COMMUNITY-BASED PARTNERSHIPS AND PROBLEM-SOLVING IN MIAMI

COURSE MANUAL

Miami Police Department

CHIEF RAUL MARTINEZ

COMMUNITY-BASED PARTNERSHIPS AND PROBLEM-SOLVING IN MIAMI

COMMUNITY POLICING DEMONSTRATION CENTER

Lt Michael L. Colombo
Project Director
Miami Police Department
400N.W.2[n<i] Avenue
Miami Florida, 33128
(305) 579-6648
MichaeLCoIombo@Miami-Police.org

Community-Oriented Policing

Defining Community Policing

Community policing is a philosophy, not an operational strategy. There are, however, certain features to community-oriented policing, some of which are operational, that indicate a police department has embraced a community-oriented policing philosophy. These include the assignment of police officers to permanent zones, the expectation that police officers will form partnerships and solve crime and disorder problems within the neighborhoods to which they are assigned. From this perspective, community policing might be defined as a philosophy of policing where the same officer patrols and works in the same area on a permanent basis, from a decentralized location, working in a proactive **community partnership** with citizens to identify and solve problems.

Since neighborhoods differ in the problems they confront, community policing is not a *one-size-fits-aU* approach to the delivery of police services. ID short, many different strategies have been developed to deal with them. This diversity of approaches has resulted in a bewildering diversity of definitions of community policing.

Notes...

Hermann Goldstein, regarded by many as the father of community policing, provides the following observations about community-oriented policing:

> "Indeed the popularity of the term community-oriented policing has resulted in its being used to encompass practically all innovations in policing, from the most ambitious to the most mundane, from the most carefully thorough to the most casual. The label is being used in ways that increase public expectations on the police and creates the impression that community policing will provide an instant solution not only for the problems of crime, disorder, and racial tension, but for many of the other acute problems that plague our urban areas as well."[1]

Community Partnership is a flexible term. It refers to any combination of neighborhood residents, schools, churches, businesses, community-based organizations, elected officials, and government agencies working together in cooperation with the police to solve local problems.

Problem-solving refers to the process of identifying and prioritizing local problems. These problems may be identified from any number of sources, but once. identified, their scope and frequency of occurrence are determined through a careful needs assessment of the community. Once these problems have been identified, information about them is carefully collected and analyzed. From this analysis, responses are designed and agreed upon that have the best chance of eliminating or reducing the problem. Finally, these responses are evaluated to determine how effective they have been in eliminating or reducing the level and seriousness of the problem confronted.

Notes...

[1] **Goldstein, Herman. "Hie New Policing: Confronting Complexity." National Institute of Justice: Research in Brief; 1993:1.**

Principles of Community-Oriented Policing:

- Police and the neighborhoods within which the police work are jointly responsible for criminal activities and social disorder problems. Much of the criminal activity occurring in local communities is the result of conditions found within the communities themselves. Arresting offenders and incarcerating them does little to resolve these underlying conditions causing crime and social disorder. The people living within their neighborhoods often have as much to do with "policing" their communities as do uniformed officers. Through a process of education, neighborhood residents should come to accept and share the responsibility with the police for social disorder. Both need to work cooperatively towards identifying problems and finding solutions for these problems.

- The police and the community share ownership, decision-making and accountability in the struggle against crime and social disorder. The police should recognize they cannot fight crime and social disorder problems alone. Police management style should change in order to allow for diverse input from officers and the public into the decision-making process. The communities should accept ownership for their safety and well-being. Shared ownership does not mean that local residents take the law into their own hands. .

- Community policing establishes new expectations for the delivery of police services and for their performance measurement. Random preventive patrol, rapid response time, and increasing levels of arrest are widely accepted standards for measuring police efficiency. These tactics, however, often fail to alleviate the underlying problems and social conditions generating the calls for service to which police respond. Community-oriented policing focuses upon identifying these problems, with the assistance of the community. This collaboration assists the public in understanding

Notes...

more realistically what police can and cannot do. It also aids the police in understanding that measures of police success, often measured by levels of arrests and response times, need to be augmented with more qualitative standards such as client satisfaction, quality-of-life assessments, and levels of community participation.

- Community policing increases understanding and trust between police and community members. Effective partnerships are built upon increased levels of communication and trust between partners. Police officers need to be sensitive to the cultural and other differences between groups in their neighborhoods. Police administrators need to develop organizational strategies that mirror these differences. Assigning officers to a neighborhood for an extended period of time (beat integrity) helps increase the trust and communication between the police and that neighborhood.

- The police and neighborhoods working together help empower and strengthen community-based efforts. Partnerships with the community invite communities to take greater charge of their own lives and encourage them to participate in their own defense against crime and social disorder problems. Police officers may assist in this process by helping them work through the complexities of government offices and regulations by providing them with contact information and brochures describing the availability of both government and public services. In so doing, officers help demystify government and help empower people. with confidence that the system can work. Community involvement might include neighborhood watch groups, safe houses for children going to and from school, senior citizens escort services, safe recreation facilities for teenagers, anti-drug gang intervention programs for at-risk youth, and civilian foot patrols.

Notes...

- Community-oriented policing fosters a long-term commitment to develop flexible proactive strategies to address the underlying conditions that cause community problems. Mark Twain once commented that if the only tool you have is a hammer, everything looks like a nail. The hammer of policing is often viewed as the criminal law, arrests, and incarceration, despite the fact that the vast majority of police work involves non-criminal matters. Developing other tools for handling specific problems as they occur is often more effective than using the criminal law to solve all problems. Examples of such alternate strategies are: authorizing mandatory mediation counseling for domestic or neighborhood disputes, authorizing police to order people to leave situations such as bar fights without making arrests, taking homeless into custody and transporting them to shelters, transporting drunks to detoxification facilities, and using civil abatement procedures for closing down drug houses.

- Community-oriented policing is committed to developing long-term programs and strategies *to* address the underlying conditions that create community problems. The police and the community must commit themselves to the long-term struggle of addressing the complex and often chronic issues underlying many of the problems plaguing our communities. This principle involves ongoing needs assessments, the participation of all appropriate stakeholders (elected officials, local agencies, . community organizations, schools, businesses, and community representatives), reviewing and resetting resource priorities and allocations, and evaluation and modification of ongoing efforts.

- Community policing requires the commitment of available resources and knowledge of how to access and mobilize them, as well as the ability to develop new resources within the community. As facilitators, community police officers must know the available resources within their agencies and communities, both

Notes...

public and private. They must become adept at intra- and interagency collaboration, and community mobilization.

- **Successful community-oriented policing requires the buy-in of top police management and local government officials, as well as a sustained commitment from all levels of management and other key personnel.** Community-oriented policing uses untapped resources by encouraging and empowering line officers to be creative and risk-takers in their problem-solving. This approach requires management tolerance for honest mistakes. Its management style is value rather than rule driven. This is quality leadership, which also requires the support, cooperation, and understanding of local government.

- **Community-oriented policing decentralizes the delivery of police services, operations and management.** Community policing provides services from the bottom up, rather than from the top down. It relaxes the traditional chain of command and encourages innovative problem-solving, thus making fuller use of the knowledge, skill, and expertise within the organization regardless of rank. First line supervisors all the way to the chief provide beat officers with the support and resources needed to solve problems in their areas. Performance evaluations are revised so that people are evaluated for community development and problem-solving in addition to their enforcement activities.

- **The police working together with the community in partnerships shifts the focus of police work from responding to individual incidents to addressing problems identified by the community and the police.** Community-oriented policing is not soft on crime. Where law enforcement actions are necessary, they are taken. Nevertheless, responding to calls for service, often to the same locations and situations, only

Notes...

deals with the surface manifestations of crime and disorder.

Shifting from an incident-based approach to a problem oriented approach involves analyzing and identifying the underlying problems and conditions generating these calls for service and developing appropriate responses to them. Through regular interaction between the police and the community and through regular assessment of the problem, police actions become more closely aligned with the actual needs of the community. People are often more-concemed with quality-of-life issues-issues which are more mundane that high profile crimes, but which are more intrusive into their everyday lives. These include drug dealing in parks, noisy adolescents loitering on the corner or in shopping malls, abandoned cars and buildings, pan handling, inconsiderate neighbors, squealing tires and other activities that make people feel unsafe in their neighborhoods or businesses.

- Community policing requires commitment to developing new skills through training. Training occurs from the top to the bottom of the organization. At the top, managers must be schooled into a "consensus" managerial model. This may require time to develop because current management of police agencies relies upon a "decision-making model" of management where decisions are made at the top of the organization and implemented down the line of command. Line officers, as well as managers, need to be trained in some or all of the following skills.
  - Problem analysis and problem-solving
  - Facilitation
  - Community organization
  - Communication

Notes . . .

- Mediation and conflict resolution
- Resource awareness and development
- Networking and linkages
- Cultural competency/literacy

******

Notes . . .

The Evolution of Community Policing

While modern policing has always been concerned about crime, during the 1920s and 1930s, along with the ascendance of the FBI as a preeminent law enforcement agency within the United States, local police departments began to embrace the notion of crime control as its primary organizational goal. Increasingly, police officers joined police departments in order to fight crime and catch crooks. The public increasingly looked to police agencies to deal with crime problems.

The professionalization of policing, which came into its own during the 1940s and 1950s, led by the work of the police reformed O.W. Wilson, was built upon three pillars:

- Random Preventive Patrol-By randomly patrolling zones, it was thought that the deterrence effect of patrol would be increased.
- Rapid Response Time-By responding quickly to calls, especially calls involving criminal events, it was thought that the chances of apprehending criminals would be increased.
- Follow-up Investigations-This is thought to be the "clean-up" tool of the crime control model. Collecting evidence and pursuing leads would lead to the apprehension of criminal offenders.

Studies revealed that each of these pillars, while important in-and-of-themselves, failed to produce the results desired.

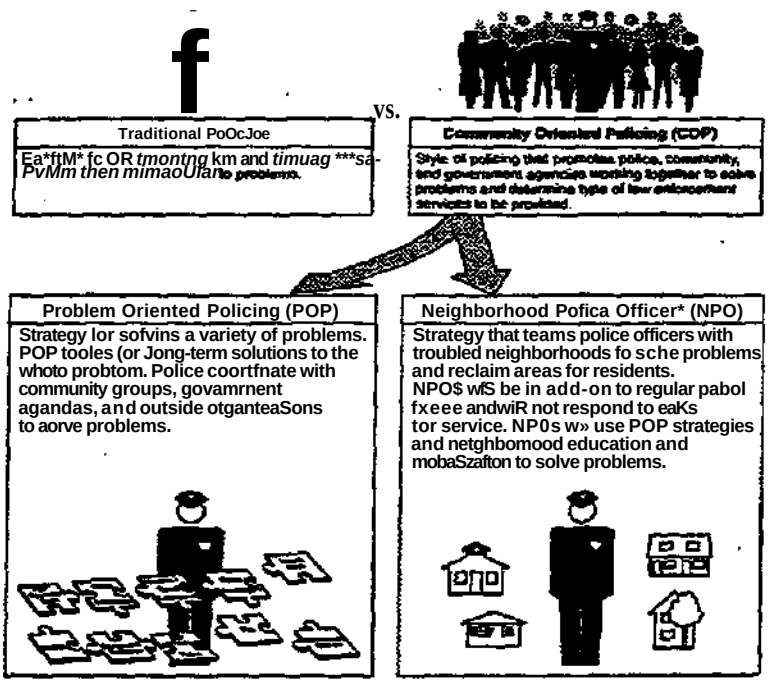
Clearance rates

One of the statistics kept by local, state, and the national government is the number of crimes resulting in arrests. While this clearance rate represents only a partial picture of police effectiveness, it does relate to the effectiveness of the crime control model adopted by many police departments and by the public. According to the Federal Bureau of Investigations, the national clearance rate by arrest for Part I crimes (murder, aggravated assault, forcible rape, robbery, burglary, larceny, motor vehicle theft, and arson) in 1996 were the following:

- Crime Index total 21.8%
- Violent Crime 47.4 %
- Property Crime 18.1%

Traditional vs. **Community-Oriented Policing**

Policing that is not community-oriented policing is often referred to as traditional policing. The notion of traditional



Source: Sacramento Police Department

Notes . . .

policing refers to the professional model of police work and, as such, it refers to how police work has been conducted over a long period of time. Nevertheless, when compared to community-oriented policing, the term traditional policing is an unfortunate one because it suggests that the way police work has been conducted in the past has been a failure and that community policing is its replacement. Contrary to this belief, community-oriented policing builds upon what traditional policing has always done-enforce the law.

Notes . . .

******

What Community Policing is Not

Community policing is not a program. It is not a limited effort to be tried and then withdrawn, but instead is a new way-a new philosophy-of delivering police service to the community.

Community policing is not a public relations campaign. Instead, it encourages officers to view citizens as partners and encourages officers to improve their relations with them.

Community policing is not a separate division or squad of any particular police department. Police departments may choose to identify certain officers as community policing officers (CPO's) or as neighborhood police officers (NPO's). Nevertheless, these officers must be part of an overall department strategy buying into the philosophy and strategies of joining the community in partnerships and problem-solving dealing with crime and social order problems.

Community policing is not social work. Community policing defines the notion of problem-solving, including making arrests, as the basic mission of policing.

Community policing is not soft on crime. Community and

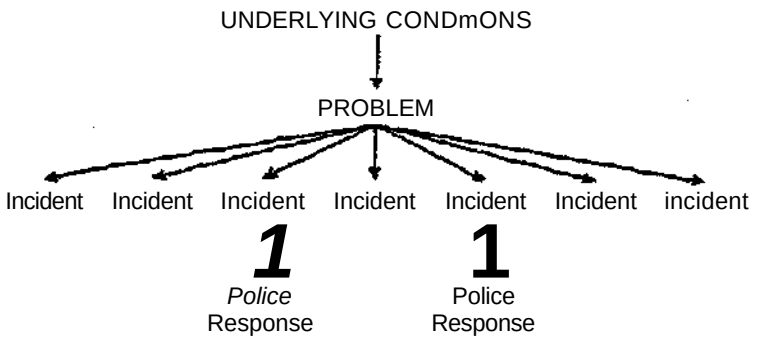
neighborhood police officers answer calls and make arrests like any other officer. The important difference is that community police officers view an arrest as a problem solving tool rather than as the main mission of police work.

Notes . . .

******

Incident-Based Policing

On occasion, traditional policing is referred to as "incident based policing." Under incident-based policing, as depicted in the following diagram,[2] police departments received calls for service, the majority of which do not involve criminal matters. Based upon the professional model of policing, officers respond to those calls as quickly as possible. If the call is an emergency, police officers are expected to arrive within minutes of receiving the call. If the call involves a criminal matter, the goal is to arrest the offender. After responding to the call, officers return to service and are ready to be dispatched to the next call. If no calls are waiting, officers engage in random preventive patrol of their beats.



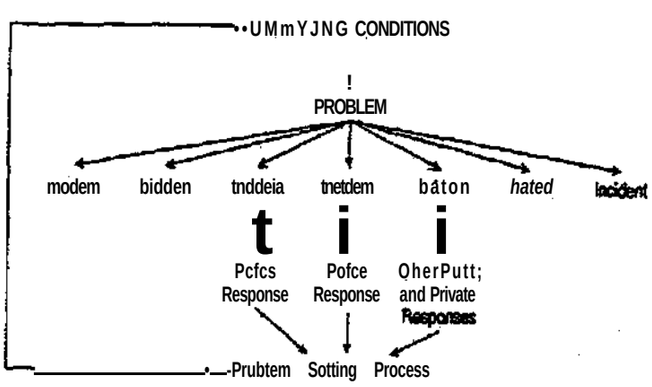
Responding to incidents phoned into a police department and dispatched to individual officers on patrol often means that officers respond to the same locations and people numerous times without solving the problems or addressing the underlying conditions generating these calls.

[2] Source of diagram: John E. Eck and William Spellman, *Problem-Solving: Problem-Oriented Policing in Newport News (Washington, D.C: U.S. Department of Justice, National Institute of Justice, 1987)*, *p.4.*

******

Community-Oriented Policing

The community-oriented policing model differs from that of the incident-based model, as the following diagram Illustrates.[3] Like incident-based policing, community



oriented policing responds to calls for service based upon incidents. Like incident-based policing, officers handle the incidents to which they are dispatched. Unlike incident-based policing, however, officers pay particular attention to problems that may underlie the call to which they are responding, especially if officers have been to the location many times. Should this be the case, officers are expected to analyze the situation in search of the underlying causes and conditions of the problem appearing to generate the calls for service from that location. After understanding the problem, they are also expected to develop a plan solving the problem, implement it, and monitor or assess the success of the plan's implementation. As part of understanding the problem as well as part of implementing the plan, officers may partner with other public or private agencies that may assist in both the understanding of the problem and the implementation of its solution.

Notes . . .

[3] Source of diagram: John E. Eck and William Speilman, *Problem-Sohning: Problem-Oriented Policing in Newport News (Washington, D.C: U.S-Department of Justice, National Institute of Justice, 1987), p.4.*

Community Policing vs. Traditional Policing

Question	Traditional Policing	Community Policing
Who are the Police?	A governmental agency principally responsible for law enforcement	Police are the public and the public are the police: the police officers are only those who are paid to give full-time attention to the duties of every citizen
What is the relationship of the police force to other public service departments?	Priorities often conflict	The police are one department among many responsible for improving the community's quality-of-life
What is the role of the police?	Focusing on solving crimes	A broader problem-solving approach
How is police efficiency measured?	By detection of crimes and arrest rates	By the absence of crime and disorder
What are the highest priorities of the police?	Crimes that are high value (e.g., bank robberies) and those involving violence	Whatever problems the community defines as a priority
What specifically do the police deal with?	Incidents	Citizen problems and concerns
What determines the-efFectiveness of the police?	Response times	Public cooperation and problems solved
What is police professionalism?	Swift, effective response to serious crime	Keeping close to the community members and responding to their needs
What is the role of police management?	To provide rules and policy directives	To teach organizational values
What is the nature of police accountability?	Highly centralized, governed by rules, regulations, policy directives, accountable to the law	Emphasis on local accountability to community needs
How do the police regard arrests?	As an important goal	As one tool among many

Source: Malcom K. Sparrow. "Implementing Community Policing," (Perspectives in Policing, No. 9 [Program in Policy and Management, John F. Kennedy School of Government, Harvard University). Washington D.C. National Institute of Justice, November, 1988.

Exercise: Crime and our Communities

Reasons why we are struggling with crime in our communities. (Break into groups and list responses on a flipchart).

- The level and nature of crime.
  - Many communities face serious problems with drugs, gang violence, murders, muggings, and burglaries.
  - Crime disorder problems in certain areas are increasing.
- The character of American communities is changing.
  - The social fabric is changing, with fewer "stay-at-home" moms, more single parent homes, and more working parents.
  - Churches and schools are no longer safe havens and cannot fill the void of children or working parents.
  - Cultural diversity has increased, creating new demands.
- Governments have less money to allocate for these increasing needs.
- Government and community leaders are beginning to recognize that they must assume responsibility for keeping neighborhoods safe.
- Previous practices are not as effective today.

Notes . . .

Building Partnerships

Introduction

The long-term solution to crime and disorder problems within neighborhoods lies with the neighborhoods working together with police agencies to solve these problems. The long-term solution is not the complete eradication of crime, however attractive that may sound. The long-term solution is to manage the crime problem in such a way that the quality of neighborhood life improves.

Partnerships are difficult. They take time to develop. They take time and effort to nurture and maintain.

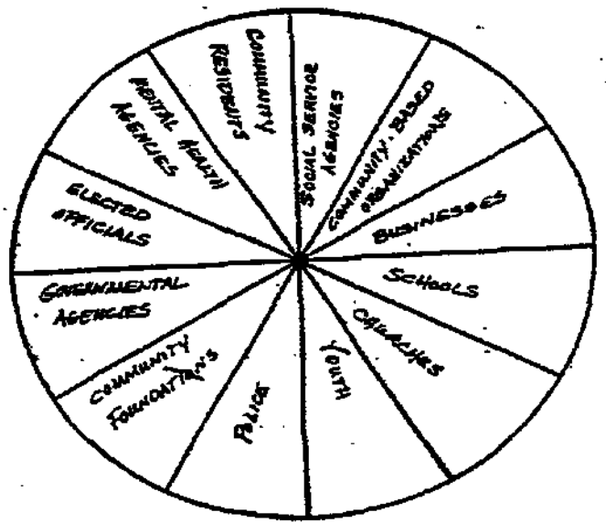
In partnerships the police become part of the community. They speak at community groups, participate in business and civic events, and become part of the schools and recreational activities with juveniles.

In partnerships, citizens and business groups accept ownership for many of the problems confronting mem. They participate in identifying the problem by providing information about the nature of the problem and designing solutions.

Notes . . .

Notes . . .

The Wheel of Partnerships: A key to Problem Solving



Building community partnerships requires the development of a sense of mutual support and trust. Establishing this trust requires different approaches in different neighborhoods.

In communities where residents distrust the police, the police have to work to overcome this distrust. Unfortùnately, those areas where residents have less trust in the police are often areas having higher levels of crime and disorder. These are often the areas having the most need of developing effective partnerships. In areas where residents already trust the police, building partnerships is easier.

In building partnerships, the police must view citizens as equal partners rather than as individuals with little knowledge and few resources. Often police view themselves as the experts on crime and disorder, a view that is often shared by residents. Such a view, however, sometimes results in overlooking the vast storehouse of information residents and business owners have about the problems occurring in their areas.

Notes . . .

******

Basics of Community Organizations

Every municipality contains many types of community organizations. There are differences in the numbers and types of organizations found within communities. There are also differences in the level of involvement of these organizations both within municipalities as whole and within the different municipal neighborhoods. As a rule of thumb, there is less community involvement in those areas of a city where things are perceived as hopeless.

For purposes of discussion, community organizations may be divided into public and private organizations. In thinking about community organizations, it is not uncommon to think of public organizations. Aside from police departments, here is a partial list of some of these public agencies:

- Hospitals
- Code Enforcement
- Fire Department
- Public Works
- Public Schools
- Health Department
- Housing Authority

- Adult Protective Services
- Public Drug and Substance Abuse Services
- Family Services

In addition to these public services, there are a far greater number of private agencies and services available. Many of these are voluntary organizations or organizations that are not-for-profit:

- Home Owners Associations
- Business Associations
- Private Drug and Substance Abuse Services
- Churches
- Political Groups
- Special Interest Groups (e.g., environmental, recreational, travel)

******

Getting to Know Community Associations

One of the difficulties for citizens and police officers alike is getting to know the community associations that exist in the cities and counties where they live and work. What they need to know is who these associations are, what they do, where they are located, and how to get in contact with them. Community-oriented policing is greatly aided by this information. A police officer's solution to problems within their beats is influenced by their understanding of the resources available to solve them. Similarly, die perception by citizens of what they are able to do in the face of neighborhood problems is similarly affected by their knowledge of available resources.

Notes ...

Unfortunately, most citizens and many police are familiar with only a small percentage of the community organizations that might be able to help them. Moreover, many of the associations that come to mind when thinking about problems are government agencies, even though there are many private agencies available to provide similar services. If these observations are true, more information needs to be provided to officers and citizens.

Through in-service training, departments are able to provide information to their officers about the availability and purpose of community based associations. In turn, these officers can pass this information onto the citizens, either individually as they confront personal problems, or to local groups grappling with community problems. In this way, officers may well help citizens understand the working of local government and private associations as they relate to the problems they are attempting to solve. One useful device that police departments could employ is the creation of a list of community associations that officers carry with them. These lists can be printed in a small booklet that is carried around in an officer's shirt pocket.

Notes . . .

The illustration on the previous page from the Hollywood Police Department depicts just such a list. The reproduction of the cover is the actual size of the booklet. The inside view of the booklet's contents has been reduced in size to allow it to fit on the page. Interestingly, these booklets might be produced by funds provided by some of the very community associations listed in them.

Exercise: Break into groups and list 10 or more community organizations indicating (1) type of organization (2) type of funding (3) organizational mission (4) constituency (5) main issues.

******

Effects of a Good Referral List

- Knowing where to find community resources that may be used to solve neighborhood problems could enhance an officer's effectiveness.

- If citizens are better informed about community resources there might be fewer inappropriate calls for service.

- When the community knows who has responsibility to addressing their problems, they can hold that agency accountable for results.

******

Meet at Meetings

Community meetings provide opportunities to learn about community issues and concerns. When police officers attend, it often indicates the department's interest and commitment to the concerns expressed at these meetings and to the association holding the meeting. It allows officers and departments to increase their understanding of resources available to them for the solution of problems. Similarly, citizens gain a better understanding of their

Notes...

police department and the resources they have available to solve different types of community problems.

Notes . . .

******

Forming Neighborhood Associations

Forming neighborhood associations may result from the actions of police or from neighborhood residents.

Police Role in Mobilizing the Community: The police have a number of opportunities to become involved with community organizations. Officers, on a daily basis, interact with citizens and attend the meetings of both community and business organizations. As community-oriented police officers, as well as problem-oriented officers, they have opportunities to become involved in the organization and planning of community and business associations for the purposes of crime prevention and disorder problems.

The role of police officers in either forming or working with community organizations is that of facilitator. For instance, if there is a particular problem confronting a neighborhood, a community-oriented police officer might seek out a neighborhood leader. In approaching this leader, the police officer might explain the problem, if it is known, and ask whether this person would be interested in helping organize others to work with the police on *it.*

In establishing community organizations, police officers may work with residents to get the organization started. After attending the initial organizational meetings, officers play less and less of a role in the organization. They maintain contact with the association but are more of a resource than one of the key players.

The role of police officers in working with community associations is to help them maintain their independent

status. Organizations that hope to maintain neighborhood credibility cannot be seen as relying on the agendas of other organizations. In particular, community groups cannot appear dependent upon criminal justice agencies when a public perception exists that these agencies are ineffective. To do so, would result in a loss of public credibility.

How can police officers help community associations maintain independent communication with the residents of their communities? This can be done through one or more of the following:

- Newsletters
- Mailings
- Media Exposure
- Regular Meetings

Residents Role in Mobilizing the Community: In order to form a neighborhood association, it must organized. Such organization often results from the concerns of one or more residents who recruit similar minded individuals. These people make up the core of the group. It is this core group that forms the neighborhood association.

Creating and Distributing Flyers: People need to know that a meeting has been planned. A good method of getting the word out is to create a flyer and mail or deliver it door-to-door. These flyers can also be posted in businesses and on public bulletin boards. Police departments may be able to help. They may have access to volunteers such as graduates from their citizen academies and explorer groups who might be willing to help in the distribution of flyers.

Notes . . .

The First Meeting

When the core group holds its first meeting, group members should decide:

- How the neighborhood is defined. Geographically, what are the boundaries of the neighborhood?
- What are the neighborhood issues? Often the issues of the core group become the focus of attention. Later, however, other issues may dominate.

- Do neighborhood businesses share the same concern for these issues?

- What method will be used to kick-off the organizing drive?

  - A letter writing campaign

  - A neighborhood cleanup

  - A neighborhood pot-luck dinner

  - A door-to-door solicitation

Bringing in **the** Police

Police departments and individuals may be the organizing force underlying the creation and motivation of certain neighborhood associations. Although there are many illustrations of community policing officers finding motivated citizens within the neighborhoods to help them mobilize the neighborhood into action, it is probably more common for the residents of a neighborhood to organize for specific purposes and for them to seek out police assistance. As community policing comes into its own, police officers may play a greater role in this mobilization.

If the police department patrolling the area in which the neighborhood association is located has designated a

Notes . . .

community-oriented policing officer for that area, this officer should be invited to one of the first meetings of the neighborhood association. In this fashion, the support of that officer, or officers if there are more than one, as well as the support of the department, may be obtained.

In meeting with these officers, explain what has been done and explain future plans. Ask the officers what resources the police department is able to offer in organizing the neighborhood and dealing with the particular problems confronting the neighborhood.

The General Meeting

After the first meeting(s) during which basic issues of the core membership and those of the police officers involved have been discussed and agreed upon, a general organizational meeting of all neighborhood residents should be undertaken.

Decide a date, time, and place to condua this meeting, generally during the evening or during a weekend day within the neighborhood. Local churches, schools, or public buildings are ideal places. The main consideration in planning this meeting is to find a time and place that is convenient for the largest number of people.

Decide on the meeting format and plan the agenda. A typical agenda might look like the following:

- Introductions
- An open discussion of neighborhood problems and issues
- The introduction of and explanation of the method (SARA) to be used in solving problems

Notes . . .

- The structure and organization of the association
- The next meeting

******

Conducting Successful Meetings

Conducting a successful meeting is sometimes difficult. If there have been persistent problems in the neighborhood people may come to the meeting in order to complain about past failures rather than focusing upon what can be done in the future. If police officers attend the meeting, the meeting may become an opportunity to point out to the officers present their inability to deal with the problems in the past. To a certain extent, this "venting" is necessary in order to get beyond these feelings and to deal with the real purpose of the meeting.

In order to insure that the meeting ends successfully, it is important that the meeting follows the agenda and that the leadership of the association maintains control of the meeting. This does not mean that the meeting should be run with military rigor and precision, but that there should be some clearly defined goals to be accomplished. Flexible discussion of issues is democratically desirable. Nevertheless, free-for-all venting is chaos and counterproductive inasmuch as it focuses upon the failures of the past.

Here are a few steps that could be followed in order to insure a more successful meeting:

- **The meeting should foe productive:** People often do not return to a second meeting if nothing was accomplished during the first.

- **Set** a **time limit for the meeting:** The meeting should not last more than two hours.

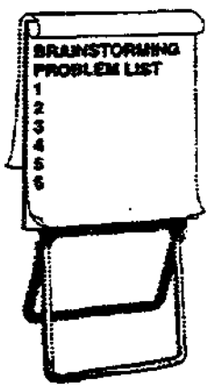
Notes . . .

Share thoughts about the neighborhood: After introductions have been made, ask people to share their concerns and observations about the neighborhood. This should take about 15-20 minutes. The leadership supported by the core group needs to insure that these informal discussions do not get out of hand. The ground rules for offering these observations are:

- No cursing
- No name calling
- Respect for one another
- No personal attacks

- Get down to business: After informally discussing neighborhood problems, the meeting should turn to the philosophy of community policing and its two main tenets: partnerships and problem-solving. This should be done quickly, perhaps within 15-20 minutes.

Brainstorming: This is a strategy to identify issues and neighborhood problems.



Exercise: Ask those attending to think for a few minutes about neighborhood issues that concern them. Then do the following:

Ask participants to describe in a couple of words the problems or issues with which they are most concerned.

The facilitator of this meeting or one of the core members should be writing these descriptors on a flipchart.

When someone offers a few words describing a neighborhood issue, ask them for their initials and

Notes...

write these on the flipchart so that the person may be identified later for a fuller discussion of the issues they mention.

Encourage people to speak their minds and not to worry about duplication. What they are thinking

might in fact be something different from what has already been stated.

The facilitator needs to move this process along so that as many issues are mentioned as possible.

- **Consolidation:** Consolidating the brainstorming session brings together the different issues mentioned into a concise list.

  Exercise: Go back through the brainstorming list and ask each person to quickly explain the issue they mentioned.

  Next, ask the people present to categorize the issues and problems mentioned into different groups.

  - Juveniles vandalizing the park
  - Juveniles wandering around at all hours of the night
  - Juveniles breaking into cars and joy riding

  - Juveniles blocking traffic at a bus stop
  - Juveniles skateboarding on sidewalks

Notes ...

If some of the following issues were discussed, then these issues might be grouped under juvenile problems. Such category lists might include:

- Traffic
- Code enforcement
- Juveniles
- Gangs
- Drugs
- Noise disturbances

- **Prioritizing the list:** Once the list has been consolidated, then the categories of issues mentioned can be prioritized.

  Exercise: Using the consolidated list, explain the following:

  - Each person that they have three votes.
  - The goal is to rank order the list by majority vote.
  - Each person can use all their votes for one issue or each person can divide his or her vote among the different groups of issues mentioned.
  - Go around the room and ask each person how they wish to cast their votes.
  - At the end of voting, add up the votes. The category of events receiving the most votes is the number one issue of concern. The category receiving the next largest number of votes is the second issue of importance and so on.

Notes...

- This is the order in which the problems will be solved in the neighborhood.

- Closing Out the Meeting: In closing out the meeting there are two important objectives:

  - Complete the agenda.

  - Indicate to the group how much has been accomplished in such a short period of time.

  - Ask how many people plan to come to the next meeting in order to find solutions to the problems discussed and prioritized. Set the time and place for the next meeting.

******

Some Thoughts on How Groups Work

Groups tend to go through different stages of development. While not all groups develop in an identical fashion, it is helpful to understand the general directions in which groups develop.

Initial Stage: Establishing Roles **and** Goals: Groups need leaders and a common purpose. During the initial stage of development, the group leader helps members get to know each other and provides clear direction. The leader also involves members in working toward their plan of action, helps define the role of each member, and assists in finding ways for members to work together.

During this stage team members may be excited about the task that lies ahead. However, they may also feel anxiety and concern for their safety as they contemplate making changes in their neighborhood. During this period team behaviors may include:

Notes . . .

- Deciding on team rules or how they will work together

- Deciding what information will be needed to gather and solve problems

- Complaining about the association and how it will never work (pessimism)

Panic Stage: During this stage, people begin to realize how much work there is to do. Some division may occur within the group as different members develop different ideas of what should and should not be done.

- Arguments may occur between members

- Questions about leadership may arise

- Group cohesion may appear to be disintegrating.

This is a critical time for the group. Leadership needs to maintain consensus on how to accomplish goals and how to deal with internal "power struggles." During this stage, good crisis intervention management can be employed such as building a group's confidence or reassigning responsibilities.

The Final Stage **(Hopefully):** Everything **Coming Together** The iinal stage is when the group surmounts the difficulties and crises it has been facing. At this stage the problem-solving process has become comfortable to all. The group has learned how to work through problems and conflicts. Trust in each other has overcome differences in strategies and personalities. A lot of work is getting done.

******

Notes...

Successful Meeting Strategies

Notes . . .

Groups differ in terms of their size and their dynamics. In general, small groups of three to five people tend to work well together, especially if they share common interests and goals. When groups get bigger, there is a greater diversity of
interests and goals and there tends to be a greater struggle for who will have the most influence within the group. Facilitating a meeting is a skill that can be learned. The following are some strategies helpful to the conduct of successful meetings. Nevertheless, there are some general strategies that help insure the successful meetings.

- Preparation and practice are the keys.
- In conducting a meeting, it is important to understand what the meeting hopes to accomplish.

- Understanding the issues and the different interests and groups involved is important

- If possible, contact the leaders of the different interests prior to the meeting in order to discuss where the commonalties and differences He. If possible explore avenues whereby difference can be resolved.

These efforts prepare people for the meeting and help assure its success. It helps provide a common group for discussion and helps eliminate misunderstandings that may arise when people discuss issues for the first time, especially in the presence of an audience where emotions may come into play.

****

Different Types of Community Leaders

Understanding the different type of leaders who might be present at meetings may also be helpful to insuring the meeting's success. A basic understanding of each helps prevent misinterpreting their position and strategies.

- **Issue Leaders:** Issue leaders provide information within their neighborhoods. These leaders alert members of the neighborhood and other leaders to the importance of particular problems within the neighborhood. They often analyze the relationships between groups in the neighborhood as these relationships bear upon the issue in question. These individuals do not defend the interests of the neighborhood, but look for a solution that will be accepted to more than one interest.

- Advocate **Leaden** This leader defends the interests of the neighborhood against threats to the status quo and/or balance of power. These leaders do not focus upon issues *perse.* Rather the advocate leader is more concerned about the effect that an issue proposal will have upon the interests of the neighborhood he or she represents. In most cases, these leaders deal with the symptoms of problems rather than their underlying causes.

- **Maverick Leaden** The maverick leader pushes for change and in so doing often challenges neighborhood values and inter-group dynamics (i.e. the way things are generally done). This leader may become emotional, as will advocate leaders, but seldom focuses upon single' issues of the particular interests of the neighborhood.

Notes . . .

Problem-Solving

History

During the late 1970s, Herman Goldstein began advocating a whole new way of thinking about policing that would allow it to focus directly upon the problems that make up their business. He termed this new approach problem-oriented policing. He maintained this approach would establish a better balance between the reactive and proactive aspects of policing and make more effective use of the community and rank-and-file officers.[4]

Problem-oriented policing, as envisioned by Goldstein and others, places greater emphasis upon effectiveness rather efficiency. Using this approach, there is:

- Less emphasis upon numbers (cars, officers, field interrogations, arrests, etc.)
- More emphasis upon outcomes, for instance, a department's and/or officer's impact upon crime
- More interest in focusing upon police strategies used

Notes . . .

[4] Herman Goldstein. *Problem-Oriented Policing.* Ney York: McGraw Hffl,1990, pp. 3,32.

and how effective they were in dealing with crime and disorder-how effective they were in stopping drugs, residential burglaries, underage drinking, strong armed robberies, etc.

Notes ...

Since this pioneering work, there has been a widespread acceptance and experimentation of problem-oriented policing. Goldstein outlines the factors that underlie this acceptance and experimentation:[5]

1. The police field is preoccupied with management, internal procedure, and efficiency to the exclusion of concern for effectiveness in dealing with serious problems.

2. The police devote most of their resources to responding to calls from citizens, reserving too small a percentage of their time and energy for acting on their own initiative to prevent or reduce community problems.

3. The community is a major resource with an enormous potential, largely untapped, for reducing the number and magnitude of problēms that otherwise become the business of the police.

4. Police are not using the time and talent of available rank-and-file officers effectively.

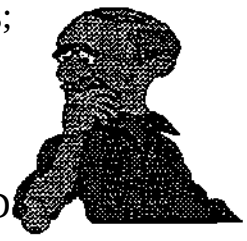
5. Efforts to improve policing have often failed because they have not been adequately related to the overall policies and structure of the police organization.

[5] Herman Goldstein. *Problem-Oriented Policing*. New Yolfc McGraw S B , 1990, pp. 15-28.

Notes . . .

What is a Problem?

- Two or More Incidents;
- Similar in Nature;
- Capable of Causing Harm; and
- Public Expectation to D Something About it



Generally speaking, a problem may be defined as an incident that occurs more than once. It may also be defined as a cluster of similar incidents occurring throughout a city or at a specific location. The exact definition is not as important as is the recognition that certain events occur more than once-generally many times. In other words, crime and social disorder are often patterned events. The following illustrates this point:[6]

- 10 percent of offenders account for *55* percent of the offenses
- 10 percent of victims account for 40 percent of the victimizations
- 10 percent of the locations in a jurisdiction account for 60 percent of the calls for service.

Problem-Solving and Knowledge

Problem-solving is not troubleshooting, nor is it flying by the seat of your pants. It is a search for the patterns of

[6] **Danell W. Stephens, *"Policing in the Future,"*** *American Journal of Police 9* **(1990): 151.**

crime and disorder. It is the reasoned analysis of these patterns revealing their underlying circumstances and causes. It is the implementation of responses suitable to solve these problems and an assessment of how well these responses deal with the problems towards which they are directed.

Knowledge is the key to understanding problem-solving. Knowledge of a targeted problem leads to its solution.

Solutions are not randomly selected, but are based upon a thorough inquiry into the cause of the problem.

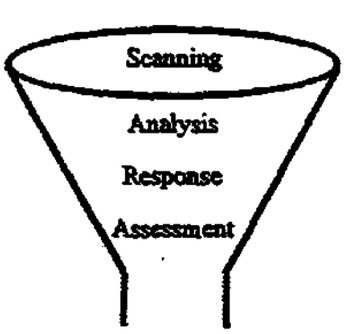
Characteristics of Problem-Solving

There are four characteristics of problem-solving.

1. Identifying the neighborhood crime, disorder, and/or fear problem.

2. Understanding the conditions that give rise to these problem(s).

Problem-Solving Process



Notes* . .

3. Developing and implementing a long-term solution to these problem(s)

4. Determining the impact of these solutions upon the problem(s)

Notes . . .

These four characteristics have been captured in what is widely known as the SARA model.

SARA Model

The designation SARA is an acronym and stands for the following:

- S - Scanning
- A - Analysis
- R - Response
- A - Assessment

Scanning: When scanning incidents that appear to be reoccurring, line officers examine them carefully in order to identify the nature of the problem and their underlying causes. They look for patterns of behavior, similarities of location, and similarities among victim characteristics and behavior. When more than one set of such incident patterns is encountered, the most important, as detennined by the officers and their partners, are addressed first.

Exercise: How many ways are there to identify crime and social disorder problems in the community? On a piece of paper make a list of them. Call them out and write them on a flipchart..

Steps in the Scanning Process

- Establish a list of potential problems in the neighborhood.
- Identify the nature of these problems-what sort of problems are they?
- Prioritize the problems from the most to least pressing.
- State the specific problem, where it is most likely to occur, and which locations are causing the most difficulty.
- Determine what is causing the problem and how data will be collected to determine as precisely as possible the nature of these causes.

Analysis: Analysis follows scanning and is the heart of problem-solving. Once a problem has been identified, the next step is to analyze the nature of the problem. Much of police work is trial and error-based upon responding to incidents. When responding to an incident, for instance, police officers often do what seems right and appropriate at the moment. Moreover, line officers are conditioned to provide immediate solutions to calls. It is perhaps to be expeaed, therefore, that officers would be quick to identify a problem and jump immediately into providing a response. The tendency here is either short-change the analysis of the problem or to skip it altogether.

Example: A neighbor stops a police officer and tells him of drug dealings at an abandoned residence during the past year. The house was on blocks and looked as though it had been under repair at one time. The officer stakes out the residence, does several field - interrogations, and makes several arrests. The narcotics bureau is brought in and inspects the house. Part of the flooring was missing, as was the rear door and several of the walls. Narcotics did a buy bust and made several more arrests. Checked with neighbors

Notes . . .

who were happy with the enforcement. The Building Inspector was contacted. He indicated that the owner was uncooperative because she would not bring the house up to code. Abatement and nuisance procedures were instituted, but it was thought that this would take eight months. The house was boarded up, but the next day the boards were torn down. More arrests were made. The house remained under observation and law enforcement awaiting the time when the house could be demolished.

In short, after making good law enforcement efforts, the officer decided-with the knowledge of his supervisors-that he would support the goals of the Building Inspection Department. The officer saw his role as monitoring the property and making arrests until the building could be demolished. The difficulty with this approach is that it short-changed the analysis stage of the SARA process.

If the officer had talked with the owner at length, he would have discovered that she was an elderly person who had been the victim of fraud. She had used her life savings to fix the residence but had been swindled by the contractor and was forced to move in with relatives, thus abandoning the house. Eventually, the officer did contact the owner and eventually facilitated a no-interest HUD-loan to repair the home. The home was repaired and all the problems disappeared.

While officer experience often comes up with an appropriate response when responding to calls for service,, such responses may be short -sighted, as the above example indicates. When problem-solving, it would be much better to step back from the immediacy of the incidents themselves and looked for the deeper underlying causes and circumstances surrounding the problem. This analysis might well be guided by answering some or all of the following questions:

Notes . . .

- What conditions or events preceded the problem?
- What conditions or events accompany the problem?
- What are the problem's consequences?
- What harm results from the problem?
- How often does the problem occur?
- How has this been a problem?
- How long does each occurrence of the problem last?
- What conclusions can be drawn about why this problem occurs?
- What resources are available that might be used in solving the problem?
- What procedures, policies, or rules have already been established to deal with this problem?

Notes . . .

The Crime Triangle

When analyzing a problem, it is helpful to use the crime triangle. The crime triangle is based upon the premise that every crime has three components:

- Offender
- Victim
- Location

The typical criminal justice response to most crimes focuses upon the offender. The goal of focusing upon the offender is to make an arrest and incapacitate the offender through incarceration. This approach, however, only captures one side of the crime triangle.

By including victims and locations, the emphasis shifts from crime control to crime prevention. It shifts the responsibility for crime and its control from the sole responsibility of the police to a shared responsibility of the police and the community.

THE CRIME TRIANGLE

Using the crime triangle as an analytical tool helps focus the analysis upon important features (offenders, locations, and victims) of the problem at hand.

Exercise: The example used in this exercise is prostitution and motels. Complaints have been coming from citizens and people passing by these locations frequented by hookers. The offenders in this case would be the prostitutes, pimps, "Johns," and perhaps motel owners. The victims would be the legitimate users of the motel, businesses and residents in the area. The location is the motel itself and the motel grounds (parking lot, particular room, lobby, the back of the motel).

Notes . . .

In groups, answer the following questions:

- Where would you be able to find information about the offenders ? Such information would include personal identity and aliases, physical characteristics, criminal histories, life styles, education, employment history, relationship to victims.

- Where and how would you find information about why and how these offenders conduct their business at these particular locations?

- Where would you find information of why certain motels are being used rather than others? This might include examination of the time at which the events are occurring, access control, and the existence of natural surveillance.

- Where and how would you find information about how these offenders are attracting customers? This might include an analysis of prior events, the event itself and events after the act

- Where and how would you find information about the customers?

- Where and how would you find information about where the customers come from?

Guardians: Guardians are people, agencies (other than police), and practices that help control each side of the crime triangle. In a very real sense, guardians, or lack of guardians, are what make or break certain situations.

In deteriorated areas of inner cities where there are many dilapidated buildings and piles of uncollected trash, there is a marked absence of guardians. Oftentimes, people have "secured" themselves in their residences and seldom come out on the street and seldom look out on the street to see what is going on. In those situations, the

Notes . . .

streets belong to those who want to use them, often for criminal activities.

The following is a partial listing of guardians:

- Residents, including children in certain circumstances
- Civic Associations
- Business Associations
- Churches
- Landlords
- City Codes
- Local government agencies (police, fire, health, nuisance abatement boards, etc.)
- Parking Signs:
  - "No Parking at Any Time"
  - "No Stopping at Any Time"
  - "No Loitering"

Response: The response phase follows analysis. Responses follow scanning and analysis and are the culmination of the first two phases. There is a temptation for line officers to jump immediately to the response phase upon responding to calls for assistance. This is understandable given the long history of incident-based policing. However, responding to problems without analyzing them may not solve the problem and may even lead to inappropriate responses.

Notes . . .

Responses should include the following:

- Think small. Depending upon the problem, it is often best to focus upon a single house or a single block rather than larger neighborhood areas.
- Take into account all the resources available to all partners, both public and private, involved in the problem and its solution.
- Be creative
- Choose from among alternatives and consider which will work best.
- Focus upon two of the three sides of the crime triangle
- Consider what needs to be done before the plan is implemented.
- Decide who will be responsible for preliminary actions.
- Outline a plan and decide who will be responsible for each of its parts.
- What problems are likely to occur during the implementation of the plan?
- What is plan B-what procedures might be implemented if parts or all of the plan are not working?
- State the specific goals this plan will accomplish.
- What are some of the ways in which data may be collected during the implementation of the plan?

Notes . . .

Police presence is rarely the best solution to a problem; although it would be the proper solution using an incident-based model.

Assessment

Assessment is the last phase of problem-solving. It evaluates the effectiveness of the responses implemented. Assessments should answer some of the following questions:

- Was the plan as outlined in the response implemented?
- What was the goal(s) to be accomplished as developed and outlines in the responses) to be implemented?
- Was the goal(s) attained?
- How do you know whether the goal was attained?
- What is likely to happen if the planned responses are discontinued and otherwise not implemented?
- What is likely to happen if the plan continues to be implemented?
- Are there any new strategies that might be implemented which would increase the effectiveness of the response?
- How can the plan be monitored in the future?
- How will the plan be monitored and evaluated in the future?

Assessment should be thought of during the analysis and response stages of problem-solving. Thinking about how to evaluate a problem helps shape its solution. Solutions (responses) should be measurable.

Notes . . .

Baseline information should be collected prior to the implementation of the responses.

Both qualitative and quantitative information should be used.

Typical assessment instruments include:

- Surveys of citizen satisfaction and quality-of-life (e.g., fear of crime)
- Surveys of offenders and victims
- Calls for service
- Studies of traffic patterns
- Crime rates
- Study of environmental changes

Notes ...

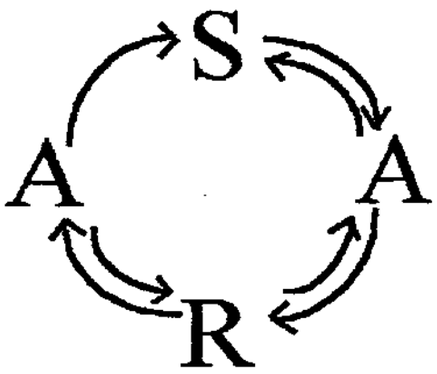
Different Views of the SARA Model

The SARA model is often thought of as a linear model. In other words, scanning occurs before analysis and after analysis a response plan may be formulated. As the implementation is underway, what is being accomplished is being assessed. Viewing the model in this fashion sometimes leads to the thought that previous SARA steps cannot be revisited or changed.

S ➡ A ➡ R ➡ A

In reality, problem-solving often moves from one stage of the process to another and back again. It is an interactive process. If for instance, a certain response, despite carefully completed analysis, fails to produce the results desired, as

own by an ongoing assessment, the problem may again be reanalyzed and rescanned in search 'a better response.Rather than being a Hnear model then, the SARA model might be viewed in e;• following fashion:



Problem-solving Worksheet

- Is the problem really a crime, fear or disorder problem?
- Given limited resources, is this problem a community priority or should it be?
- Is the problem identification narrow enough or should the problem be broken down into smaller components?
- Is the analysis thorough?
- Are there other sources that should be tapped for information about the problem?
- Are the solutions long-term?
- Will the solutions' impact continue after the police stop focusing resources on the problem?
- Are the solutions designed to leave the community better equipped to resist similar problems in the future?
- Are there other guardians who might be more effective?
- Do the solutions take into account the stress level in the community?
- Was a full range of resources considered in addressing the problem?
- Are more creative options available?
- Do the proposed solutions effectively target at least two sides of the crime triangle?
- Will the solutions work?
- Does the problem-solving effort support a working collaboration between the police and those impacted by the problem?
- Are the assessment measures proposed sufficient to evaluate the community's definition of a successful outcome?

Problems with the SARA Model

Notes . . .

Although the SARA model is an effective way to instruct officers in accomplishing problem-solving, it is not without some difficulties.

Difficult to Understand: Some officers will find problem-solving and the SARA model difficult to understand. They may have some trouble differentiating incidents from problems.

As a rule of thumb, it is useful to remember that a problem is two or more incidents, similar in nature, capable of causing harm, about which the public expects something to be done.

Unsure When to Analyze Problems: Officers are not accustomed to analyzing problems. What they are used to is responding to situational calls for services. Officers need to know when it is appropriate to respond quickly to calls for service and when it is appropriate to analyze activities to which they are summoned.

Another rule of thumb here would be to analyze only those situations and locations to which an officer is called more than once.

Unclear about Substantive Community Problems: To understand community problems officers must seek input from citizens. Asking residents about their neighborhood problems is a sure-fire way to find out what is bothering them. What turns up may not be the sort of problems line officers would put at the top of their list of concerns, but they are the problems that residents would like the police to address.

Viewing the definition of substantive community problems in this fashion requires officers to develop the ability to look at problems from different perspectives. Although crime rates may point many officers to the existence of certain crime activities, deteriorating

neighborhood conditions may be of greater concern to citizens. Moreover, by attending to these poor living conditions and eliminating them, crime in these areas may eventually decrease.

Connection between Stages of SAKA Unclean Some ofBcers fail to see the connection between the different stages of the SARA model. Part ofthis difficulty is the result of what officers are used to doing:

- Officers are not used to scanning because they would rather be told what to do.
- Officers often pick problems that are too big, or they misclassify isolated incidents or problems.
- Officers like to start with responses and work backward through the model, justifying their actions upon the basis of their responses.
- Assessment criteria are seldom used to develop measures of success or failure.

Unprepared to Handle Complex Situations:

Levels of Problem Solving

- Simple - Individual Officer
- Moderate - Small *Group/Team* of Officers
- Complex - Organizational Collaboration

Notes . . .

Officers are not trained to differentiate between simple, moderate, and complex problems. Simple problems involve individual police officers and are problems small enough that they are able to handle them themselves. These are the problems officers should start with. After gaining confidence in working with these problems, they can tackle moderately difficult and even complex problems.

Moderate problems are problems that can be handled by a small group of officers, or perhaps an officer working with a single community group.

Complex problems require the assistance of other officers and a number of outside agencies, perhaps in conjunction with community groups.

Notes . . .

[Community-Oriented Government

Citizens vs. Clients

For community policing and problem-solving to work properly, government needs to empower communities to help themselves.

People act more responsibly when they control their own environments. Homeowners take better care of their property than renters. People perform better on the job when they own a piece of the company.

Clients: When people become dependent upon others, including government agencies (e.g., the police) to solve their problems, they become clients. They become dependent upon their helpers.

Citizens: Citizens understand their own problems and are often able to effect solutions to these problems.

In order to foster citizenship, governments, including police, need to embrace strategies that make individuals participants in community problem-solving. They need to embrace participatory management.

Notes . . .

Participatory Management

Police departments can flourish under participatory management, as the example of Madison, Wisconsin illustrates. In the early 1990s, David Couper, Chief of the Madison Police Department, trained 10 members of his department in quality management. These individuals recommended the creation of an experimental police district containing approximately 30,000 residents and 38 police officers. Department members and citizens were interviewed and their concerns were incorporated into the management structure. Employees elected their own captains and lieutenants. They developed their own work schedules and designed and built their own district building. Detectives, officers, meter monitors and clerical workers met as teams. Cooperation increased dramatically.

Absenteeism and worker compensation claims decreased sharply. More than 80 percent of the employees reported higher job satisfaction. More than 60 percent thought they were successful in solving crimes.

"Traditional" Management: Incident-based policing has been hierarchical, impersonal, and rule-based. Policy decisions were made by civilian authorities. Police command staff decided which decisions could be accomplished and lieutenants and sergeants made sure that line officers carried these out. Line officers made few decisions on their own.

This began to change in the 1950s as officers began to think of themselves as professionals. Nevertheless, there are still very strong vestiges of this depiction of traditional police management today.

Rewarding Failure: Under the traditional method of policing (and government) agencies often reward failure. They do not work with other sectors of society to strengthen families and communities and thus reduce crime. They hire more officers and buy more police vehicles and other equipment in an effort to reduce the

Notes . . .

l Jevel of crime. Such "redoubling" of efforts has its limits, yet governments appears more than willing to give police departments more money and other resources when crime rates go up. These responses to the crime problem inhibit police departments from developing creative strategies and from attacking crime at its source, the communities in which it occurs.

Line item budgets and having to spend budgets or lose them further inhibit the development of innovative strategies to fix problems. Under these conditions, administrators are often encouraged to waste money. What is needed are new budget systems that provide incentives to save money and a quantitative, performance-based budget that would encourage administrators to become successful problem-solvers.

In order to achieve these objectives, police might well act as catalysts to bring together community resources and provide resources, backup and training to the community. By empowering citizens, they help themselves.

Honoring the Customer: The private sector believes that the more information it has about customer needs, the better equipped it is to provide quality service. Although the customer of police services is not always right, community problem-solving holds customer service in esteem, values good community relations, and focuses upon the quality of police services.

fatal Quality Management (TQM)

The following are some of the goals of TQM:

- Promote competition between service providers
- Measure performance by outcomes rather than inputs
- Conduct operations based upon goals instead of rules and regulations

Notes . . .

- Define clients as customers
- Preach and practice participatory management
- Use quantitative indicators to provide information about city conditions
- Objectives set the specific targets for each unit of government (e.g., keeping the city within the lowest 25 percent of Part I crimes for cities of comparable size)

Notes . . .

Principal Elements of TQM: TQM is based upon two primary elements: (1) participatory management and (2) total involvement.

Every functional unit has a customer. TQM holds that customers are the most important people for an organization. Those who directly serve the customers are the next most important.

Management serves those who serve the customers. TQM asks the question: "How does what we are doing add value to the customer?"

Decentralization: Managers listen to everyone, even dissenters. Decision-making is pushed downward by encouraging problem-solving at the lowest levels. Managers allow subordinates the freedom to make mistakes.

Long-term Commitment: Improvements in customer satisfaction and the organizational changes needed to effect this change take time. Top management must be the driving force behind TQM

Full Employee Commitment and Teamwork: Managers, supervisors, and employees work together in order to improve service delivery, solve systemic problems, and correct errors. Managers emphasize planning rather than reacting to events after they have occurred

Internal Communication: Both vertical and horizontal communication must occur thus allowing continual adjustments and reinforcing commitments. Under traditional management strategies, information is oiten viewed as a source of non-shareable power which is not shared.

Measurement: Measuring and assessing what is going on is the backbone of involvement. Measurement allows the organization to engage in corrective actions, set priorities, and evaluate progress. Standards and measures should reflect customer requirements and the changes needed to meet these requirements.

Training: Training includes "awareness" training for teams of top level, mid-level, and non-managers. TQM is a process and not a program. TQM is learned by education and training and followed in practice.

Rewards **and** Recognition: Awards are often to groups or team members since most successes are group achievements.

TCM, as well as problem-solving, focuses upon asking their clients what they want and then designing the delivery of services around these desires. These questions might attempt to rate officers on the following:

- Concern
- Helpfulness
- Knowledge
- Quality of Service
- Professional Conduct

Notes . . .

- How well they solve the problem
- Whether they put the person at ease

Open ended questions might ask "How can we (the police) improve the quality of our service in the future?"

Principles of **Quality Leadership**[7]

- Believe in and support teamwork.
- Be committed to problem-solving as a process-let data not emotions drive decisions.
- Seek employee input before making key decisions.
- Believe that the best way to improve services is to ask and listen to employees.
- Develop mutual respect and trust among employees.
- Develop a customer orientation.
- Manage the behavior of 95 percent of employees-not the 5 percent who cause problems.
- Examine processes before placing individual responsibility when problems arise.
- Avoid top-down decision-making when possible.
- Encourage creativity through risk taking.
- Be tolerant of mistakes.
- Be a facilitator and coach-develop an open atmosphere encouraging feedback.

Notes . . .

[7] David C. Couper, "Management for Excellence," International Association of Chiefs of Police, *The Police Yearbook* (1988);76-84.

- Develop goals and a plan to achieve them with employees.

Notes . . .

Supervising Community-Oriented Policing

Changing and Managing Police Expectations

Supervision, in general, is more an art than a science. Supervising community-oriented and problem-oriented policing may be more difficult than supervising regular policing because community and problem-oriented policing represent new approaches to the delivery of police services. As a consequence, supervisors will not only face the usual range of supervisory problems; they will also have to deal with changing line officers[1] ideas of what they are doing as police officers.

The role of police officers today is changing. Under "traditional oriented policing" officers were thought to have done a good job if they responded to calls for service, made arrests, wrote traffic citations and did field interrogations. Community problems were considered beyond what line officers were expected to do. Now, however, line officers are asked to identify problems, work with citizens, community groups, and other public agencies to solve problems occurring in their assigned beats.

Notes ...

Exercise: Ask participants to recall a favorite location where they would go in order to write a few easy tickets or make an arrest.

Ask whether they were expected to look at these favorite locations as problem areas requiring solutions.

Notes . . .

Importance of Expectations

The transition to community-oriented policing is often accompanied by a period of time during which officers are unsure of exactly what it is that they should be doing. This is a period of time during which organizational goals and objectives are in flux.

Having clearly defined goals is important to officers, as well as to the organization, because they allow both officers and organizations to move forward with their plans to measure the progress they are making in achieving these goals.

Exercise: Discuss the following brief description of Officer X and his duties. Officer X has been working for three years in the same zone. He works in a squad supervised by Sergeant M, who has publicly stated he favors community-oriented and problem-oriented policing. The department has recently embraced these ideas and has instituted a number of activities in their support.

Officers Y and Z are on the same squad. They are openly critical of the new changes and have voiced their opposition openly without any negative repercussions.

Officer X has received a commedation for his involvement in a community-oriented policing project. His Sergeant, Sergeant M, encourages his officers to use their free time to become proactive. Officer X"s annual evaluation mentioned the commendation he received. The remainder of his evaluation, however, focused upon his adherence to departmental policies, work ethic, and general policing skills.

Expectations and Evaluations

Expectations are expressed through evaluations, commendations, disciplinary measures and looking at how others are treated. Changing these expectations takes time. The first step in bringing about these changes is to restate the goals and mission of the police department and establish very specific expectations of what officers who are doing problem-solving need to be doing.

Exercise: If you are not at least a first line supervisor, assume you are. On a piece of paper list the problem-oriented policing expectations you would place upon officers for use during their free time.

List these on a flip chart.

Discuss how each of these expectations would fit into the SARA model.

- Some of these expectations may be what is discovered through scanning, for instance, greater knowledge of crime-related problems occurring within neighborhoods.

- Other expectations might be the result of analysis inasmuch as they deal with focusing or eliminating the underlying causes of neighborhood problems.

- Still other expectations would involve responding to neighborhood problems through the use of public and private resources.

- Finally, some of these expectations of community and problem-oriented policing could involve assessment of the effectiveness of problem-solving activities undertaken by officers.

******

Notes...

"The Times, They are A-Changing"

Change is everywhere and persistent. The transition to community and problem-oriented police may, in fact, be the result of the changing times within which we live. Coupled with population growth and shrinking resources, community policing may be more of a necessity than a luxury.

The Changing character of **American Communities**

- The demographic composition of the population is changing. The population is becoming older and minorities are becoming an increasingly larger proportion of the population.

- Technologies are changing the way in which people and businesses conduct their affairs. The ever-increasing use of computers and the Internet allow people greater access to other people and information than ever before.

- National and local economies have become global in scope and function.

- There is greater individual and personal freedom. Today's society appears to exhibit greater tolerance for freer sexual relationships, including recognition of gay rights.

- The social fabric is changing, with fewer traditional families and more working parents.

- Churches and schools are no longer safe havens and cannot fill the void for children of working parents.

- Cultural diversity has increased the demands for social services, including police work:.

Notes.. •

Crime: The patterns of criminal activity have been changing.

- Although overall index crimes have been decreasing over the past decade, certain violent crimes have increased faster than changes in the population.
- Many communities are faced with serious problems with gang violence.
- Domestic violence appears to be on the increase although it is uncertain whether this is a real increase or the result of an increased reporting and a greater interest in bringing these cases into the criminal justice system.
- The face ofdrug offenses has changed. Since the 1980s, crack cocaine has become a major problem in many metropolitan areas.

Government: Government has less money to allocate for increased social needs.

- Government and community leaders are beginning to recognize that they must assume responsibility for keeping neighborhoods safe.
- Community-oriented government and community-oriented policing are, in part, a response to these changes.

******

Officer, Supervisor, and Administrative Resistance to Community and Problem-Oriented Policing

There is something about the human condition that does not like change. Therefore, the shift to community-oriented

Notes . . .

policing will be opposed in different degrees by different groups of officers. How the change to community-oriented and problem-oriented policing is received will depend upon how it is presented and who does the presentation.

if you think about how difficult it is for us to change individually, imagine how difficult it will be to change others. In general, officers must be able to see that the changes are needed and that such changes will benefit them.

Exercise: Make a list of things about which you feel strongly. List these on a flip chart and discuss the reasons they are held to be important.

There are three areas of community and problem-oriented policing containing barriers to its implementation. Changes to community and problem-oriented policing will arise from the organization of policing itself, from within the supervisory ranks of police departments, and from outside organizations and agencies

Organizational Impediments to Change: There are a number of issues internal to the organization of many police departments that may pose barriers to the implementation of community or problem-oriented policing.

Lack of Operational Flexibility: Organizational flexibility involves the ability of supervisors to authorize compensatory time, flex time, floating days off-all of which help officers to use their time effectively in addressing specific zone problems. Lacking this organizational flexibility might discourage line officers from taking the risks required to practice community and problem-oriented policing. Such a failure might also herald the notion that the department is not seriously committed to these changes.

Lack of Adequate Rewards and Discipline: The rewards granted line officers, as well as their

Notes . . .

supervisors, must match tasks undertaken. Officers will make mistakes as they try different solutions to the problems discovered in their zones. An appropriate disciplinary system should take into account the risk-taking, experimentation, and failures that will accompany empowering officers and supervisors to solve problem within the neighborhoods to which they are assigned.

Lack of Adequate Evaluation Measures: Evaluations based upon the number of arrests, number of calls responded to, number of field interrogations conducted and other such efficiency measures, while important, are not the primary means of evaluating effective community and problem-oriented policing. New criteria need to be developed based upon the new knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed for the performance of community and problem-oriented policing. Officer behavior is, of course, affected by the reward structure.

Lack of Training: Departments embracing community or problem-oriented policing need to train officers and supervisors in community policing, problem-solving, profiling, time management, setting goals and objectives, creativity and innovation, conducting effective meetings, and facilitation. Failure to train officers and supervisors represents a failure to communicate essential goals, objectives, and expectations.

Lack of Adequate Information Management: Community and problem-oriented policing require data for decision-making. Officers need both timely and reliable crime analysis information, especially information about locations to which officers respond frequently as well as status reports of other projects occurring on their shifts.

Supervisory Impediments to Change: The following are instances of supervisory practices that will impede the development of community and problem-oriented policing:

Notes . . .

- Maintaining a strong commitment of random, preventive patrol rather than directed patrol and problem-solving tactics, especially during "free time."

- Dictating how officers spend their free time; for instance, assigning them to special projects when not on random patrol.

- Deploying officers upon the basis of the number of calls rather than upon the basis of the nature of the calls received.

- Deploying officers based upon the number of crimes known rather than upon the nature of crimes reported.

These practices may well be associated with the following supervisory practices:

- Not supporting what line officers are attempting

- Not letting officers work in teams

- Not helping finding resources

- Not helping coordinate multiple projects.

Supervisors Resisting **Change:** Community and problem-oriented policing may lead some supervisors to feel that they will lose power and authority, thus leading them to resist changing to community and problem-oriented policing. Officers are required to use more discretion and authority than would be required of them as incident-based police officers. Officers exercising greater autonomy in their actions and decision-making will depend less upon their supervisors for direction. This greater independence could be understood as a loss of authority of power rather than understood as different type of supervision.

Greater independence does not mean that supervisors will not be involved with the work of the line officers

Notes . . .

under them. It might mean, however, that their relationship with the officers will take on more the character of a member of the team, albeit an important member. Just as officers must redefine their roles and responsibilities in the field, so must the supervisors. Supervisors' power and authority will not be lost; it will be different.

Supervisors may also resist change because problem-solving requires them to work harder and smarter.

Failing to Keep Officers Informed: It is important that officers know what is expected of them. It is also important for them to know what is going on around them. Frustrated and confused people who do not know what they should be doing are more likely to find excuses for not doing what they should be doing. Such individual might offer some of the following excuses for being unable to implement community or problem-oriented policing.

- We need more money because this is more work..
- There are not enough resources.
- I have never done this before, how do you expect me to do this?

Keeping officers informed helps them have greater control over their environments by letting them know what is going on. It helps them focus upon the things over which they have control, for instance, the problems within their neighborhoods. This also increases their sense of satisfaction and productivity.

Lack of Supervisory Skills: Leadership is the process of influencing activities of an individual or a group to achieve results in a given situation. The amount of leadership an individual is able to provide, depends upon some of the following:

Notes . . .

- How a person behaves
- A person's availability to help officers
- A person's ability to listen to officers and offer assistance
- How a person responds to different types of situations (different situations require different responses)

A supervisor who interacts poorly with his or her subordinates, who is unavailable, listens poorly, and who makes poor decisions-decisions that exacerbate rather than help situations-is generally a person with poor leadership skills.

Outside Impediments to Change: Just as there are a number of obstacles to community and problem-oriented policing within a department, there are also barriers to their successful implementation outside of the department.

Lack of Adequate Local Government Support: The successful implementation of community and problem-oriented policing depends to a large degree upon the support it receives from local government. If the city or county commissions are only luke warm about community and problem-oriented policing, its development and continued success are jeopardized. If local government *sees its* law enforcement efforts focused primarily upon crime control activities, elected officials need to become partners in community and problem-oriented policing efforts in order to see first the benefits of this new approach to the delivery of police services. In addition, the education of local government, including non-elected government officials, should become a priority.

Lack of Outside Organizational Cooperation: Organizations, both public and private, have lives of their own. They have goals and objectives to achieve

Notes . . .

and they have established practices to accomplish them. These may stand in the way of developing effective cooperation, and for two primary reasons.

First, outside organizations, as with government agencies, may not appreciate the benefits of community and problem-oriented policing. In fact, they may not even know of its existence. Should this be the case, police agencies and local governments would be well advised to involve these organizations in community and problem-oriented programs in order that their representatives may become aware of the possible benefits.

Second, in the pursuit of their goals and objectives, outside organizations may not appear to be interested in participating in community and problem-oriented policing. While this is possible, this perception of outside organizations may also be the result of officers being unaware of the tasks these organizations perform and the pressures under which they operate. Establishing working relationships with outside agencies and community groups brings police officers face-to-face with the agendas, needs, and constraints of people working in these other organizations. Not only might this create conflicts and delays, but some officers might view meeting other agency needs as an unwillingness to work with the police. Planning and coordinating activities with outside agencies will be difficult for some and may well require supervisory attention.

Officers are not always aware of all the outside agencies and community groups available to assist them in their problem-solving efforts. Moreover, some officers may discount the ability of these organizations to help. For instance, officers may think in terms of conflict and emergency management, which narrows their perception of the range of agencies and community groups available to solve "police" problems.

Notes . . .

Supervisors need to instruct officers about the wide-range of groups available in their community. Supervisors should also encourage officers to develop new resources within their zone assignments.

To facilitate working with agencies, departments should create a list of agencies and community organizations along with contact information that officers can carry around in their shirt pockets. This provides them with a readily available list of resources to which they can refer and to which they can refer citizens.

Notes . . .

******

Beliefs and Behavior

There are many barriers confronting police departments that want to change their emphases from incident-based to community or problem-oriented policing. It is obvious from the above discussion that municipalities and their organizational infrastructure have to consider the benefits of implementing community and problem-oriented policing as well as the difficulties accompanying such changes. It is obvious that much organizational work needs to be done in terms of the department's organization and operation, the commitment of administrative and supervisory staflj and the willingness and ability of line officers to carry out the work of community and problem-oriented policing.

In contemplating these changes, it is important to remember that what people believe and do is affected by knowledge, attitudes, behavior, and what other people hold to be important.

Knowledge: What is known or at least what is thought to be known, influences what people believe and hold dearly. What is known or thought to be known about policing may be reinforced or changed by education and training.

Attitude: Attitudes represent those things in which individuals believe. Attitudes are not always attached to knowledge **and** are often influenced by emotions. On the other hand, they are also influenced by what has been learned, by personal experience, the experience of others, and by the expectations of those social groups to which people belong and which are held to be important.

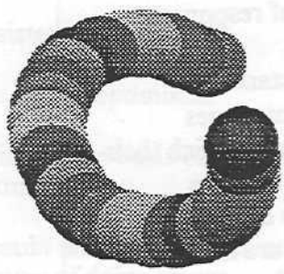
Individual Behavior: Personal behavior is influenced by personal experiences. These same experiences influence what individuals know and often how they feel. Those activities and experiences that have been successful and pleasant generally shape what is believed to be true and valuable.

Group Behavior: Most people care about what others close to them think and believe, whether this is a family, work, or peer group. Often what we know, believe and do are influenced by these groups. In family life, for instance, it is said that the apple never falls very fax from the tree.

******

The Four Stages of Change

BDenial
8 Resistance
& Exploration
a Commitment



Changing behaviors and beliefs will not occur overnight, just as the change from incident-based to problem-oriented policing will take a long time. In fact, a number of people are estimating that the change to community and/or problem-oriented policing may take upward of 10 years.

Notes...

The following exercise indicates the difficulty of such changes.

Exercise: Ask people to write on a piece of paper a tough change that has occurred during their lifetime. (These personal experiences are not revealed to other participants.)

With this change in mind, ask the people participating to answer the following questions with a one word adjective:

- What was your immediate thought or feeling when you knew the change was going to happen?
- A short time later, when you got over the initial reaction, how did you feel?
- As you were actually experiencing the change, what was your reaction?
- When you were pretty much through the change, actually had adjusted to it, what were your thoughts or reflections?

Write these adjectives on a flipchart in order to see if they can be grouped into different types of responses.

There are four stages of change: denial, resistance, exploration, and commitment. These different stages challenge supervisors to understand the stage at which their officers are at as they, the supervisors, assist officers through the transition from incident-based to community and problem-oriented policing. These stages are not intrinsically linked to one another, nor do officers have to go through each one before becoming convinced and committed to the proposed changes.

Denial: This is not really happening! It is just another "hair-brained" idea from administration! These or similar denials of change underway may be a first

Notes ...

response of officers. Supervisors should not spend too much time with "hard-core" deniers.

Supervisors might respond to deniers along the following lines:

- Get information to them about community and problem-oriented policing.
- Make them aware of the impact of the changes that are underway.
- Schedule some time to meet and talk things over.
- Find out what they want.

Resistance: Resisters are people who, either openly or in secret, oppose proposed changes. Unlike deniers, they recognize that the change is underfoot and are resisting it. To many of these officers, the need to change to community and/or problem-oriented policing is not immediately apparent. As with deniers, supervisors should not spend too much time with resisters.

Appropriate responses might be among the following:

- Listen to what the "resisters" have to say.
- Don't try to fix it or be overly optimistic.
- Meet with them and discuss the basis of their reticence to become committed.
- Allow expression of doubt and even empathize with the passing of the old way of doing things.
- Be firm about moving forward.

Exploration: Explorers are officers who may not be convinced on the need to change to community or problem-oriented policing, but are willing to give it a try.

Notes . . .

Supervisors working with these individuals may well convert a number of them into making a full-scale commitment to the change. In so doing, some resisters and perhaps even a few of the officers in denial may also come to embrace these changes.

In working with these "explorers" supervisors might engage in some of the following:

- Facilitate their thinking and experimentation with different community and problem-oriented policing.
- Provide focus, direction, and guidance.
- Keep promoting the vision.
- Continue to point out opportunities, including training opportunities.
- Strengthen inter-group connections within the department and between outside agencies and organizations.

Commitment: People who commit are individuals who believe change is needed and have embraced it. Working with these individuals helps "show-case" community and problem-oriented policing for others to see.

Although these individuals may not need much supervision, inasmuch as they are probably relatively self-motivated, supervisors might consider some of the following:

- Reemphasize the reasons for changing to community and problem-oriented policing.
- Set up quick successes and celebrate them.
- Help them visualize the future.

Notes...

- Avoid micro-managing these individuals.

Notes . . .

******

Bringing about Change

There are several ways of changing organizational behaviors and beliefs. One way is to issue a command from the chief Another way is to demonstrate the usefulness of the change based upon knowledge and values, in this case, knowledge of the benefits and value of community and problem-oriented policing.

Position Power: By virtue of the chiefs authority, he or she may issue an order requiring a change to occur. If officers encounter situations where these changes are beneficial and helpful, they will be more willing to accept them because they are able to see their benefits. Moreover, these positive experiences may incline officers to learn more about the mandated changes, thus increasing their knowledge of the issues involved.

Commands are a quick way to bring about change, but if officers' experiences are negative, the attitude may develop that such changes are yet another "wild" scheme from "up on top" that will eventually be abandoned. In the meantime, officers have "real" police work to do.

Personal Power: Personal power is based upon personal knowledge of community and problem-oriented policing. Exposed to new information, officers are encouraged to keep an open mind and give it a try. With assistance and success they are willing to continue in the changed behavior. Others seeing the success will want to join in. Within this context, supervisors must be able to walk the talk.

Personal power is slow to implement; but it is long lasting. It is useful for self-motivated people who want responsibility or who are knowledgeable and experienced in their work. Some officers will prefer supervisors exercising their position power. Others, who may want to assume a more participatory role in deciding how to do their job will be more responsive to the persuasiveness of the supervisor's personal power.

Notes ...

Personal power may be enhanced by the following:

- Be subtle but firm in your convictions. Be convincing but flexible in expectations. Officers may not get it right the first time, but they will eventually succeed given a supportive environment.

- Solicit input from employee expectations. Officers will generally work with you unless they have personal reservations or feel that expectations are unreasonable. Gaining their input and putting them into play may overcome some of these barriers.

- Acknowledge and appreciate what officers have done, including excellent work done in a fashion other than following problem-oriented policing guidelines.

- Problem-solving is a long-term commitment. It cannot be done every minute of every day. Allow officers to do it as time permits.

- Recognize that mistakes will occur. Learn from them. Do not accept failure.

- Promise to keep officers informed about what other officers are doing and the progress you have made in helping them.

- Actively support their efforts. Supporting their efforts will indicate the amount of risk you, as the

supervisor, are willing to take as well as how much you trust the officers with whom you are working.

- Recognize why people respond to change. People change in relation to their value systems. Value systems are established early in life and reflect the values, beliefs and customs of parents and peers. These value systems differ for difFerent generations. For instance, think about the influence that television, school, peer groups, reading, music, religion, cash, and credit had on children during the 1950s compared to children raised during the 1980s.

******

Leadership

There are many leadership theories in existence. One of the most useful is put forward by Hersey and Blanchard.[8] Situational leadership is a model of organizational values that is flexible in its approach to getting others to achieve those values.

Situational Leadership: Situational leadership examines employee readiness, ability, and willingness.

Employee Readiness: Leaders should examine their employees' ability and willingness to perform a task. These two characteristics of employees define their readiness.

Employee Ability: Ability is demonstrated ability. It is not the assumed ability a person has as the result of their educational attainments or organizational position. New roles, such as community policing, require new skills-skills including an ability to work in teams and being able to facilitate meetings and

Notes . . .

[8] Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard *Management of OrganizationaBehavior. 3"* ed Englewood Cliffs, NJ.: Prentice Hall, 1977.*

other community activities. Many seasoned officers do not possess these skills.

Employee Willingness: Willingness is a combination of confidence in being able to do the task, and the desire to do it. Some officers may possess the desire, but lack the confidence-for instance the confidence needed to speak in public.

Leadership Approaches: Leadership is made up of two different approaches: task-oriented or relationship-oriented.

Task-oriented leaders: These leaders concentrate on telling line officers what to do and how to do it.

Relationship-oriented leaders: This style of leadership concentrates upon listening, participating, encouraging and spending time with employees.

Leaders can be high on both of these dimensions in any combination. The readiness of the employee determines the combination of approaches employed.

Leadership Styles: There are four basic types of leadership styles. Some leaders direct, while others coach. Still others supervise by supporting the activities of their subordinates and others delegate.

Leadership Style

Readiness	Relationship/ Task	Style
Unwilling & Unable	Low/High	"Directing"
Unwilling & Unable	High/High	"Coaching"
Unwilling & Able	High/Low	"Supporting"
Willing & Able		

Notes . . .

Exercise: Survey of Leadership Styles. (The survey employed in this exercise is located in the Appendix). This exercise involves reading 12 scenarios and selecting the response thought to be most appropriate. Adding together response scores indicates an overall leadership style-the leadership style respondents are most likely to use. This exercise also indicates alternate leadership styles used on different occasions.

Notes . . .

Leaders who Direct: At the lowest level of readiness are employees who are unable and unwilling. Supervising these employees requires providing specific directions. This type of leadership involves a high task-orientation and a low relationship type of supervision. Using this style involves some of the following:

- Identifying problems
- Setting goals and defining roles
- Developing an action plan to solve problems
- Providing specific directions
- Announcing solutions and decisions

Leaders who Coach: The next level of readiness involves employees who are willing but unable. An employee, for instance may be inexperienced but willing to attempt doing the task. The most appropriate form of leadership under these types of circumstances is to provide specific instructions while explaining the reasons behind the instructions offered. In this way, the employee will learn the rationale for the behavior and be in a better position in the future to complete the task. This approach is

most appropriate when a supervisor has some confidence in an officer's ability to participate meaningfully in the decision-making process. This is a high task, high relationship style of supervision.

Leaders who coach, nurture their relationship with officers. Although both directing and coaching styles of leadership maintain control of situations, the coaching style differs from a directing style by making final decisions, albeit after hearing the line officer's ideas. Coaching style involves some of the following:

- Identifies problems and sets goals
- Recognizes and praises progress
- Explains decisions
- Solicits Ideas
- Makes final decisions after hearing the officer(s) ideas, opinions, and feelings
- Continues to direct work
- Evaluates work

Leaders who Support: The third level of readiness is an employee who is able but unwilling. Under these circumstances, a supervisor might maintain a high relationship with the employee without giving much specific direction. In a sense, this requires the employee to participate in the accomplishment of the task for which he or she is able to perform. Supervisors favoring this style of leadership tend to allow their officers greater levels of independence in deciding what to do and how to do it.

- Involves people in identifying problems and setting goals.

Notes . . .

- Lets the officers) take the lead in defining how a task is to be done or how a problem should be solved
- Provides assurance, support, resources, and ideas if requested
- Shares responsibility with the officers) for problem-solving and decision-making
- Listens and facilitates problem-solving and decision-making
- Evaluates work with officer(s)

Leaders who **Delegate:** At the final stage of readiness, employees are both willing and able to perform the tasks at hand. Under these circumstances, supervisors approve the work and allow employees the freedom to make decisions and overcome obstacles on their own. This style of supervision is low task and low relationship. This style of leadership involves some of the following:

- Jointly defining problems with the officers)
- Collaborates with officers in setting goals
- Lets the officers) develop action plans and keep control of decision-making about solving neighborhood problems
- Accepts the officer's decisions
- Evaluates performance periodically
- Lets the officers) take responsibility and credit for the problem-solving undertaken.

Notes . . .

Leadership Effectiveness: The ability to select the right leadership style is critical to effectively solving problems. Leadership styles vary according to:

- The amount of direction the leader provides
- The amount of support and encouragement provided
- The amount of officer involvement in problem-solving and decision-making.

Exercise: The exercise is an extension of the responses to the scenarios used to determine a person's supervision style. What this exercise attempts to do is measure the appropriateness (i.e., effectiveness) of the responses to these scenarios. A score of 24 is neutral; a score of 48 is completely effective.

Exercise: Based upon previous discussion of change, what leadership style would be appropriate for each stage of change?

- Denial-task oriented (directing)
- Resistance-task oriented (directing)-total involvement (coaching)
- Exploration-total involvement (coaching)-person oriented (supporting)
- Commitment-person oriented (supporting)-passive involvement (delegating)

*****

Notes...

"Good" Supervision of Community and Problem Oriented Policing

Meeting with Officers: The first step in assisting officers to meet expectations is to know what they are doing with their time. Meeting with officers is one of the simplest ways of accomplishing this task. This also provides an opportunity to give praise and/or clarify expectations.

The following are some principles that might be followed in conducting these meetings:

- Know what is of concern to the officer before the meeting. Have a working knowledge of the issues and resources available.
- Schedule the meeting in a quiet place.
- Know specifically what issues you want to discuss. Avoid general conversation in favor of specific questions
- Stay focused on the officer by allowing the officer to do most of the talking.
- Identify your role (the role of the supervisor) and how it will assist the officer in accomplishing his or her task.
- Set goals and time tables for their accomplishment.
- Follow-up to reinforce successes and help prioritize activities.

Supporting Expectations: Supervision under community-oriented policing not only offers direction, it also offers support. Support is perhaps one of the most important functions of supervision because under community policing officers are empowered to take risks and to be creative in their decision-making. Offering

Notes . . .

this support may also be viewed in terms of the SARA model.

Scanning: Meeting with officers provides supervisors with an opportunity to discover (i.e., scan) what officers are doing. They may also find out about an officer's future plans.

Analysis: Meeting with officers also provides supervisors an opportunity to "see" what sorts of analysis they have undertaken in developing any problem-oriented plans.

Analysis

* What do I need to know about the problem
* Who can provide information to me,
* Where can I go to obtain informati

Analysis is the most important ste
Problem Solving

It is important for supervisors to emphasize the need for analysis. They should be on the lookout for obstacles that stand in the way of completing this analysis, and assist in the conduct of analysis. Such facilitation might take the form of providing officers with a report form (see below) requiring them to write down the steps they have taken in defining, scanning, analyzing, responding, and assessing a problem.

Notes . . .

Problem-Oriented Policing Report Form

	Statement of Problem	
	Scanning	
	Analysis	
	Response	
	Assessment	

Note: The different steps of the SARA process are presented here in a single form for presentation purposes. If this suggestion is adopted, it might be more practical for the activities during each stage of the SARA process to be recorded on a separate sheet of form which can then be brought together in the proper order at the end of the process. *Tins* allows more space for recordingall the activities encountered duringeach stage of the process.

Response; Responses often pose the most difficult problems. On the one hand, officers sometimes do not pick the proper goals. Sometimes they lack the necessary abilities or knowledge to perform what needs to be done. On the other hand, there are organizational barriers and a scarcity of resources. The role of supervision in these cases is to provide the support needed, including adequate guidance and resources.

Example: An officer is assigned to a beach community where there are a number of vagrants.

These vagrants are affecting businesses in the area and are using the public areas. The businesses in the area indicate that their sales have decreased by 50 percent. The vagrants harass customers, panhandle, sleep on sidewalks and in doorways, and defecate and urinate in public.

The officer researched and analyzed the situation, especially looking for reasons that the area would attract vagrants. One reason was that businesses did not lock their dumpsters where food and recyclables could be recovered. Also, many visitors felt sorry for the vagrants and gave them money. Finally, there was the availability of shopping carts from a local grocery store.

The officer decided to eliminate the vagrants from the entire beach area. He actively enforced the misdemeanor laws. He also tried to get the business owners to lock their dumpsters and to discourage people from giving money to panhandlers.

The results were frustrating to the officer. Business owners were only partially cooperative. Some of his citations were returned by the City

Notes . . .

Attorney's office because of procedural errors. A complaint was filed against him by a vagrant for throwing out the vagrant's possessions. His supervisor indicated that the complaint would most likely be upheld.

What might have a supervisor seen in these activities, many of which appeared to be based upon solid problem-solving techniques? First, the officer may have chosen too large an area to organize. Community-oriented and problem-oriented policing should think small. Second, the officer appears to lack the experience needed to organize and mobilize the community. Third, the officer apparently did not understand all the procedural and case laws surrounding a transient's property rights. The officer was unprepared for the responses received and, as a consequence, quit the project.

In this case, the supervisor may have failed to recognize the abilities of the officer thus failing to give him needed guidance. The supervisor might have directed the officer to limit the scope of what he (or she) wanted to accomplish. He or she might have brought in someone with more experience in community organization and mobilization. Finally, the supervisor might have interceded with the City Attorney in order to. remove this barrier.

Assessment: The measurement of a problem-solving project is often in terms of whether its goals and objectives have been met. This is as it should be. However, projects may also succeed if officers develop in a positive way even if the goals of the project are not completely met. In this regard, it might be argued that one of the unmentioned outcomes of a problem-solving oriented is the production of supervisory relationships that are low task and low relationship. Such a style of

Notes . . .

supervision might be viewed as one in which officers are fully empowered to conduct problem-oriented activities under their own steam.

Assessments might also examine the other factors related to the problem-solving activities themselves.

- Does the community feel better about the police department, the problem, and itself?
- Were new community partnerships formed?
- Was a new resource developed?
- Were resources used in a new way?

Notes . . .

Appendix

March 1982

Broken Windows

by James Q. Wilson and George L. Kelling

The police and neighborhood safety

In the mid-1970s The State of New Jersey announced a "Safe and Clean Neighborhoods Program," designed to improve the quality of community life in twenty-eight cities. As part of that program, the state provided money to help cities take police officers out of their patrol cars and assign them to walking beats. The governor and other state officials were enthusiastic about using foot patrol as a way of cutting crime, but many police chiefs were skeptical. Foot patrol, in their eyes, had been pretty much discredited. It reduced the mobility of the police, who thus had difficulty responding to citizen calls for service, and it weakened headquarters control over patrol officers.

Many police officers also disliked foot patrol, but for different reasons: it was hard work, it kept them outside on cold, rainy nights, and it reduced their chances for making a "good pinch." In some departments, assigning officers to foot patrol had been used as a form of punishment. And academic experts on policing doubted that foot patrol would have any impact on crime rates; it was, in the opinion of most, little more than a sop to public opinion. But since the state was paying for it, the local authorities were willing to go along.

Five years after the program started, the Police Foundation, in Washington, D.C , published an evaluation of the foot-patrol project. Based on its analysis of a carefully controlled experiment carried out chiefly in Newark, the foundation concluded, to the surprise of hardly anyone, that foot patrol had not reduced crime rates. But residents of the foot patrolled neighborhoods seemed to feel more secure than persons in other areas, tended to believe that crime had been reduced, and seemed to take fewer steps to protect themselves from crime (staying at home with the doors locked, for example). Moreover, citizens in the foot-patrol areas had a more favorable opinion of the police than did those living elsewhere. And officers walking beats had higher morale, greater job satisfaction, and a more favorable attitude toward citizens in their neighborhoods than did officers assigned to patrol cars.

These findings may be taken as evidence that the skeptics were right- foot patrol has no effect on crime; it merely fools the citizens into thinking that they are safer. But in our view, and in the view of the authors of the Police Foundation study (of whom Kelling was one), the citizens of Newark were not fooled at all. They knew what the foot-patrol officers were doing, they knew it was different from what motorized officers do, and they knew that having officers walk beats did in feet make their neighborhoods safer.

But how can a neighborhood be "safer" when the crime rate has not gone down—in fact, may have gone up? Finding the answer requires first that we understand what most often frightens people in public places. Many citizens, of course, are primarily frightened by crime, especially crime involving a sudden, violent attack by a stranger. This risk is very real, in Newark as in many large cities. But we tend to overtook another source of fear—the fear of

being bothered by disorderly people. Not violent people, nor, necessarily, criminals, but disreputable or obstreperous or unpredictable people: panhandlers, drunks, addicts, rowdy teenagers, prostitutes, loiterers, the mentally disturbed.

What foot-patrol officers did was to elevate, to the extent they could, the level of public order in these neighborhoods. Though the neighborhoods were predominantly black and the foot patrolmen were mostly white, this "order-maintenance" function of the police was performed to the general satisfaction of both parties.

One of us (Kelling) spent many hours walking with Newark foot-patrol officers to see how they defined "order" and what they did to maintain it. One beat was typical: a busy but dilapidated area in the heart of Newark, with many abandoned buildings, marginal shops (several of which prominently displayed knives and straight-edged razors in their windows), one large department store, and, most important, a train station and several major bus stops. Though the area was run-down, its streets were filled with people, because it was a major transportation center. The good order of this area was important not only to those who lived and worked there but also to many others, who had to move through it on their way home, to supermarkets, or to factories.

The people on the street were primarily black; the officer who walked the street was white. The people were made up of "regulars" and "strangers." Regulars included both "decent folk" and some drunks and .derelicts who were always there but who "knew their place." Strangers were, well, strangers, and viewed suspiciously, sometimes apprehensively. The officer—call him Kelly—knew who the regulars were, and they knew him. As he saw his job, he was to keep an eye on strangers, and make certain that the disreputable regulars observed some informal but widely understood rules. Drunks and addicts could sit on the stoops, but could not lie down. People could drink on side streets, but not at the main intersection. Bottles had to be in paper bags. Talking to, bothering, or begging from people watting at the bus stop was strictly forbidden. If a dispute erupted between a businessman and a customer, the businessman was assumed to be right, especially if the customer was a stranger. If a stranger loitered, Kelly would ask him if he had any means of support and what his business was; if he gave unsatisfactory answers, he was sent on his way. Persons who broke the informal rules, especially those who bothered people waiting at bus stops, were arrested for vagrancy. Noisy teenagers were told to keep quiet.

These rules were defined and enforced in collaboration with the "regulars" on the street. Another neighborhood might have different rules, but these, everybody understood, were the rules for *this* neighborhood. If someone violated them, the regulars not only turned to Kelly for help but also ridiculed the violator. Sometimes what Kelly did could be described as "enforcing the law," but just as often it involved taking informal or extralegal steps to help protect what the neighborhood had decided was the appropriate level of public order. Some of the things he did probably would not withstand a legal challenge.

A determined skeptic might acknowledge that a skilled foot-patrol officer can maintain order but still insist that this sort of "order" has little to do with the real sources of community fear—that is, with violent crime. To a degree, that is true. But two things must be borne in mind. First, outside observers should not assume that they know how much of the anxiety now endemic in many big-city neighborhoods stems from a fear of "real" crime and how much from a sense that tie street is disorderly, a source of distasteful worrisome encounters. The people of Newark, to judge from their behavior and their remarks to

interviewers, apparently assign a high value to public order, and feel relieved and reassured when the police help them maintain that order.

Second, at the community level, disorder and crime are usually inextricably linked, in a kind of developmental sequence. Social psychologists and police officers tend to agree that if a window in a building is broken and is left unrepaired, all the rest of the windows will soon be broken. This is as true in nice neighborhoods as in rundown ones. Window-breaking does not necessarily occur on a large scale because some areas are inhabited by determined window-breakers whereas others are populated by window-lovers; rather, one unrepaired broken window is a signal that no one cares, and so breaking more windows costs nothing. (It has always been fun.)

Philip Zimbardo, a Stanford psychologist, reported in 1969 on some experiments testing the broken-window theory. He arranged to have an automobile without license plates parked with its hood up on a street in the Bronx and a comparable automobile on a street in Palo Alto, California. The car in the Bronx was attacked by "vandals" within ten minutes of its "abandonment." The first to arrive were a family—father, mother, and young son—who removed the radiator and battery. Within twenty-four hours, virtually everything of value had been removed. Then random destruction began—windows were smashed, parts torn ofij upholstery ripped. Children began to use the car as a playground. Most of the adult "vandals" were well-dressed, apparently clean-cut whites. The car in Palo Alto sat untouched for more than a week. Then Zimbardo smashed part of it with a sledgehammer. Soon, passersby were joining in. Within a few hours, the car had been turned upside down and utterly destroyed. Again, the "vandals" appeared to be primarily respectable whites.

Untended property becomes fair game for people out for fun or plunder and even for people who ordinarily would not dream of doing such things and who probably consider themselves law-abiding. Because of the nature of community life in the Bronx—its anonymity, the frequency with which cars are abandoned and things are stolen or broken, the past experience of "no one caring"—vandalism begins much more quickly than it does in staid Palo Alto, where people have come to believe that private possessions are cared for, and that mischievous behavior is costly. But vandalism can occur anywhere once communal barriers—the sense of mutual regard and the obligations of civility—are lowered by actions that seem to signal that "no one cares."

We suggest that "untended" behavior also leads to the breakdown of community controls. A stable neighborhood of families who care for their homes, mind each other's children, and confidently frown on unwanted intruders can change, in a few years or even a few months, to an inhospitable and frightening jungle. A piece of property is abandoned, weeds grow up, a window is smashed. Adults stop scolding rowdy children; the children, emboldened, become more rowdy. Families move out unattached adults move in. Teenagers gather in front of the corner store. The merchant asks them to move; they refuse. Fights occur. Litter accumulates. People start drinking in front of the grocery; in time, an inebriate slumps to the sidewalk and is allowed to sleep it off. Pedestrians are approached by panhandlers.

At this point it is not inevitable that serious crime will flourish or violent attacks on strangers will occur. But many residents will think that crime, especially violent crime, is on the rise, and they will modify their behavior accordingly. They will use the streets less often, and when on the streets will stay apart from their fellows, moving with averted eyes, silent lips, and hurried steps. "Don't get involved." For some residents, this growing atomizatioh wiU matter little, because the neighborhood is not their "home" but "the place where they live." Their interests are elsewhere; they are cosmopolitans. But it will matter greatly to other people, whose lives derive meaning and satisfaction from local attachments rather than worldly involvement; for them, the neighborhood will cease *to* exist except for a few reliable friends whom they arrange to meet.

Such an area is vulnerable to criminal invasion. Though it is not inevitable, it is more likely that here, rather than in places where people are confident they can regulate public behavior by informal controls, drugs will change hands, prostitutes will solicit, and cars will be stripped. That the drunks will be robbed by boys who do it as a lark, and the-prostitutes' customers will be robbed by men who do it purposefully and perhaps violently. That muggings will occur.

Among those who often find h difficult to move away from this are the elderly. Surveys of citizens suggest that the elderly are much less likely to be the victims of crime than younger persons, and some have inferred from this that the well-known fear of crime voiced by the elderiy is an exaggeration: perhaps we ought not to design special programs to protect older persons; perhaps we should even try to talk them out of their mistaken fears. This argument misses the point. The prospect of a confrontation with an obstreperous teenager or a drunken panhandler can be as fear-inducing for defenseless persons as the prospect of meeting an actual robber, indeed, to a defenseless person, the two kinds of confrontation are often indistinguishable. Moreover, the lower rate at which the elderly are victimized is a measure of the steps they have already taken—chiefly, staying behind locked doors—to minimize the risks they face. Young men are more frequently attacked than older women, not because they are easier or more lucrative targets but because they are on the streets more.

Nor is the connection between disorderliness and fear made only by the elderiy. Susan Estrich, of the Harvard Law School, has recently gathered together a number of surveys on the sources of public fear. One, done in Portland, Oregon, indicated that three fourths of the adults interviewed cross to the other side of a street when they see a gang of teenagers; another survey, in Baltimore, discovered that nearly half would cross the street to avoid even a single strange youth. When an interviewer asked people in a housing project where the most dangerous spot was, they mentioned a place where young persons gathered to drink and play music, despite the fact that not a single crime had occurred there. In Boston public housing projects, the greatest fear was expressed by persons living in the buildings where disorderiiness and incivility, not crime, were the greatest. Knowing this helps one understand the significance of such otherwise hannless displays as subway graffiti. As Nathan Giazer has written, the proliferation of graffiti, even when not obscene, confronts the subway rider with the inescapable knowledge that the environment he must endure for an hour or more a day is uncontrolled and uncontrollable, and that anyone can invade it to do whatever damage and mischief the mind suggests."

In response to fear people avoid one another, weakening controls. Sometimes they call the police. Patrol cars arrive, an occasional arrest occurs but crime continues and disorder is not

abated. Citizens complain to the police chief; but he explains that his department is low on personnel and that the courts do not punish petty or first-tíme offenders. To the residents, the police who arrive in squad cars are either ineffective or uncaring: to the police, the residents are animals who deserve each other. The citizens may soon stop calling the police, because "they can't do anything."

The process we call urban decay has occurred for centuries in every chy. But what is happening today is different in at least two important respects. First, in the period before, say, Worid War II, city dwellers- because of money costs, transportation difficulties, familial and church connections—could rarely move away from neighborhood problems. When movement did occur, it tended to be along public-*ransit routes. Now mobility has become exceptionally easy for all but the poorest or those who are blocked by racial prejudice. Earlier crime waves had a kind of built-in self-correcting mechanism: the determination of a neighborhood or community to reassert control over its turf Areas in Chicago, New York, and Boston would experience crime and gang wars, and then normalcy would return, as the families for whom no alternative residences were possible reclaimed their authority over the streets.

Second, the police in this earlier period assisted in that reassertion of authority by acting, sometimes violently, on behalf of the community. Young toughs were roughed up, people were arrested "on suspicion" or for vagrancy, and prostitutes and petty thieves were routed. "Rights" were something enjoyed by decent folk, and perhaps also by the serious professional criminal, who avoided violence and could afford a lawyer.

This pattern of policing was not an aberration or the result of occasional excess. From the earliest days of the nation, the police function was seen primarily as that of a night watchman: to maintain order against the chief threats to order—fire, wild animals, and disreputable behavior. Solving crimes was viewed not as a police responsibility but as a private one. In the March, 1969, Atlantic, one of us (Wilson) wrote a brief account of how the police role had slowly changed from maintaining order to fighting crimes. The change began with the creation of private detectives (often ex-criminals), who worked on a contingency-fee basis for individuals who had suffered losses. In time, the detectives were absorbed in municipal agencies and paid a regular salary simultaneously, the responsibility for prosecuting thieves was shifted from the aggrieved private citizen to the professional prosecutor. This process was not complete in most places until the twentieth century.

In the 1960s, when urban riots were a major problem, social scientists began to explore carefully the order maintenance function of the police, and to suggest ways of improving it—not to make streets safer (its original function) but to reduce the incidence of mass violence. Order maintenance became, to a degree, coterminous with "community relations." But, as the crime wave that began in the eariy 1960s continued without abatement throughout the decade and into the 1970s, attention shifted to the role of the police as crime-fighters. Studies of police behavior ceased, by and large, to be accounts of the order-maintenance function and became, instead, efforts to propose and test ways whereby the police could solve more crimes, make more arrests, and gather better evidence. If these things could be done, social scientists assumed, citizens would be less fearful.

A great deal was accomplished during this transition, as both police chiefs and outside experts emphasized the crime-fighting function in their plans, in the allocation of resources, and in deployment of personnel. The police may well have become better crime-fighters as a

result. And doubtless they remained aware of their responsibility for order. But the link between order-maintenance and crime-prevention, so obvious to earlier generations, was forgotten.

That link is similar to the process whereby one broken window becomes many. The citizen who fears the ill-smeliing drunk, the rowdy teenager, or the importuning beggar is not merely expressing his distaste for unseemly behavior; he is also giving voice to a bit of folk wisdom that happens to be a correct generalization—namely, that serious street crime flourishes in areas in which disorderly behavior goes unchecked. The unchecked panhandler is, in effect, the first broken window. Muggers and robbers, whether opportunistic or professional, believe they reduce their chances of being caught or even identified if they operate on streets where potential victims are already intimidated by prevailing conditions. If the neighborhood cannot keep a bothersome panhandler from annoying passersby, the thief may reason, it is even less likely to call the police to identify a potential mugger or to interfere if the mugging actually takes place.

Some police administrators concede that this process occurs, but argue that motorized-patrol officers can deal with it as effectively as foot patrol officers. We are not so sure. In theory, an officer in a squad car can observe as much as an officer on foot; in theory, the former can talk to as many people as the latter. But the reality of police-citizen encounters is powerfully altered by the automobile. An officer on foot cannot separate himself from the street people; if he is approached, only his uniform and his personality can help him manage whatever is about to happen. And he can never be certain what that will be—a request for directions, a plea for help, an angry denunciation, a teasing remark, a confused babble, a threatening gesture.

In a car, an officer is more likely to deal with street people by rolling down the window and looking a: them. The door and the window exclude the approaching citizen; they are a barrier Some officers take advantage of this barrier, perhaps unconsciously, by acting differently if in the car than they would on foot. We have seen this countless times. The police car pulls up to a corner where teenagers are gathered. The window is rolled down. The officer stares at the youths. They stare back. The officer says to one, "C'mere." He saunters over, conveying to his friends by his elaborately casual style the idea that he is not intimidated by authority. What's your name?" "Chuck." "Chuck who?" "Chuck Jones." "Whafya doing, Chuck?" "Nothin[1]." "Got a P.O. [parole officer]?" "Nah." "Sure?" "Yeah." "Stay out of trouble, Chuckie." Meanwhile, the other boys laugh and exchange comments among themselves, probably at the officer's expense. The officer stares harder. He cannot be certain what is being said, nor can he join in and, by displaying his own skill at street banter, prove that he cannot be "put down." In the process, the officer has learned almost nothing, and the boys have decided the officer is an alien force who can safely be disregarded, even mocked.

Our experience is that most citizens like to talk to a police officer. Such exchanges give them a sense of importance, provide them with the basis for gossip, and allow them to explain to the authorities what is worrying them (whereby they gain a modest but significant sense of having "done something" about the problem). You approach a person on foot more easily, and talk to him more readily, than you do a person in a car. Moreover, you can more easily retain some anonymity if you draw an officer aside for a private chat. Suppose you want to pass on a tip about who is stealing handbags, or who offered to sell you a stolen TV. In the inner city, the culprit, in all likelihood, lives nearby. To walk up to a marked patrol car and

lean in the window is to convey a visible signal that you are a "fink."

The essence of the police role in maintaining order is to reinforce the informal control mechanisms of the community itself. The police cannot, without committing extraordinary resources, provide a substitute for that informal control. On the other hand, to reinforce those natural forces the police must accommodate them. And therein ties the problem.

Should police activity on the street be shaped, in important ways, by the standards of the neighborhood rather than by the rules of the state? Over the past two decades, the shift of police from order-maintenance to law enforcement has brought them increasingly under the influence of legal restrictions, provoked by media compiaints and enforced by court decisions and departmental orders. As a consequence, the order maintenance functions of the police are now governed by rules developed to control police relations with suspected criminals. This *is,* we think, an entirely new development. For centuries, the roie of the police as watchmen was judged primarily not in terms of its compliance with appropriate procedures but rather in terms of its attaining a desired objective. The objective was order, an inherently ambiguous term but a condition that people in a given community recognized when they saw it The means were the same as those the community itself would employ, if its members were sufficiently determined, courageous, and authoritative. Detecting and apprehending criminals, by contrast, was a means to an end, not an end in itself; a judicial determination of guilt or innocence was the hoped-for result of the law-enforcement mode. From the first, the police were expected to follow rules denning that process, though states differed in how stringent the rules should be. The criminal-apprehension process was always understood to involve individual rights, the violation of which was unacceptable because it meant that the violating officer would be acting as a judge and jury—and that was not his job. Guilt or innocence was to be determined by universal standards under special procedures.

Ordinarily, no judge or jury ever sees the persons caught up in a dispute over the appropriate level of neighborhood order. That is true not only because most cases are handled informally on the street but also because no universal standards are available to settle arguments over disorder, and thus a judge may not be any wiser or more effective than a police officer. Until quite recently in many states, and even today in some places, the police made arrests on such charges as "suspicious person" or "vagrancy" or "public "drunkenness"--charges with scarcely any legal meaning. These charges exist not because society wants judges to punish vagrants or drunks but because it wants an officer to have the legal tools to remove undesirable persons from a neighborhood when informal efforts to preserve order in the streets have felled.

Once we begin to think of all aspects of police work as involving the application of universal rules under special procedures, we inevitably ask what constitutes an "undesirable person" and why we should "criminalize" vagrancy or drunkenness. A strong and commendable desire to see that people are treated fairly makes us worry about allowing the police to rout persons who are undesirable by some vague or parochial standard. A growing and not-so-commendable utilitarianism leads us to doubt that any behavior that does not "hurt"[1] another person should be made illegal. And thus many of us who watch over the police are

reluctant to allow them to perform, in the only way they can, a function that every neighborhood desperately wants them to perform.

This wish to "decriminalize" disreputable behavior that "harms no one"- and thus remove the ultimate sanction the police can employ to maintain neighborhood order—is, we *think*, a mistake. Arresting a single drunk or a single vagrant who has harmed no identifiable person seems unjust, and in a sense it is. But failing to do anything about a score of drunks or a hundred vagrants may destroy an entire community. A particular rule that seems to make sense in the individual case makes no sense when it is made a universal rule and applied to all cases. It makes no sense because it fails to take into account the connection between one broken window left untended and a thousand broken windows. Of course, agencies other than the police could attend to the problems posed by drunks or the mentally ill, but in most communities especially where the "deinstitutionalization" movement has been strong—they do not.

The concern about equity is more serious. We might agree that certain behavior makes one person more undesirable than another but how do we ensure that age or skin color or national origin or harmless mannerisms will not also become the basis for distinguishing the undesirable from the desirable? How do we ensure, in short, that the police do not become the agents of neighborhood bigotry?

We can offer no wholly satisfactory answer to this important question. We are not confident that there is a satisfactory answer except to hope that by their selection, training, and supervision, the police will be inculcated with a clear sense of the outer limit of their discretionary authority. That limit, roughly, is this—the police exist to help regulate behavior, not to maintain the racial or ethnic purity of a neighborhood.

Consider the case of the Robert Taylor Homes in Chicago, one of the largest public-housing projects in the country. It is home for nearly 20,000 people, all black, and extends over ninety-two acres along South State Street. It was named after a distinguished black who had been, during the 1940s, chairman of the Chicago Housing Authority. Not long after it opened, in 1962, relations between project residents and the police deteriorated badly. The citizens felt that the police were insensitive or brutal; the police, in turn, complained of unprovoked attacks on them. Some Chicago officers tell of times when they were afraid to enter the Homes. Crime rates soared.

Today, the atmosphere has changed. Police-citizen relations have improved—apparently, both sides learned something from the earlier experience. Recently, a boy stole a purse and ran off. Several young persons who saw the theft voluntarily passed along to the police information on the identity and residence of the thief, and they did this publicly, with friends and neighbors looking on. But problems persist, chief among them the presence of youth gangs that terrorize residents and recruit members in the project. The people expect the police to "do something" about this, and the police are determined to do just that.

But do what? Though the police can obviously make arrests whenever a gang member breaks the law, a gang can form, recruit, and congregate without breaking the law. And only a tiny fraction of gang-related crimes can be solved by an arrest; thus, if an arrest is the only recourse for the police, the residents' fears will go unassuaged. The police will soon feel helpless, and the residents will again believe that the police "do nothing." What the police in fact do *is* to chase known gang members out of the project. In the words of one officer, "We

kick ass." Project residents both know and approve of this. The tacit police-dozen alliance in the project is reinforced by the police view that the cops and the gangs are the two rival sources of power in the area, and that the gangs are not going to win.

None of this is easily reconciled with any conception of due process or fair treatment. Since both residents and gang members are black, race is not a factor. But it could be. Suppose a white project confronted a black gang, or vice versa. We would be apprehensive about the police taking sides. But the substantive problem remains the same: how can the police strengthen the informal social-control mechanisms of natural communities in order to minimize fear in public places? Law enforcement, per se, is no answer a gang can weaken or destroy a community by standing about in a menacing fashion and speaking rudely to passersby without breaking the law.

We have difficulty thinking about such matters, not simply because the ethical and legal issues are so complex but because we have become accustomed to thinking of the law in essentially individualistic terms. The law defines *my* rights, punishes *his* behavior and is applied by *that* officer because of *this* harm. We assume, in thinking this way, that what is good for the individual will be good for the community and what doesn't matter when it happens to one person won't matter if it happens to many. Ordinarily, those are plausible assumptions. But in cases where behavior that is tolerable to one person is intolerable to many others, the reactions of the others—fear, withdrawal, flight—may ultimately make matters worse for everyone, including the individual who first professed his indifference.

It may be their greater sensitivity to communal as opposed to individual needs that helps explain why the residents of small communities are more satisfied with their police than are the residents of similar neighborhoods in big cities. Elinor Ostrom and her co-workers at Indiana University compared the perception of police services in two poor, all-black Illinois towns—Phoenix and East Chicago Heights with those of three comparable all-black neighborhoods in Chicago. The level of criminal victimization and the quality of police-community relations appeared to be about the same in the towns and the Chicago neighborhoods. But the citizens living in their own villages were much more likely than those living in the Chicago neighborhoods to say that they do not stay at home for fear of crime, to agree that the local police have "the right to take any action necessary" to deal with problems, and to agree that the police "look out for the needs of the average citizen." It is possible that the residents and the police of the small towns saw themselves as engaged in a collaborative effort to maintain a certain standard of communal life, whereas those of the big city felt themselves to be simply requesting and supplying particular services on an individual basis.

If this is true, how should a wise police chief deploy his meager forces? The first answer is that nobody knows for certain, and the most prudent course of action would be to try further variations on the Newark experiment, to see more precisely what works in what kinds of neighborhoods. The second answer is also a hedge—many aspects of order maintenance in neighborhoods can probably best be handled in ways that involve the police minimally if at all. A busy bustling shopping center and a quiet, well-tended suburb may need almost no visible police presence. In both cases, the ratio of respectable to disreputable people is ordinarily so high as to make informal social control effective.

Even in areas that are in jeopardy from disorderly elements, citizen action without substantial police involvement may be sufficient. Meetings between teenagers who like to-hang out on a particular corner and adults who want to use that corner might well lead to an amicable agreement on a set of rules about how many people can be allowed to congregate, where, and when.

Where no understanding is possible—or if possible, not observed—citizen patrols may be a sufficient response. There are two traditions of communal involvement in maintaining order One, that of the "community watchmen," is as old as the first settlement of the New World. Until well into the nineteenth century, volunteer watchmen, not policemen, patrolled their communities to keep order. They did so, by and large, without taking the law into their own hands—without, that is, punishing persons or using force. Their presence deterred disorder or alerted the community to disorder that could not be deterred. There are hundreds of such efforts today in communities all across the nation. Perhaps the best known *is* that of the Guardian Angels, a group of unarmed young persons in distinctive berets and T-shirts, who first came to public attention when they began patrolling the New York City subways but who claim now to have chapters in more than thirty American cities. Unfortunately, we have little information about the effect of these groups on crime. It is possible, however, that whatever their effect on crime, citizens find their presence reassuring, and that they thus contribute to maintaining a sense of order and civility.

The second tradition *is* that of the "vigilante." Rarely a feature of the settled communities of the East, it was primarily to be found in those frontier towns that grew up in advance of the reach of government. More than 350 vigilante groups are known to have existed; their distinctive feature was that their members did take the law into their own hands, by acting as judge, jury, and often executioner as well as policeman. Today, the vigilante movement is conspicuous by its rarity, despite the great fear expressed by citizens that the older cities are becoming "urban frontiers." But some community-watchmen groups have skirted the line, and others may cross it in the future. An ambiguous case, reported in The Wall Street Journal involved a citizens' patrol in the Silver Lake area of Belleville, New Jersey. A leader told the reporter, "We look for outsiders."[1] If a few teenagers from outside the neighborhood enter it, "we ask them their business," he said. "If they say they're going down the street to see Mrs. Jones, fine, we let them pass. But then we follow them down the block to make sure they're really going to see Mrs. Jones."

Though citizens can do a great deal, the police are plainly the key to order maintenance. For one thing, many communities, such as the Robert Taylor Homes, cannot do the job by themselves. For another, no citizen in a neighborhood, even an organized one, *is* likely to feel the sense of responsibility that wearing a badge confers. Psychologists have done many studies on why people fail to go to the aid of persons being attacked or seeking help, and they have learned that the cause is not "apathy" or "selfishness" but the absence of some plausible grounds for feeling that one must personally accept responsibility. Ironically, avoiding responsibility is easier when a lot of people are standing about. On streets and in public places, where order is so important, many people are likely to be "around," a fact that reduces the chance .of any one person acting as the agent of the community. The police officer's uniform singles him out as a person who must accept responsibility if asked. In addition, officers, more easily than their fellow citizens, can be expected to distinguish

between what is necessary to protect the safety of the street and what merely protects its ethnic purity.

But the police forces of America are losing, not gaining, members. Some cities have suffered substantial cuts in the number of officers available for duty. These cuts are not likely to be reversed in the near future. Therefore, each department must assign its existing officers with great care. Some neighborhoods are so demoralized and crime-ridden as to make foot patrol useless; the best the police can do with limited resources is respond to the enormous number of calls for service. Other neighborhoods are so stable and serene as to make foot patrol unnecessary. The key is to identify neighborhoods at the tipping point—where the public order is deteriorating but not unreciaimable, where the streets are used frequently but by apprehensive people, where a window is likely to be broken at any time, and must quickly be fixed if all are not to be shattered.

Most police departments do not have ways of systematically identifying such areas and assigning officers to them. Officers are assigned on the basis of crime rates (meaning that marginally threatened areas are often stripped so that police can investigate crimes in areas where the situation is hopeless) or on the basis of calls for service (despite the fact that most citizens do not call the police when they are merely frightened or annoyed). To allocate patrol wisely, the department must look at the neighborhoods and decide, from first-hand evidence, where an additional officer will make the greatest difference in promoting a sense of safety.

One way to stretch limited police resources is being tried in some public housing projects. Tenant organizations hire off-duty police officers for patrol work in their buildings. The costs are not high (at least not per resident), the officer likes the additional income, and the residents feel safer. Such arrangements are probably more successful than hiring private watchmen, and the Newark experiment helps us understand why. A private security guard may deter crime or misconduct by his presence, and he may go to the aid of persons needing help, but he may well not intervene—that is, control or drive away—someone challenging community standards. Being a swom officer—a "real cop"—seems to give one the confidence, the sense of duty, and the aura of authority necessary to perform this difficult task.

Patrol officers might be encouraged to go to and from duty stations on public transportation and, while on the bus or subway car, enforce rules about smoking, drinking, disorderly conduct, and the like. The enforcement need involve nothing more than ejecting the offender (the offense, after all, is not one with which a booking officer or a judge wishes to be bothered). Perhaps the random but relentless maintenance of standards on buses would lead to conditions on buses that approximate the level of civility we now take for granted on airplanes.

But the most important requirement is to think that to maintain order in precarious situations is a vital job. The police know this is one of their functions, and they also believe, correctly, that it cannot be done to the exclusion of criminal investigation and responding to calls. We may have encouraged them to suppose, however, on the basis of our oft-repeated concerns about serious, violent crime, that they will be judged exclusively on their capacity as . crime-fighters. To the extent that this is the case, police administrators will continue to concentrate police personnel in the highest-crime areas (though not necessarily in the areas most vulnerable to criminal invasion), emphasize their training in the law and criminal apprehension (and not their training in managing street life), and join too quickly in

campaigns to decriminalize "harmless" behavior (though public drunkenness, street prostitution, and pornographic displays can destroy a community more quickly than any team of professional burglars).

Above all, we must return to our long-abandoned view that the police ought to protect communities as well as individuals. Our crime statistics and victimization surveys measure individual losses, but they do not measure communal losses. Just as physicians now recognize the importance of fostering health rather than simply treating illness, so the police—and the rest of us—ought to recognize the importance of maintaining, intact, communities without broken windows.

The Atlantic Monthly; March 1982: Broken Windows: Volume 249. No. 3; pages 29-38.

m

fJS, **Department of Justice**
ice of Community Oriented Policing Services

COPS Tips

Problem-Solving Tips

A Guide to Reducing Crime and Disorder Through Problem-Solving Partnerships

U.S. Department of Justice
Office of Community Oriented Policing Services
Joseph E. Brann, Director

Problem-Solving Tips

The following guide was created to assist COPS grantees in tfieir efforts to reduce crime and disorder through problem-solving partnerships. It may be reproduced and distributed.

This guide was compiled by COPS staff members Karin Schmerler, Matt Perkins, Scott Phillips, Tammy Rinehart and Meg Townsend. It draws heavily on previous work by Herman Goldstein, Rana Sampson, Darrel Stephens, John Eck, William Spelman, the Police Executive Research Forum and the Home Office.

For more information about COPS grants, call the U.S. Department of Justice Response Center at 1-800-421-6770.

U.S. Department of Justice
Office of Community Oriented Policing Services
1100 Vermont Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20530

Internet web site: htrpr//www.usdoj.gov/cops/

April 1998

Problem-Solving Ups

Table of Contents

How to Use TWs Guide

This publication can aid you in completing an application for a COPS School-Based Partnerships grant It provides background on most of the questions in the grant application. Several passages are repeated directly from the application, but most of the information presented here *is* new.

This publication also may be useful to policing agencies and community groups that are not applying for grant funds under this program area but wish to enhance their problem-solving partnership efforts.

Hie Problem-Solving Approach

'T'raditionally, police have handled each A incident or call for service as a separate and fairly unique occurrence. For example, most commercial burglaries have been addressed individually: an officer has taken a report irom the victim and attempted to identify the offender and recover stolen property: The responding officer might have also counseled the victim in general crime prevention techniques and attempted to link 3. series of commercial burglaries to one offender. But the incidents have not typically been analyzed as a group to learn why and how the crimes have occurred repeatedly, and how they could have been prevented.

This grant program seeks to build on the problem-solving approaches many communities have used in recent years. These approaches involve analyzing groups of related incidents that comprise a specific crime problem, so that comprehensive, tailored strategies to prevent future crime can be developed. Ttese problem-solving strategies rely less on arresting offenders and more on developing long-term ways to deflect offenders, protect likely victims and make crime locations less conducive to problem behaviors.

The emphasis on problem solving as an effective policing strategy steins from pioneering work on problem-oriented policing done by Herman Goldstein in the late 1970s and from experiments in the early 1980s in Madison, Wisconsin; Baltimore County, Maryland; and Newport News, Virginia. In Newport News, police practitioners, working in concert with researchers and community members, demonstrated that crime and disorder problems could be significantly reduced by implementing tailored responses directly linked to the findings of comprehensive problem analyses. Police and community members in Newport News were able to reduce burglaries in a targeted apartment complex by 34 percent, reduce prostitution-related robberies in the target district by 39 percent, and reduce thefts from vehicles in two downtown areas by over 50 percent.[1] From this effort and other early work on problem-oriented

Since the mid-1980s, communities and policing agencies of all types have successfully used the problem-solving approach to address an endless variety of problems.

policing, community policing advocates recognized the effectiveness of the problem-solving approach and incorporated it into the community policing philosophy.

Since the mid-1980s, communities of all sizes and policing agencies of all types — including sheriffs' departments, state police, highway patrols and transit police — have successfully used the problem-solving approach to address an endless variety of problems. From these efforts, it has become clear that problem solving is critical to the success of community policing efforts. Initiatives that lack an analytical component often improve police-community relations but frequently have little impact on specific crime and disorder problems.

Repeat Problems

Taking a problem-solving approach to addressing a specific crime problem calls for a broad inquiry into the nature of the particular problem. As part of that inquiry, many police-community problem-solving teams have found it useful to analyze the patterns of repeat calls relating to specific victims, locations and offenders. Research has shown that a relatively small number of locations and offenders are involved in a relatively large amount of crime. Similarly, a small number of victims account for a relatively large amount of victimization. For example, researchers have found that more than 60 percent of calls for service in some areas come from only 10 percent of the locations.[2] According to one study, approximately 50 percent of crime victims in England had experienced repeat victimization, and 4 percent of victims, the "chronically victimized," accounted for 44 percent of all the reported crime.[3]

Research shows that a small number of victims account for a relatively large amount of victimization.

A large dty in the Southwest United States also found that repeat victims — in this case commercial establishments — accounted for a disproportionate number of burglaries in the jurisdiction, in this city 5 percent of businesses were burglarized two or more times during the course of one year and accounted for at least 22 percent of all business burglaries. In Gainesville, Florida, this pattern was repeated. Going back five years, police found that 45 of the 47 convenience stores in the dty had been robbed at least once between 1981 and 1986, but that half had been robbed five or more times, and several had been robbed at least 10 times.

Cofraramftybwolvementin Prottem-Solving Bforfs

Engaging the community without problem solving provides no meaningful service to the public. Problem solving without [partnerships] risks overlooking the most pressing community concerns. Thus the partnership between police departments and the communities they service is essential for implementing a successful program in community policing.[4]

Community leaders, researchers and police officials recognize the need for a strong, well-articulated role for community members in community policing efforts. They know mat the police alone cannot substantially impact crime and advocate for the community as a full partner in preventing and responding to problems. Community involvement is an integral part of any long-term, problem-solving strategy. At the most basic level, the community provides policing agenries with invaluable information on both the problems of concern to them and the nature of those problems. Community involvement also helps ensure that policing agendes concentrate on the appropriate issues in a manner mat will create support In addition, collaborative work involving

police and community members provides the community with insight into the police perspective on specific crime and disorder problems.

Traditionally, community involvement in crime prevention and reduction efforts has been limited to serving as the "eyes and ears" for police or helping implement responses. The collaborative problem-solving approach allows for much greater and more substantive roles for community members. For example, students in a high-school with a drug use problem on school grounds might survey their peers to determine the extent of the problem and also help design responses to the problem.

Hie SARA Model: A Usefiuf I n I

As part of the problem-oriented policing project in Newport News, officers worked with researchers to develop a problem-solving model that could be used to address any crime or disorder problem. The result was the SARA model, which has four stages: Scanning, Analysis, Response and Assessment These stages are discussed in greater detail below. Since the mid-1980s, many officers have used the SARA model to guide their problem-solving efforts. Although the SARA model is not the only way to approach problem solving, it can serve as a helpful tool.

Identifying and Selecting a Problem (Scanning)

A problem can be defined as:

- A cluster of similar, related or recurring incidents rather than a single incident; a substantive community concern; [or] a unit of police business;*[5]
- A type of behavior (loitering, theft of autos); a place (Pinecrest Shopping Mall); a person or persons (a repeat perpetrator of domestic violence, repeat burglary victims); or a special event or time (an annual parade, payday robberies). A problem also may be a combination of any of the above;[6] and
- Informally, a problem can be thought of as two or more incidents similar in one or more ways that is of concern to the police and a problem for the community

Methods of Identifying Problems

Problems may come to your attention in a variety of ways. These include:

- Routinely analyzing calls for service, crime incident data and other agency records for patterns and trends involving repeat locations, victims and offenders. (Police agencies may need to look at calls going back six months to a year to get an accurate picture of repeat calls for some types of problems.);
- Mapping specific crimes according to time of day, proximity to certain locations and other similar factors;
- Consulting officers, police supervisors, detectives, midlevel managers and command staff;
- Reviewing police reports;
* Surveying community residents, business owners, elected officials or students;
* Reviewing citizen complaints and letters;
- Participating in community meetings;
- Reviewing information from neighborhood associations and nonprofit organizations (local and national);
- Consulting social service and governmental agencies; and
- Following media coverage and editorials.

A problem can be thought of as two or more incidents similar in one or more ways that is of concern to the police and a problem for the community.

Selecting a Problem

It is important that both community members and police have input into prioritizing problems once they have been identified. Often, the problems of concern to community members are somewhat different from what the police expect. Consulting community members about their priorities not only ensures that community concerns are addressed but enhances the problem-solving effort at every step of the process. Citizen input can be solicited in a number of ways, including surveys, community meetings and focus groups (e.g., a group of students or a cross-section of neighborhood residents). Police input into the selection of a problem is also very important because the police have expertise and information about problems that citizens do not typically possess.

In selecting a problem on which to focus from among the many problems your

community faces, you may want to consider the following factors:[7]

- The impact of the problem on the community — its size and costs;
- The presence of any life-threatening conditions;
- Community interest and degree of support likely to exist for both the inquiry and subsequent recommendations;
- The potential threat to constitutional rights — as may occur whendtizens * * * ^ i * to ^ me use of the public wav,,,mxt access to faalities, or curtail freedom of speech and assembly;
- The degree to which the problem adversely affects relationships between the police and the community;
- The interest of rank-and-fUe officers in the problem and the degree of support for addressing *it;*
- The concreteness of the problem, given the frustration associated with exploring vague, amorphous complaints; and
- The potential that exploration is likely to lead to some progress in dealing with the problem.

It is important that citizens and police i_ IL t_ • • • both help prioritize problems once they have been identified.

Redefining the problem

Once a problem has been selected, it xnay need to be redefined as more information about die problem comes to light TTus is to be expected. The frequent need to redefine a problem is one of the reasons we do not expect you to propose responses or solutions to the problem you select at this point in time.

The COPS Office will provide you with flexibility to redefine the problem you have selected and head in a new direction, if necessary. If your proposed project or focus should change significantly post-award, we only ask that you discuss the developments with your grant advisor or send us a note indicating the proposed change(s).

Identifying Stakeholders for the Selected Problem

Stakeholders are private and public ^organizations, types or groups of people (senior citizens, homeowners, merchants, etc.) that will benefit if the problem is addressed or may experience negative consequences (injuries, lack of services, loss of revenue, increased enforcement etc) if the problem is not addressed. Stakeholders may include:

- Local sodal service and government agencies with jurisdiction over the problem or an interest in an aspect of the problem;
- Victims of the problem, associations representing victims;
- Neighbors, coworkers, friends and relatives of victims, neighborhood residents affected by the problem;
- Agencies or people that have some control over offenders (parents, relatives, friends, school officials, probation and parole, building management, etc.);
- Commercial establishments adversely impacted by the crime or disorder problem; and
- National organizations or trade associations with an interest in the problem (Students Against Drunk Driving for an underage drinking problem).

You should identify as many stakeholders as possible for the problem you select Each stakeholder may bring different knowledge and different leverage for impacting the problem to the effort The more stakeholders that are identified, the more resources you will have to address the problem.

However, some communities have found that the problem-solving effort progresses most efficiently if only two or three stakeholders •— a core group — work on the problem throughout the project. Other, more peripheral, stakeholders often have something to contribute at specific stages of the project, but not throughout the entire effort

Following is a brief description of a sample problem and a listing of potential stakeholders and partners.

Sample Prottem (Robbery, Fear)

A mid-sized eastern city of 35,000, with a relatively low crime rate, had experienced a series of robberies of food delivery people. On average, one delivery person had been robbed per month. A number of pizza and other fast-food stores refused to deliver to a mostly low-income and predominantly black neighborhood where many of the robberies were perceived to be taking place. Restaurant representatives said that stores decided not to deliver food to the area because an increasing number of delivery people had been attacked on the job, and they feared making deliveries in high-crime areas. A resident of the neighborhood where deliveries were not being made complained about the lack of delivery service and started a petition to change the policy. The city council began considering a proposal to require delivery to all residents, regardless *of* their location, and the story was covered in local and regional newspapers.

Stakeholders

(In addition to the policing agency)

- Potential home-delivery customers in "no delivery" neighborhood, signers of petition.
- Fast food delivery people.
- Fast food restaurant management (local franchises).
- National *fast* food delivery chains.
- National Restaurant Association.
- Local NAACP chapter.
- Local legislators.
- Local media.

Analyzing the Selected Problem

Why Analyses Important

Comprehensively analyzing a problem is critical to the success of a problem-solving effort. Effective, tailor-made responses cannot be developed unless you know what is causing the problem- Yet, many people essentially skip the analysis phase of the SARA model. The reasons for this are varied, but include the following; the nature of the problem sometimes falsely appears obvious at first glance; there may be tremendous internal and external pressure to solve the problem immediately; the pressure of responding to calls does not seem to allow time for detailed inquiries into the nature of the problem; investigating or researching the problem does not seem like "real" police work; and supervisors may not value analytical work that takes up time but does not produce arrests, traffic citations or other similar traditional measures of police work- Also, in many communities, a strong commitment to the old way of viewing and handling problems prevents police and citizens from looking at those problems in new and different ways.

Comprehensively analyzing a problem is critical to the success of a problem-solving effort.

Despite these pressures and perceptions, problem solvers must resist the urge to skip the analysis phase, or they risk addressing a problem that doesn't exist and/or implementing solutions that are ineffective in the long run.

For example, computer-aided dispatch data in one southeastern police department indicated that there was a large auto theft problem at a local shopping mall. Yet, after a sergeant reviewed incident reports and follow-up records on cancellations, it became clear to him that many of the reported auto thefts were actually cases in which shoppers had misplaced their cars and then mistakenly reported them stolen. If he had not analyzed the problem, the first instinct of the sergeant probably would have been to implement an auto theft prevention effort, which would have had little or no impact on the misplaced car problem. After analyzing the problem, it was obvious that the auto theft problem was not as large as it had appeared, and what was needed was a combination of a tailored auto theft prevention effort and better marking and distinction of the mall parking lots.

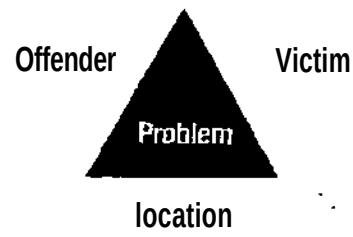
Problem solvers must resist the urge to skip the analysis phase, or they risk addressing a problem that doesn't exist or implementing ineffective solutions.

Asking the Right Questions

[The] first step in analysis is to determine what information is needed. This should be a broad inquiry, uninhibited by past perspectives; questions should be asked whether or not answers can be obtained. The openness and persistent probing associated with such an inquiry are not unlike the approach that a seasoned and highly regarded detective would take to solve a puzzling crime: reaching out in all directions, digging deeply, asking the right questions. Invited to participate in such an exercise, groups of experienced police personnel will pose a wide range of appropriate questions. They also will acknowledge that, except for some hunches, they usually do not have the answers to the questions they pose.[8]

Crane Triangle

Generally, three elements are required to constitute a crime in the community: an offender, a victim, and a crime scene or location.[9] *Problem solvers have found it useful in understanding a problem to visualize a link between these three elements by drawing a triangle.*



As part of the analysis phase, it is important to find out as much as possible about all three legs of the triangle. One way to start is by asking Who? What? When? Where? How? Why? and Why not? about each leg of the triangle.[10]

Victims

It is important to focus on the victim side of the triangle. As mentioned earlier, recent research has shown that a small number of victims account for a large amount of crime incidents. In addition, researchers in England found that victims of burglary, domestic violence and other crimes are likely to be revictimized very soon after the first victimization — often within a month or two.[11]-12 Effective interventions targeted at repeat victims can significantly reduce crime.

Effective interventions targeted at repeat victims can significantly reduce crime.

For example, according to one study of residential burglary in the Huddersfield Division of the West Yorkshire Police in England, victims were four times more likely than non-victims to be victimized again, and most repeat burglaries occurred within six weeks of the first Consequently, the Huddersfield Division developed a tailored, three-tiered response to repeat burglary victims, based on the number of times their homes had been burglarized. According to initial reports,; residential burglary has been reduced more than 20 percent since the project began, and they have experienced no displacement *3 in fact, commercial burglaries in the area also were reduced, even though that problem was not being targeted. The police did, however, experience difficulties identifying repeat victims, because their database systems were not designed for this type of inquiry.

Offenders

A fresh look at the offender side of the triangle is critical to a problem-solving effort. In the past, much emphasis has been placed on identifying and apprehending offenders. While this can reduce a specific crime problem, particularly if the apprehended offenders account for a large share of the problem, the reduction is often temporary, as new offenders replace the original offenders.

The problem of replacement offenders is particularly acute in money-making activities such as drug sales, burglary, robbery, prostitution, etc. For this reason, policing agencies have found it helpful to learn more about why offenders are attracted to certain victims and places, what specifically they gain by offending, and what, if anything, could prevent or reduce their rates of offending.

Crime Environment

It is equally important to analyze the location side of the triangle. As mentioned earlier, certain locations account for a significant amount of all criminal activity. An analysis of these locations may indicate

why they are so conducive to a particular crime and point to ways in which they can be altered to inhibit offenders and protect victims. For example, placing *ATM* machines inside bank lobbies may reduce the amount of information an offender has about victims (that they actually collected money from the bank, that they put their money in their left-front pocket) and reduce the vulnerability of victims who have their backs turned to potential offenders while using ATM machines.

Guardians

There are people or things that can exercise control over each side of the triangle, so that crime is less likely. They are called guardians. For instance, if the crime problem is drug dealing in a house on Main Street and the offender side of the triangle consists of the dealers and the buyers, then a list of guardians would include the landlord, city codes, health department, tax department, nuisance abatement statute, neighbors, police, parents of dealers/buyers, probation and parole, department of traffic or parking enforcement agency, "No Parking Anytime" signs, and "No Stopping Anytime" signs. Analyzing the problem vrill help you determine which guardians would be most effective, and which in turn, wUl help you in developing responses to the problem.[14]

Sample Questions for Anafyziig Problems

The grant application requests that applicants make a list of questions about the nature of the problem that need to be answered before new and effective responses can be developed. Specifically, the grant application requires a listing of questions about victims, the crime location and offenders.

Following are 16 sample questions about the robbery problem described earlier in the Identifying Stakeholders" section of this guide (p 6).

Victims

1. Who were the victims (age, race, gender)? For whom were they working? What was the nature of the attacks?

2. What time of day were the victims attacked?

3. Have any food delivery people been attacked more man once? Have the food delivery people from certain restaurants been attacked more often than others?

4. How fearful are the deli very people? What areas are they afraid of? Do they have any suggestions on ways to make their job safer? Are they issued any security devices or provided with safety training?

5. What have other jurisdictions facing similar problems done to increase the safety of food delivery people? What policies have been the most effective and why?

Crime location/Environment

6. Where are the robberies taking place — at the delivery site, en route to the delivery site, or near the fast-food establishment? How closely do the places of attack conform to the areas where delivery people will not go?

7. Of the robberies that take place away from the fast-food establishment, what is the distribution of places in which the robberies have occurred (apartment buildings, townhouses, detached houses, public or assisted housing, hotels, parking lots, office buildings, etc.)?

8. Are the delivery people robbed near their vehicle or away from it? What type of vehicle do the delivery people drive? Is it identified as a fast-food delivery vehicle?

9. Where is the food store located in relation to the "non-delivery" neighborhood? What routes do delivery people take to deliver the food?

10. Are there any environmental similarities in the specific locations of the robberies (lighting, shrubbery, isolated or blind areas)?

Offenders

11. What is the method of attack? Are any patterns evident? What weapons have been used and in how many attacks?

12. How do the offenders select their victims? What makes some victims more attractive than others? What makes non-victims less attractive?

13. Are the offenders placing orders to lure delivery people to them or randomly meeting up with their victims? If the offenders are placing orders to rob delivery people, are the orders being placed in the name of real customers or under false names?

14. How much money did offenders steal during a typical incident? Was anything else stolen?

15. Do the offenders live in the neighborhood^) where the robberies are occurring? If so, are they known to residents who might have some influence over them?

(For additional information on analyzing problems, see chapter seven of Problem-Oriented Policing, by Herman Goldstein, and chapter five of Neighborhood-Oriented Policing in Rural Communities, published by the U.S. Department of Justice. A full reference list can be found on p. 23.)

Resources that Cm Help Ybu Analyze Problems

A number of tools can assist you in capturing data and other information about crime and disorder problems.

- Crime analysts. Crime analysts can provide officers with a great deal of assistance in collecting and analyzing data and other information about specific crime and disorder problems.

- Crime analysis/report-writing software. This type of software can help policing agencies collect, retrieve and analyze information about problems. In particular, it should be able to quickly and easily help users identify repeat calls for service relating to specific victims, locations and offenders.

- Mapping/geographic information systems. These systems can illuminate patterns, help identify problem areas, and show potential links between crime hot spots and other types of establishments (ATM machines, liquor stores, etc).

- Technical assistance. Criminal justice practitioners who specialize in using problem solving to address specific crime problems — such as homidde, robbery, street-level drug dealing, etc — can provide valuable assistance to policing agencies and community members. In addition, non-criminal justice personnel with backgrounds in a variety of areas can also aid in problem-solving efforts. For example, an archi-

tect may be able to help assess the risks of crime relating to the design of a housing complex, and a mental health expert may be able to assist in assessing a community's current response to people with mental illness and help improve that response. After grant awards have been made, a *COPS* Office contractor will provide grantees requesting assistance with referrals to individuals and organizations that can provide assistance in various areas.

- Resident/business surveys. These surveys can help police and community-based entities identify and analyze problems, gauge fear levels, identify preferred responses, and determine the real and perceived effectiveness of problem-solving efforts. These surveys also can help determine general and repeat victimization rates, particularly for underreported, low-level crimes.

Systematic and structured interviews with victims and offenders can provide important insights into the dynamics of a particular crime problem.

- Crime environment surveys. These instruments can help policing agencies and community-based entities systematically assess the physical environment of problem locations and the ways in which the specific characteristics of the locations lend themselves to crime and disorder.

- Interviews with victims and offenders. Systematic and structured interviews with victims and offenders can provide important insights into the dynamics of a particular crime problem. For example, offender interviews conducted with street robbers in one locality provided police with important information regarding the nature of victim selection and other aspects of the crime that could be used to prevent future victimizations.

- Systems for tracking repeat victimization. Data on repeat victimization can help communities identify those victims that account for a disproportionate number of victimizations and provide a focus for scarce resources. In some communities, such systems may need to be developed; in others, database upgrades or enhancements would be necessary to track repeat victimization.

- Training. Problem-solving training, with an emphasis on analysis, can help police and citizens build and enhance problem-solving skills.

- Laptop computers/mobile data computers. When housed in patrol cars, the latest generation of laptop computers can provide officers with direct access to useful and timely crime data and the ability to analyze crime problems and produce maps while on patrol.

- Modems/online services. Using online legal and business research services, police personnel and community members can quickly learn who owns property that has become a haven for drug sales, identify pending legislation and current laws affecting a particular crime problem, and review news coverage from communities facing similar problems. Similarly, police personnel and community members can use the Internet to exchange information with others who have addressed similar problems and to gain access to networks specifically devoted to community policing and problem solving.

Responding to a Problem

After a problem has been clearly defined and analyzed, one confronts the ultimate challenge in problem-oriented policing: the search for the most effective way of dealing with it.[15]

The third stage of the SARA model focuses on developing and implementing effective responses to the problem. Before entering this stage, an agency must be sure it has thoroughly analyzed the problem. The temptation to implement a response and "start doing something" before analysis is complete is very strong. But quick fixes are rarely effective in the long-term. Problems will likely persist if solutions are not tailored to the specific causes of the problem.[16]

To develop tailored responses to crime problems, problem solvers should review their findings about the three sides of the crime triangle — victims, offenders and the crime location — and develop creative solutions that will address at least two sides of the triangle.[17] They should approach the development of solutions without any preconceived notions about what should be done. Often the results of the analysis phase point police and citizens in unexpected directions. For example, suppose the policing agency that faced the fast-food robbery problem described earlier found that

- 14 delivery people were robbed over the past year;
- Nine of the robberies occurred between the hours of 10:00 p-m. and 2:00 a.m. on Thursday, Friday and Saturday nights;
- Four of the fast-food delivery stores accounted for 10 of the robberies; staff working at two of these four stores experienced seven of the robberies;
- Staff at the two stores that were victimized the most deliver until 2:00 a.m., while the other two stores stop delivering at12:00 a .m.;
- In seven of the robberies, police were unable to locate the ordering customer, indicating that orders were placed under false names or false addresses;
- Large outdoor parties, mostly attended by youth in their late teens, are held each weekend night in several common areas near residential units. The party areas are in the vicinity of the robberies. Alcohol is served at the parties, and there is some concern among residents about noise and underage drinking at the parties;
- Fast-food delivery staff recall that a number of the robberies were committed by teenagers who appeared to have been drinking;
- Several delivery staff also recall seeing or passing a group of teenage partiers on foot before they were robbed; and
- In 11 of the robberies, the offenders stole less than $40. In the other three robberies, between $40 and $60 was stolen.

A tailored response to this problem might include:

- An agreement by the two most victimized stores to stop delivery at midnight and require customers to pick up their take-out between midnight and Z-00 a m;

- An agreement by the stores to ask customers what bill denomination will be used to pay for the food, so that delivery people could carry the minimum amount of change required for the transaction. Exact change would be requested, but not required;

- An agreement by the stores to use an enhanced Caller ID system to cross-check customer names with telephone numbers. If the customer's name did not match the number and name of the caller displayed by Caller ID — possibly because the person placing the order was a guest of the residence — food store personnel would look up the resident's address to confirm that the telephone number matched the address. The resident would be called back to confirm the order;

- An agreement by the stores to implement a policy not to deliver an order if it means walking by a large crowd that is loitering in the area. If a delivery person is unable to deliver an order for this reason, the person will return to the store, call the customer and request that he or she meet the delivery person at the nearest curb past the loitering group; and

Often the results of the analysis phase point police and citizens in unexpected directions.

- An agreement by the resident who started the petition for food delivery service to the neighborhood to communicate the nature and reason for the new delivery policies (with the exception of the Caller ID check) to other residents. The petitioner would convey this information at a neighborhood meeting and through fliers delivered to each resident. At several of the teenage parties, residents would inform the youth in attendance that delivery people would no longer carry more than $10 in change (and often much less) at all times.

Bucking tradition

From the outset, one is constantly battling a natural tendency to revert to traditional responses.[18]

Having relied on traditional responses (areawide sweeps or arrests, saturation patrol/ etc.) in the past, it is only natural that policing agencies will gravitate toward these same tactics to address problems in the future — even if these tactics have not been especially effective or sustainable over the long-term.

For example, in the case of the fast-food robberies, it is easy to see how police might have decided to step up car or foot patrols in the problem area on weekend nights between the hours of 10 pjn. and 2 a.m. But this response would have been relatively costly to the police department effective. Creative responses that go beyond the criminal justice system and focus on preventing future occurrences are generally the most successful.

From the outset, one is constantly battling a natural tendency to revert to traditional responses.

Citizens and police are often tempted to implement programs or responses used in other communities. Although it can be very useful to learn how other communities have successfully addressed similar problems (and policing agencies are encouraged to research other approaches as part of their analysis), caution should be used in adopting off-the-shelf solutions, unless the situation is strikingly similar.[19]

For example, the police facing the fast-food robberies might have been inclined to suggest that public works increase

lighting in the problem area, because this is one of fee ways other communities have successfully addressed robbery problems. But unless the robberies have occurred in areas that are dimly lit this strategy probably would have little effect on the fast-food robbery'problem.

The key to developing tailored responses is... making sure the responses are very'fbcused and directly linked to the findings from the analysis phase of the project.

Assessing the Impact on the Selected Problem

Over the past 20 years, it has become clear to many in policing that both the traditional approaches to addressing crime, fear and other problems and the measures of effectiveness have fallen short of many people's expectations. This has caused a significant number of police departments to seek new approaches to addressing old problems. It has also caused many police departments to ask - whether their work really makes a difference beyond dealing with the immediate incident[20]

Traditional Measures

A number of measures have traditionally been used by policing agencies and community members to assess effectiveness. These include numbers of arrests, levels of reported crime, response times, clearance rates, citizen complaints and various workload indicators, such as calls for service and the number of field interviews conducted.[21]

Several of these measures may be helpful to you in assessing the impact of a problem-solving effort, including calls for service related to the problem (especially a reduction in repeat calls for service involving specific locations, victims or offenders); changes in the incidence of reported crime; and changes in levels of citizen complaints. Other traditional measures, such as arrests and number of field interviews conducted, may not be that useful for your problem-solving effort, unless these measures can be directly linked to a long-term reduction in the harm associated with the targeted crime problem.

Even reductions in calls for service and citizen complaints may not be the best indicators of whether you are positively impacting a problem, because, in some instances, these measures may actually increase as the result of a problem-solving effort In some cases, such an increase may be a good outcome, if it means that residents feel more comfortable filing complaints or believe their calls will be taken seriously. However, when a problem-solving effort does result in increased arrests or increased calls for service, policing agencies should look carefully at these outcomes. Were they the intended result of the initiative?

A Nontraditional framevnric

Assessing the impact of a problem-solving effort may require using a nontraditional structure for determining effectiveness. One such framework developed by Eck and Spelman identifies five different levels or types of positive impact on problems. They are:[22]

1. Total elimination of the problem;
2. Fewer incidents;
3. Less serious or harmful incidents;
4. Better handling of the incidents/an improved response to the problem; and
5. Removing the problem from police consideration (shifting the handling to others more able to address the problem).

A sixth positive impact also has been suggested:

6. People and institutions affected by the problem are left better equipped to handle a similar problem in the future.[23]

A number of nontraditional measures will shed light on whether a problem has been impacted. These include the following suggested by Stephens and others:[24]

- Reduced instances of repeat victimization;

- Decreases in related crimes or incidents;

- Neighborhood indicators:
  - *Increased profits for legitimate businesses in target area*
  - *Increased usage of area/increased (or reduced) foot and vehicular traffic*
  - *Increased property values*
  - *Improved, neighborhood appearance*
  - *Increased occupancy in problem buildings*
  - *Less loitering*
  - *Fewer abandoned cars*
  - *Less truancy;*

- Increased citizen satisfaction regarding the handling of the problem, which can be determined through surveys, interviews, focus groups, electronic bulletin boards, etc.; and

- Reduced citizen fear related to the problem.

Some of the measures listed above may be appropriate to your problem-solving effort. Others not listed above may be more appropriate. After you have analyzed the problem, you may wish to change the measures initially selected or revise the measures. (This is fine — just keep your grant advisor informed of these developments.) The measures you select will depend on the nature of the problem selected, preferences of the police and the community, and the ability of your jurisdiction to collect the necessary data both before the project begins and after it has been in place for some time.

The key is focusing on measures that demonstrate impact on the targeted problem.

Sample Measures Ihaf Demonstrate Impact on a Problem

- Four crack houses in the 12-block area were dosed, and measurements indicated that there was no displacement of drug dealing in the surrounding five-block area. Calls for service relating to street-level drug dealing in the target area were reduced from an average of 45 per month to eight per month. The number of residents who reported witnessing drug deals during the previous month was reduced fcom 65 percent before the effort to 10 percent four months after the effort

- Prior to the effort, 40 percent of those victimized twice by burglars were revicrimized within a 6-month period. After the effort, only 14 percent were revicriiru'zed. Overall, burglaries in the targeted area were reduced from 68 in one year to 45 in the next.

- Because the problem-solving effort interrupted juvenile gun markets for more lethal semiautomatic firearms, the number and seriousness of injuries from drive-by shootings was significantly reduced, even though the number of drive-bys declined only slightly. Prior to the effort, there were 52 drive-by shootings in the dry, 21 life-threatening injuries and five deaths. After the effort, there were 47 drive-by shootings, eight life-threatening injuries and no deaths.

' Assessing th impact of problem-solvii effort may requir using a nontrati tional structur fordi:terminin effectiveru:ss

- In the year prior to the effort, police received an average of *50* complaints per month relating to disputes between neighbors. An average of 10 of the

monthly complaints were resolved by one visit from a police officer, but approximately 40 of the calls were *placed* by residents at 22 repeat problem locations. Since the effort was implemented, the department now receives an average of 12 complaints per month. Five repeat problem locations remain, but they account for less man *25* percent of the complaints received each month.

Sample Measures that Do Not Demonstrate Impact on a Crane or Esonter Problem

® Five police-community meetings were held over the course of the 1-year project (Conclusions regarding the impact on the problem can't be drawn from this measure. If one goal of the project *is* to improve police understanding of community problems, a better measure would be whether residents perceived such an improvement as a result of the effort, which could be determined from pre- and post-effort surveys.)

S Officers conducted home security checks for 43 residents in the targeted housing development (While it would be important to document the number of home security checks, it would be more important to know whether buiglaries were reduced as a result of the initiative.)

@ Officers and community members participated in a neighborhood cleanup and removed 150 pounds of trash. (This information doesn't necessarily indicate a reduction in levels of targeted crime or disorder problems, and a one-time cleanup may be a temporary improvement It would be more important to show mat the targeted crime and disorder problem was reduced as a result of, or in conjunction with, the cleanup.)

0 Police seized over 10 kilos *oi* cocaine during the initiative, which targeted narcotics activity in the southwest district. (This result doesn't indicate whether street-level drug sales and any associated problems - such as prostitution, loitering, graffiti, trash and intimidation of residents - were reduced.)

Adjust Responses Based on Assessment

If the responses implemented are not effective, the information gathered during analysis should be reviewed. New information may need to be collected before new solutions can be developed and tested. 25

Sample Problem-Solving Initiatives

The COPS Office seeks to facilitate new, innovative problem-solving efforts tailored to an in-depth analysis of a locality's specific problem- Below are three examples* of the kinds of analytical efforts we hope to foster with School-Based Partnerships grant funds:

Example 1: Gamesvffle, R»

Change in Evening Staffing Policies Reduces Robberies of Gainesville, FL, Convenience Stores by 82 percent

Scanning

In the spring of 1985, the city of Gainesville experienced what seemed to be an exceptionally large number of convenience store robberies.

Analysis

Because the police did not keep automated records specifically on convenience store crime at that time, department personnel manually searched through five year's worth of files to obtain more information about the problem. From this effort, the police determined that 45 of the 47 convenience stores located in Gainesville had been robbed at least once between 1981 and 1986. They also learned that although convenience stores accounted for only 18 percent of business establishments such as fast-food stores, motels/hotels, service stations and liquor stores, they accounted for 50 percent of business robberies. Many of the *45* convenience stores had been robbed repeatedly: nearly half had been robbed five or more times, and several had been robbed at least 10 times. The police also learned other important facts that provided them with insight into the conditions that facilitated the robberies. They found that 75 percent of the convenience store robberies took place between the hours of 7 p jru and 5 a JIU, only one clerk was present in 92 percent of the robberies, and the robber waited until the clerk was alone in *85* percent of the robberies.

To obtain more information about the problem of convenience stores generally, Gainesville officials contacted the International City Managers Association/the International Association of Chiefs of Police, the National League of Cities, the National Association of Convenience Stores, the National Criminal Justice Reference Service, and several other national organizations. From these inquiries, they learned that several municipalities had passed "convenience ordinances requiring convenience" stores to implement a variety of crime prevention policies. The effectiveness of these local laws varied. The most successful ordinance, adopted in Kent, Ohio, required the convenience industry to post two clerks in stores between the hours of 11 pan. and 6 am. Three years after the Kent ordinance was passed, convenience store robberies in that community had decreased 74 percent

To determine whether having two clerks on duty might prevent robberies in Gainesville, officials analyzed the robbery rates of two local stores that operated

* These examples illustrate the use of the SARA model and feature responses that are linked to comprehensive problem analyses. The COPS Office is not promoting a particular set of responses to problems and acknowledges that there is room for disagreement regarding the responses selected and their relative impact

within 100 yards of each other but had different staffing policies. They found that the store that consistently had two clerks on duty on a 24-hour basis had never been robbed, while the competing store, which was always staffed by only one clerk, had been robbed 11 times. The Gainesville police chief then asked a researcher at the University of Florida to corroborate the department's conclusions about convenience store robberies in Gainesville. From interviews with 65 convenience store robbers imprisoned in Florida, the researcher confirmed that one of the most desirable characteristics of a potential robbery site was that only one derk would be on duty. (The only characteristic rated more desirable was "easy access/getaway" to and from the robbery site.)

Officials found that the store that consistently had two clerks on duty on a 24-hour basis had never been robbed...

Response

Mowing && analysis of ** ^^ Gab^m\ aty officials worked with representatives of the convenience store industry for approximately one year to institute policies that would reduce the robberies. During this period, the industry suggested developing voluntary compliance crime prevention policies, but these policies did not materialize. In particular, the convenience store industry resisted instituting a two-clerk policy. Two public hearings were held by the city to gain community input on how the problem should be addressed. In July 1986, the Gainesville City Commission passed an ordinance that required stores to provide a dear outside view of their cash register areas, post large signs informing customers that stores used drop safes and limited the cash available to clerks, and train employees who work evening shifts in robbery prevention. At the request of the convenience story industry, a two-clerk policy was not mandated by the law. Rather, a resolution was attached to the legislation stipulating that unless the convenience store industry could reduce robberies at least 50 percent during the 240 days following passage of the law, a two-clerk requirement would be imposed. Convenience store robberies increased 130 percent during the next 240 days, and the two-derk policy was implemented in Gainesville in the spring of *1987*. .. . :• ..,

Assessment

Robberies of Gainesville convenience stores declined 82 percent between 1986, when there were 61 robberies, and 1993, when there were 11. The number of serious injuries related to convenience store robberies also was greatly reduced. Between 1981 and 1986, there was one homicide and 18 serious injuries; between 1987 and 1993, there were no homicides and only one serious injury.

...while the c
ing store,
was always
by only on
had been r
11

Example 2: Mankato, MN»

Minnesota Police Reclaim Park for Use by Law-abiding Citizens

Scanning

A park in Mankato, Minnesota, had become a popular gathering, drinking and socializing spot for a group *oi* car devotees who called themselves "Motorheads." Motorhead parties in the park began each day around noon and would draw 300 to 400 people by 10 pjn. Party-goers were unruly and tormented other park users — typically citizens who gathered for reunions or games at the park's baseball diamond, although these activities occurred less and less. The Motorhead parties were linked to a number of problems, including assaults, public and juvenile drinking, public urination, suspected drug dealing, and $15,000 worth of criminal property damage to the park over several years. To respond to the problem, police tried a number *oi* approaches, none of which worked very well. These approaches included police park patrols, the installation of flood lights in the party area and the scheduling of a large number of non-party events at the park.

Analysis

The police then decided to take a more analytical approach to the disorder problem in the park. Officers spent several weeks watching and then interacting with members of the party group. Once the party-goers were comfortable with the officers, the officers interviewed members of the group to learn why they gathered in the park and congregated in one particular area. Trie officers learned that the party-goers liked the spot because it was out of sight, had two exits, contained a large parking lot in which they could drive around, and allowed them to see the police coming from a distance. Officers then interviewed other park users to find out why they no longer used the party-goers[7] area. They learned that the other park users were intimidated by the party group. An analysis of park usage figures confirmed mat no one but the party-goers used the area. The officers then hosted a community meeting to elicit additional information about the problem.

Response

The officers worked with the city parks director to develop a long-term solution to the problem. Sensing that the party-goers would not use the park for rowdy socializing if the area was less appealing to them, the police and parks officials decided to reduce the size of the massive parking lot and restrict the flow of traffic to one way, so that traffic safety in the lot would improve. *The* officers then worked with city engineers to draw up the proposed changes and obtain the necessary authorizations. At the same time, the officers located an empty downtown parking lot near the police department for the party group. The lot could easily be monitored by the police.

Assessment

The Motorheads stopped gathering in the park when the environmental changes were made to the parking lot. Once the Motorheads moved downtown, young families began using all areas of the park again. The new Motorhead lot downtown was fairly isolated — only a supermarket was nearby—so the partiers did not generally bother others in the area. However, there was some displacement of Motorhead-related juvenile drinking, narcotics sales and reckless driving problems to the downtown lot area. To address these problems, the police conducted several targeted enforcement efforts. The

Motorheads realized that they would not be able to keep the downtown lot unless the problem behavior stopped. At that point, the group agreed to self-police its activities, and the behavior of the group is now within acceptable levels.

Example 3: Redmond, WA »

Collaborative Effort Between Teenagers and Police Reduces Graffiti Complaints 96 percent in Redmond) Washington

Scanning

In early 1993, Redmond, Washington, a Seattle suburb, faced a cirywide graffiti problem that threatened to overwhelm the community. The 42,000 residents of the city were filing more than 60 complaints of graffiti each month. At first, police officers implemented traditional approaches to the graffiti problem; they established organized cleanup procedures and stepped up enforcement patrols in areas that had a lot of graffiti. These strategies did not impact the problem, however.

Analysis

Looking for different approaches, the officers interviewed a number of youths whom they believed were associated with the graffiti. From these discussions, they learned that most of those responsible for Redmond's graffiti blight — unlike known offenders in other areas — considered the vandalism a form of hip-hop art. Initially, the officers questioned the youths' assertion that the graffiti was a form of self-expression, believing it to be perpetrated by gang members. But after an officer analyzed the department's case reports and researched the problem of graffiti in general (by reading popular literature on graffiti and consulting other information sources), it became dear to him that the Redmond problem did not involve gangs. One indicator that the graffiti was not perpetrated by gang members was that the content of the graffiti in Redmond was not generally violent, whereas graffiti perpetrated by gangs in other cities sometimes included code references to murder and other violent acts.

Response

Consequently, the officer met with the teenage taggers in the hopes of developing a solution to the problem. Rather man be subjected to increased enforcement the teenagers suggested establishing a legal place to paint in return for a tagging cease-fire. The officer helped the taggers obtain permission *{torn* the city council to erect a graffiti wall and worked with the taggers to obtain donations from local businesses for materials needed to construct it

Assessment

Since the wall was constructed, citizen complaints about graffiti have decreased from more than 60 per month to an average of four per month.

Looking for dif
ent approaches,
officers inf
viewed a numl
of youths wh
they believed w
associated with t
graffi

Reference List

Anderson, David; Chenery, Sylvia; and Pease, Ken, *Biting Back: Tackling Repeat Burglary and Car Crime,* Crime Detection and Prevention Series #58, London: Home Office, 1995.*

California Department of Justice. *Community Oriented Policing & Problem Solving;* 1992.

Community Policing Consortium. *Understanding Community Policing: A "Framework for Action,* Washington: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Assistance, 1994*.

Eck, John E. and Spelman, William. *Problem Solving: Problem-Oriented Policing in Newport News,* Washington, *DC: VS.* Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, National Institute of Justice and Police Executive Research Forum, 1987.

Goldstein, Herman. *Problem-Oriented Policing,* New York: McGraw Hill, Inc., 1990.

Hoover, Larry T. *(ed.).Quantifying Quality in Policing,* Washington, DC: Police Executive Research Forum, 1995.

LaVigne, Nancy G. and Eck, John E. *A Police Guide to Surveying Citizens and Their Environment,* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Assistance, 1993*.

Neighborhood-Oriented Policing in Rural Communities: A Program Planning Guide, Washington, DO.U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Assistance, 1994*.

Problem-Oriented Drug Enforcement: A Community-Based Approach for Effective Policing, Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Assistance, 1993*.

Rich, Thomas. *The Use of Computerized Mapping in Crime Control and Prevention Programs,* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, National Institute of Justice, 1995*.

Wise After the Event: Tackling Repeat Victimization, London: National Board for Crime Prevention, Home Office, 1994.*

**Can be obtained through the National Criminal Justice Reference Service by calling (800)-851-3420. Some publications may have afee.*

**Can be obtained free of charge from the Home Office Police Department, Police Research Group, 50 Queen Anne's Gate, London, SW1H 9AT; Fax: 0171 273 4001*

Bid Notes

1. Eck, John E. and Spelman, William. *Problem Solving: Problem-Oriented Policing in Newport News,* Washington, DC U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, National Institute of Justice and Police Executive Research Forum, 1987.

2. Spelman, William, and Eck, John E "Sitting Ducks, Ravenous Wolves, and Helping Hands: New Approaches to Urban Policing," *Public Affairs Comment,* Austin, Texas: School of Public Affairs, University of Texas, 1989.

3. Farrell, G. and Pease, K. *Once Bitten, Twice Bitten: Repeat Victimization and Its Implications for Crime Prevention,* Crime Prevention Unit Paper 46. London: Home Office, 1993.

4. Stephens, Darrel. "Community Problem-. Oriented Policing: Measuring Impacts," *Quantifying Quality in Policing, Larry* T. Hoover (ed.)- Washington, DO Police Executive Research Forum, 1995.

5. Goldstein, Herman. *Problem-Oriented Policing,* New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1990.

6. Goldstein, 1990.

7. Goldstein, 1990.

8. Goldstein, 1990.

9. This concept was developed by Spelman, William, and Eck, John E. 1989. It builds on earlier work by Marcus Felson.

10. Sampson, Rana. "Problem Solving," *Neighborhood-Oriented Policing in Rural Communities: A Program Planning Guide,* Washington, DC: *VS.* Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Assistance, 1994.

11. Farrell, G. and Pease, K. *Once Bitten, Twice Bitten: Repeat Victimization and Its Implications for Crime Prevention,* Crime Prevention Unit Paper 46. London: Home Office, 1993.

12. Anderson, David; Chenery, Sylvia; and Pease, Ken. *Biting Bade Tackling Repeat Burglary and Car Crime,* Crime Detection and Prevention Series No. 58, London: Home Office, 1995.

13. Presentation by West Yorkshire Deputy Chief Inspector John Holt, at the Sixth Annual Problem-Oriented Policing Conference in San Diego, November, 1995.

14. Unpublished training module developed by Rana Sampson under a grant to the Community Policing Consortium from the Bureau of Justice Assistance, US. Department of Justice.

15. Goldstein, 1990.

16. Sampson, 1994.

17. Sampson, 1994.

18. Goldstein, 1990.

19. Sampson, 1994.

20. Stephens, Darrel- "Community Problem-Oriented Policing: Measuring Impacts," *Quantifying Quality in Policing,* Larry T. Hoover (ed.). Washington, DC: Police Executive Research Forum, 1996.

21. Stephens, 1995.

22. Eck and Spelman, 1987.

23. Rana Sampson and John CampbelL

24. Stephens, 1995.

25. Sampson, 1994.

26- Callahan, Patrick T. *Convenience Store Robberies: An Intervention Strategy by the City of Gainesville, Florida.* City of Gainesville, Florida, n-d.

27. Nomination submitted by the Mankato (MN) Department of Public Safety for the Police Executive Research Forum's 1994 Herman Goldstein Excellence in Problem Solving Award-

28. Krieble, Chuck. "Graffiti Wall Reduces Complaints, Promotes the Arts," *Problem-Solving Quarterly.* Washington, DC: Police Executive Research Forum, 1994.

A Survey Of Your Leadership Styles[1]

A Survey of Behavioral Responses to Various Leadership Situations

1 Frcan *Supervising the Problem Solving Process: Instructor Materials.* Police Executive Research Foram, December, 1996

INSTRUCTIONS

PLEASE READ CAREFULLY:

In your organization you are the leader of a committee, group, squad, unit, or department which is responsible for a significant program. Your group must meet regulaiiy to make decisions. In addition, all group members must assume responsibilities for carrying out the decisions.

Following are twelve situations which you encounter during your time as the group's leader. For each situation you have six possible behavioral responses. Please study each situation and the possible behavioral responses carefully, then CIRCLE THE LETTER OF THE RESPONSE which you think would most closely describe your behavioral response to the situation.

As you complete the SURVEY, please remember this is NOT a test There are no right or wrong responses. The SURVEY will be helpful to you only to the extent that you circle the responses which would be most characteristic of your leadership behavior.

CIRCLE ONLY ONE CHOICE FOR EACH SITXTATION!

SITUATION NO. 1:

YOU HAVE BEEN PROVIDING THE GROUP WITH SOCIO-EMOTIONAL SUPPORT, BUT LITTLE DIRECTION. RELATIONSHIPS AND EFFECTIVENESS ARE VERY GOOD. MEMBERS HAVE SUGGESTIONS FOR NEEDED PROGRAM CHANGES.

You Would: ***{Circle one)***

A. Allow the group to plan the change, remaining available for consultation

B. Plan the change strategy, giving clear assignments.

C. Allow the group to plan the change then cany h out for them.

D. Implement necessary changes, incorporating group recommendations.

E. Allow the group to plan and implement the change on its own

F. Instruct the group that no program is ever perfect, present specific strategy, and assign responsibilities for implementation.

SITUATION NO. 2:

YOUR HIGHLY EFFECTIVE GROUP HAS BEEN ALMOST ENTIRELY SELF-DIRECTED. NOW, HOWEVER, IT IS HAVING DIFFICULTY CARRYING OUT ITS PRESENT ASSIGNMENT.

You Would: ***(Circle one)***

A. Cany out the assignment for them.

B. Leave the group free to work it out as they see fit

C. Give specific step-by-step instructions for carrying out the assignment

D. Encourage the group to continue working on the assignment remaining available for consultation

E. Decide what has gone wrong with the group to cause this sudden ineffectiveness, and correct *it.*

F. Give instructions for carrying out the assignment, incorporating group suggestions.

SITUATION NO. 3:

YOU HAVE BEEN FRIENDLY AND SUPPORTIVE OF THE GROUP'S GOALS AND IDEAS. RELATIONSHIPS ARE GOOD; HOWEVER, USUAL EFFECTIVENESS IS BEGINNING TO DECLINE.
You Would: *(Circle one)*

A Present new procedures, emphasizing the need for following them closely.

B. Encourage the group to formulate plans for improving effectiveness, remaining available for consultation

C. Share your observations with the group, inviting suggestion for improving effectiveness.

D. Do nothing until it becomes clear whether effectiveness would improve or continue to decline.

E. Do more of the group's work yourself

F. Specify and enforce procedures. Do much of the work yourself

SITDATrONNO.4:

YOU ARE THE NEW LEADER OF A VERYINliti'HCTlVE GROUP. THERE IS MUCH TASK CONFUSION AND RELATIONSHIPS ARE POOR. THE PREVIOUS LEADER WAS UNINVOLVED IN THE GROUP'S AFFAIRS.

Yon Would: *(Circle one)*

A. Begin providing more structure and direction, encouraging group recommendations.

B. Do the group's work until you were able to find out what is wrong with the group, and correct it.

C. Allow the group to chart its own course.

D. Define the task, give specific assignments, and check on follow-through.

E. Do the group's work yourself

F. Encourage the group to formulate plans for improving effectiveness, remaining available for consultation.

SITAUTONNO.5:

YOUR GROUP HAS JUST COMPLETED A LONG-RANGE PLANNING PROCESS AND IS NOW READY TO PUT THEIR PLANS INTO ACTION. YOU WERE **ALMOST ENTIRELY** UNINVOLVED IN THE PLANNING.

Yon Would: *(Circle one)*

A. Allow the group to implement plans on its own.

B. Encourage the group to implement its plans, remaining available for consultation.

C. Initiate and direct implementation procedures, incorporating group recommendations.

D. Remind them that most groups make plans but few ever cany them out. Give specific implementation procedures, doing everything you could personally to carry them out.

E. Implement the plans by defining roles and assigning responsibilities.

F. Wait until the group has formulated implementation procedures, then do whatever you could to carry them out.

SIDATIONNO.6:
THE GROUP HAS GROWN TO BE QUITE EFFECTIVE AND RELATIONSHIPS ARE GOOD. YOU HAVE BEEN PROVIDING SOCIO-EMOTTONAL SUPPORT, BUT fc'Kk YOU MAY NOT BE GIVING THE GROUP AS MUCH DIRECTION AS YOU SHOULD.

You Would: *(Circle one)*

A. Inform the group you are feeling guilty about your lack of involvement and begin to exercise control of decision-making and assignments.

B. Discuss your feelings with the group and begin to provide more structure and direction.

C. Exercise more control by specifying procedures and responsibilities.

D. Continue to play a friendly supportive role.

E. Begin doing as much of their detail work as you could.

F. Leave the group free to provide for its own support and direction.

SITUATION NO.7:

RELATIONSHIPS AND EFFECTTVENESS ARE IMPROVING STEADILY. YOU HAVE BEEN INTERPRETING THE TASK AND GIVING EXPLICIT INSTRUCTIONS FOR CARRYING THEM OUT.

You Would: ***{Circle one)***

A. Turn planning and decision-making over to the group, remaining available for consultation

B. Do as much of the group's work as possible.

C. Remind the group it is stQl far from perfect. Outline specific steps for improvement, and do more work yourself

D. Emphasize the importance of their work and have other assignments laid out when current tasks are completed

E. Continue to press for increased effectiveness while allowing the group more to say in defining and planning the task

F. Allow the group to chart its own course.

SrrUATTONNO.8:

PREVIOUS GROUP RELATIONSHIPS AND EFFECTIVENESS WERE POOR. BY GIVING CLEAR ASSIGNMFNTS AND CHECKING ON FOLLOW-THROUGH BOTH ARE IMPROVING. NOW, HOWEVER, THE GROUP IS CONFUSED OVER A REQUIREMENT TO SUBMIT A 20% REDUCED BUDGET WITHIN TWO WEEKS.

You Would: ***{Circle one)***

A Leave the group alone to do the necessary budget planning.

B. Implement necessary procedures, incorporating group recommendations.

C. Inform the group you are as contused as they, and prepare the budget for them.

D. Prepare the new budget for them.

E. Encourage the group to revise its budget being careful not to hurt leader-member relationships.

F. Define the task and give explicit steps for carrying it out.

SITUATION NO. 9:
YOU HAVE JUST BEEN APPOINTED THE LEADER OF A GROUP WTIH AN EXCELLENT RECORD OF EFFECTIVENESS AND RELATIONSHIPS. THE PREVIOUS LEADER WAS RELATIVELY UNINVOLVED RJ GROUP AFFAIRS.

You Would: ***{Circle one)***

A- Define new roles and responsibilities, and make specific assignments.

B. Do all of the group's work you possibly could.

C. Encourage the group to continue operating as previously, being careful not to damage new leader-group relationships.

D. Allow the group to function as before.

E. Inform them you feel unworthy to lead such an effective group, and ask for full support. Assign new roles and responsibilities.

F. Talk it over with the group, then assign new roles and responsibilrties.

SITUATION NO. 10:

YOUR GROUP HAS A LONG RECORD OF EFFECTIVENESS. INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS HAVE BEEN GOOD. IT HAS NOT BEEN NECESSARY FOR YOU TO BE CONCERNED ABOUT GIVING SUPPORT ORDIRECTION. NOW, SERIOUS CONFLICT HAS DEVELOPED WITHIN THE GROUP. DIFFERING MEMBERS HAVE BROKEN OFF RELATIONSHIPS.

You Would: ***{Circle one)***

A. Bring the group together and suggest a solution to the conflict.

B. Do nothing.

C. Impose rules for resolving the conflict, and check an follow-through.

D. Inform the group such behavior is immature. Outline specific steps for resolving the conflict.

E. Encourage members to resolve the conflict being careful not to hurt leader-member relationships.

F. Ask the differing sides what you might do to correct the problem and do what they suggest.

SrrUAlTONNO.il:

YOU HAVE BEEN GIVING EXPLICIT INSTRUCTIONS AND CHECKING ON FOLLOW-THROUGH. THE GROUP HAS GROWN IN MATURITY. NOW, HOWEVER INEFFECTIVENESS IS DECLINING AND MEMBERS SEEM TO BE QUESTIONING YOUR AUTHORITARIAN LEADERSHIP.

You Would: ***{Circle one)***

A- Let the group know your disappointment regarding their attitude, and set a good example by doing all the work you possibly could.

B. Allow the group to function on its own.

C. Encourage the group to assume more responsibility for *its* affairs, remaining available for consultation.

D. Personally take care of important tasks.

E. Give less explicit instructions, but continue to check on follow-through.

F. Emphasize the importance of the task, and give specific assignments. Check on follow-through.

SrrUATTONNO.12:

YOUR GROUP HAS SEVERAL NEWLY APPOINTED WILLING, BUT INEXPERIENCED, MEMBERS. YOU MUST NOW INSTALL NEW ORGANIZATIONAL POLICIES.

You Would: ***(Circle one)***

A. Infonn them your role is to save than. Demonstrate this by implementing new policies on your own.

B. Infonn them the new policies are complex and to make it easier for them, assign their roles and responsibilities and do most of the work yourself

C. Allow the group to implement policies on its own.

D. Incorporate group recommendations into your plans for initiating new policies.

E. Define the task, assign specific roles and responsibilities, and check on follow-through.

F. Encourage the group to define its task and to assign roles and responsibilities, being careful not to hurt leader-member relationships

DIRECTIONS FOR SCORING

JL Style Preference Worksheet

1. At the right hand side of this worksheet here are a series of boxes numbered from 1 to 12. For each box, there is a series of letters, A through F, in no particular order.

2. These letters represent the answers for each of these scenarios. For each scenario, locate the answer you selected and circle it. For example, if you selected "B" as your answer for scenario #1, draw a circle around the letter B in that row. Continue this process until all 12 answers have been selected.

3. Count the number of answers you have in each column and enter the number into the blank box at the end of each column.

4. Identify the column with the highest number of responses. This is your leadership style. Write your leadership style down in the box labeled "Order of Your Style Preferences.[1]" Do this until all your style preferences are listed. If you have a tie in style choices, it makes no difference which one is listed first.

#1	D	A	E	B	C	F
#2	F	D	B	C	A	E
#3	C	B	D	A	E	F
#4	A	F	C	r>	E	B
#5	C	B	A	E	F	D
#6	B	D	F	(	E	A
m	E	A	F	D	B	C
#8	B	E	A	F	D	C
m	F	C	D	A	B	E
#10	A	E	B	C	F	D
#n	E	C	B	F	D	A
#12	D	F	C	E	A	B
Effectiveness Scores						
	Total Involve toeot	**Person Oriental**	**Passive Involve meut**	**Task Oriented**	**Slave**	**Martyr**

Figure 1

Order of Style Preferences:

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____

#1	D 2	A 3	**E** 4	B 1	**C** 0	F 0
#2	F 3	D 4	B 2	C 1	A 0	E 0
#3	C 4	B 2	D I	A 3	E 0	F 0
#4	A 3	F 2	C 1	D 4	E 0	B 0
#$	C 2	B 3	A 4	E 1	F 0	D 0
#6	B 2	D 4	F 3	C I	E 0	A 0
#7	E 4	A 3	F I	D 2	B 0	C 0
#8	B 3	E 2	A 1	F 4	D 0	C 0
#9	F *2*	C 3	D 4	A 1	B 0	E 0
.#10	A 3	E 4	B 1	C 2	F 0	D 0
#11	**E** 4	C 3	B 1	F 2	D 0	A 0
#12	**D** 3	F 2	C 1	E 4	A 0	B 0
Effectiveness SCMCS	+	+	+	+	+	=
	Total Invoiv flUTDt	**Person Onsded**	**Passive Involve meat**	**Task Orient ed**	**Slave**	Martyr

Leadership Styles

Figure 2

The scoring used in this survey is based upon leadership theones developed by Ohio State leadership studies: Blake and Mouton, Managerial Grid: Herseyand Blanchari Tri-Dimensional leader Effectiveness Model

DIRECTIONS FOR SCORING (Contained)

H. Effectiveness of Leadership Behavior

There is a difference between your style **preferen** range, and the degree to which the style you otffi given situation is appropriate, as measured by effectiveness of that style in that particular sitna FIGURE 2 is designed to measure EFFECTP/E your leadership behavior.

1. On FIGURE 2, circle the same letter for *each situation that you circled in FIGURE 1.
2. Find the total numerical values of the lettersi each leadership style column and enter the fig the spaces proved for these EFFECTIVENES SCORES.
3. Enter the sum total of all six figures in the EFFECTIVENESS RATING square.
4. Using an arrow (4), indicate your *htthCWV* RATING on the EFFECTIVENESS RATIN< 3.

Figure 2 now provides you with two important insu into the EFFECTIVENESS of your leadership behavior.

1. The individiial EFFECTIVENESS SCORES t degree to which you are using each style appropriately.
2. The weighing scale used, 0 to 4, is based upon modem leadership theories. The leadership beha most likely to be effective for each situation is weighted 4; the styles least likely to effective; a weighted 0.
3. The EFFECTIVENESS RATING tells you me degree to which your overall leadership behavior effective. The HIGHEST EFFECTIVENESS RATING possible is 48.

48 = Highest Possible Score

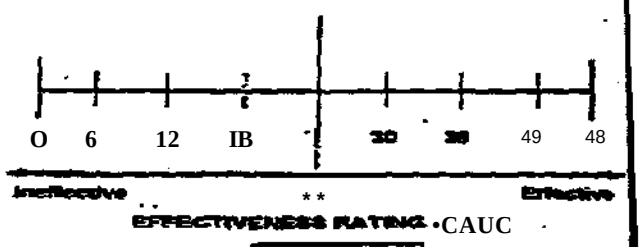


Figure 3

Project #._____

MIAMI POLICE DEPARTMENT
SARA PROJECT REPORT

NET Area _____
Officer_____
Sergeant_____
Monthly Report,_____
Start Date_____ Completion Date._____
Location_____
Describe Problem _____

_____

SCAN (Collect Information About Problem)
Crime Analysis Date_____
- Repeat CFS_____
- Trends and Patterns_____

External Resources	[ ]	Community Meetings	[ ]
Schools	[ ]	Surveys	[]
Probation Office	[ ]	Other	[]
Citizen Complaints & Letters	[j		

Stakeholders/Partners (Have vested interest in problem resolution/can contribute knowledge and/or resources)

	Name	Contact Number
1.	_____	_____
2.	_____	_____
3.	_____	_____
4.	_____	_____

ANALYSIS (Determining the problem causes and effects)
Crime Triangle

1. Victims
   a. Age, race, gender _____
   b. Time of attacks_____
   c Residents, merchants, tourists _____
   d. Relationship to offenders_____
   e. Activity prior to attack_____

2. Offenders
   a. Age, race, gender_____
   b. Method of attacks_____
   c. Weapons used_____
   d. Purpose of attacks^_____
3. Location
   a. Lighting_____
   a. Populated_____
   b. Business/residential_____
   c Shrubbery,_____

Redefine the problem statement _____

_____

Goal_____

_____

Response:
Code Enforcement [ ] Watch Orders [ ] Nuisance Abatement [J Arrests [J
Watch over Miami [ ] Civil Forfeiture [ ] HVO Cards [ ] Community Meetings [ ]
Citizens on Patrol [ ] State Agencies [ ] School Resource Officer [ ] Tickets Issued [ ]
Crime Suppression Teams [ ] DOT [ ] Gang Unit [ ] PAL [ ] Traffic Enforcement [ ]
Other City Services [J Federal Agencies [ ] Narcotics Units [ ] Warrant Enforcement [ ]
Probation & Parole [ ] Bar Checks [ ] Mentor Programs [J CPTED [ ]
Domestic Violence Intervention [ ] PTA [ ] Road Blocks [ ] Homeless Program [ ]
Quality of Life Enforcement [ ]

Assessment - To date, what is the effectiveness of your response?_____

_____

Recommendations _____

_____

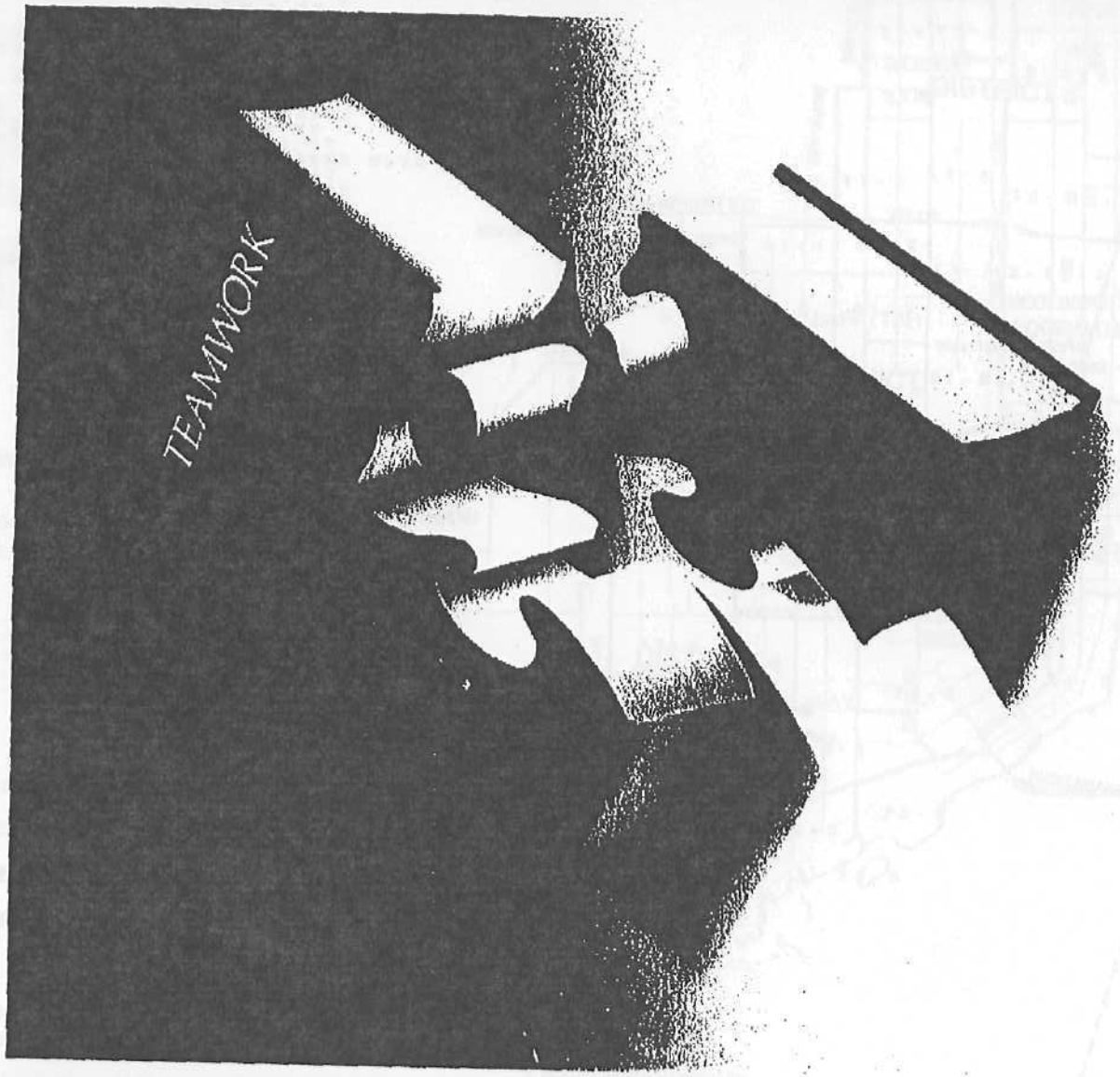
Sergeant _____ NET Lieutenant_____

Major _____

Recommendations_____

_____

Neighborhood Enhancement Team

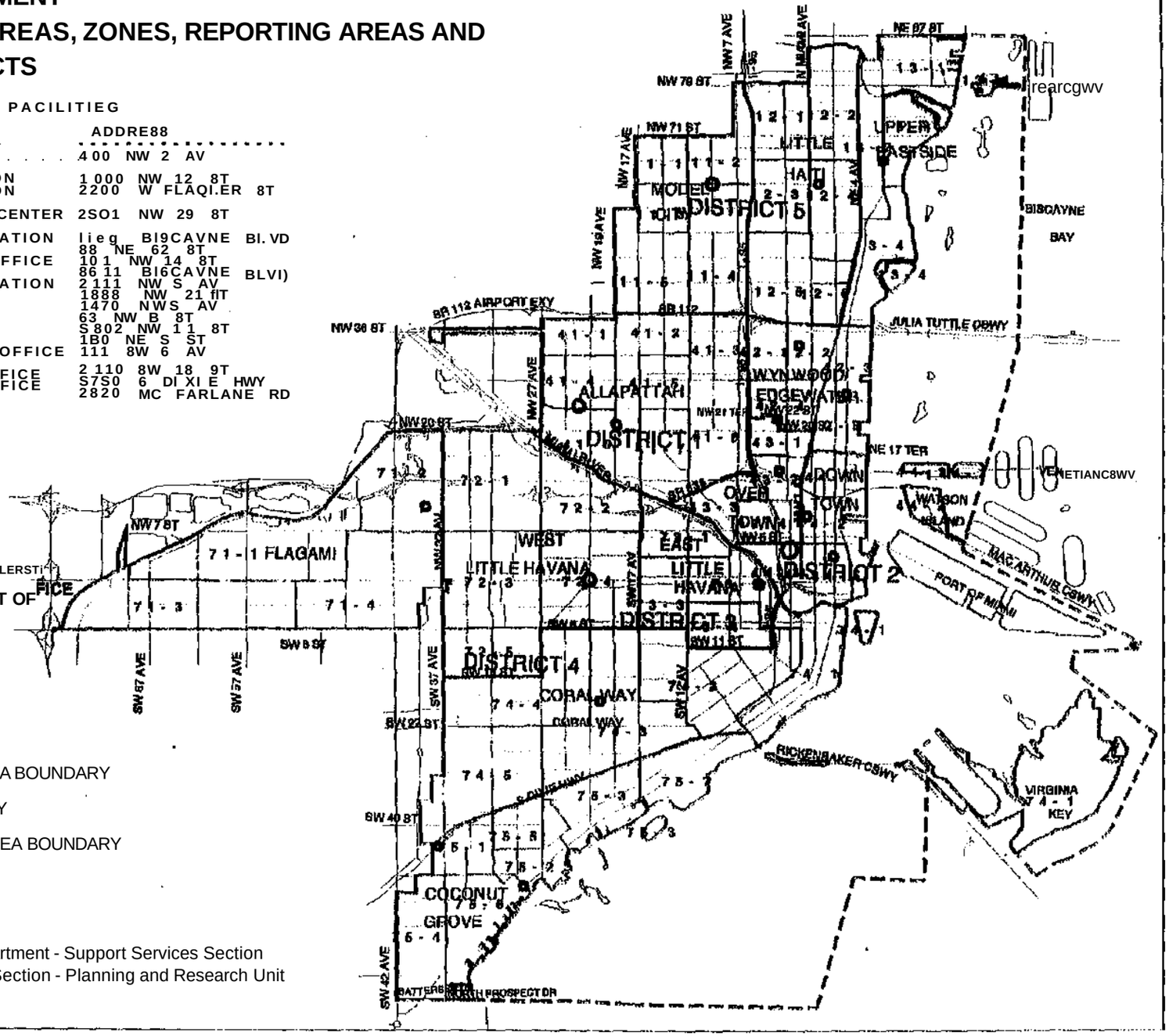


MIAMI POLICE DEPARTMENT

POLICE NET SERVICE AREAS, ZONES, REPORTING AREAS AND COMMISSION'S DISTRICTS

MIAMI POLICE DEPARTMENT PACILITIEG

	NAME	ADDRE88
1	POLICEMAIN STATION	400 NW 2 AV
2	NORTH DI 9TRI CT 8UB8TATION	1000 NW 12 8T
8	SOUTH DI 8TRI CT 9UB8TATION	2200 W FLAQI.ER 8T
4	DAVI p HERRI NO TRAINING CENTER	2SO1 NW 29 8T
S	UPPER EAST 81DE MINI STATION	lieg BI9CAVNE BI.VD
6	LITTLE HAITI NET OPFICE	88 NE 62 8T
7	WVNWOOD/ EDOEWATER NET OFFICE	101 NW 14 8T
8	EDQEWATER MINI STATION	8611 BI6CAVNE BLVI)
8	RAINBOW VILLAGE MINI STATION	2111 NW S AV
10	ALLAPATTAH MINI STATION	1888 NW 21 fIT
11	OVERTOWN MINI STATION	1470 NWS AV
12	DOWNTOWN NET OFFICE	63 NW B 8T
18	FLAQAMI NET OPFICE	S802 NW 11 8T
14	DOWNTOWN MI NI BTATI ON	1B0 NE S ST
15	EAST LITTLE HAVANA NET OFFICE	111 8W 6 AV
16	CORAL WAV NET OPFICE	2110 8W 18 9T
17	COCONUT OROVfi 8W NET OFFICE	S7S0 6 DI XI E HWY
18	COCONUT QHOVE NE NET OFFICE	2820 MC FARLANE RD



0 MIAMI POLICE MAIN STATION

O MIAMI POLICE SUBSTATION

* MIAMI POLICE MINI STATION / NET OF

0 POLICE TRAINING CENTER

POLICE REPORTING AREA BOUNDARY

POLICE ZONE BOUNDARY

POLICE NET SERVICE AREA BOUNDARY

MUNICIPAL BOUNDARY

SOURCE: Miami Police Department - Support Services Section

PREPARED BY: Support Services Section - Planning and Research Unit

March 9,1998

NEIGHBORHOOD ENHANCEMENT TEAMS

As policing has changed throughout the country, the philosophy of the City of Miami has also changed. With stakeholders concerned about the delivery, quality, and having a say in their municipal services, local government had to be responsive to their needs. The very existence of local government, as it has been known since the last century, has been in jeopardy. More accountability at the neighborhood level was not only demanded but would become a way of life for municipal employees, and the delivery of their services. Thus, the Neighborhood Enhancement Team (NET) program was born.

NET allowed the City of Miami to be viewed as 13 separate and distinct neighborhoods, each having different needs, and requiring a municipal service delivery plan tailored to the neighborhood. NET is the cornerstone of the efforts of the City of Miami to bring City Hall and community policing into the neighborhoods of Miami.

The seed that germinated into NET was Operation NEON (Neighborhood Enhancement Operation Network), which began in August 1991. Operation NEON deployed a roving crime-fighting force of 100 police officers into a specific area of the city for 30 days at a time. Working with the police to address quality-of-life issues were other city departments such as fire, sanitation, and zoning, along with neighborhood associations and citizen groups. Working together as a partnership, they worked together as a team to address problems.

Operation NEON operated until distressed areas were stabilized. Not only was the operation successful in fighting crime, it was also successful in bridging the gap between citizens and the police. By creating a situation where citizen input and participation was vital, their input became part of the solution. It taught many people that the war on crime should be fought as a partnership of police, other city agencies, and the citizens.

Operation IMPACT (Intense Mobilization of Police Against Criminal Trends) depended upon the saturation and high visibility of uniformed police patrols at times and locations where crime and the fear of crime were high. IMPACT officers were deployed in six-officer teams with a supervisor, and assigned citywide. Their objectives were to address crime through arrest

and intervention, win citizen support through police/citizen partnerships in addressing causes for disorder, have an immediate effect while the NET program was in its development period, and create an atmosphere that would allow the NET concept to take root. and grow. Concurrent with the implementation of IMPACT, City of Miami officials went to the various communities throughout the city to receive input on dividing the city into service areas, and assessing the needs of each community.

The next step consisted of meetings with the city manager, police chief, and other city department directors to discuss the potential revision of municipal service delivery. As a result of these meetings and special public hearings, a clear picture of government, and the community-oriented policing concept emerged. This two-prong strategy consisted of a massive infusion of police resources into a given neighborhood that would temporarily eradicate chronic problems involving crime and illegal drug use. Just as important was the public's perception of the level of police commitment and caring for distressed areas. By addressing problems that had long been neglected, the public viewed the police department in a different light. Once stabilized, a permanent team of city employees would be placed into each city neighborhood.

The NET plan brought a decentralization of municipal services to the neighborhoods. The "mini city halls" fostered a team approach to the identification and resolution of problems. The original staff of each NET Service Center included a NET administrator, a service center representative, one neighborhood resource officer (NRO), one public service aide, code enforcement inspectors for sanitation, public work, and zoning, and a jobs counselor (six of the centers). Although representatives from different city departments were assigned to each NET service center, the NRO was the key element to the success of the program.

Under this concept, the NRO for each service area would act as a "team leader" for a host of police officers providing patrol, investigation, and specialized enforcement to that service area. They would act as a sounding board for neighborhood concerns, and refer or find solutions to solve the problems important to that area. NROs would work with the NET team members to address complaints or identify needs concerning issues that contribute to crime or poor perceptions of the neighborhood on the part of the people living there. They would provide a more personal form of police service to the residents, and an improvement in the lines of communications.

Prior to the implementation of NET, all complaints were channeled through the offices of the commissioners and the mayor, the city manager's office, the police chiefs office, the Field Operations assistant chiefs office, or the Community Relations Section. Once the NET concept was implemented, the number of persons available and easily accessible to the public was significantly multiplied. The amount of "complaint receivers" was increased, and the public's expectation for quick and sure results was satisfied.

The NRO originally reported to a police major who was the commander of each district, and had authority over police actions within that entire district. The police department also assigned a public service aide as an assistant to the NRO. Citizens began to know the individuals who were responsible for the delivery of services in their neighborhoods. They were able to hold someone accountable when problems were not addressed.

Individual NROs worked in neighborhoods with citizens to identify problems and initiate corrective action from the appropriate city department, not just the police department. They would handle neighborhood requests that tied up an inordinate amount of time when dispatched as calls for service, such as drug and prostitution houses, neighborhood nuisances, abandoned cars and vessels, abandoned or dilapidated structures, trash, litter, and illegal dumping. Officers used a proactive approach to reduce the level of crimes against persons and property with special emphasis on reducing burglaries and illegal drug sales. By attending community meetings and being available when citizens called a NET office to talk to police officers, the NROs were able to keep abreast of immediate problems and concerns in their service areas. This team approach of mutual problem identification and resolution changed the way in which crime and disorder problems were handled.

The police department then went through a major reorganization of patrol operations by realigning itself from a "sector" configuration into "neighborhood service area" deployment. Crime statistics data collection methods were revamped to reflect neighborhood data. Community policing training was provided to police officers. Veteran and rookie officers were required to spend a month with an NRO as a requirement of their field training.

The NROs were so well received that the additional need for NROs became apparent. In February 1994, after receiving a Supplemental Hiring grant from the U.S. Department of Justice, funding was available to place an additional NRO in each service area. With two NROs in each of the 13 service areas, the program was further customized. In 1995, police lieutenants were granted the authority and responsibility to command, deploy, and coordinate police operations in their areas, 24 hours a day, 7 days a week. They became the NET Area Service Commander for each of the 12 NET areas. The goals of the NET lieutenant were to aggressively address crime and the fear of crime, reduce calls for service, improve each area's quality of life, and strengthen partnerships to enhance citizen satisfaction with police services.

In 1996, a computer-based police deployment system balanced workload with officer availability in order to more efficiently assign officers within the neighborhoods to the days and times they were needed most. By keeping informed officers within their assigned beats, and diverting nonenforcement calls for service, the level of police service became more effective.

COMMUNITY POLICING TODAY

Sir Robert Peel's "principles of policing" are as relevant today as they were in the 1800s: "The police are the public and the public are the police." Therefore, to place the label "community policing" on Miami's policing efforts may be inappropriate; it is simply the way in which Miami polices its neighborhoods. Since community policing is a philosophy, it is the very reason for the department's existence, as evidenced in our stated Mission and Vision statements:

> **Mission Statement** - "Our mission together with the communities of Miami, is to make our city a place where all people can live, work and visit safely without fear."
>
> **Vision** - "The Miami Police Department will maintain the highest standards of professional ethics and integrity. We are committed to the philosophy of community and neighborhood policing. We wiU build partnerships and coalitions with the business, corporate, and residential communities to identify and recommend solutions to problems with the goal of improving the quality of life in our neighborhoods. We will employ time-

tested police methods and promise innovative approaches to better protect our communities. We value the cultural unity and differences of our communities, recognizing that there is strength in both. Our commitment is to provide professional service to our citizens, residents and visitors."

The total government approach to policing on a neighborhood level has enhanced the effectiveness of the decision-making process. The development of an innovative and creative environment provides for the betterment of the agency and the public. Using a comprehensive approach of municipal services, including civil and criminal sanctions, has proven effective in improving neighborhood wellness. This unique delivery of municipal services is tailor-made for each neighborhood within the City of Miami.

NET lieutenants have provided each neighborhood in Miami with identifiable commanders who are accessible and responsive to the needs of their areas' residents and merchants. These commanders have the authority and responsibility to deploy personnel and resources which will most effectively reduce crime, reduce calls for service, reduce the fear of crime, and provide for the betterment of their neighborhoods. This service-focused approach encourages active citizen participation. Our policing efforts continue to progress from reactive to proactive to coactive, with the police and community working together to form collaborative partnerships to jointly identify, prioritize, and solve problems.

Partnership development involves all neighborhood stakeholders-everyone who has an interest in the neighborhood. Partnerships are strengthened when trust between the police and community increases as the result of sharing information and providing assistance. Police officers derive their authority from laws and customs, but are only empowered by the community they serve. In turn, police officers empower community members to improve the quality of life in their neighborhoods and reduce their fear of crime. As Neighborhood Resource Officers continue to perform as ombudsman, Unking the community to the rest of local government and social services, they also stress prevention, much like doctors emphasize the health benefits of a proper diet

The police department has received the highest accolades in meeting the highest standards of law enforcement by becoming a nationally accredited

police department. HEROS (Helping Enforcement Reach Our Streets) is an innovative community program which encourages law enforcement and community partnerships to solve problems. "Citizens on Patrol" members are trained community stakeholders who patrol their neighborhoods and assist police officers in improving their neighborhoods.

Making police officers available to the community is key in preventing crime and improving the quality of life for a neighborhood's stakeholders. By diverting nonenforcement calls, and by using a computer-based management system to balance workload by weighing calls for service, and deploying personnel to the days and times when needed, officers had more time to work on long-existing problems in their beats. Maintaining beat integrity has proven beneficial to officers and to residents who, as often as not, have become better acquainted with people living in their neighborhoods.

NET SERVICES

Listed below are many of the services available at the NET Service Centers.

Complaints regarding:
- Zoning violations
- Abandoned vehicles
- Overgrown lots
- Garbage, trash or debris
- Unsafe structures
- Illegal tree removal
- Street maintenance and repair

Permits:
- Garage sale permits
- Building permits by owner/builder
- Tree removal permits

Licenses:
- Certificate of Use
- Occupational Licenses

Payments:

- Solid waste bills
- City fees and fines

Other Services:

- Reporting crimes or missing persons
- Crime Watch information
- Economic development programs
- Housing assistance programs
- Job placement
- Information on all City of Miami services
- Information and referral on county, state and federal services
- Ideas for improving your neighborhood
- Organizing and maintaining neighborhood associations
- Researching, planning and conducting neighborhood improvement projects
- Planning and promoting special events
- Conducting neighborhood meetings in English or Spanish or Creole
- Providing meeting rooms
- NET-CITY, 24-hour automated telephone information service

NET Administration:

The NET Administrator is the person responsible for coordination of all activities, and public services at the neighborhood level. One of the most significant responsibilities of this position is to be highly involved in the community, conducting public relations activities on behalf of the city, participating in community meetings, helping residents with information and, most importantly, listening and addressing their concerns. The administrators prioritize the issues, map the strategies, and set goals for their areas. The individuals previously held some type of executive level or administrative position with the City of Miami. They were selected because of their expertise in setting and achieving goals, and solving problems.

Service Center Representative

The service center representative is the right-hand person to the NET administrator, and acts as an assistant and office manager. This is the person responsible for handling residents' complaints and acting as case manager. He or she routes each problem to the right person in the NET team and follows the problem through to its resolution. The service center representative fills out applications for certificates of use and occupational

licenses, accepts payments for municipal services and collects fees for permits. The representative also provides the many residents that call and visit with information and referral to other governmental services and agencies.

Code Enforcement Inspectors

The primary objectives of the code enforcement inspectors in the NET team are to educate the public, and seek compliance with municipal codes. All code enforcement personnel respond to complaints from citizens, as well as observe and report violations and hazardous conditions within their assigned neighborhood. When inspectors do not achieve voluntary compliance from violators, they may issue citations or bring cases to administrative hearings before the Code Enforcement Board.

Zoning Inspectors

The zoning inspectors are responsible for enforcing the zoning ordinance, as well as reporting illegal construction and miscellaneous code violations. One of the most common and difficult problems they encounter is reporting illegal conversion of residences into multiple dwelling units. Another major enforcement responsibility of the zoning inspectors is the vacant lots throughout the city. As the lots regularly become overgrown, they attract illegal dumping and criminal activity.

Sanitation Inspectors -

The sanitation inspectors are responsible for garbage, trash, and litter violations. They talk with citizens and educate them on the proper way to dispose of waste. For example, residents are instructed to place trash at curbside for biweekly garbage, and weekly trash pickup. Also, sanitation inspectors work closely with the Solid Waste Department to correct missed pickups, to coordinate special pickups, and to clean up problem areas. Illegal dumping is a major problem that the sanitation inspectors attempt to reduce with help from the NROs. They also help to coordinate neighborhood cleanup projects with assistance from the Solid Waste Department, volunteers, and persons sentenced to perform community service hours by the criminal justice system.

Public Works Inspectors

These inspectors respond to building permit inspection requests, and take care of all code violations in the public right-of-way. They also monitor special features in the right-of-way such as public telephones, bus benches,

news racks, and sidewalk cafes, making sure that they are installed and maintained according to code and contract specifications.

WHAT'S NEXT?

The future is even more promising. Enhanced training in problem-solving, and partnership development will be given to all levels of the department—from the basic police recruit to upper management. Part of this training involves becoming familiar with the SARA model as a means of improving the ability of all officers to learn problem-solving techniques. SARA is an acronym for (1) Scanning, (2) Analysis, (3) Response, and (4) Assessment. Scanning involves techniques used for identifying problems. Analysis involves techniques, such as the crime triangle (three elements required to constitute a crime: offender, victim, and location), which aim to discover the underlying causes for the existence of certain problems. Responses are the result of scanning and analysis and, as the term indicates, involves selecting the most effective strategy for solving the problems being addressed. Finally, assessments determine if the response worked.

Problem-oriented policing is an attitude fostered by understanding the principles underlying the SARA model. Although this approach to the delivery of police services encourages creativity and innovations, there are obviously limits. In selecting the appropriate response to any problem, officers must be able to answer "yes" to the following questions: Is it ethical? Is it legal? Is it within the department's values and policies? Is it the right thing to do for the department and the community?

Currently, the Miami Police Department is on the verge of a technology explosion. Computerized crime analysis and mapping will provide the information necessary for the NET lieutenants to display crime trends, and develop tactical plans of action at daily roll calls- It. is through this spatial representation of crime and other municipal information that intuitive inferences can be made about the significance of certain occurrences. On this basis, appropriate plans can be formulated to improve the quality of life within the NET areas.

The Distressed Neighborhoods grant will target the most disadvantaged areas. Using problem-solving performance teams to comprehensively address crime, disorder, and decay with criminal, civil, and social resources, areas with chronic problems will be stabilized, and provided with

"caretakers" to partner with community members. The teams will move o until large areas begin the revitalization process.

Twenty-six (26) community service representatives will allow the NK offices to be open 16 hours each weekday, allowing more nonemergency calls to be diverted to the NET office, and enhancing officer contact with the public.

Additionally, the department is developing a database of problem-sol[1]*ving initiatives, along with department and community information, that will be posted on a newly created Internet web site. In this manner, citizens can keep abreast of current crime trends in their neighborhoods, learn about Citizens on Patrol, upcoming Police Athletic League events, etc. Moreover, each NET office will be provided with network connectivity so that information can be viewed and massaged by police and NET personnel, as well as by the public.

This "touch-tech" approach is thought to be the next paradigm in policing. Partnership development, problem-solving training, and enhanced technological and analytical capabilities will provide officers with the tools required to address crime and community concerns in a timely manner. These initiatives will also strengthen the infrastructure that supports community/problem-oriented policing.