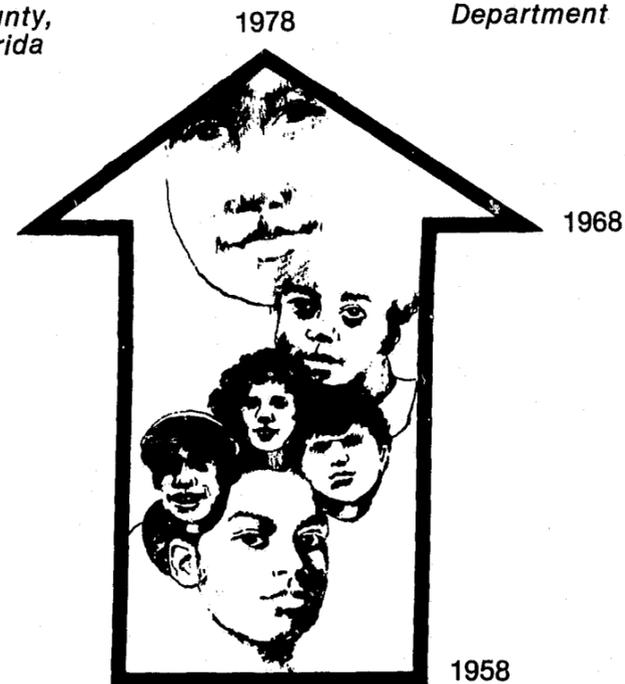
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PROGRAM OPERATIONAL PROCEDURES

The Pinellas County Sheriff's Department Junior Deputy League, Inc. is a private, charitable, non-profit corporation. Its members are retired and non-retired Pinellas County residents. The sheriff serves as the chief executive on the League's Board of Governors, and all major activities are decided upon by this body. All positions within the League are volunteer.

The Sheriff's Department Crime Prevention Unit provides funds for 10 paid staff members to coordinate work activities with League Members. The county is divided into three districts, and each district is provided with a deputy to present programs at elementary and secondary schools. The Junior Deputy Program supervisor for the Sheriff's Department coordinates the work activities of the three district deputies.

Each deputy is responsible for regular presentations at 30 elementary schools. In addition, he coordinates other programs, which are presented by volunteers. The crime prevention supervisor and the project coordinators are all graduates of the National Crime Prevention Institute in Louisville, Kentucky.

Since its inception the League has been an influential community organization. League membership provides the volunteers with an opportunity to bring about change, and gives them a sense of accomplishment. Members periodically receive appreciative commendations from the county, and the self-motivational aspects of the project are substantial.

When the League was first established, there was substantial commitment but no finances. To get the program off the ground, the Sheriff's Department agreed to share the costs, which are divided on the basis of purpose. The Department funds the salaries of two sergeants, four deputies, three coordinators, and one clerk-typist, and provides the vehicles, office space, and supplies. All other program costs are borne by the League, which obtains funds from contributions and local restaurant association "dine-outs," from which a portion of the proceeds are contributed to the League.

The amount of equipment needed has grown considerably with the program. Major cost items are projectors and films, stationery, moter vehicle maintenance, and a 35 mm camera. The total cost of the project, including departmental salaries, is approximately $87,000 per year. The League, through its fund-raising efforts, contributes about $16,000 per year.

Evaluations of the presentations are conducted by school administrators and faculty, who report back to the Junior Deputy Program supervisor the effectiveness of the delivery. They also receive feedback from the students and pass this information on to the Program supervisor as well.

Because it is a private, charitable, non-profit corporation, the League is able to present programs in all schools—public, private, and parochial.

The Junior Deputy League and the educational presentations have received a great deal of positive media attention. There has been extensive newspaper coverage, and approximately 8 to 10 public service announcements are made on television each year. In addition, the project has received

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nationwide acclaim in magazines, journals, and on network television as well. This has greatly enhanced the image of the Sheriff's Department, both locally and nationally.

PROGRAM RESULTS

Since its relatively limited start in 1958, the Junior Deputy League now is involved with 80 elementary, 9 junior high, and 11 senior high schools. In addition to this are the presentations to community groups, which are not systematically scheduled but are conducted as they are needed.

The most outstanding result of the League's activities has been the reduction of crime in Pinellas County. This has come about through an effective dissemination of crime prevention information to a variety of community audiences. Further, as the school children mature and become tomorrow's citizens, that awareness will stay with them. Consequently, League efforts will serve to benefit the county in future years as well.

Because the League is dealing very visibly with the community, it stimulates more public involvement in the criminal justice system. Citizens are discovering the very important role they must play to make such a system work. The older volunteers who actually deliver the presentations are serving as active catalysts for community self-improvement. For them there is also the satisfaction of providing a worthwhile and successful contribution to their neighborhoods.

The result of League activities has been a better community to live in, with a greatly enhanced image of the Sheriff's Department and its employees. This is evidenced in letters the children write about the program, making such statements as "I made a friend of a cop." This is the ideal which the League strives to achieve.

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