



Operational Assessment Reference Materials

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Section 1: Recruiting and Retention

Recruiting Strategies

The following information outlines several recommended practices that law enforcement agencies can engage to improve the effectiveness of their recruiting and hiring practices. For this information to have the best value, departments should evaluate their current practices against those listed here, in consideration of the need for possible adjustments.

Institute a continuous hiring program, or alternatively, a more frequent process that reduces lag-time for applicants

In today's competitive environment, having open hiring processes only 1 or 2 times per year may not be sufficient. Qualified applicants who are eager to enter the profession may not be willing to wait for the next opening, and they may take their talents elsewhere. To guard against this, departments need to reduce the lag-time between hiring processes. This could occur either through a continuous process, or through adding additional hiring cycles, if they are currently limited to a small number annually. Most modern hiring systems have the capability to accept applications on a continuous or more frequent basis, and this is preferred over hiring processes that occur sporadically.

While moving to an ongoing hiring process, or increasing the frequency of the hiring process may be difficult from a logistics standpoint, the establishment of a more rapid or frequent process is essential to expanding the pool of quality applicants available to the department. In addition, once these candidates are identified, the department needs to act swiftly to secure their employment, in advance of other opportunities they may have available.

Along with receiving continuous applications, law enforcement agencies should institute a written exam schedule that makes it more convenient for applicants, for example, on weekends or in the evening. This scheduling will provide candidates more flexibility and improve the numbers of candidates appearing for this part of the process.

Implement a mentor program for new officer candidates

Law enforcement candidates want to feel they are important and that the department values their application. The overall process can be daunting for many candidates, and they often have a sense of uncertainty throughout. Tending to their needs and answering their questions can provide applicants with a sense of care and belonging early in the process, which will reduce the likelihood that they will continue seeking employment elsewhere.

To meet these needs for candidates, departments should develop a cadre of carefully selected, highly motivated, and trained mentors, to guide new recruits through the application process, and ultimately, their transition into law enforcement for the department. These mentors need to be selected based on their ability to train, guide, and empathize with new recruits. They should be assigned to priority candidates immediately after they are identified within the hiring process, to help ensure that the candidate stays in the process and ultimately is hired.

Establish an early hire program

One method to overcome the negative impact that time has on the hiring process is to establish an early hire program. Once a candidate is fully qualified (successfully clears all the steps), the department should consider hiring him or her immediately, particularly if the start of the academy is not imminent. Today's candidates have oftentimes applied to multiple agencies, and although they may have a preference of which agency they want, they tend to go with the first job offer. By hiring candidates early, departments will keep quality candidates and not lose them to other agencies who may have faster processes. The early hire candidate can be brought on at a full or reduced salary rate and assigned to assistance-type work in non-sworn areas. While similar to a cadet program, these positions involve vacant officer slots, rather than new positions, so they are effectively budget neutral or budget positive (depending upon the rate paid during the early hire period). Hiring these candidates early rather than waiting until sufficient numbers of applicants are hired to fill an academy class, will ensure a higher percentage of hires of quality applicants.

Provide a career fit tool, or day in the life training for applicants, to clarify work conditions and expectations

In some cases, officer candidates have an unclear picture of what law enforcement work involves, and this can lead to lackluster performance, or candidates who choose to resign as they gain more understanding of what the job involves. To reduce this possibility, the department should include some type of unscored career fit tool at a very early stage of the process, describing real working conditions and tasks often performed. This could include things such as: a drunk person vomits in patrol car, trying to talk with an uncooperative witness, picking up the same person repeatedly for nuisance crimes. The candidates can then be asked about their willingness to do this kind of work. This would not be a scored tool, but it might help some applicants self-select out, as opposed to doing so after they are hired.

One way to orient candidates to the nature of the job is to create a video, similar to the IACPs Virtual Ride Along, which can be found on the Discover Policing website.¹ Again, the intent here is to help candidates understand the nature of the job as it truly exists within the department, as opposed to what they think it involves, based on information they might obtain from various sources.

Develop a brand that reflects the department commitment to the community, and its desire to protect and serve

Having a strong brand can help create organizational pride, industry recognition, and enthusiasm for potential applicants. The brand should be concise, emotive, and simple, such as the longstanding slogan of the Marines; *The Few, The Proud*, or Verizon's, *Can you hear me now?* The brand should address community expectations and perceptions as well the reasons

¹ http://discoverpolicing.org/whats_like/?fa=virtual-ride-along

officers have identified for choosing a career with department. Additionally, it should set the department apart from other law enforcement agencies.

Multiple tools are available to use in developing a brand, such as a mission statement, organizational values, and community expectations and perceptions. To assist with developing these tools, the department may wish to conduct a community survey to determine what the community expects from its law enforcement department and what qualities it desires in its officers. This survey can also be used to measure community perceptions. In addition, surveying first line supervisors can be an effective way to identify what qualities the best officers of the department possess, and this can help inform the branding process.

Conduct an internal assessment of employee benefits and job conditions, to ensure a competitive hiring environment

The department should conduct an internal assessment of the benefits of working for the agency. Law enforcement leaders should ask themselves, and a core focus group of employees, what the department possesses that will attract the best possible officers. Effectively, the question to be answered is, “Why would I want to work for this department?” Conducting this inventory of benefits is a necessary first step in assessing what strategies will best succeed in attracting candidates. This inventory can also provide valuable tools to assist recruiters as well as potentially positively influencing turnover.

Establish a department philosophy that everyone is a recruiter

Having a department-wide philosophy that emphasizes a recruitment potential in all public interactions can help overcome negative or unrealistic impressions of what law enforcement work entails and contribute to a larger strategic recruitment plan. Recruiting must become a part of everyday interactions between officers and the public. Establishing this mindset within the department to support recruitment can enhance community outreach efforts by making recruitment an overall philosophy for all, rather than a task to be performed solely by a specialized unit.

Create an inviting atmosphere within the department for potential applicants

Outreach to potential applicants must be meaningful, genuine, and reflect a departmental desire to build true relationships with them. Making these contacts real requires going beyond traditional public appearances, and might require imaginative or creative techniques, such as citizen academies, open houses, facility tours, and ride-alongs. To enhance the personal touch, the department should routinely schedule open houses at their various facilities. Additionally, every officer should be equipped with a business card that on the back, has the department’s brand, as well as specific information on who to call to schedule a ride-along. This personal touch and referral will go a long way in opening the department to new applicants, and it will solidify the commitment of the department to a proactive and ongoing recruitment strategy.

It is also important to note that when prospective candidates inquire about a ride along, the department should ensure that the officer assigned to the task is genuinely interested in serving the best interests of the agency through this process. This means that the department should

seek volunteers for these assignments, and equip those officers with the information they need to help aspiring officers navigate their way through the hiring process.

Utilize youth outreach programs to enhance the department image and recruiting efforts

The department should consider using youth outreach programs to enhance its recruiting and image among the youth of the community. These programs can range from a paid cadet/internship programs, to other less costly programs, such as an explorer program, and/or partnership/mentor programs with local colleges and high schools. Because many high school students are already thinking about and starting preparation for future careers, high school age students should be a primary focus for long term results. A series of youth leadership academies offered during the summer months, emphasizing self-discipline and core values, such as service to the community, can build a strong cadre of potential recruits and advocates in the community.

Use community liaisons for increased contact with underrepresented communities

The department should use their community liaisons to spread the word about recruiting efforts. Recruiting notices should be placed in community-specific newspapers, to include specific community and/or neighborhood newsletters. Department recruiting information and links should be on the web pages of professional, academic, and fraternal organizations throughout the city. The chief law enforcement executive and other members of the command staff should make direct appeals to community organizations for help in recruiting, especially from diverse communities.

A complaint that is often heard nationwide is that recruiting information is not getting to members of minority communities. By having a direct solicitation from members of the department command staff, the likelihood for better community communications increases significantly. The department should partner with community leaders and organizations to garner their support in referring applicants to the department. This partnership should include seeking a presence on the website of these organizations, as well as direct referrals to the department's recruiting website. The department should also consider holding separate recruiting meetings for members of specialty groups, including providing assistance and support in understanding the application and testing processes.

Develop a strategy to maximize opportunities with second-career applicants

For many agencies, second-career applicants are a largely untapped market, and today's volatile economic situation has many people seeking career changes later in life. With the economic downturn of the late 2000s, many departments noted an increase in applicants seeking a second career in policing, coming from fields as diverse as automobile manufacturing, construction, marketing, and business administration. Second-career applicants present opportunities for departments to expand their workforce to include individuals with prior experience in diverse careers.

Career military personnel are also a logical source of second-career applicants. The department should establish partnerships with the local military installations to provide presentations to

service members who are within two years of retirement. Many service members retire at a young enough age that law enforcement is a viable choice as a second career. To maximize the potential for gaining the interest of these applicants, the department should make these connections and establish regular dialogue with military command personnel.

Expand personnel assigned to career days/job fairs, develop a recruiting speech

In many law enforcement agencies, shortfalls in staff resources often affect critical areas, such as backgrounds, attendance at recruiting events, recruit testing, and other functions. While career fairs do not typically produce numerous applicants, they are an effective marketing tool for the department by providing the opportunity to boost departmental visibility and recruit targeting. To expand the recruiting pool of personnel, the department should assign selected patrol officers or selected staff from other units to attend these events. With a department-wide *everyone is a recruiter* philosophy; more events can be targeted. The department also needs to develop a specific recruitment information packet, or *recruiting speech*, that all personnel are familiar with and can use.

Establish an employee referral incentive program

Employee referrals provide applicants with realistic and trustworthy answers to their questions, as well as a realistic portrayal of how a law enforcement career affects family life. Employee referral strategies will both increase applicant pools and provide balance to other recruitment strategies, such as online processes, that lack human interaction. To boost referrals, the department should establish an organization-wide recruitment/referral incentive program offering an incentive (monetary compensation or some other type of incentive, such as annual leave) for critical positions such as law enforcement officer. Human resources, along with appropriate government leadership, should identify critical positions where vacancies have a severe negative impact on services. Employees who recruit a qualified applicant would receive an incentive when the applicant is hired.

Develop a new more customer-friendly web page, and an enhanced social media presence for recruiting

The department should examine and update their recruiting webpage, to emphasize ease of use and to provide more information, focusing on why a person should become an officer for the agency. Certainly, benefits, job security, and job challenges are important factors, but to have a successful strategy, the department must develop a brand for itself. Social media, such as Facebook and Twitter, should incorporate those changes as well as the new brand.

The new website should also incorporate various materials and information concerning the hiring and testing processes. If appropriate, this should include any areas or materials applicants should study to prepare themselves for the written exam. Ideally, those seeking information should be connected with a hiring mentor within the department, to maximize the information provided to the candidate, and to develop an early relationship between the applicant and the department.

Develop a recruitment video

With the prevalence and popularity of online videos, such as on YouTube and other sites, effective recruiting videos are a requirement. Recruiting videos can be widely distributed and used by all members of the department to assist in recruiting and community engagement. Care should be taken to incorporate realistic information about job requirements, without over- or under-emphasizing the negative aspects of law enforcement work. There is little to be gained by attracting applicants who might have the necessary abilities and skills to become an officer but lack the interest or will to do all of the duties the job requires. Accordingly, the recruitment video should highlight the positive aspects of law enforcement work, without ignoring those elements that might be detractors, for some people.

Establish an effective and measurable yearly recruiting plan

Just as with any law enforcement operation, successful planning is key to success. The department should develop and implement an effective and measurable yearly recruiting plan. This plan should identify specific goals/benchmarks, task assignments, and tools to use to achieve the goals. The plan should include accountability measures, and a senior commander should be responsible for implementation and plan success.

Prioritize top applicants, based on agency criteria.

In many departments, candidates are moved through the hiring process indiscriminately, without regard to their potential for successfully making it through the hiring process. In this sense, those who are highly-qualified candidates are treated the same as those who are clearly less qualified. Because of the competitive hiring market, this can lead to losing good candidates to other departments that act more swiftly, or who provide a greater level of focused attention to those candidates who are most likely to be hired.

The department should consider identifying a point within the hiring process at which they are able to distinguish those candidates the department would be most interested in hiring. Once this occurs, the department should assign them a mentor. In addition, the department should prioritize the background and other hiring processes for these applicants, to help ensure they remain highly engaged in the hiring process with the agency. This is not to say that the department should ignore or discard the other candidates. The idea here is to maximize the resources of the department with those who are the most likely to succeed. Focused attention should be afforded to as many applicants as the department can manage.

Re-evaluate the disqualification factors (both singular and combination) to more holistically evaluate the attributes they and their community

It is important to note that while standards comprise an important part of a hiring process, certain steps, such as background investigations that impose unrealistic standards, can have a significantly negative effect on hiring the right people. Criteria that consider all criminal activity the same, regardless of type of offense or how recent the occurrence, or processes that screen out those who make voluntary admissions of drug use or other crimes (without any conviction), may impede an agency from hiring the diverse officers it needs for 21st century policing. The

department should be cognizant of the potential for extenuating factors and re-evaluate their disqualification factors (both singular and combination) to more holistically evaluate the attributes they and their community want in their officers. This assessment should include evaluating the applicant's overall life experience and skills in a broader context.

As part of this process, the department should evaluate all discretionary disqualification factors in use, to determine whether they represent the standards the department and community prefer. This exercise is not about reducing standards, but instead, it is about clarifying which standards the department and community want to prioritize and maintain.

Establish a review committee, to review questionable background information on candidates, which are non-disqualifying in nature

Some applicants have items in their history, which may not immediately disqualify them as candidates, but which from a subjective view, may reflect poorly on the candidate overall. In the past, many departments have dismissed these applicants without further review or consideration. This can lead to the elimination of candidates who may have been a positive addition to the agency. The department should establish a secondary review committee to evaluate the details of any non-mandatory disqualification factors that may arise from the background investigation. This process could even involve an additional interview with the candidate. These processes often provide additional insight for the department about the candidate, and they can also provide an opportunity to provide feedback to the applicant.

Caution does need to be used to ensure that privacy laws are followed, and with regard to the committee makeup, especially if non-department members are used. To ensure compliance with these areas, the department should involve its labor attorney and human resources personnel at the outset of the development of this process, to establish a very clear and definitive policy on which cases will get a secondary review.

It is also important to note that it is likely impractical and counterproductive to offer to use this secondary review in every case. As a result, the department may wish to consider establishing specific standards for using secondary review. For example, secondary review might be restricted to cases that involve singular disqualification factors, as opposed to those that involve combination factors.

Retention Strategies

The following information outlines several recommended practices that law enforcement agencies can engage to improve the effectiveness of their retention practices. For this information to have the best value, departments should evaluate their current practices against those listed here, in consideration of the need for possible adjustments.

Consider providing subsidies for city utilities for staff who live within the city

Most cities provide utility services to residents, including electric, water, sewer, garbage, or other non-traditional services such as Internet and cable. To incentivize staff to live within the

community, and to create a retention incentive, the city could offer a monthly reduction on city utility expenses (e.g., \$100 per month).

Provide down payment assistance for purchasing a home

For many new officers, purchasing a home can be a financial burden. One way to encourage new officers to live and stay within the community is to provide down payment assistance toward purchasing a new home. This can come in the form of a forgivable loan (e.g., \$10,000). As an example, the money is loaned to the officer, interest and payment free, and for each year of service, 10% of the loan is forgiven. At the end of the ten-year period, the debt is eliminated. If the officer separates employment during that period, the remaining balance is owed to the city.

Consider tax incentives for staff who live within the city

To incentivize staff to live within the community, and to create a retention incentive, the city could offer a level of tax exemption or rebate, for staff who live in the community. This incentive could be established permanently, for a limited term, or on a declining scale over a specified period.

Create or expand educational incentives and tuition reimbursement plans

Many cities have tuition reimbursement programs, however, most do not cover the full cost of education programs. The city could partner with area colleges and negotiate specialized rates, and establish full tuition reimbursement for certain degree tracks. In addition, the city could revise their compensation plans to include additional monthly salaries to staff, based on educational levels (e.g., Associate, Bachelor, or Master's degree).

Establish longevity pay at prescribed intervals

For most cities, there is a prescribed pay scale for each position that has a specific cap. Once that cap is reached, staff can only expect cost of living adjustments. In addition, once staff reach the salary cap, pay among peers is equal, regardless of whether one person has six years of experience and another has twenty. Adding longevity pay at specific intervals, (e.g., three to five-year intervals following achieving the salary cap) recognizes the tenure of staff and helps them feel valued as their years of experience grow.

Adopt longevity-based prioritization for certain operational decisions

Experienced officers want to feel that their tenure is recognized by the city and the department, and that it is valued in various decisions affecting them. The city should consider revising its practices to capture longevity as a factor in different operational decisions. Those areas could include the following:

- Overtime details
- Leave requests
- Shift selection, or beat assignments

- Vehicle assignments
- Voluntary training requests
- Promotions
- Specialty assignments

This list is not all-inclusive, but provides a framework for understanding which areas might be added to longevity-based decision making.

Assign a permanent/long-term mentor to all new officers

New officers have a desire to fit in, and they tend to have lots of questions. Many times, officers are reluctant to ask questions of their supervisors, or even their field training officer, because they do not want to be viewed negatively. Mentors provide a safe haven for new officers to ask questions, and to develop a sense of comfort with their new surroundings. The right mentor can help a new officer understand the organizational culture, and make them feel welcome and valued. These sentiments can contribute to an officer's job satisfaction, and their retention.

Section 2: Technology Considerations

Field Technology Considerations

Function	Description
Driver's License Swipe or Bar Code Readers	These devices provide for easy data capture in the field, and they help ensure the integrity of the data that migrates into RMS.
Printers	Patrol vehicles should be equipped with printers, which are capable of producing e-citations, and printing of other custom forms (see below).
e-Citation	<p>An e-Citation system should be instilled in the squad cars. Here are some key elements of that system:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Auto-importing of data from driver's license (D/L) readers, and from state department of motor vehicle (DMV) and (D/L) files • Ability to select from citation, written warning, verbal warning, or fix-it ticket, as appropriate, and the ability to print associated fine or other warning information, unique and specific to the type of action the officer chooses (e.g. citation or warning). • Embedded location addresses from CAD or other data repository • Embedded statutes and ordinance numbers • Ability to export the citation and all associated data directly into RMS when printed, to include DMV and D/L files • Auto-generation of case/citation file upon creation of the citation • Ability to integrate officer notes into the e-Citation at the time of issuance
Custom Forms	<p>Patrol vehicles should have the ability to use of custom forms, as developed for the department. These should include, at a minimum:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Crash Information Exchange: The ability to use imported data from DMV and D/L files to create, print, and export driver and vehicle owner data, for motor vehicle crashes • Towing Form: The ability to use imported data from DMV and D/L files, to create and print a vehicle impound form • In all custom forms cases, the system should push these forms to the associated case file, to include creating or appending the Master Name Index (MNI) file. A copy of the file should also push to the RMS for storage. <p>Note: There are likely many other forms that would be helpful for this type of process, which could be identified through different sections of the department. In short, a system should be used that can generate and map these custom forms to the RMS.</p>
State Crash Report Integration	The system should integrate the Crash Information Exchange custom form, with the State Crash Reporting System. This system should auto-populate appropriate

Function	Description
	fields, and have the capability of pushing to the state system, as well as saving a copy of the state crash report to the local RMS.

RMS Functional Considerations

Function	Description
e-Citation Push	The RMS should have the capacity to push citation data directly to the State/Municipal court system. This should include a review queue for the department prior to submission.
Criminal Complaint Push	The RMS should have the capacity to interface with local or state prosecutors, so that data can be pushed directly into their systems for review and/or the development of a criminal complaint.
Case Generation	Officers (sworn or non-sworn) should be able to generate a new record within RMS, either through populating/generating one of the custom forms, through e-Citation, or through just starting a record on their own. They should have the ability to fully populate the record from data collected in the mobile environment
Field Reporting	Officers in the field should have full access to the RMS from the field. This includes query capability, the ability to create, review, and print any police report, and the capacity to review any aspect of any case file, or documents or media stored within that file.
Media Storage	The RMS should have the capacity to store and hold any media files within the case record, to include: PDF or other Office documents (Word, Excel), digital photographs, and digital recordings. (This is not intended for body camera or surveillance footage).
Solvability Factors	The RMS should have the capability of using Solvability Factors (and/or weighted Solvability Factors) for each case, and these should be a user-accessible function.
Case Management	The RMS should have a robust case management system, which includes, at a minimum: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A customizable routing system • Case management queues for each user • Case management views for appropriate supervisors • Tracking capabilities for time/effort on each case • Routing triggers associated with varied stages of the case review process

Section 3: Community Co-Production Policing

Due to recent events, community members have taken to the streets nationwide to demand what they deserve from the police as a starting point: social and procedural justice. Social justice is an essential component of healthy, effective communities. It is based on a fair and just relationship between individuals and society, see Figure 3.1.¹

Figure 3.1. Social Justice Foundational Concepts

Equity	<i>Overcoming unfairness caused by unequal access to resources and power</i>
Access	<i>Greater equality of access to goods and services</i>
Active Participation	<i>Expanded opportunities for real participation in the decisions which govern their lives</i>
Individual Rights	<i>Equal effective legal, industrial, and political rights</i>

Social justice demands that those in the community feel safe—including feeling safe from the police. Feeling safe starts with procedurally-just policing. Procedural justice in policing is the principle that the community’s willingness, individually and aggregately, to accept the actions of the police, obey laws, participate in the criminal justice system, and partner with law enforcement to reduce crime and disorder, is dependent on the acceptance of policing actions as fair and equitable. Procedural justice consists of four primary pillars², as shown in Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2. Procedural Justice Pillars

Fairness	<i>Being fair in process</i>
Voice	<i>Providing the opportunity for voice</i>
Transparency	<i>Being transparent in actions</i>
Impartiality	<i>Being impartial in decision-making</i>

Achieving social and procedural justice within policing requires meaningful change and reform that must extend beyond prior efforts.

² https://cops.usdoj.gov/html/dispatch/04-2015/a_new_procedural_justice_course.asp

Across the United States, communities are calling for revised policies, targeted training, increased accountability, and better screening of police candidates. All of these efforts are important and they should be explored. However, these same processes have been pursued since community-oriented policing (COP) became popular in the 80's and 90's, and even as COP gained additional interest and momentum following a series of high-profile excessive-force incidents that trace back nearly a decade. As shown in Figure 3.3, despite substantial focus on these areas within the law enforcement industry, concerns over systemic racism, biased policing, and a lack of trust between the police and the community continue to persist.

Figure 3.3. Influences, Outcomes, and Unresolved Challenges within the Current Policing Industry



The current policing environment calls for broad and deep reforms in the operations and collaborative culture of police agencies. This level of reform will require a coordinated effort to reframe the police department as a community-owned resource and can be accomplished through engaging a Community Co-production Policing (CCPP) model. Implementation of the CCPP model, developed by BerryDunn in collaboration with practitioners and community members across the country, merges and unifies police agencies and communities through multiple collaborative pathways, resulting in shared responsibilities in areas such as guidance, oversight, and the development of policies, operational strategies, public safety priorities, and other shared goals.

Co-production expands the focus of traditional COP and includes a greater level of community participation and involvement in key policing strategies that affect the community. The key distinction is that although COP is informative, interactive, allows for community input, and is often collaborative with regard to problem solving, co-production involves a greater level of influence and involvement by the community regarding the overarching policing strategies and priorities that ultimately affect those being served by the police agency.

From a co-production policing perspective, influence and involvement from the community form the foundation for trust and confidence in the police agency and agreement in the processes, procedures, and practices used in pursuit of public safety for those who live in or visit the community. This level of involvement serves as a persistent external accountability process, which helps ensure consistent alignment between community desires and expectations and the actions the police use to meet them. Co-production is a collaborative process, not an oversight process. It involves working together to cooperatively co-produce public safety, in a respectful and thoughtful manner that places value on mutuality.

As shown in Figure 3.4, engaging the CCPP model involves determining which co-production pathways the community wishes to pursue and then formalizing the variables and considerations associated with each pathway. After identifying the pathways and outlining the variables and considerations for each, the next step is to develop a strategic plan for implementation.

Figure 3.4. BerryDunn’s CCPP Model

CCPP Pathways	Pathway Variables
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CCPP Board • Diversity and impartial policing • Ordinance review and development • Policy and procedures review and development 	<p>1. Involvement and Structure <i>Who will be involved? What is the level of balance between police, government, and community?</i></p>
	<p>2. Roles and Responsibilities <i>What is the role of those in this group? In what ways will they interact with the department?</i></p>
	<p>3. Work Product <i>What deliverables will this group produce? Who will receive these deliverables and at what frequency?</i></p>

CCPP Pathways	Pathway Variables
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Professional standards and Internal Affairs review Recruiting, hiring, and retention Research Strategic response meetings (data-driven policing) Training 	4. Authority <i>Who has ultimate decision authority for this group? What is the level of authority to make operational decisions or changes?</i>
	5. Reporting and Appeals <i>To whom does this group report? If there is a conflict, what is the appeal process and who is the final authority?</i>

For each pathway, considerations to pay, terms of service, application and member selection, and perquisite for appointment must be made.

In Figure 3.5, BerryDunn provides a graphic that reflects the goals and predicted outcomes of the CCPP model. Accomplishing the CCPP goals is expected to produce the predicted outcomes, and these new positive outcomes address the longstanding negative outcomes that remain unresolved within the policing industry.

Figure 3.5: CCPP Goals and Predicted Outcomes

CCPP Goals		Predicted Outcomes	
Reducing fractionalism	Reducing the inharmonious separation that has occurred between the community and those responsible for policing it	Increased community trust	Because the community shares decisional authority in substantive policing matters, it will have shared ownership over the results
Creating transparency	There can be no more secrecy in accountability of policymaking, or in determining strategies to address and reduce crime and disorder	Enhanced public safety	Trust is the cornerstone to solving crime, and once that is established, people will more readily assist in public safety matters affecting them
Balancing power	Those who police the community must have the authority to do so; however, police department governance should be a shared responsibility	Improved racial and diversity equity	Diverse partnerships lead to greater understanding, which, in turn, changes perspectives, beliefs, and behaviors

Public outcry for police reform provides cities, towns, and counties with a rare opportunity to affect how their communities are policed in the future. This opportunity involves transforming policing towards a collaborative model where the police departments of the future are increasingly community-based and community-operated. BerryDunn's CCP model can help communities achieve this level of reform and transformation. To implement this model, BerryDunn's leverages a facilitation-based approach to engaging stakeholders across the community with the goal of collaborating on a future policing model that addresses the need for public safety in a way that is informed and inspired by the community that the police departments serve.

Section 4: Patrol Schedule Designs

The following section provides a discussion on variations of patrol scheduling models.

Balanced Schedule

It is of some value at this point to discuss *balanced* as opposed to *on-demand* schedules. In short, in a balanced schedule, the department fully schedules all its personnel based on 40 hours per week, or 80 hours per pay period, throughout the year (this also often results in scheduling more personnel than required, which is referred to as over-scheduling). This is the most common form of police scheduling, and it is the type of schedule in use for the GPD.

This type of schedule works reasonably well if the department has enough people on the schedule to accommodate vacancies due to leave. BerryDunn refers to this type of scheduling as over-scheduling because it relies on scheduling more staff than necessary for existing demands in order to respond to requests for leave. In theory, because the department has *over-scheduled*, if someone takes leave, there is no need to backfill the opening because the schedule still contains enough staff to cover shift minimums.

Although over-scheduling works, its effectiveness is impeded by peaks and valleys in the use of leave time by staff. Invariably, a patrol staff within law enforcement agencies take leave in larger increments during certain portions of the calendar year (e.g., during summer months, over the holidays). This often results in an imbalance between the number of leave requests and the ability of the schedule to release staff on leave without creating a shortage in staffing or the need to pay overtime to cover peak demands. Conversely, during periods when nobody takes leave (e.g., February), staffing is at its peak. This also tends to happen when service volumes are lower, which results in a certain amount of inefficiency.

There is a delicate balance between using over-scheduling as a means to accommodate leave and having too many resources available. For those creating the schedule, it is also important to note that when using a balanced or over-scheduling system, it may appear that the schedule is very heavy with resources. This can create a tendency to think that there are too many staff assigned to a beat/zone, precinct, or division. In reality, as those staff take leave, which often averages 400 hours per staff member (for holiday, personal leave, and training), the schedule will thin out. Despite this, it is likely that there will be peaks and valleys in this type of system.

When there are peaks of resources, administrative staff can redirect personnel to specific projects or special enforcement duties (such as COP). When there are valleys (shortages of staff), the department will need to use overtime as a means to cover minimum staffing levels. Staffing using a proper shift relief factor will minimize this, but there will likely be some need to pay overtime to meet minimums, assuming that leave requests follow similar industry patterns.

So, although using a balanced schedule is the most common form of police scheduling, it is also the most susceptible to inefficiency and instability, due to the lack of flexibility in the schedule to adjust to leave and leave patterns and having *over-scheduled* personnel at various points in the schedule.

On-Demand Scheduling

One alternative to using a balanced schedule is to use on-demand scheduling, or a *short schedule*. An on-demand or short schedule is a type of schedule that follows the fair labor standards act (FLSA) 7k exemption for public safety scheduling and does not use the traditional 40-hour workweek to define the schedule or payment of overtime. In a short schedule, the department schedules officers fewer hours than required during any given month. This results in a circumstance in which the agency can use the unallocated hours in a flexible manner to cover meetings, training, special events, or predictable leave (e.g., vacation) as the scheduling needs demand. This type of the schedule is substantially more efficient than a balanced schedule because it is possible to adjust the work schedule on an ongoing basis and to respond to shift demands without the need for overtime or substantial over-scheduling of personnel.

There are myriad variations of short schedules, but the theory is rather simple. In a short schedule, the department schedules officers fewer hours than required during any given month. This process typically involves the creation of a schedule shell, in which the department ensures filling all shift minimums. In this format, there is also some over-scheduling involved, which allows for immediate backfilling of shifts vacated due to leave requests; however, the design of these schedules does not include the significant peaks that often occur within a balanced schedule. Instead, the amount of over-scheduling of staff is reduced, which creates more efficiency in terms of personnel usage.

In contrast to a balanced schedule, when staff request leave time (for whatever purpose, other than unscheduled sick leave) and there are insufficient overscheduled resources to accommodate the request, the agency can use unallocated time from patrol staff to fill the void. This can provide tremendous flexibility for the agency, help ensure that staff are able to take leave time when requested, even during peak demand periods, and help reduce overtime costs. Unallocated hours can also be used to cover training time or other special work details.

Despite its efficiency, there are some drawbacks to this type of schedule. Administering the schedule is time-consuming, as it requires constant monitoring to ensure FLSA compliance, and there are many logistics involved in establishing the protocols for when and how unallocated hours will be scheduled. In addition, because some shift hours are unallocated and they are added to the schedule as the need demands, this type of schedule includes a level of inconsistency and unpredictability for officers in terms of knowing their work schedule in advance. On-demand scheduling is also new to most agencies, officers, and finance departments, and there are some bookkeeping complexities. In short, the agency pays each officer 80 hours of straight pay (a *salary* of sorts) per two-week pay period, regardless of how many hours they work. This means an officer may work 66 hours and collect 80 hours of pay, or the officer may work 95 hours and collect only 80 hours of pay. In some cases, moving to an on-demand schedule requires extensive coordination with the Finance Department so that it can understand and buy into the dynamics.

One other significant issue is that using an on-demand schedule will likely greatly reduce overtime within the agency. From a fiscal perspective for the agency, this is a very good thing;

however, some staff become reliant on a regular stream of overtime pay, and when the stream of overtime money is substantially reduced, they may face personal budget issues. The department must understand this possible side effect and take steps to ensure that staff are aware of this change.

Base + (Base-Plus) Schedule

Another scheduling option for departments to consider is a Base +, or base plus schedule. A base plus schedule combines some of the factors of a balanced schedule with an on-demand schedule. In a base plus schedule, the main framework, including the schedule rotation (in terms of the number of days on and off) and the number of hours per shift, also results in a number of unallocated hours for each officer. As with an on-demand schedule, the unallocated hours can be structured and monitored based on a pay-period, work-cycle, or per-month basis. Once the main shell of the schedule is built, the department can then use the unallocated hours for each officer during the prescribed cycle (usually one to two shifts per month) to backfill gaps or holes created in the schedule due to leave time, training, or other expected/predictable absences.

The primary difference between an on-demand schedule and a base plus schedule is that in an on-demand schedule, the shifts are evaluated and added on an ongoing basis, usually in 30-day increments. In a base plus schedule, the unallocated shift time is added when the schedule is constructed (usually a year at a time), but after predictable leave and training needs for the schedule are identified.

Like the on-demand schedule, the base plus schedule carries with it the same operational requirements regarding schedule administration, FLSA compliance, and following established scheduling protocols. This type of schedule has less flexibility for the agency in terms of being able to adjust the schedule throughout the year, but it provides additional stability for officers in terms of knowing their full schedule for the year, including the placement of hours that were not initially allocated.

Despite the challenges associated with on-demand or base plus models, most of the issues can be overcome by developing strong protocols and procedures for implementing this type of schedule. In summary, the use of short scheduling has many benefits, and BerryDunn encourages agencies to consider this as an option.

Section 5: Alternatives to Traditional Calls for Service Response by Police

Introduction

Many police agencies in the U.S. have been struggling with increasing call for service (CFS) workloads, while simultaneously facing ever-tightening budgets and unprecedented attrition and vacancy rates. As a result of these challenges and national trends calling for police response reform, many communities and police departments have started to consider revisions to the traditional police CFS response model.

Considering alternatives to police CFS response is not new; in fact, many agencies already use some form of CFS diversion, whether through a telephone response unit (TRU), online reporting, mobile apps, or the use of non-sworn personnel. What is different and new in the most recent discussion of CFS response alternatives is an understanding that this conversation is not simply about providing these alternatives as possible options—it is about considering fundamental changes to how police departments do business, including identifying collaboration opportunities with other organizations, and in some cases, outsourcing certain CFS types entirely.

Despite growing interest among police agencies in identifying alternatives to the traditional police CFS model, many have struggled to engage in an objective process that can produce appropriate and acceptable results. In some cases, suggested revisions have been met with resistance from staff, elected officials, and community members.

The best-practice approach to evaluating alternatives to the traditional police CFS model should expand the level of collaboration beyond the walls of the police department. The 21st Century Policing Task Force final report explains:

Law enforcement agencies should work with community residents to identify problems and collaborate on implementing solutions that produce meaningful results for the community... and; do things with residents in the co-production of public safety rather than doing things to or for them.³

Making changes to the traditional police CFS response model is an involved process that requires a thoughtful approach. BerryDunn has developed a collaborative Essential CFS Evaluation process that considers numerous critical factors, to produce data that police staff, community members, and elected leaders can rely upon in making critical decisions about

³ Final Report of The President's Task Force on 21st Century Policing – http://www.cops.usdoj.gov/pdf/taskforce/taskforce_finalreport.pdf

future public safety needs. The model uses a customized data-gathering instrument and has several key elements:

- Collaborative discussions with the project team
- Distribution of the evaluation tool internally and externally
- Collection of community and stakeholder input
- Interviews with key operational staff
- Analysis of data outputs
- Development of a findings and recommendations report

As police organizations have contemplated adjustments to the traditional police response model, a common set of questions have emerged:

- What new alternatives to responding to CFS exist or are emerging in the field?
- What are comparable cities across the nation doing?
- Is there data available on the success of these alternatives?

Below, BerryDunn provides information from research on alternative CFS responses from selected models in use throughout the U.S. The information in this section has been collected from public sources. A summary of the selected models is also provided in Table 5.1 at the end of this section.

Alternative CFS Response Models

The questions outlined above suggest research on alternative CFS models is needed to help determine the most cost-effective, appropriate, and/or innovative process for police departments to manage mental health incidents and other CFS not requiring a sworn police response. For many departments, the overarching goal of considering alternative CFS models is to identify an alternative system that provides high-quality CFS response for non-police-required services, specifically for those in need of mental health services, whether those resources are internal or external to the police department. Although alternative CFS response is commonly discussed in reference to mental health incidents (almost exclusively), nearly all active models BerryDunn researched or is familiar with involve a hybrid approach that places mental health CFS within a spectrum of incidents that could be diverted to alternative resources.

In reviewing the literature presented in support of this effort to determine the most cost-effective and appropriate ways to deal with mental health and other CFS, many of the reviewed publications and authors/researchers argue that the impetus for change started in 2020 with the murder of George Floyd. While Floyd's murder was an event that appropriately garnered worldwide attention and generated calls for police reform, historic and related research suggests that the police/mental health crisis, in particular, started long before recent events. Some have even suggested that the systematic closing down of publicly-funded hospitals and other service

reductions for people suffering from mental illness are largely responsible for the increasing challenges experienced by police personnel in managing these crisis events. So, although it may be accurate that Floyd's murder has been a catalyst for broader changes in CFS response, many agencies have been using alternative response for a long time. In fact, one of the most well-known models, Crisis Assistance Helping Out on the Streets (CAHOOTS), has been in place for thirty years.

Despite the longevity of the CAHOOTS program, most models BerryDunn researched are relatively new, and accordingly, there is little data to validate program effectiveness. While there are various models in use, the three most common types appear to be (1) officer crisis intervention team (CIT), (2) co-responder, and (3) vendor/third-party response (definitions and explanations of these models are included in Table 5.2). Each method has various degrees of positives and negatives depending on the needs of the community, and each is affected by workload demands, available staffing, and budget conditions.

Mental Health Statistics

In reviewing the literature, over the past 30 years, law enforcement has been inundated with CFS related to individuals experiencing a mental health incident or crisis. In the process, law enforcement officers have become de-facto social workers in responding to CFS involving suicidal ideation, self-harm, and those individuals who are in mental distress. Many of these individuals are also chemically dependent, homeless, and/or are transient and live off the grid, increasing the likelihood that their mental health needs are underserved.

Research suggests there are larger populations of those in need of mental health services in larger urban areas; however, this does not mean that smaller law enforcement agencies have any less of a problem. Although certain data indicate a greater need in urban areas, there is no data that suggests certain community types (e.g., urban, suburban, rural) will experience a specific CFS percentage that tracks with national statistics or averages. In short, the volume of need is not predictable based on community size, but rather, it is assessed based on the needs of each unique community.

One noted problem specific to mental health incidents is that mental health behaviors are often criminalized, and these subjects are commonly arrested and placed into the criminal justice system. Incarceration, whether at the local or state level, often further isolates individuals in need of mental health services. As an example of the volume of mental health incidents, the American Psychological Association (APA) estimates that approximately 20% of available patrol officer time is spent dealing with individuals affected by a mental health crisis in some manner. Further, a 2018 Study conducted by A. C. Watson, and J. D. Wood estimates that 6-10% of the CFS the Chicago Police Department responds to involve individuals with a mental health need.⁴

⁴ Everyday police work during mental health encounters: A study of call resolutions in Chicago and their implications for diversion - PMC (nih.gov)

In addition, information presented by Mental Illness Policy Org. highlights the increases in mental health response by the New York City Police Department (NYPD). Reportedly, in 1976, the NYPD responded to an estimated 1,000 CFS for those in emotional distress. Those numbers rose to 20,843 in 1980; 46,845 in 1985; and to 64,424 in 1998. In a paper authored by Arthur Cotton in 2017 that explored mental health response issues facing law enforcement, the author found that an estimated 5-10% of CFS he reviewed were mental health related.⁵ Although these studies point to a significant service need, reliable data on this volume is not available.

One significant complication to an accurate and true representation of how many CFS are mental health related involves inconsistent and inaccurate data collection and coding (a national condition and one BerryDunn observes with many police agencies). For example, some incidents are coded as criminal activity, some are coded as a medical-related, and others are coded as service-related (and numerous other inaccurate code categories). Moreover, many legitimate criminal, medical, or service incidents have mental health connections, even if a mental health crisis did not prompt the interaction, and even if professional mental health staff did not report to the scene. These coding issues—and failures to document a mental health connection with any CFS—create problems in developing a clear picture of the volume of mental health needs in any geographic area. This impacts the ability of the agency to quantify the need, which complicates the proper staffing level for alternative CFS response. Additionally, even if a particular agency codes these incidents in a manner that can be used to identify volumes, the lack of national standards in data collection and reporting makes cross-comparisons impossible, further complicating development of an appropriate staffing model.

It is also worth noting that as indicated above, mental health challenges are often interwoven into other police CFS responses. Accordingly, agencies considering alternative CFS response should do so with an understanding that many CFS that do not originate or present as having a mental health connection, may involve one. Capturing and coding this data could be an important aspect of developing a broad understanding of the need for mental health services.

Methods of Service

A review of contemporary research across law enforcement in the United States, Canada, and Australia provides three primary styles of response to dealing with mental health crisis CFS. The first is the CIT model, which originated in Memphis, Tennessee. In this model, law enforcement officers are provided with a 40-hour training course on how to interact with those individuals in mental distress. This model still involves a law enforcement response, and officers handle everything from the start of the call to final disposition. Despite this focused training, there have still been problems related to unnecessary use of force (UOF), escalation, and criminalization of behavior in those CFS involving mental health issues. The overall cost of CIT training is somewhat varied, but costs around \$800 per officer.

⁵ <https://shsu-ir.tdl.org/bitstream/handle/20.500.11875/2285/1723.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>

A second primary model involves co-response, in which law enforcement is partnered with private/government social workers who respond as a collective unit to deal with those calls identified as someone experiencing mental health distress or crisis. Co-responding officers commonly do so in plain clothes to soften their presence, and they generally respond with a social worker or other professional staff member. Most often, these units are secondary responders who are summoned after a primary police department unit has arrived and assessed the situation. Many co-responder units only work Monday through Friday, typically from 8 a.m. to 4 p.m. As part of this model, some agencies have also started to staff social workers and mental health professionals in dispatch centers, to help triage the CFS, and to help dispatchers determine appropriate uniformed response, diversion to CIT units, or diversion to other officers or social workers.

A third primary model involves private vendors who are contracted or hired by community agencies to respond exclusively to mental health CFS, or welfare checks and other identified CFS. These teams typically include non-sworn civilian personnel, and generally include a two-to-three-person response, most commonly in a van that is equipped with general service items for the team's use, and/or food, water, or other essentials, so they can provide some modicum of services to those who do not want additional or formal intervention. The most notable examples of this model include CAHOOTS in Oregon, Support Team Assisted Response (STAR) in Denver, and Canopy in Minneapolis. There are other programs that mirror this model in several ways; however, some of those programs target specific populations (e.g., unhoused) and/or do not have a mental health service focus.

BerryDunn notes here that there are innumerable variations and iterations of models (particularly for mental health and mental-health-related incidents) either in use, or proposed for implementation. However, succinctly, these models can be broken out into three main categories:

- Use of specifically trained sworn police personnel (CIT)
- Use of a co-response model with the police and professional personnel trained as social workers and/or mental health staff
- Contracted services, which operate largely independent of the police department, but which may request assistance based on certain conditions

Given the challenges associated with mental health CFS response, and recognizing that many CFS may include mental health issues that were not apparent at the time of the CFS, BerryDunn recommends that departments consider CIT training as a mandate for all primary responding police personnel. This is true regardless of whether or not the department chooses an alternative response model for CFS and known mental health incidents.

Staffing Models

In reviewing the literature, websites, and related public information, there are a very limited number of 24-hour response teams; this is typically due to cost issues and workloads, but may also be affected by difficulty in securing and retaining qualified staff. Generally, 24-hour

response teams appear to be isolated to large urban areas such as Eugene, Oregon, and Minneapolis, Minnesota. For Denver's STAR program, the original pilot included a staffing model for only Monday through Friday, 8 a.m. to 4 p.m., with only one van working the entirety of the patrol response area. Stakeholders found this unacceptable, increased funding, and expanded the service hours to include longer days and the entire week; however, they do not staff a 24-hour model.

For smaller communities, staffing one or two daily shifts with professional co-responder personnel may provide for diversion of a significant volume of mental-health-related and other CFS, while balancing overall costs.

Funding

Most of the funding sources for these projects appear to be direct line items created by governmental entities, or collaborative grants/partnerships with other government partners (i.e., county/state hospital with local law enforcement). CAHOOTS is a private collaboration between the White Bird Clinic, the City of Eugene, and the Eugene Police Department. Based on BerryDunn's research, expended resources/funds related to co-responder and contract/vendor services demonstrate a positive relationship between allocated budget dollars and services rendered, which allows law enforcement officers more time to respond to non-mental health issues. Despite this apparent/reported correlation, there is no known data that specifically quantifies and demonstrates this perceived/reported benefit.

In addition, it is worth mentioning that one of the challenges with the third-party vendor/contractor response model is the turnover and burnout of employees. This has become an even more significant issue recently, as some communities have had difficulty finding qualified candidates to fill these positions. It should also be noted that the vendor/contractors still commonly rely on police to respond first to an incident, and many regularly call police to respond to an incident because they feel unsafe, and/or because dispatching the co-responder unit was inappropriate, based on inaccurate or incomplete 911 information, or a misunderstanding of the person taking the call.

Grants

There appears to be an increase in federal government grants that can be used toward creating units that deal with mental health issues. Federal grants have been available through the Bureau of Justice Assistance (BJA) and the National Institute of Justice (NIJ), for example. In some cases, grants have also been issued for sustaining alternative mental health services. There have also been community block grants, private foundation grants, and grants through the U.S. Department Health and Human Services. This is an area that interested agencies should explore as they pursue an alternative response model.

Health care insurance providers, as well as hospitals, have also been contacted recently by communities to help with funding of units to deal with mental health problems, and to triage patient entry into their own medical systems. Managing these conditions in the field frees up emergency rooms, and helps hospitals dedicate time to other emergent needs. Additionally,

depending upon qualifications and services provided, it may be possible to recover some costs through direct insurance billing.

Creation of Unit

The research reviewed suggests that there are some keys to developing a successful unit to deal with mental health issues. These include:

- Development of a solid leadership foundation between all partners/stakeholders to utilize this new engagement methodology
- Standardized policies and procedures which demonstrate the duties, roles, and responsibilities (including communication center protocols)
- Clear contracts for services between partners that also demonstrate duties, roles, responsibilities, and costs
- Appropriate data coding, reporting, and analysis, to evaluate program success

There are also indications in the literature that workers assigned to these units should be offered and afforded the chance to seek mental health support through various means, and minimally, through an employee assistance program (EAP) model. This is important because many of these workers, like law enforcement personnel, experience secondary trauma in managing these incidents.

As with any program of this size and nature, continued programmatic review should be conducted to help ensure that performance metrics are clearly being met. There are various reasons for this, but chief among them is to demonstrate that the programs are successful and producing intended and expected results. Program evaluation can also assist in identifying process and policy improvements.

Despite the need for such programmatic review, there is very little research data with which to conduct a cost benefit analysis in the utilization of these programs. Although CAHOOTS has been operating for thirty years, and available data suggest it is successful, there has never been a full program review of the CAHOOTS model (or any other model BerryDunn identified in the literature).

Criminal/Violent CFS with Mental Health

In all instances, research suggests that CFS with a criminal or violent nexus should continue to be managed by sworn law enforcement personnel, regardless of any known or suspected mental health overtone. This is also consistent with Essential CFS Evaluations BerryDunn has conducted for police departments.

Conclusion

The research is clear that utilizing alternative CFS response methods has the potential to produce some important benefits:

- Freeing up sworn law enforcement time to manage more pressing CFS
- Providing more appropriate mental health interventions to those in crisis
- Reducing trauma (and UOF) for those in need of services

By all accounts, diverting CFS to other resources, internal or external, relieves a portion of the work burden typically managed by sworn officers. Given the service demands faced by a growing number of police departments, this is an important benefit.

Similarly, it is inarguable that providing professionally trained social workers and/or mental health workers improves the interactions between those in crisis and responding personnel. Additionally, because of their focused vocation, professional staff are better equipped to provide counseling and connections to other resources, and they are more adept in de-escalating tense situations involving mental health circumstances.

The common alternative response models include:

- Use of specifically trained police personnel (CIT)
- Use of a co-response model with police and professional personnel who are trained as social workers and/or mental health staff
- Contracted services, which operate largely independent of the police department

Departments can experience one or all of the above-listed benefits (among others) by engaging either a co-responder or contracted services model. However, cost remains a factor. Despite the potential for the above-listed benefits, there is a lack of data to confirm or refute the financial benefits of alternative CFS response models. Although it is well-established that certain non-sworn police personnel could manage certain CFS at a reduced cost, utilizing professional staff and/or engaging contracted services may not necessarily reduce costs to a city or department. This can be affected by the model used and the volume of service demands. Arguably, however, even if cost reductions do not result from implementing an alternative CFS response model, aligning responding personnel with appropriate CFS types will likely produce positive outcomes more consistently.

Although there are notable benefits to alternative CFS response, it would be cost prohibitive in all but the largest communities for departments to staff an alternative response program that operates 24-hours per day. This is because, for smaller communities, there is not enough workload volume to support development of a 24/7 alternative service response unit. In most cases, overnight personnel would be idle and underutilized. For these communities, utilizing a part-time/hybrid model is likely a more cost-effective solution.

Table 5.1: Summary Research on Prevalent Alternative CFS Models in Use

City	Model	Data/Notes	Costs
Eugene, Oregon	<p>CAHOOTS: Crisis Assistance Helping Out on the Streets Organization: White Bird Clinic.</p> <p>Alternative response, welfare checks, street, and dispatched-based workers. Each CAHOOTS response includes at least an EMT and a crisis response worker, and they may request assistance from police or paramedics as they see fit.</p>	<p>High-level data suggests that 20%* of the CFS appropriately triaged are resolved without law enforcement intervention.</p> <p>*This percentage may be inaccurate.</p> <p>CAHOOTS has worked with 13 cities during May/June 2021. Pilot programs are currently happening in Denver, Houston, Los Angeles, Portland, Oregon, and Rochester, New York.</p> <p>Common CAHOOTS response categories:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Check Welfare • Assist Public – Police • Transport • Suicidal Subject • Disorderly Subject • Traffic Hazard • Criminal Trespass • Dispute • Found Syringe • Intoxicated Subject 	<p>Funding source: Contract/appropriation from City of Eugene. Direct funding from police department and city budget.</p> <p>Cost is approximately \$1M annually.</p>
Houston, Texas	<p>Mobile Crisis Outreach</p> <p>This is a new program that is in development and deployment.</p>	<p>Limited information and no published data.</p> <p>Changes proposed/enacted by the mayor:</p>	<p>Funding source:</p> <p>Proposed City funding:</p>

City	Model	Data/Notes	Costs
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Changed the Houston PD’s policy on body-worn cameras to allow for the release of video within 30 days • Instituted a ban on “no-knock” warrants for nonviolent offenses • Appointed a Deputy Inspector General of the new office of Policing Reform and Accountability • Signed an executive order to restructure the Independent Police Oversight Board (IPOB) and named a new board chair • Changed how the public can file complaints and access information on a newly designed website with five data dashboards regarding police transparency • Invest \$25 million in crises intervention over three years 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expand crisis case diversion; \$272,140 annually to hire four additional counselors. • Increase the number of Mobile Crisis Outreach Teams by 18 teams; hire 36 additional clinicians; local mental health authority will need funding to hire – \$4.3 million annually • Add six CIRT teams, six additional counselors, and six additional MHD at \$2.4 million annually • Implement Clinician Officer Remote Evaluation (CORE) proposal to provide telehealth technology to 80 HPD CIT-trained officers on patrol; \$847,875 annually. • Fund Citywide Domestic Abuse Response Team with a victim advocate and forensic nurse examiner; \$800,000 - \$1.2 Million annually.
Oakland, California	MACRO: Mobile Assistance Community Responders of Oakland <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community response program for non-violent 911 calls. 	Limited information and no published data. Response Categories <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intoxicated/Drunk in Public 	Funding source: City

City	Model	Data/Notes	Costs
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The goal is to reduce responses by police, resulting in fewer arrests and negative interactions, and increased access to community-based services and resources for impacted individuals and families, and most especially for Black, Indigenous, and People of Color (BIPOC) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Panhandling Disorderly Juveniles – group Disturbance Auto – noise, revving engine Disturbance Drinkers Loud Music – Noise complaint Drunk – Oakland term Evaluation for Community Assessment Treatment and Transport Team (CATT) response Incorrigible Juvenile Found Senile Indecent Exposure Standby Preserve the Peace Check Well Being Sleeper <p>Three teams on two shifts, day and swing, seven days a week with functioning hours of 07:00 – 15:00 and 15:00 – 23:00</p> <p>18-month pilot program run by the Oakland Fire Dept. (OFD)</p>	
San Francisco, California	<p>CART: Compassionate Alternative Response Team</p> <p>Proposed alternative response program</p>	<p>Limited information and no published data.</p> <p>Proposed Response Categories</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Person attempting suicide Well-being check 	<p>Funding source: City (\$6M)</p>

City	Model	Data/Notes	Costs
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sit/lie ordinance violations • Aggressive panhandling • Homeless encampment • Trespassing • Suspicious person in a car • Suspicious person 	
Minneapolis, Minnesota	<p>Canopy</p> <p>Two-member teams respond to 911 calls about behavioral or mental health-related crises to provide crisis intervention, counseling, or a connection to support services.</p>	<p>Limited information and no published data.</p> <p>24-hour coverage</p>	<p>Funding source:</p> <p>Direct budget/contract with City of Minneapolis – (\$3M annually)</p>
Memphis, Tennessee	<p>CIT-Trained Officers</p> <p>Officers respond without other individuals</p>	<p>Limited information and no published data.</p> <p>Research suggests higher UOF/deadly force with subjects in mental health crisis</p>	<p>Funding source:</p> <p>Direct funding/trainings costs already incorporated into the agency through city budget allocations.</p>
Denver, Colorado	<p>S.T.A.R.</p> <p>Medical/social workers</p>	<p>Limited information and no published data.</p> <p>No 24-hour response</p> <p>Original: Mon-Fri 8 hours with 1 responder van</p> <p>Current: Mon-Sun 16 hours with 4 responder vans</p>	<p>Funding source:</p> <p>Provided through a mix of police/city/county and Health Services budgets.</p>
Hennepin County, Minnesota	<p>Embedded Social Workers</p> <p>Embedded in larger agencies as co-responders</p>	<p>Limited information and no published data.</p> <p>Day Shift</p> <p>2019 Embedded PD/social workers started</p> <p>2020 Social workers at dispatch</p>	<p>Funding source:</p> <p>County ballot initiative</p>

City	Model	Data/Notes	Costs
		911 – Staffed 24hrs/day to determine and triage CFS	
Dakota County, Minnesota	Crisis Responder/Social Worker Assigned to 911 center and agencies	Limited information and no published data. 911 full coverage	Funding source: County budget
Boston, Massachusetts	BEST Co-responder; police w/trained masters-level degrees	Limited information and no published data. No information on shifts – but appears to be only assigned to two districts	Funding source: City funded
Victoria Police, Melbourne, Australia	Original Response by Police Follow-up once determined mental health issues/mental health unit responded	Limited information and no published data. Shifts and unit assignments are not identified	Funding source: Government/Health System

Table 5.2: Alternative CFS Terminology

Term	Definition
Call for Service (CFS)	<p>An action undertaken by a police patrol officer that starts with a call to law enforcement either via 911 or non-emergency number. Additionally, any time a law enforcement officer proactively engages with the public for any action that requires documentation by the organization.</p> <p><i>It should be noted that not all CFS are officially tracked, as some officer(s) engage informally with people and handle a public situation, which may or may not be a violation of law.</i></p>
Crisis Intervention Team (CIT)	<p>A Memphis-created model in which law enforcement officers are provided training to specifically deal with those individuals in a mental health crisis</p>
Co-Responder	<p>A team of a mental health worker and law enforcement officer who are specifically trained to respond to CFS related to mental health situations.</p>
Alternative Response/Social Worker Teams	<p>Non-licensed law enforcement professionals (i.e., social workers/mental health professionals) responding to triaged CFS for those relating to a mental health crisis or need for intervention.</p>
Welfare Check – Call for Service/CFS	<p>Anytime law enforcement is called/contacted for a non-criminal intervention on an individual. Includes CFS of self-harm/missing individual/suicidal ideations.</p>

Section 6: Crime Meetings and Intelligence-Led Policing

Crime Meetings and Intelligence-Led Policing (ILP)

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Section 1: Introduction and Purpose

In today's policing environment, many law enforcement organizations have developed systems to utilize crime data to measure and gauge individual and agency performance, and as a tool to inform personnel deployments, enforcement operations, and other agency efforts to reduce crime (O'Donnell & Wexler, 2013). The primary purpose of these systems is to help guide leader decision-making and to aid in the development of intentional strategies that contribute to public safety within the communities served (Godown, 2009; LeCates, 2018). There are innumerable variations and titles for these systems, but most involve the use of data that is presented, analyzed, and discussed in some type of a coordinated crime meeting (O'Donnell & Wexler, 2013). Although there is no prescribed format for this type of meeting, the intent of this paper is to provide a brief overview of the typical elements and components of police accountability and performance measurement systems, as well as guiding information to assist law enforcement agencies as they consider developing or refining these processes.

Section 2: CompStat-Based Systems in Policing

Understanding CompStat

Virtually all police accountability and performance systems that engage crime data as a measurement tool emanate from the foundation of CompStat, which the New York Police Department (NYPD) implemented in 1994 under Chief of Police William Bratton (O'Donnell & Wexler, 2013). The term *CompStat* refers to computer comparison statistics (Godown, 2008) and involves the “scientific analysis of crime problems, an emphasis on creative and sustained approaches to solving the crime problems, and strict management accountability” (Reducing crime through intelligence-led policing, 2008, p. 2). CompStat emphasizes a strategic approach to identifying community and crime issues, and providing intentional and focused solutions to address them (O'Donnell & Wexler, 2013, p. 2). This CompStat process also includes accountability for leaders and managers who are responsible for carrying out these strategies and producing results (O'Donnell & Wexler, 2013, p. vii).

The CompStat process consists of four core components:

1. Accurate and timely intelligence
2. Effective tactics
3. Rapid deployment
4. Relentless follow-up and assessment

(O'Donnell & Wexler, 2013)

To provide additional context, the Los Angeles Police Department (LAPD) has expanded the description of these four core components, and includes the following summary of the CompStat process in its meeting materials:

1. Collect, analyze, map, and review crime data and other police performance measures on a regular basis
2. Create best-practice strategies to address identified issues and implement these strategies in real time
3. Hold police managers and employees accountable for their performance as measured by these data; and
4. Consistently review and repeat the process

(Godown, 2008, p. 2)

Although it contains four core components, CompStat has also been described in a more simplified manner as a process that involves a two-pronged approach. The first prong examines

the data, while the second prong examines the agency response to the problems, including consideration of the effectiveness, efficiency, and ability of the agency to address crime and community problems using the strategies the agency has engaged (Godown, 2008). Within this context; however, it is important to understand that CompStat is “not a solution. It’s a method to obtain solutions” (O’Donnel & Wexler, 2013, p. 2). Essentially, CompStat is a process that begins with data, but the operational value of the process builds as unit commanders and other leaders ask and consider the following questions:

- What is the problem?
- What is the plan?
- What are the results to date?

(O’Donnel & Wexler, 2013, p. 2)

With the answers to these questions, the agency can formulate a plan to address any crime issues or other community problems identified, and once the plan has been implemented, the agency can evaluate the level of success of those efforts; this is the CompStat cycle. Not surprisingly, the CompStat cycle follows the same problem-oriented policing (POP) method outlined in the Scan, Analyze, Respond, and Assess (SARA) model used in community policing. The effects of applying the SARA model as a POP strategy have been widely researched and assessed as producing significant positive outcomes (Weisburd, Hinkle, & Eck, 2008); a properly designed and implemented crime meeting system has the potential to produce similar results.

Although the term *CompStat* refers specifically to the system established by the NYPD in 1994, many police agencies have adopted variations of that process providing a wide range of nuances and an equally diverse set of titles. For the purposes of this paper, the term *crime meeting* will be used synonymously to refer to all iterations of the different accountability and performance measurement systems in use, including CompStat-based systems.

The Value of Crime Meetings

In a study that sought to gather information concerning the purpose and value of crime meetings, researchers surveyed 166 police departments currently using them. The respondents cited five primary reasons for their use:

1. Identify emerging problems
2. Coordinate the effective deployment of resources
3. Increase accountability
4. Identify community problems and develop police strategies
5. Foster information-sharing within the agency

(O'Donnel and Wexler, 2013, p. 8)

The five reasons cited provide support, and form the foundation for, a series of positive operational outcomes that a successful crime meeting system can produce, as identified by the respondents, including:

1. Improved information-sharing throughout the organization
2. More autonomous decision-making, which helps empower supervisors to take action when necessary
3. An organizational culture in which all staff members recognize the opportunity for greater flexibility and creativity in problem-solving

(O'Donnel and Wexler, 2013, p. 8)

The responses to the survey mirror the experiences of other police organizations using a crime meeting system, and attest to the operational value of these meetings for law enforcement agencies in fulfilling their public safety mission (Godown, 2008; Shah, Burch, & Neusteter, 2018).

Intelligence-Led Policing (ILP)

When it was created in 1994, CompStat established a formalized process to examine and measure the effectiveness of the NYPD and its efforts to address crime and other community problems. Subsequently adopted by many police agencies, this data-driven process has been used to examine crime trends to aid police commanders in the strategic deployment of personnel. This data-driven process of examination and analysis, referred to as *predictive policing*, helps police agencies position personnel and other resources in areas where the data suggests additional crimes will occur. In theory, due to increased police presence, this approach intends to increase the likelihood of apprehending offenders in the areas targeted, and to reduce the number of crimes committed (LeCates, 2018).

The creation of CompStat was foundational in building an intentional data-driven law enforcement strategy; however, as technology and analytical capabilities improved, many police agencies increased the depth of analysis they were applying to the data available. This expanded approach, identified as intelligence-led policing (ILP), involves a focus that considers additional factors, including potential victims and offenders (LeCates, 2018), and the multijurisdictional nature of crime (Reducing crime through intelligence-led policing, 2008). From an operational perspective, ILP involves “a collaborative law enforcement approach combining problem-solving policing, information sharing, and police accountability, with enhanced intelligence operations” (Navigating your agency’s path to intelligence-led policing, p. 4, 2009).

Understanding the difference between predictive policing and ILP is important. Both involve the strategic use of data, but ILP expands the use of raw data and information, converting it into

actionable intelligence. Though the terms *information* and *intelligence* are often used interchangeably; they are not the same. All data is information, but data that is analyzed becomes intelligence, and intelligence data provides a higher level of understanding, which can contribute to improved decision-making and policing strategies that have a greater potential for success (Navigating your agency's path to intelligence-led policing, 2009).

In the same way that ILP has expanded upon the predictive policing model, ILP deployment strategies also involve an expansion of the steps involved in a typical crime meeting system. The steps in an ILP process include:

1. Executive commitment and involvement
2. Collaboration and coordination throughout all levels of the agency
3. Tasking and coordination
4. Collection, planning, and operation
5. Analytic capabilities
6. Awareness, education, and training
7. End-user feedback
8. Reassessment of the process

(Navigating your agency's path to intelligence-led policing, 2009, p. 7)

To be clear, ILP is an expansion of the crime meeting system. It includes both the core elements of crime meetings and predictive policing, which are expected to be used in conjunction with a coordinated ILP process.

Section 3: Implementing Crime Meetings

Many police agencies have successfully implemented crime meeting systems, and many have integrated predictive policing and ILP as key strategies (O'Donnel & Wexler, 2013). There are several areas that police agencies should consider to help ensure success in developing and implementing a crime meeting system. The first, and perhaps most important consideration, is that law enforcement leaders should start with the end in mind. The development of a crime meeting system should begin with two very important questions:

1. Why are we holding crime meetings?
2. What do we want to accomplish?

(O'Donnel & Wexler, 2013)

Like many other aspects of law enforcement, there is no one-size-fits-all solution for developing a crime meeting strategy. Each agency and community is unique, and it is incumbent upon law enforcement leaders to develop a process that will meet both agency and community goals and needs. Answering these questions can help the agency define the purpose and intended outcomes for the crime meeting system, which will ultimately drive numerous other operational aspects of the crime meeting system.

Important Considerations

There are several things law enforcement leaders should consider and keep in mind when implementing a crime meeting system. It is important to recognize that crime meetings should be regarded as part of an overall agency strategy to improve individual and agency performance and to reduce crime. As mentioned previously, crime meetings are not solutions; they are methods for developing solutions. Additionally, crime meetings should be regarded as tools to aid in developing operational and deployment strategies, but they should not be the only methods used to address crime and community problems, and individual or agency performance (O'Donnel & Wexler, 2013).

In many agencies, the primary measure of success or agency performance involves an analysis of various statistics, including arrests, crime rates, traffic citations, and crash rates. Although these metrics are important, there are other operational areas that the law enforcement agency should consider quantifying and monitoring. Just as predictive policing evolved and paved the way for ILP, crime meetings can also be used to monitor and promote community policing efforts, leading to a host of positive outcomes, such as increased public trust and improved community relations. In addition, by their nature, crime meetings increase internal communication within police agencies, and as a result, can serve as platforms for promoting organizational and cultural change (Shah, Burch, & Neusteter, 2018).

When establishing a crime meeting and performance measurement system, police agencies also need to be mindful of the adage, “What gets measured gets done.” Most police officers are accustomed to having their performance monitored, and much of that monitoring has been volume-based (e.g., number of citations, arrests, complaints). If certain metrics are prioritized, police officers will generally adjust their work behaviors to match expectations. Accordingly, police agencies should carefully consider what items to prioritize and how to measure those items. To help ensure a strong strategy for performance measurement, police agencies should consider the following:

- If only activity data is measured, this can lead to prioritizing numbers over outcomes
- When leaders fail to engage line staff in developing measurement metrics, this can lead to inaccurate or incomplete information regarding their activities
- Although most traditional crime meeting models have not done so, agencies should measure and monitor community perceptions of safety, crime, or agency performance
- The crime meeting system should include measuring individual and agency efforts in community policing, and problem-solving

(Shah, Burch, & Neusteter, 2018, p. 7)

Suggestions for Success

To help ensure the success of the crime meeting system, agencies should consider the following tips:

- The information used for the crime meetings must be current and provided in a timely manner; stale information is of little use.
- Any response or plan developed for addressing crime or other community problems must include a specific set of strategies; it is insufficient to simply throw resources at a problem. Part of the response process involves clearly identifying what staff members are expected to accomplish.
- The ability to rapidly deploy resources to address an issue is a critical element of the process. Leaders and managers must have access to personnel, and/or the ability to direct personnel to engage in activities that support the mission.
- It is also important to monitor the strategy deployed. Monitoring the agency response must include an analysis of whether the strategy produced the intended results, and what metrics can be produced to demonstrate this. If the strategy is not producing positive results, it will be necessary to adjust the response. (Godown, 2008)
- Developing performance measures (PMs) and key performance indicators (KPIs) should be a collaborative process that includes substantive involvement from those expected to

perform the work. Equal attention should be paid to the inclusion of the community in this process, so that identified PMs and KPIs align with community needs and expectations.

(Shah, Burch, & Neusteter, 2018)

Operational Aspects

Although the following list is not all-inclusive, there are several operational aspects of crime meetings for agencies to consider as they develop their crime meeting system.

- **Agenda:** Crime meetings should follow a consistent and prescribed agenda. This is important to ensure continuity of the meetings and to clarify the progression of the meetings for anyone who may attend.
- **Attendees:** Although the list of attendees may vary, depending upon the scope and purpose of the crime meetings, attendance by command staff, and the agency head in particular, is vital to demonstrating executive buy-in. Once the base of attendees has been established, these meetings must take priority over all other work activity (except for true emergencies).
- **Frequency:** The regularity or frequency of crime meetings is an area that is widespread among agencies who conduct them, with weekly and bimonthly meetings being the most common. The interval for crime meetings should be considered and determined in conjunction with the intent and focus of the crime meetings.
- **Length:** As with frequency, meeting lengths vary greatly. Once the agency has identified the format, agenda, and purpose for these meetings, an appropriate timeline can be established. Meetings should be of sufficient length to manage the work to be completed, without being burdensome. Meeting lengths of one to two hours are commonplace. The agency may also wish to consider varied lengths for weekly meetings, with a larger scope meeting occurring monthly.
- **Format:** The agency should consider the format for the meetings, including who will moderate them. Additional items for consideration include how data will be presented and who will present it. This process might also vary from meeting to meeting, depending upon the area of focus.
- **Minutes, notes, and follow-up assignments:** The agency should assign a scribe to take meeting minutes, and to note any significant items, discussions, or developments from the meetings. Taking minutes and recording the activity of the meeting should include keeping track of any new assignments and documenting any reports on follow-up, based on assignments from the prior meeting or meetings.
- **Communication:** Minutes and all other pertinent information should be circulated throughout the agency following each crime meeting. This should be done in a timely manner, and prior minutes should be archived and stored for easy retrieval.

Section 4: Summary

Crime meetings can be important tools for agencies to use as part of an overall strategy to address crime and community problems and issues. Engaging crime meetings that integrate both predictive policing and ILP strategies can add depth to the crime meeting system, and help equip law enforcement leaders with the information and intelligence they need to guide decision-making and personnel deployments. A successful crime meeting system can provide numerous benefits that extend beyond the obvious and important aspect of reducing crime. These benefits can include improving organizational communication and critical thinking, developing positive relationships, and building and sustaining community trust. Despite the many benefits of developing and engaging crime meetings as a performance measurement system and as a strategic element of reducing crime, each police agency and community is unique. Accordingly, each agency should tailor its approach to meet its unique demands, while keeping in mind the foundational elements of these systems.

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