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NO: R145   COUNCIL DATE: September 14, 2020

REGULAR COUNCIL

TO: **Mayor & Council**   DATE: **September 10, 2020**

FROM: **General Manager, Policing Transition**   FILE: **7400-01**
            General Manager, Parks, Recreation & Culture

SUBJECT: **Communicating the City of Surrey Establishing Priorities, Goals and**
            Objectives for Policing

RECOMMENDATION

The Policing Transition and Parks, Recreation & Culture Departments recommend that Council receive this report for information.

INTENT

This report provides an update on the City of Surrey's priorities, goals and objectives for policing in Surrey.

BACKGROUND

The *BC Police Act* [RSBC 1996] ("the *Police Act*") requires the municipality to provide their priorities, goals, and objectives for policing to the police board. Section 2 of the *Police Act* provides authority to the Minister of Public Safety to establish priorities, goals and objectives for policing and law enforcement in British Columbia. Under s.24(4.1) (b) of the *Police Act* the municipality shall provide input to the police board on the "priorities, goals and objectives" of the municipality. The *Police Act* also requires that, "In consultation with the chief constable, the municipal police board must determine the priorities, goals and objectives of the municipal police department," as per S.26 (4).

DISCUSSION

The City of Surrey ("the City") has completed several activities in recent years to determine the priorities, goals, objectives and programs for policing and public safety.

Citizen Engagement

During the early phases of the police transition (April – June 2019), the City undertook a citizen engagement strategy. The City collected both qualitative and quantitative data from in-person events and an online survey. Over 12,000 pieces of data were received and analysed, and more than 4,000 people attended the 23 events between May and June 2019 to provide their input. Translators were made available at events to assist those for whom English is not the language spoken at home. Translators provided support in Mandarin, Punjabi, and Farsi. An independent

consultation expert was contracted to help develop the citizen engagement strategy, conduct the events and analyze the findings which they summarized in a report. The report on the findings was presented to Council (see Corporate Report R164; 2019 attached as Appendix "I").

The report provides a detailed summary of both the approach and the broad mix of feedback collected from citizens. The report uses thematic analysis to group like responses into key themes based on the qualitative feedback received. When asked about the priority issues that they want their police department to address the most frequently chosen issues were:

- Reducing gang activity (91%);
- Reducing drug trafficking (87%);
- Reducing gun-related crime (86%);
- Expanding youth programs (79%); and
- Reducing property crime (17%).

Several other issues were also identified with much lower frequency of responses such as: improving traffic safety, keeping public order, reducing cybercrime and cyberbullying, and expanding community outreach programs. All respondents who answered the question wanted police to be able to respond quickly to emerging issues and trends.

The findings from the consultation are consistent with previous research undertaken by the City in 2016 as part of the Public Safety Strategy.

Best Practices in Community Responsive Policing

As part of developing the rationale for the Surrey Police Service ("the SPS") and to support the City's work on the Provincial Municipal Policing Transition Study Committee ("PMPTSC"), the City also undertook research and prepared a report "*Building the Surrey Police Department: Applying a best practices in policing approach*" (Appendix "II"). This report brings together multi-disciplinary research on policing to provide background on best practices in:

- History of policing;
- Governance;
- Community responsive policing;
- Operational policing (e.g., hots spots policing, problem-oriented policing, predictive policing, focused deterrence strategies and integrated policing);
- Law enforcement recruitment, including hiring for diversity;
- Recruit training;
- Policing information management and information technology; and
- Organizational health and well being in police organizations.

This report assisted the PMPTSC in coming to consensus around the proposed model for the SPS and provides important background information to support the Chief Constable in determining the operating model.

Public Safety Strategy

Launched in 2016, the City's Public Safety Strategy was a comprehensive, collaborative and measurable approach to identifying and implementing strategic initiatives for public safety around four priority areas:

- Preventing and reducing crime;
- Ensuring safe places;
- Building community capability; and
- Supporting vulnerable people.

The strategy involved every department of the City and many social service agencies and other parties. Built and delivered through a collaborative process, in 2018 a report was provided to City Council on the measures associated with the strategic initiatives (see Corporate Report R149; 2018 attached as Appendix "III"). The strategy was then embedded within City departments and a community safety team was established in the Parks, Recreation and Culture Department to continue this work.

SAFE Program

In addition to the multitude of programs developed by the City and many community partners as part of the Public Safety Strategy, the City has continued to develop and launch programs tailored to the most important issues facing our community. An example of this is the Surrey Anti-Gang Family Empowerment "the SAFE" program. The City leads a team of 10 agencies and government organizations to deliver 11 programs targeted at early intervention with youth in Surrey to ensure they are not on the pathway to future gang involvement. The programs are a combination of one-on-one support to youth and family support and intervention programs. The program is funded by Public Safety Canada and represents an $7.5M investment in crime prevention with youth and their families. A presentation was recently provided to City Council on the program activities to date (attached as Appendix "IV").

Next Steps

As shown, the City of Surrey has done a great deal of work to determine priorities, goals and objectives for policing and public safety in Surrey, and to develop best practices programs that directly address those priorities. The City will continue this work. Further work will be done in coming weeks and months to update the priorities, goals and objectives of the City through Council. As those are confirmed they will be forwarded to the Board to assist in the strategic planning and priority setting of the Board and the SPS.

A corresponding Surrey Police Board Report has also been prepared and forwarded to the Surrey Police Board ("the Board") for the September 15, 2020 Board meeting.

SUSTAINABILITY CONSIDERATIONS

The work of the Police Transition Department supports the objectives of the City's Sustainability Charter 2.0. In particular, this project supports the Sustainability Charter 2.0 theme of Public Safety. Specifically, this project supports the following Desired Outcome ("DO") and Strategic Direction ("SD"):

- Public Safety DO4: Local residents and businesses are connected and engaged within their neighbourhoods and with the broader community – including police, public safety partners and social service agencies – to enhance safety.
- Public Safety SD3: Ensure programs, policies and initiatives exist along the public safety continuum, and support the entire community.

CONCLUSION

Setting priorities, goals and objectives for the SPS is a responsibility of the Board. The City is responsible for providing feedback to the Board on the priorities, goals and objectives of the municipality.

Early groundwork completed by the City can inform this work and should be augmented by the SPS's own research and engagement with the community. This report outlines other considerations for the Board in confirming its priorities, goals and objectives for the SPS.

Terry Waterhouse
General Manager, Policing Transition

Laurie Cavan
General Manager, Parks, Recreation & Culture

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Appendix "I" - Corporate Report R164; 2019
Appendix "II" – Building the Surrey Police Department: Applying a best practices in policing approach
Appendix "III" – Corporate Report R149; 2018
Appendix "IV" – Presentation on SAFE program to City Council

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CORPORATE REPORT

NO: **R164**   COUNCIL DATE: **July 22, 2019**

REGULAR COUNCIL

TO: **Mayor & Council**   DATE: **July 18, 2019**

FROM: **General Manager, Policing Transition**   FILE: **7400-01**

SUBJECT: **Policing Transition - Citizen Engagement Strategy Update**

RECOMMENDATION

The Policing Transition Department recommends that Council receive this report for information.

INTENT

The intent of this report is to inform Council of the results of the Citizen Engagement Strategy for the Policing Transition project.

BACKGROUND

On November 5, 2018, Council unanimously endorsed a Motion presented to Council, (RES. R18-2087) that directed staff to "take all appropriate steps to immediately create a Surrey Police Department in accordance with the BC Police Act. Council further directs staff to notify the Federal and Provincial governments that the City of Surrey is terminating its contract for the RCMP municipal police service".

Following the motion, the City created the Policing Transition Department and took several actions, including:

- Notification of intent to terminate the Municipal Police Unit Agreement ("MPUA") to the Province of British Columbia and the Government of Canada;
- Creating an Internal Management Committee to oversee the transition process and guide the Transition Team;
- Forming an internal Transition Team;
- Signing a Technical Assistance Agreement ("TAA") with the City of Vancouver and the Vancouver Police Department ("VPD") to secure expert advice and technical support to build the Transition Plan;
- Holding regular meetings and ongoing liaison with the Solicitor General – Police Services Division;
- Submitting on May 22, 2019, the Surrey Police Transition Plan (the "Plan") to the Solicitor General for review and approval; and

- Publicly releasing the Transition Plan on June 3, 2019.

DISCUSSION

Consultation with citizens on the issues related to establishing a city police department was a critical aspect of the policing transition. Therefore, the City launched the Citizen Engagement Strategy (the "Strategy") to provide a forum for citizens to share their perspectives and insights on the development of the new Surrey Police Department.

Given the nature of the Council motion, citizens were not asked to indicate if they supported the motion; rather the consultation sessions focused on providing information to citizens on the transition and asking for their input and perspectives on priority community safety issues and the type of policing approaches they want to see in their community.

As part of the Strategy, the City undertook 23 consultation events across the community from May 17 – June 23.

The objectives of the consultation were to:

a) Inform citizens about the rationale and aspects of the transition process;
b) Obtain data on citizens' perspectives about issues that matter to them;
c) Build citizens' sense of ownership and pride in the new Surrey Police Department; and
d) Create confidence in the process of the transition and confidence that the future Surrey Police Department will deliver tangible benefits to citizens.

Engagement Approach

The Citizen Engagement Strategy was used to structure the consultation process and involved both branding and marketing and engagement events. A Surrey Police brand identity was created and shared with the public at events and used to create a coherent look and feel for all transition communications and events. This included a logo and a consultation vehicle, printed banners and collateral. The engagements took three main forms:

1. full open-house style consultation events with multiple activities, kids stations with colouring and Lego to allow caregivers time to review materials and provide feedback, survey kiosks and printed collateral elements to share all the available information on the transition;
2. pop-up kiosks with key information on printed banners and information boards and the survey kiosks; and
3. survey stations with staff using iPads to encourage survey participants in key locations.

Over the five weeks of the consultation period, 23 different events in locations across all six of the city's town centres were completed. Consultation events were held at different times of the day (both early mornings starting at 7am – to later evenings finishing at 10pm) and on different days of the week (including Saturday and Sunday and public holidays) in order to maximize availability for the public to attend an event in their area.

The consultation events began with an informational booth at the Cloverdale Rodeo from May 17-21, 2019, which focused on promoting attendance at future events.

A survey was developed to anchor the consultation events around questions regarding community safety and policing approaches and to gather consistent data across the different engagement approaches (attached as Appendix "I"). The intent of the survey was to gauge perspectives on policing issues and citizens sense of personal safety. The survey was designed to be anonymous and confidential, and as a result no personal information was collected on survey respondents. This is a standard approach for perception surveys to ensure the anonymity of respondents.

The survey was available on the website (www.surreypolice.ca) 24 hours a day, 7 days a week from May 17, 2019 – June 24, 2019. In addition, the survey was completed in person at events on iPad kiosks. The questions on the survey were optional, participants could complete only one question, or could complete all questions, or they could choose to just complete the open comment field at the end of the survey. This means that the data was analysed based on the total number of respondents per question as this varied significant across the survey questions. This is a standard approach in survey design when questions are optional.

In total, 11,103 surveys were completed, 1,083 surveys were completed at consultation events and a further 10,020 completed the survey online on their own time. In addition, participants in the survey and at the consultation events were able to provide open ended feedback. There were 1,180 comments received throughout the consultation period. In total, 12,283 pieces of input were received and analysed for the final report.

Approximately 4,000 people attended events in person. At these events, the role of staff was to encourage participation from members of the public, answer questions and explain the information available as required and assist individuals for whom English was not their primary language. Individuals for whom English was not their primary language were encouraged to complete the card in their own language and the City had this feedback translated after the event to include it in the analysis. At most events, the City had staff who could converse in Punjabi, Hindi, Mandarin, and Arabic. These staff were also available to translate the printed materials and banners and answer any questions in the individual's home language.

The first ten events occurred prior to the release of the Transition Plan, and 13 events were completed after citizens had a chance to review the details published in the Plan. This had some impact on the findings with citizens' perspectives being stronger at the outset about issues of process and transparency with less feedback on this being received after the Plan was made public. In general, the earlier events received a higher turnout of citizens on average with less attending each event on average after June 3, 2019.

Preliminary Findings

Key findings from the survey and other feedback received during the consultation period are summarized in the Report on Citizen Engagement Strategy (the "Report") and attached as Appendix "II". The report provides a detailed summary of both the approach and the broad mix of feedback collected from citizens. The report uses thematic analysis to group like responses into key themes based on the qualitative feedback received. The results of the survey provide a broad array of the perspectives of citizens that will be used to inform the Implementation Plan for the Surrey Police Department.

When asked about the priority issues that they want their police department to address the most frequently chosen issues were:

- Reducing gang activity (91%);
- Reducing drug trafficking (87%);
- Reducing gun-related crime (86%);
- Expanding youth programs (79%); and
- Reducing property crime (17%).

Several other issues were also identified with much lower frequency of responses such as: improving traffic safety, keeping public order, reducing cybercrime and cyberbullying, and expanding community outreach programs.

When asked about the key aspects of policing that they want to see in Surrey, citizens who completed these questions supported the policing approaches outlined in Table 1.

Policing Approach	Percentage			
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I want a police department that is locally led	90	3	2	5
I want police officers that build their career in Surrey and know the community well	92	6	2	0
I want increased uniformed patrols in their neighbourhood	92	5	2	1
I believe that police priorities should be based on issues important to Surrey citizens	92	6	1	1
I want a proactive police department focused on solving crime	93	6	1	0
I want police officers from diverse backgrounds to represent our community	92	7	1	0
Our police service should balance effort between crime prevention and enforcement of laws	91	8	1	0
Our police department should focus more on violent crime than property crime	88	7	4	1
I want a police department that emphasizes crime prevention programs	66	30	3	1

Table 1. Support for Key Policing Approaches

All respondents who answered the question wanted police to be able to respond quickly to emerging issues and trends. In addition, questions focused on citizens' perceptions of safety, responses to these questions are outlined in Table 2.

Personal Safety	Percentage			
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I feel safe in my home	8	8	83	1
I feel safe in my neighbourhood	6	7	3	84

I feel comfortable in Surrey's public spaces at night	3	6	6	85
I feel fine letting my children play outside in my neighbourhood	4	7	4	85

Table 2. Responses Regarding Personal Safety

The report also summarizes the analysis of the open comment fields in the survey and the physical comment cards submitted by people attending events. The report groups this qualitative feedback into two parts: suggestions received from citizens regarding policing; and concerns raised about establishing a police department and/or about the transition process. It is important to note that a given comment card or open comment field on a survey could include multiple suggestions or concerns which makes it inappropriate to quantify these cards beyond grouping them by theme. Feedback was analysed to assess key themes that can help inform the transition process and inform the future operation of the Surrey Police Department.

The report provides more detail on each suggestion and concern, the main areas of feedback are listed in Table 3 below.

Suggestions from Citizens	Concerns or Issue Raised
Address drug and gang prevalence	Concerns about phasing out the RCMP
Eliminate gun violence	Concerns about tax increase
Reduce crime	Concerns about the City being able to afford a Surrey Police Department
Emphasize community engagement	
Engage youth/create more youth & school programs	Keep the police independent from politics
Ensure police presence in the community	Create a transparent cost projection
Shorten police response times	Hold a referendum
Hire more officers	
Ensure police officers are local	
Address homelessness	
Avoid racial profiling	
Address sex crimes	
Reduce the number of sex workers on the streets	
Make crime statistics more public	

Table 3. Summary of Open Comment Feedback

Next Steps

The key findings outlined in the report provide important feedback for the City as it moves from planning to implementation of the Surrey Police Department. Suggestions provided by citizens can be used to inform the Implementation Plan for the Surrey Police Department. In addition, feedback on the transition process will be considered as the City moves forward with communications regarding the transition.

The City's Policing Transition team is now refining the implementation plan based on work underway across City departments and based on the key findings of the Citizen Engagement

Strategy. The Implementation Plan will guide the next phase of the project once approval is received from the Solicitor General to establish the Surrey Police Department.

SUSTAINABILITY CONSIDERATIONS

The work of the Citizen Engagement Strategy supports the objectives of the City's Sustainability Charter 2.0. In particular, this project supports the Sustainability Charter 2.0 theme of Public Safety. Specifically, this project supports the following Desired Outcome ("DO") and Strategic Direction ("SD"):

- Public Safety DO4: Local residents and businesses are connected and engaged within their neighbourhoods and with the broader community – including police, public safety partners and social service agencies – to enhance safety.
- Public Safety SD3: Ensure programs, policies and initiatives exist along the public safety continuum, and support the entire community.

CONCLUSION

Citizen engagement is a core element of the policing transition process. A key rationale for the transition to a municipal police service is that this enables policing to be responsive to local needs and issues. Through a coordinated public information and engagement campaign, the City gathered input to priorities for the new Surrey Police that will inform implementation and operation of the new department. The feedback outlined in the Report on Citizen Engagement Strategy will help inform the deployment model and help set initial priorities for the new Surrey Police Department.

Terry Waterhouse
General Manager, Policing Transition

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Appendix "I" – Survey Questions   *Appendices available upon request*
Appendix "II" – Final Report on Citizen Engagement Strategy

Building the Surrey Police Department:

Applying a Best Practices in Policing Approach

This document is based on considerable empirical and grey literature research and a full reference list is available on request.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Under the British Columbia *Police Act*, the council of a municipality with a population over 5,000 is responsible for the expenses necessary to generally maintain law and order in the municipality. They may choose to police their community by means of a municipal police department governed by a municipal police board or to contract with the Province to provide the services of the RCMP. In November 2018, Surrey City Council unanimously passed a motion directing staff "to take all appropriate steps to create a Surrey Police Department in accordance with the BC *Police Act*." The City then informed the Province that, as per the Municipal Police Unit Agreement (MPUA), they would terminate the contract for RCMP services on March 31, 2021.

Since then the City of Surrey has been working with stakeholders to put the necessary plans in place to ensure an orderly transition of police services. The purpose of this document is to outline the necessary best practices in policing that will be core to the development and operation of the Surrey Police.

2. THE HISTORY OF POLICING

2.1 The Legacy of Peel's Principles

To best understand Canada's modern system of policing and governance, a quick outline of its roots is instructive. The current system of policing in Canada can trace its roots back to England. During the period of industrialization, as English towns grew and highways were constructed, the nature of community changed significantly as they became more diversified, more complex, and more ridden with strife. By the mid-1700s, cities like London had swelled to over 640,000 people and by 1800, over 1,000,000.

In 1751, Henry and John Fielding, local London magistrates, thought that London would benefit from trained officers paid to patrol the streets. The "Bow Street Runners" have been called London's first police force. They patrolled in uniform, on foot, and armed only with truncheons. Officers were trained in rudimentary aspects of law and were held accountable for their actions by the magistrates.

In 1822, Robert Peel, the famed reformer and home secretary, was credited with Britain's most significant move towards a new policing model. In fact, Peel is known by every serving police officer in Canada and is seen as the founder of policing in all Commonwealth countries.

A series of murders in London's Wapping District in 1811 increased England's realization of its social decay, and Robert Peel's ideas for reforms were heard. Peel had two policing models to choose from: Fielding's Bow Street Runner model and the Royal Irish Constabulary, a cavalry-like unit of armed, uniformed men on horseback. Peel, fearing a

strong back-lash from the public about having what looked like a military force patrolling the streets of London, adopted Fielding's model.

In 1829, the London Metropolitan Police (the "Met") was formed. Peel was responsible for establishing a set of principles under which the police should operate, three of which are relevant to this report.

> 2. To recognize always that the power of the police to fulfil their functions and duties is dependent on public approval of their existence, actions and behaviour, and on their ability to secure and maintain public respect.
>
> 5. To seek and preserve public favour, not by pandering to public opinion, but by constantly demonstrating absolutely impartial service to law, in complete independence of policy, and without regard to the justice or injustice of the substance of individual laws, by ready offering of individual service and friendship to all members of the public without regard to their wealth or social standing, by ready exercise of courtesy and friendly good humour, and by ready offering of individual sacrifice in protecting and preserving life.
>
> 7. To maintain at all times a relationship with the public that gives reality to the historic tradition that the police are the public and that the public are the police, the police being only members of the public who are paid to give full-time attention to duties which are incumbent on every citizen in the interests of community welfare and existence.

These principles emphasized the conditional nature of police authority where police require public approval (not approval by the State), impartial service to law (independent of political policy), and accountability to the public.

After 1829, police governance was a tripartite arrangement comprised of selected citizens, appointed commissioners, and the Office of the Home Secretary, all of whom were responsible for overseeing the police. This type of governance arrangement continued in Britain until approximately 2011, when Britain introduced police commissioners. An enduring element of this model has been a commitment to the original premise that the "public" should govern the police. A variation of this model is in today's system of governance among municipal police departments in British Columbia. From 1829 to the present, the responsibilities of the common law constable have remained broadly the same. The police are:

- agents of the community;

- officers of the court, which sets them apart from the average citizen in the eyes of the judiciary;

- members of a horizontal constabulary, wherein despite the hierarchical appearance of police departments today, the power of individual police officers is the same as any other. In other words, police rank does not have the privilege of greater power over citizens;

- accountable to the judiciary, which harkens back to Fielding's idea that the Bow Street Runners report to the independent body of the judiciary; and,

- sworn to prevent crime, which emphasizes that the performance of police should be measured by the absence of crime, not their ability to detect it.

2.2 Policing in Canada

Early Canadian municipalities modeled their own police after the London "Met" model. In 1873, Canada needed a national police force to help develop Western Canada. Since there was a lot of terrain to cover, it was decided that the adopted model should involve uniformed, armed officers mounted on horseback, which was very similar to the Royal Irish Constabulary. These constables did not report to municipal governments but instead directly to Parliament. There was no effective, independent control at the local level of the Northwest Mounted Police, Royal Northwest Mounted Police, or its current iteration, the Royal Canadian Mounted Police. They were conceived as a federal police force and have been effectively "detached" from a governance perspective, from the communities they serve. In fact, to this day, RCMP offices are referred to as "detachments" indicating their enduring connection to the federal command structure.

The development of policing was just a small part of a larger struggle from the 1800s between the liberal ideologies of the Enlightenment period and global movements to embrace democratic values. Liberal values emphasized freedom and a general wariness of giving too much authority to government whereas democratic values tended to emphasize a more popularized view where the opinions of the consensus of people determined individual freedoms. Tensions only increased when considering who was asking the questions, whose voice should be heard, what was to be done with the information, and how it would impact individual freedoms. This struggle continues today as some embrace populist movements in which decisions made through consensus mean that the outcomes are good for all. Police governance has struggled with these same issues since 1829. In fact, experts have summarized the situation by stating that the principles of policing that emerged in the early nineteenth century in Britain gave shape to the belief that police are both empowered with expertise and authority, which insulates them from excess government control, but which also provides constraints through limited powers and restricted intervention into the lives of citizens.

2.3 Three Historic Eras of Policing – Political, Professional, and Community

Since its original introduction in the mid-1700s, policing has been characterized by three defining eras: political, professional, and community policing. The previous section detailed the early "political" era of policing wherein some members of Parliament, the nobility, the elites, and many citizens were not enthralled with the idea that their freedoms could be curtailed by these officers. During this era, a significant amount of corruption, abuse of power, and political sway over police appointments and activities occurred. Police were essentially an extension of the local government.

Dissatisfaction with "political" methods of policing led to a paradigm shift towards the "professional" era of policing in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. This era focused on providing in-depth training and skill development to police officers, the development of police academies, and centralization of policing. Success was primarily measured by quantitative assessments, such as clearance rates, crime rates, arrest rates, and response time to calls. However, during this era, the police grew increasingly distant from the community both intentionally, through an increasing amount of professional neutrality, and unintentionally as a result of changing technology, such as the introduction of police vehicles, which further contributed to a lack of police-community interaction. The police became primarily a reactive force tasked with responding to calls for service and investigating crimes, rather than focusing on crime prevention. This contributed to police beginning to identify as "crime-fighters" or "law-enforcement" officers focused on crime control.

The end of this era came about in the mid-1900s when increasing crime rates and fear of crime led to concerns about the effectiveness of and methods used by police. Allegations of heavy-handed police responses to a growing climate of civil rights movements in the mid-1900s, along with increasing concerns about the inability of the police to effectively control crime and disorder through traditional reactive patrol methods of the day, especially in large urban centres, led to the ushering in of a new era of community policing in the 1980s and 1990s. This was occurring just as there was increasing fear of crime among the public, largely due to well publicized violent crime which had increased significantly in the post-war decades. This trend towards community policing occurred concurrently in the United States and Canada.

The era of "community" policing emphasized a more positive connection between police and the communities they served and aimed to achieve results from improved integration of community-led initiatives and community-involved crime prevention. It recognized that, while police cannot do it all, their functions go beyond crime control and reactive policing to include police attention to non-law enforcement issues, such as providing solutions to social and physical disorder.

Community policing became an entrenched principle in Canadian and American policing with the introduction of the *Violent Crime Control and Law Enforcement Act* (1994) in the United States, one objective of which was to achieve a closer working relationship between the police and community. Still, it is difficult to clearly define "community" policing as it is interpreted and implemented differently by police agencies.

Substantial Change Continues
Policing changed significantly through the course of the three eras. The demands on civic government to be more transparent coincided with demands for police accountability and improved governance. At the same time, police became increasingly involved in complex social issues. Nowadays, police departments are forming partnerships with public, for-profit, and not-for-profit agencies who are assisting the homeless, the addicted, and people with mental health issues. Estimates in 2012 revealed that approximately 20% of

police resources are spent on dealing with files involving people with mental illness. It is well documented that those with mental illness, particularly when concurrently struggling with addiction issues and housing insecurity, are at an increased state of vulnerability. One Vancouver Police Department study showed that such individuals are 23 times more likely than the general public to be victims of violent crime. These, and other social challenges, require police to develop trusting relationships with service providers and community members who need services over the long term. They are not policing assignments that officers can conduct over a couple of shifts, but rather assignments that require long-term commitments spanning many years by the entire police organization. Such requirements can be compromised by frequent transfers of members who have developed these relationships out of specialized units to other sections, or even other detachments.

Additionally, policing often entails cross-jurisdictional investigations involving diversified criminal enterprises. Combatting these enterprises requires long-standing relationships with police in other jurisdictions—not institution to institution but person to person. Similarly, policing now requires departments to investigate cyber-crimes, cyber-bullying, and the spreading of expressions of hate. The expertise required to properly prevent and investigate these offences requires specific expertise and technical skills. Simply adding more officers is not the answer. Serving police officers will attest that conducting routine investigations simply takes longer than twenty years ago due to the added complexity of files, increasing sources of available evidence, Charter rules and restrictions, and judge-made laws affecting policy and practice.

Researchers have indicated four broad areas in which there are changing demands on police organizations.

1. **Demanding legal (constitutional challenges) and regulatory changes** – which results in more time-consuming case preparation prior to prosecution.

2. **Advances in technology** – which results in the demand for more in-depth statistical analyses requiring uniquely skilled police officers (skills and local knowledge that is lost when officers are transferred).

3. **Community demands for more police accountability** – which result in thorough inquiries such as the Arar and Ipperwash inquiries, the Oppal Commission into Policing in BC, the Murdered and Missing Indigenous Women Task Force, and the Dziekański incident at the Vancouver airport. In addition, incident reviews via the Coroners Service and the Independent Investigations Office, which conducts investigations into officer-related incidents of death or serious harm have increased community demands for accountability.

4. **Global crime trends** – which involve cyber-crime, fraud, money laundering, drug importation, and the exploitation of vulnerable people through human trafficking.

Murphy (2007:23) summarized the impacts of these demands:

> The increasing cost of public policing has a variety of implications. It will inevitably produce increasing political and public pressure to manage the costs of policing more carefully. More fiscal and operational accountability will require more evidence that police provide value for money. In addition to the use of performance measurement, there will be strong pressures to increase the cost efficiency of policing by managing costly police operations more effectively.

3. BEST PRACTICES IN GOVERNANCE

Citizens consistently call for enhanced accountability by police organizations, and indeed the governments responsible for their funding and oversight. Policing is one of the few arenas in which all three levels of government play an extremely important and hands-on role. However, it is local government that must determine the most appropriate policing model for their community and fund the chosen model. In BC, municipalities are given two options—contracting with the Province for RCMP services (the current model in Surrey) or establishing an independent municipal police service (the intended model in Surrey). The governance and accountability mechanisms in each are very different. As will be shown, governance and accountability mechanisms which allow local control are much more clearly defined with the municipal model through the BC *Police Act*. First, however, it is important to provide some context and working definitions.

3.1 Governance Defined

The literature is filled with articles defining "governance," with many of the articles reporting variations of five key themes:

Legitimacy and Voice	Are the police perceived as having the legal authority to act on behalf of the people, and do they represent the people's views?
Direction	Are there short- and long-term goals that consider social, cultural political, legal and economic factors?
Performance	Are all stakeholders consulted and are there adequate resources to accomplish the goals?
Accountability	Is there transparency? Is the public included in some way during various processes? Are there mechanisms in place to hold people responsible (accountable) for what it is they do?

Fairness	Is there an adherence to the law? Are there ways to determine equity?

For the purposes of the transition plan, the City sees governance as involving three key processes: policy formation, resource allocation, and external relations with government and other bodies, thus allowing for formal accountability.

3.2 Accountability Defined

Increasingly, public organizations are held accountable by the people they serve. In the language of governance, defining "accountability" has been challenging. Governance and accountability are often used inter-changeably, but are mutually inclusive and interdependent involving two key concepts:

1. financial reporting accountability; and

2. strategic decision transparency ("strategic" meaning those decisions that have significant effects or implications on the interests of the shareholders and other major stakeholders).

Accountability is then essentially a matter of disclosure, transparency, and of explaining corporate policies and actions to stakeholders.

The process of defining accountability often results in a highly contextualized and seemingly circular concept in that it refers to concepts that are often used as synonyms for each other: *governance, accountability, transparency, fairness,* and *integrity*. The word 'accountability' is often used as a modifier as in political accountability, financial accountability, and social accountability. Public accountability is also descriptive of a virtue, for example, "We are accountable to our shareholders, stakeholders, and the public." Accountability is a normative process that requires measuring things and making judgments about performance.

Finally, one other type of accountability to mention is one based on relationships. Relational accountability suggests that, based on a positive relationship between the parties, the party receiving the service "trusts" what they are receiving is satisfactory. It is not until something dramatic occurs that the recipient of the service might begin asking questions or attempting to hold the other party accountable. It is obvious that this is not really accountability in an objective sense, but rather accountability based on faith or tradition.

For our purposes, accountability can be defined as "the relationship between the principal (in Surrey's case the community) and the agent (the police department), where the latter is held responsible for its actions, especially as they relate to realizing its mission, strategic goals and objectives, and financial management."

In short, if the municipality is "accountable" or seen as responsible to ensure crime receives an adequate amount of attention, they must have the necessary and standardized governance structures that support such accountability. This is a critical aspect of accountability in Surrey, where successive mayors are regularly and uniquely called upon to answer the question of "why" crime is occurring and "what" they will do about it.

Stenning further points out that the context of, and call for, enhanced governance is changing for reasons such as:

- changing conceptions of democracy with public demands for more input into government;

- neo-liberalism, which has resulted in leaner governments and a desire for governments to let the free-market establish order;

- reforms in the public service which have led to more fixed-term contracts, more performance reviews, and a more service-oriented approach to professions;

- changing attitudes towards professionalism, such as increased training for police leaders and greater reliance on associations of police leaders like the International Association of Chiefs of Police to set standards; and

- the impact of increased data and technology, big data, and the ever-present cell phone videos of police action.

The outcomes of these trends are a public cry for more openness and transparency, plus increased demands for accountability by the public, politicians, and commissions of inquiry. In short, the public is demanding reforms, such as proposed in the Surrey civic election in 2018.

3.3 Best Practices in Police Governance

Governance involves the processes by which public decisions are made, the mobilization of public and private resources to implement them, and the evaluation of their substantive outcomes. There is a paradox to police governance. How is police independence ensured in a democratic, civil society that demands accountability, responsiveness, and inclusiveness?

One interesting governance question that was not fully resolved until 1955 was a reference in the *Metropolitan Police Act* of 1829 to the *office of police*, later referred to as the *office of constable*. The impression was left that police are in some way unique from other civil servants. It was not until *Attorney-General for New South Wales v. Perpetual Trustee Co. 1955 (Ltd.)* that it was decided that police officers are not in a master-servant relationship with the State or their employers. The "office of constable" is independent. Constables have power that is bestowed upon them as holders of that office and their power cannot be delegated or transferred. In short, no one (a government, a Chief Constable, a Board, a Commissioner or a citizen) can order constables to exercise their

statutory power of arrest, search, and seizure. This creates a dilemma for politicians who, respecting the decision of the courts, also do not want unnecessary surprises. So, as politicians examine the activities of the police, the idea of police independence gets raised again to insulate the constable and police from overzealous politicians.

History is full of examples of politicians attempting to influence policing.

In 1984, during the miner's strike in Britain, the Conservative government led by Margaret Thatcher wanted an end to it. The Chief Constable vigorously deployed officers against the strikers, who remained defiant. Local Police Authority then ordered the Chief Constable to disband the Mounted Police Unit, under the auspices of financial restraints. The Chief Constable refused the order and took the matter to the courts, where the judge upheld the right of the Chief Constable to refuse the order because it infringed on the right of Chief Constables to manage operational decisions within the force.

- In 2006, RCMP Commissioner Zaccardelli resigned as a result of misleading the parliamentary committee which was reviewing the Commission of Inquiry into the Arar case.

- In 2008, Sir Ian Blair, London Police Commissioner, was forced to resign because of a perceived too cozy relationship with the Labour government.

Other examples exist where the line between independence and appropriate oversight and governance becomes blurred, such as:

- politicians wanting to know details of police investigations before they are complete;

- politicians and high-profile community members attempting to get police to intervene in certain criminal investigations or wanting the police to ignore the enforcement of certain laws; and

- commissioners and politicians wanting favourable reports of crime trends.

Politicians attempting to influence policing becomes a more interesting situation in the United States where Chiefs, Sheriffs, and Board members are often elected to their positions. Johnson (2012) interviewed senior police leaders in the United States and found a laundry list of efforts by politicians to politically influence both police operations and policing policy:

- tailoring crime policies during election campaigns;

- altering police deployment in certain neighbourhoods;

- conducting arrests, or not, during public protests;

- promoting certain officers;

- prosecuting government officials cancelling or limiting money for crime prevention projects;

- altering traffic patterns;

- campaigning for senior officials; and

- funneling all police media communication through the Office of the Mayor.

All of these examples highlight a question about the degree of police independence. In 1968, Lord Denning, in *R. v. Commissioner of Police, ex parte Blackburn (No. 2) [1968] 2 Q.B. 150, 154 (Court of Appeal)* wrote:

> "I have no hesitation, however, in holding that like every constable in the land, [the Commissioner of the London Metropolitan Police] should be, and is, independent of the executive. He is not subject to the orders of the Secretary of State, save that under the Police Act 1964 …"

Denning's ruling resulted in considerable debate among politicians, commissioners, and members of police boards in the Commonwealth, who either wanted more input into how policing was done in their communities or better clarity on the boundaries of their independence.

In 1999, the *Patten Report* in Ireland differed slightly from Lord Denning's interpretation about the limits of police independence by saying that police independence was restricted to "operational" matters. In other words, police can use their discretion to guide decisions about their specific strategies and services but, in all instances, police behaviours and actions must be carried out within the oversight of the community. While they make decisions about their operational strategies and priorities and act accordingly, neither police officers nor their senior leaders are beyond reproach, and they operate with the implied consent of the people within the oversight of the police board.

Canadian courts have also tested the concept of police independence, in cases such as R. v. *Campbell, [1999] 1 SCR 565, 1999 CanLII 676 (SCC).* In this case, the Supreme Court of Canada reiterated that police operate outside of the direct control of the executive government, although within their oversight and conforming to expected standards of behaviour.

Despite superior courts from three Commonwealth countries weighing in on the issue, there is still some confusion about police independence. Perhaps the best that can be said is that the meaning of "police independence" is fluid and relational, which may be little consolation for police board members seeking clarity on boundaries. Both "operational responsibility" and "operations" remain undefined. As a practice, though, most Chief Constables will not permit Board members to inquire about investigations or make comments about what ought to or ought not to be investigated. The problem then becomes what is considered an investigation.

When disagreements surface between boards and police, there are only the following options: the Board defers to the expertise of the police and their definition of "operational responsibility," the police recognize there might be a political issue which they cannot win, or, more likely, the two parties negotiate a compromise. From the point of view of a

liberal and civil society, those negotiations should likely be more transparent and inclusive of members of the citizenry.

Stenning points out the tendency, by some, to see the principles of accountability and independence as opposite ends of a continuum. Instead, he suggests they are separate as illustrated in the figure below. This orientation allows us to see that there are situations with more or less accountability and independence, depending on which governance group was looking at which issue.

Figure 1. Accountability and Independence Ranges

For example, it is quite reasonable for police boards to have final say (accountability) on approving budgets but less accountability when considering how the budgets will be operationally dispersed. Similarly, police may have very little independence on deciding whether they have harassment policies, whereas the provincial government may have final authority on what those harassment policies might look like.

This conceptualization by Stenning opens the door for a more nuanced understanding of how power, governance, accountability, and independence are negotiated in policing. For example, Bayley and Stenning examine the scope of police independence in Table 2 below. As can be seen, the Board would have little authority on items 7 and 8; yet they would play a significant role on items 1–6. Without Board and governance mechanisms, local authorities have no means of ensuring local needs and concerns are addressed.

Increasing accountability to the Police Board

1 RESOURCING
How much, and what kinds of funds, equipment, staffing, etc. will be made available to an organization

2 APPOINTMENT
Chiefs, deputy chiefs, and assistant chiefs

3 ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE AND MANAGEMENT
How the organization will be structured, organized, and managed

4 ORGANIZATIONAL POLICIES
General policies that the organization will be expected to adhere to in its operations

5 PRIORITY SETTING
The determination of priorities with respect to how the resources of the organization will be deployed

6 DEPLOYMENT
How the organization will deploy the resources available to it, either generally or in particular circumstances

7 APPOINTMENTS AND PROMOTIONS
All ranks below Assistant Chief

8 SPECIFIC OPERATIONAL DECISION-MAKING
How a particular operation will be handled and managed

Increasing independence of the Police

Figure 2 – Independence for Police Operations, Accountability for the Board

3.4 Police Governance in British Columbia

In better understanding the role of governance in policing generally, and Canada specifically, it is important to recognize that in the federal system of government, the *British North America Act 1867* assigned the administration of justice to the provinces (section 92:14 and 15). This meant that each province could establish systems of justice that were quite different from each other.

Over time, Canada developed a confusing mixture of policing services:

- municipal police departments (like Vancouver, Abbotsford, Calgary, Winnipeg, Toronto, and Montreal);

- provincial police forces (Royal Newfoundland Constabulary, Quebec Provincial Police, Ontario Provincial Police, and, at one time, BC Provincial Police);

- regional policing (New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Ontario, Quebec, Alberta); and

- RCMP conducting policing of matters that saw them

    - exclusively taking responsibility for matters deemed the jurisdiction of the federal government (immigration, espionage, drug enforcement),

    - contracted to provide policing to large unincorporated areas of provinces,

    - taking on international policing responsibilities, and

    - providing policing services to municipalities under tripartite agreements between the Province (who had the legislative requirement to provide policing for its citizens), the municipality (who had the option to develop its own municipal police force or contract with the Province), and the federal government.

Many jurisdictions adopted similar models of governance. Most Provinces had Police Commissions, which were an arm of the provincial government with responsibility for broad policy issues such as what weaponry was authorized, what uniforms would look like, and how police chases ought to be handled. Most provinces also had Police Services Branches, which were responsible for administering non-municipal and some municipal policing matters in the province. Police Services also tended to overlap their responsibilities with those of Police Commissions.

Tracking the changes in responsibility for police governance in British Columbia sees governance resting in various hands over the last 150 years:

- completely in the hands of the Province in 1881;

- total control by police in 1886;

- police commissioners and council in 1888;

- introduction of judges in 1893;

- removal of judges in 1899;

- the introduction of provincial appointees in 1896;

- Mayors becoming *ex officio* between 1917 and1974; and

- greater introduction of provincial appointees beginning in 1974.

In BC, two pathways for police organization and police governance emerged and have remained essentially unchanged for decades. In the first pathway, municipalities established their own police department and created police boards, the composition of which varied slightly but generally consisted of the Mayor as Chair and citizens appointed

by the Province. In the second pathway, municipalities opted to use the RCMP and, therefore, did not have the option of a police board. Instead, provincial legislation allowed for municipal governments to establish advisory committees whose duties were not governance oriented. Advisory committees often were asked to "promote good relations" between the police and the community, bring to the attention of the minister any issues, and make general recommendations (BC *Police Act 1998 Chapter 367*).

The duties of advisory committees in RCMP jurisdictions are in stark contrast with those of municipal police boards, where there is clear governance language. Municipal police boards are responsible for hiring and firing, ensuring that the criminal, provincial, and municipal laws are enforced, encouraging crime prevention, approving budgets, ensuring appropriate standards and policies are established by the police department, conducting studies, and, to a limited extent, overseeing disciplinary matters.

In 1992 the Province of British Columbia began an inquiry into policing that examined all elements of policy, including police governance. The *Oppal Commission of Inquiry* (1994:6) summarized the entire issue of governance and the independence of police when it stated that two principles are critical in Canadian policing: civilian oversight and operational independence of the police.

> The first is that police who enforce our laws are ultimately responsible to civilian authorities. The second is that the police must be independent in all operational matters. They must, upon reasonable grounds, be free to investigate anyone without any political interference or any fear of political interference. It is my view that a legislative statement, enunciating the principle of police independence, is necessary.

3.5 Best Practices in Police Accountability

Police boards are often presented with a dizzying array of metrics about crime trends, arrests, clearance rates, traffic enforcement patterns, numbers of officers, deployment of officers, call response time etc., all of which represent measurements that provide data, but which often fail to get at the heart of the issue of whether the police agency is actually performing well or whether the organization is on track to achieve its goals and objectives. Police boards should know that changes in most of these statistics have very little to do with how well the police department is performing because the underlying factors that cause crime, such as poverty, homelessness, addictions, and community social disorganization are outside the control of the police.

Performance measures such as the ones described above are easy to acquire, but in order to really understand what is working or not, police boards need to undertake a far more complex level of inquiry, one that few boards have the skill or time to conduct. At a minimum, police boards can ask probative questions, since the authors of these metrics are often present at the board meetings.

Police boards represent the best way to operationalize governance and accountability mechanisms. According to Bayley and Stenning (2016:192), Boards, by way of their

membership, provide opportunities for the public to review, question, and seek further clarification on policing activities, and their successes and failures.

3.6 Accountability Applied in Policing

Determining police performance measures as an accountability mechanism

A debate often arises when looking at accountability as to whether to focus on *processes* or *outcomes*. Process accountability tends to focus only at what employees can control. For example, in a factory that makes widgets, it is possible to look at metrics like the number of widgets produced in a given time, quality of the widget produced, number of faulty widgets, speed with which the widgets are produced, time from production to market etc. In policing, a similar example would be the number of traffic tickets issued and for what types of offences, the numbers of people checked or carded, the numbers of arrests, and charges filed.

The factory that produces widgets might also be interested in looking at their percentage of the market share, the degree to which they have broadened market share, and profitability, all of which are accountability outcomes. In policing, outcome accountability might result in police boards looking for the departments to demonstrate the following results of their initiatives:

- reduced criminal victimization;

- reduced fear of crime and enhanced personal security;

- increased safety in public spaces;

- fair, efficient, and effective use of financial resources;

- legitimate, fair, and effective use of force and authority; and

- satisfaction of citizen demands for prompt, effective, and fair service[1].

Outcome accountability represents a better understanding of how well the police department is performing. Furthermore, outcome measures more closely represent the strategic priorities, goals, and objectives of the department than do process measures. Determining performance measures is not a dichotomous process. A hybrid model is perhaps best. For example, "reducing criminal victimization" will involve the counting of arrests (process accountability) but to be genuinely effective, the department would also need to determine what caused a reduction in crime (outcome accountability). Table 1 outlines an instructive, fictional, example.

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[1] Canadian Police Board Views on the Use of Police Performance Metrics.

https://www.publicsafety.gc.ca/cnt/rsrcs/pblctns/plc-vws-prfrmnc-mtrcs/index-en.aspx

Problem	A two-block stretch of the downtown core has a very high incidence of thefts, assaults and drunken behaviour. The cost to City and Province to respond to this area is approximately $1,000,000 each year (resource costs for police, fire and ambulance).
Goals	• To reduce criminal victimization in this area • To reduce the cost of responding to incidents in the area
Strategies	• Increased patrols • Working with bar owners to stagger closing times • Better lighting • Improved access to public transportation • Better liaison with Crown prosecutors to accelerate charge approval
Performance Measures	*Financial accounting or resources used by police, fire and ambulance over 1 year* • Number of reported incidents of thefts, assaults, and drunkenness • Time delay between arrest and charge approval and court • Assessment of lighting • Ridership on public transportation • Interviews with bar owners over the outcome of the imposed strategies

Table 1 – Fictional Performance Measure Example

By implementing and reporting on these measures, police enable the Board to better determine the effectiveness and efficiency of the intervention than if the police simply said the number of crimes in the two-block area has decreased. There is an opportunity to link cause and the effect but determining where that link ought to be is difficult.

3.7 Conclusion

Following a review of governance and accountability the authors of the report conclude that:

- Policing and police governance is a response to increasingly diverse social, cultural, political, and economic complexities of communities;

- Civil and democratic societies need to find a balance between the freedoms of individuals and the desire to implement order;

- A paradox naturally occurs when looking at independence, governance, and accountability;

- Society has tried to resolve the paradox through imperfect institutions; and

- Accountability measures in policing are challenging to develop, but a diligent governance structure will go a long way to ensure transparency and accountability.

When examining both police governance and accountability it becomes clear that they are indeed intertwined. In short without clear legislative mechanisms for governance, local accountability will always rely on "relational accountability" (described earlier) via the relationship between the Mayor and the officer in charge. In a City such as Surrey, that is growing and often criticized for failing to control crime, it is imperative that a best practices model for police governance is established. That model relies on the transition to an independent municipal police service.

This section of the report has demonstrated that 'enlightened' models exist that are consistent with civil, democratic societies while at the same time adhering to best practices of governance and accountability. Inserting community and community governance mechanisms into policing is vital. Bayley and Stenning tout the tripartite model, currently used by municipal police departments in most of Canada, including British Columbia. This model allows for police independence on operational matters while at the same time holding police accountable for achieving outcomes that the community believes are important to them. Bringing governance of the police back to the community allows for better control over budgets and resourcing. Implementing a police board in Surrey will allow a vibrant city to determine its future and the type of policing best for the citizens of one of Canada's fastest growing communities.

4. BEST PRACTICES IN POLICING

4.1 Best Practices in Community Policing: Towards Community Responsive Policing

Broadly speaking, the term "community policing" refers to a philosophy of policing where the community is viewed as a valued partner in crime prevention and reduction.

In this model, the community plays a central role in problem-solving. Police agencies that are effective at community policing encourage the public to share responsibility for the safety of their community. They achieve this through consultation that leads to adaptation of operations to local conditions, mobilizing volunteer resources, and fostering collaborative problem-solving.

Community policing was born from the recognition that the police cannot and should not be expected to independently solve all community problems that lead to crime. Rather, police must form strategic partnerships with a variety of community members and agencies to best detect and define community issues and problem solve appropriate solutions. Beyond creating partnerships, community policing also emphasizes that the community should play a key role in identifying and prioritizing community issues for police and their partners to solve. These issues include crime, but typically also include indicators of social and physical disorder that contribute to fear of crime and reduced quality of life.

Community policing is a well-known policing philosophy and it has been widely adopted across the world. For example, recent research reports that nearly all larger agencies in the U.S. have embraced community policing in some fashion. While most police agencies in Canada have implemented community policing, they have done so in different ways. There are a great number and variety of initiatives and strategies that have been implemented under the guise of community policing. The community policing initiatives typically include:

- public education programs;
- specialized units for a minority group;
- neighbourhood watch programs;
- neighbourhood town meetings;
- storefront mini stations;
- special problem-solving units;
- fixed patrol assignments;
- auxiliary volunteer programs; and
- community newsletters or websites.

A specific example is the Vancouver Chinese Community Policing Centre, established in 1992 to offer a specialized unit to support the Chinese community in Vancouver.

Community policing embraces the principles of problem-oriented policing. Rather than being a primarily reactive institution that responds to calls for service and attempts to resolve them at a single incident level, problem-oriented policing encourages police to take a step back to view patterns between calls for service and to identify the underlying conditions contributing to the "symptoms" of crime. Further, it promotes assessment of interventions to determine what worked, and why it worked.

Community policing involves the community as a prominent partner in identifying community-level concerns, developing strategic responses, and implementing problem-oriented strategies. It requires an organizational shift towards decentralization of police, wherein front-line officers are provided with more discretion and decision-making power in their work with the community, enabling them to identify problems and design appropriate solutions collaboratively. With its focus on identifying emerging problems within the community, this approach typically results in the police agency being proactive as opposed to reactive. Overall, community policing reflects a more systematic and strategic orientation towards community-based crime prevention.

Yet, despite the sweeping popularity of the community policing approach, research indicates that police agencies have had difficulty in shifting their mindset from a crime control-oriented philosophy to one of problem-solving and community engagement. For reasons that will be discussed in a later section of this report, policing is a notoriously difficult area within which to manage change and building a community-oriented police service presents several particularly unique challenges.

4.2 Challenges in Community Policing: An Unfinished Transition

Research has identified limited effects of community policing on a number of desirable outcomes, including reductions in crime, reductions in fear of crime, and more positive police-community relations. A study which examined the impact of community policing on crime, disorder, fear, legitimacy, and citizen satisfaction, found only a small impact on violent crime, a nonsignificant impact on property crime, and a small effect on fear of crime. Thus, community policing was only weakly related to reducing crime, at least in the short term. However, more research is required to determine whether community policing has a more significant long-term positive relationship on crime through increased perceptions of police legitimacy and community satisfaction with police services.

At the same time, it is important to acknowledge several major limitations regarding community policing research, namely, varying conceptualizations of, and operational approaches to, community policing, as well as poorly designed research studies. Researchers have described community policing as a generic term that means many different things to many different people, rendering it difficult to effectively measure the impacts of this policing orientation.

While some police agencies appear to have successfully reformed into community policing oriented mindsets, a review of common examples of community policing initiatives suggests that what is being implemented does not meet the true intention of community policing. Whereas community policing should involve the community in identifying crime and disorder problems and in developing community-driven solutions to said problems. Common examples of community policing initiatives include bike and foot patrols, basketball drop-ins, assigning officers to police specific neighbourhoods, engaging in neighbourhood clean ups and community outreach, such as attending community events, hosting 'townhalls,' or supporting neighbourhood watch programs. These are generic programs that can be easily implemented in any community and which provide increased access to police and potentially improved police-community relationships. However, in its intended form, community policing should not simply involve a selection from a drop-down list of generic programs. Rather, the initiatives implemented should vary widely across and even within cities as they should be responsive to unique community concerns and rely on the community to play a strong role in designing appropriate responses using community-specific resources, such as local programming and expertise. These programs do not reflect what many believe to be the true goals of community policing, which are to engage collaboratively with the community to identify crime, disorder, and other community concerns and to collaboratively problem solve, thereby having a measurable impact on crime and improving community-police perceptions and relationships.

Community policing has also been hampered by implementation challenges. While wholeheartedly promoted by many police chiefs, its implementation among the rank and file has frequently been met with derision. Research suggests that some rank and file officers believe that community policing is not a "real" form of police work and is an ideal place to "dump" ineffective officers. For these reasons it is difficult to shift a police agency away from a "crime fighting" orientation. In fact, research has shown that opposition can occur at each level of policing, with front-line officers perceiving that community policing is not a real form of police work, and various levels of management facing difficulty with the loss of hierarchical control that occurs when front-line officers are empowered to work with the community directly to make problem solving decisions. Further, another challenge exists when members of management do not fully understand the principles and nature of community policing, having never policed that way themselves.

Research in Turkey identified that officers who supported community policing within their own unit tended to have a strong service orientation and good relationships with citizens and had received training or already engaged in community policing. In other words, they supported community policing as they were already practising this orientation in their approach to their job. Similar characteristics identified officers who supported community policing in general, but not specifically within their own department. In this case, a strong service orientation, a good relationship with citizens, higher education (college degree), and those who are already engaged in community policing were more likely to show support for this approach.

Stronger police buy-in could be created by the provision of training that exposes police to examples of community policing, and which clearly exemplifies the purpose, methods, and potential benefits of a community policing approach. However, organizational values must also emphasize and value the role of the community as a collaborator, and the officer must internalize this orientation in order to make sense of their role as a community focused crime prevention worker as opposed to a crime fighter.

Beyond creating police 'buy-in,' there is the additional concern of successfully facilitating community buy-in. Creating genuine relationships between police and community can be quite difficult in jurisdictions with a historically poor relationship between the two. It can be difficult to convince the community to trust that the police are seeking their input and involvement, and that it is worth taking the risk to be a police partner, particularly in high-crime areas.

Breaking down the walls that sometimes separate police and the community will take time and effort. Police need to be exposed to the community in ways that allow them to build trust and confidence. Conversely, the community will need to be actively encouraged and provided with meaningful opportunities to engage in partnerships with the police; simply providing opportunities to volunteer with police is an insufficient way to internalize the role of the community in policing.

While there are documented challenges to effectively implementing community policing, clarity of definition about what it means to be community responsive can help to more appropriately shape the goals and methods of a community-oriented police agency. Transitioning away from a view of policing *of* the community to one that values policing *with* the community will start the conversation regarding transformation of a police service to one that exhibits the true intention of community policing: a community responsive agency.

As can be seen, the concept of "community policing" is problematic for several reasons. First, it is too broad and abstract a concept, resulting in inconsistent interpretations and applications. It does not strongly enough convey that policing priorities and initiatives should be community led. Many of the current examples of community policing initiatives continue to be police driven rather than truly responsive to the community's concerns and needs. Therefore, a more precise term moving forward is "community responsive" policing.

Community responsive policing more strongly conveys that the police are community led in their approaches to crime prevention and crime reduction. It provides a stronger role for the community voice in identifying issues of concern and solution design and implementation in systematic and meaningful ways. It provides opportunities for citizens to be meaningfully integrated in shaping police priorities and strategic planning. To achieve a community responsive police service requires structural reorganization, a shifting of attitudes and perceptions, and the opening of police culture.

4.3 Building a Community Responsive Police Department

While change can be difficult to achieve amongst police, there are a variety of approaches that can be used to transition a service to one that is more community responsive. Citizens should become more involved in policing by sitting on advisory councils and volunteering with the police. Broadly speaking, citizens can be 'mobilized' by police through volunteerism. When citizens are well integrated with the police it again opens communication pathways and enables police to hear about local concerns and issues, then work together with citizens to develop appropriate responses. Unfortunately, research with community policing volunteers indicates that these positions, while valued, are often no more than lip service positions, that volunteers are more likely to be in communication with a civilian employee than they are to have access to a sworn police officer, and that the activities they engage in are not truly community led nor uniquely reflective of that community's crime and disorder issues. Police agencies must consciously provide meaningful opportunities for volunteerism and use their volunteers strategically to fulfil their mandate.

Researchers have shown that while a great deal of attention has been paid to the role of the police in community policing, much less attention has been paid to the education and involvement of citizens. In building a community responsive police force, a more concerted effort must be made to institutionalize the involvement and contributions of citizens. For instance, their role can be prioritized and validated through restructuring the organization and creating a position for a civilian community responsiveness coordinator who works alongside a sworn officer to coordinate and lead change. While the initiatives and problem-solving activities should primarily occur at the front-line level, the citizen and police community responsiveness coordinators can lead the process of driving and maintaining change, providing community responsive training to those in need, engaging in the feedback loop regarding challenges and successes, and collecting and reviewing evaluation measures to adjust when required. While there is limited information available regarding the effectiveness of this approach, one example of this approach can be found in the Austin Police Department, which created a senior management position—a deputy chief of staff—who was dedicated to implementing community policing and problem-solving. Mechanisms such as this can lead to truly responsive community policing by finding meaningful ways for community involvement in the real-world issues that affect the police and hamper community safety. For example, how various communities, such as the homeless community, the mental health community, minority communities, the business community, and indigenous communities, are represented and active in community responsive policing can make a big difference in effectively identifying and addressing the specific relevant issues that impact these sub-communities.

Numerous policing experts have stated that for community responsive policing to be successful, it must be fully integrated into the underlying philosophy of the organization, as opposed to an "add-on" strategy. Integration is essential, as officers are otherwise too busy responding to calls for service to pay much attention to trying to get ahead of those calls. The organization must commit to dedicating resources to the new orientation and

provide the accompanying supervisory support to allow officers to focus on crime prevention through community engagement, rather than being called away or temporarily assigned to support other units.

Change is much more likely to be successfully implemented when it becomes an underlying philosophy practised by all members of a department. Research on leadership in policing emphasizes the importance of demonstrating the desired concepts all the way from the officer in charge through all levels of senior management. Officers also need to be provided with the authority and ability to make decisions at the ground level. For many agencies, this implies a need to restructure the organization from one that is hierarchical in nature to one that diffuses decision making responsibility among the rank and file officers.

Furthermore, this must be integrated into the methods of performance assessment. If officers are not being evaluated on the degree to which they are implementing the new community responsive policing strategies, they will continue to fall back on the more traditional methods of policing, such as by focusing on making arrests and clearing their calls for service. Therefore, the organization must build in new outputs and desired outcomes, such as the creation of new relationships and extended partnerships, creativity and innovation in problem-solving, and strong community connections.

Community Responsive Policing in Action

Research on the success of police reform towards a more community-oriented model of policing has identified several factors that either impeded the transition or which were critical to its success. Research suggests that changing attitudes regarding community-oriented policing is an essential step towards successful transformation, given that attitudes influence behaviours. Moreover, the overall likelihood of success will hinge upon being aware of and changing the underlying beliefs, attitudes, and assumptions held by those working in the organization.

Challenges with Change Management

While many police agencies strive to be innovative, change management attempts within policing have been described as "akin to bending granite." Change can be especially difficult for police when it is led by civilians, or 'outsiders' who police feel do not truly understand the nature of policing. Change is also difficult to occur when it is implemented from the top-down without the solicitation of input from those who would be most affected by the change, traditionally the rank and file officers. Effective and insightful leadership is therefore a critical element in successfully introducing and implementing long-term change within policing. Effective police leaders go beyond simply preparing the organization for the coming change. They also build capacity for change within their personnel, such as by introducing new systematic ways of thinking that reflect on the new values and methods of policing, providing training opportunities for the development of the new required skill sets, and by changing the conversation around the norms and values that are emphasized within the agency. These practices not

only create support for pending change, but also enhance the momentum and sustainability of that change.

Given the need to engage in consultations and create feedback loops to build internal support, change can take many years to implement properly. Change also rarely occurs in a straightforward fashion due to unanticipated consequences or unforeseen issues arising as new partnerships are formed, attitudes are shifted, resources are re-deployed, and new training and assessment protocols are implemented.

Models of change management can facilitate change strategically, while encouraging organizational commitment, which reflects the degree to which current employees feel dedicated to the organization and desire to remain a part of it. When engaging in reform, it is strategic and essential to include the insights and perspectives of the rank and file as this will provide them with opportunities to believe in, accept, and uphold the new organizational values, goals, and methods. Participatory change should be used by police agencies when implementing organizational reform. Strong leadership and frequent communication about what change is needed and why it is also essential for successful change management. It is important for those affected by change to understand the underlying rationale and to be provided with clarity on how the organization will support that change.

These principles are evident in one of the most well-known models of change management, proposed by Kotter. This eight-step model, outlined in Figure 3, focuses on developing opportunities for participation in shaping the direction of the change, celebrating successes resulting from the change, and finally, institutionalizing the change.

Figure 3: Kotter's Eight-Step Model of Change Management

Establishing the need for change involves creating a sense of urgency, perhaps by providing evidence of the disconnect between organizational goals and performance or outcome measures. With respect to policing, this may be accomplished by comparing the organization's crime reduction goals with traditional metrics, such as arrest rates, clearance rates, and crime rates, which, as previously noted, tell only a limited story about the organization's ability to achieve its mandate. Still, failure to achieve meaningful change on these metrics can provide a foundation for arguing that change is necessary.

In forming a powerful guiding coalition, Kotter's model emphasizes the need to develop working partnerships that work together to define the problem, identify the likely causes, and develop potential solutions. Establishing a working group or task force with a clear mandate and identified leader is a necessary second step towards introducing change.

Once the working group has been created, the third step involves creating a vision. Here, the working group is tasked to provide an outline of what the change will look like and what the anticipated outcomes are of that change. Seeking the input of others in this step is critical for creating buy-in, as those who will be affected by the change may need to be convinced that there is value in doing things differently. But beyond simply making the case that what is being done now is not working, they need also to be provided with a vision of where success can take them. In this third step, the working group should develop a strategic vision that clearly outcomes what change is needed and why, and what outcomes it is intended to produce.

The fourth step is to communicate this vision. Communication is one of the most critical factors in successful change and is especially relevant when the strategic vision seeks to move police into non-traditional roles that shift their policing orientation from one of crime-fighter to crime prevention and community responsiveness. Genuine opportunities to provide insight and credible communication of the results of that feedback can inspire others to support the vision. Conversely, ineffective communication can lead to cynicism and resistance to change, and a perceived lack of credibility amongst those leading the change.

Once input has been solicited and the strategic vision has been developed and clearly communicated, the next step is to empower others to act on the vision. This can involve the provision of physical and human resources to support the new practices. Psychological empowerment may also be needed at this stage. This may involve re-connecting with those affected by the change to assess how the change is going, and to solicit more feedback on unintended consequences of the change or previously undetected or unanticipated issues. This feedback loop can help to further reduce psychological resistance to change.

Step 6 in Kotter's change management model is to plan for and create opportunities for short term wins. This is another method of psychological empowerment, as it gives confidence to those implementing and affected by the change that the new methods are working, and it provides credibility to the change process. In particular, the working group should develop manageable goals that can be achieved within the first 12 months

of implementation. Celebrating short-term successes can not only help to reduce more resistant psychological barriers to change but can also contribute towards a greater sense of teamwork and collaboration.

Step 7 involves reflecting on change and introducing new change that responds to the progress made to date. This step uses the momentum gained in the short-term goal achievement to empower personnel to continue pushing forward. At this stage, reflecting not only on the wins achieved to date but also soliciting input on the continuing challenges can help change agents to adjust their activities to further meet and propel the strategic vision forward. This stage should also involve evaluation, where information on the successes and challenges experienced to date with program implementation is collected and analyzed before being used to formulate new initiatives to further carry out the change.

Evaluating and further refining the new approach contributes towards the final step of institutionalizing, or making permanent, the new approach. Once the vision has been implemented, short term successes have been realized and disseminated, and the approach has been adjusted as required, the new practices are ready to become the common way forward. Institutionalizing the new approach involves developing internal values and methods of performance assessment that entrench the change and make it common practice.

Successful Change Management

One researcher examined the experience of a Michigan police department transitioning into a community responsive policing agency. Notably, rather than adding on a unit dedicated to community responsive policing, this agency sought to weave a community responsive orientation throughout the entire department. They shifted police thinking away from incident response to thinking more broadly about the police role in quality of life issues, such as managing indicators of social and public disorder. Moreover, they decentralized decision making and empowered the rank and file officers to make decisions. Through these processes, community responsive policing became entrenched and institutionalized. This transformation was therefore a success, and the success was even more significant due to the cynical beliefs shared by personnel at the outset of the transformation on the likelihood that this new change would be successful, given their routine experiences of past change efforts that had failed. Given the hostile attitudes towards change, a slow process of change management was adopted, to allow for enough time to fully research the needs and issues within the department.

Creating buy-in to any new initiative is also critical for its success. As an example of soliciting input, in the transition to a community responsive policing agency in Michigan, the Chief created a committee with membership from throughout the lower ranks and then sought feedback from these personnel on their existing prescriptive policy documents and, specifically, how to reduce these down to a manageable number of more value-oriented documents. The committee's recommendations were then implemented without interference from senior management, which created confidence amongst the

front-line officers and supervisors that they could play an important contributory role to introducing and facilitating change within the organization.

A planning team with representation from approximately 25% of the department was created to envision and map out methods to achieve change. This team was composed of several volunteer officers alongside several handpicked representatives, some of whom were intentionally selected as they had shown resistance to change. The team was divided into smaller groups who were each tasked with specific parts of the plan. Although the planning team met over the course of a full year, the participants felt that their involvement was valuable and worthwhile, as they were able to help shape the practices of their organization.

When developing the ideal outcomes that would flow from their new strategic vision, input from multiple levels of personnel was actively sought and integrated. These committee members were first provided with a course on community-oriented policing before being asked to use that new knowledge to help identify and design achievable target outcomes for their agency. One identified outcome they desired to measure in the coming years was "a majority of the citizens will know the names of the officers assigned to their area." Essentially, they were asked to identify the outcomes that would help the organization to assess whether they had met their change management goals. The outcomes that the group created were therefore more meaningful to the organization and helped to motivate them to support the planned change.

The same policy of seeking input from those affected by the change was followed when it came to implementation. Again, input was sought from an implementation team, composed of various agency personnel, who were tasked with providing strategies to implement the identified six recommendations for change. They created strategies to clearly define the roles and responsibilities of officers under the new orientation, developed strategies to maintain communication between the various units following implementation as well as with their external stakeholders, and created training opportunities in community policing and problem-solving.

Rather than provide the personnel with a list of new job expectations and requirements as determined by management, the methods by which change would be introduced to the organization came from deep within the organization itself, by those who would be directly affected by the change. Therefore, the change was much more genuine in nature, and it gave members in the agency the confidence that they could effectively problem solve. For instance, one year following the implementation of their defined geographical areas, data collected during the monitoring stage indicated that a disproportionate number of calls were occurring within particular areas. The members reviewed the issue and problem-solved by creating solutions that would provide additional resources while reducing the affected area by redistributing the geographical boundaries. Thus, the agency approached this agency with same orientation as they now do for every individual call—with a problem-solving perspective.

In addition to speculating on the potential benefits and outcomes, in the Michigan transition to a community responsive policing agency, members of the working group were asked to map out anticipated barriers to successful change. Once they had completed this task, they brainstormed ways to manage the anticipated challenges. This further sold the message that the input of those most affected by the change was not only actively sought but also valued and that change would not just simply be imposed upon them by senior management.

As was evidenced in the Michigan example, for change to be long-lasting in nature, those bringing change to an organization must sell an overall vision as opposed to a singular objective. In the Michigan transition to community responsive policing, the perceived benefits and outcomes from shifting to a community responsive approach were collected from personnel working at all levels in the agency. During a series of meetings, these indicators were condensed into an overarching vision statement identifying a clear vision and mission, which emphasized the important role of the community in working together with police to engage in collaborative problem-solving, along with eight core value statements.

Transitioning into an Enhanced Community Responsive Police Service

Change in any public agency is difficult; often even more so for the police, due to the nature of police culture. Building an enhanced community responsive police organization will require change in the typical structure and organization, as well as amongst the attitudes held by officers and civilian staff. It will require decentralization and the development of policies and practices that emphasize and articulate how the new philosophy is to be carried out, and training that ensures front-line officers and civilian staff, as well as managers and leaders, are all prepared to implement a community responsive approach to policing.

Building a police culture which truly emphasizes crime reduction and community responsiveness, and collaborative problem-solving, will require some strategic approaches to be built into the organization. It will require that the agency and its leaders:

- Philosophically merge crime fighting and crime prevention and sell the value of doing so in partnership with the community.

    - Key messages include the fact that police cannot do it all, and that strategic partnerships and systematic problem-solving approaches to crime and disorder will lead to crime reduction, thereby freeing them up to focus on the more major issues in society.

- Operationally merge the different cultures that can be created in the "crime-fighting" and "crime-preventing" parts of the organization by weaving community responsiveness throughout the agency in order to systematize the community responsiveness model and its processes. Having a senior civilian who shares responsibility for community responsiveness within the organization will institutionalize the role of the community in shaping police practices.

- Consult broadly internally and externally before making any decisions on how community responsiveness is developed, implemented, monitored, and reported through newly developed performance indicators that are reflective of this new orientation.

It is thought that community policing could be successfully combined with other types of policing, such as hot-spots and problem-oriented policing, to more effectively targeted identified problem areas or developing issues within a community. Some experts have noted that rather than adopt general and generic community-policing programs, community policing should focus on dealing with hot spot locations in a collaborative and transparent way. This has the potential to improve police-community relations and enhance the legitimacy of the police and of the community policing philosophy.

4.4 Best Practices in Operational Policing: Doing What Works

Police departments everywhere are striving to optimize their resources. While no single standardized formula for each individual policing agency exists, the literature does identify a series of operational models which are considered, to varying degrees, to be best practices within policing in Canada and the U.S. in terms of helping police reach their goals of crime reduction and crime prevention through evidence-based and information-led practices.

Hot Spot Policing

Hot spots policing can be defined as "identifying and working to reduce crime in small geographical areas in which crime is concentrated," Proponents of hot spot policing, or place-based policing, state that crime is not only typically concentrated in urban areas, but that areas within four to five street segments (intersection to intersection) can produce up to 50% of documented crime. As such, while the specific tactics used by police who engage in this type of policing vary, hot spot policing prioritizes the locations where crime is highly concentrated when it comes to the deployment of policing resources.

One hot spot policing strategy involves increasing police presence in designated hot spots, as was the case in the 1995 Minneapolis Hot Spots Patrol Experiment. In this study, hot spots that were not on the receiving end of intensified police patrols experienced a greater increase in citizen calls to police than in the locations with increased police attention. There also was less observed disorder in the hot spots that received heightened police attention. One potential reason for these effects is displacement, as the concentration of police resources in a hot spot may encourage the temporary shifting of criminal activity to other zones in the community. Longer term reductions in crime in hot spots requires a more problem oriented approach. For example, in 1995, Jersey City adopted a three-step approach which included identifying and analyzing problems, developing tailored responses, and maintaining crime control gains in order to reduce criminal activity at drug hot spots.

The effectiveness of hot spot policing has been recognized for some time and there is an empirical basis for its utility in crime reduction. The National Research Council review of police effectiveness noted in 2004 that "studies that focused police resources on crime hot spots provided the strongest collective evidence of police effectiveness that is now available." Rigorous evaluations have supported this statement, indicating that police departments can achieve varying degrees of success in combating crime and disorder when they focus on small units of geography with high rates of crime.

For example, findings from the Minneapolis Hot Spots Patrol Experiment indicated that there was between a 6% to 13% reduction in total crime calls with a more significant reduction in disorder at high crime hot spots. A different study in Lowell, Massachusetts found, among other results, that social disorder was alleviated at 14 of the 17 (82.4%) hot spot locations relative to the control areas. Further, a systematic review by researchers arrived at a similar conclusion; while not every hot spot study they reviewed showed statistically significant findings, 20 of 25 studies did, signaling that when police identify hot spots and focus their attention and resources on these locations, they can significantly and beneficially impact the level of crime in these areas. Very importantly, it was noted that there was very little evidence to suggest that crime moved from hot spots to nearby areas. The researchers concluded that "evaluation research seems to provide fairly robust evidence that hot spot policing is an effective crime prevention strategy."

Hot Spot Policing in Action

Toronto

Toronto, the fourth largest city in North America, has a growing population of just over six million people. This is forecasted to rise by 13.3% over the coming 15 years, reaching seven million people by 2035. As Toronto's population has grown, so too has crime. As such, in 2018, the Toronto Police Service (TPS) announced that they would be increasing their use of hot spot policing in response to ongoing community concerns in the eastern part of the downtown core, specifically in neighbourhoods such as Yonge-Dundas, Sherbourne and Dundas, Cabbagetown, St. Jamestown, and Regent Park. These neighbourhoods fall under Division 51 of the TPS which currently polices the highest volume of crime in Toronto. As part of the hot spot initiative, the TPS planned to deploy one extra detective and three additional uniformed officers to hot spot neighbourhoods within Division 51. The program also combined aspects of problem-oriented policing as it included commitments for improved outreach to the homeless as well as employing six park ambassadors who would primarily be tasked with working in conjunction with outreach staff to provide services and supports to the homeless.

Los Angeles

Prior to the implementation of Operation Cul-de-Sac, gang involvement had nearly doubled from approximately 15,000 in 1980 to 27,000 in 1988. Worse still, gang member participation in crimes such as homicide, robbery, and rape increased by 26% while nearly one-quarter of all murders in the city were gang-related. In response to this

worsening situation, the Los Angeles Police Department launched, among other programs, Operation Cul-de-Sac, which was designed to reduce drive-by shootings and assaults in high-crime areas. The LAPD examined data on gang violence to determine which locations produced especially high volumes of violent crimes. The analysis identified that the vast majority of drive-by shootings occurred on residential streets on the periphery of the city, likely because these peripheral streets connected to major roadways allowing for quick and easy exit routes by offenders. As such, the LAPD targeted peripheral streets in hot spot areas and installed traffic barriers to block access to and from certain streets by car. This initiative significantly reduced the number of drive-by shootings and reduced predatory crime by 37% after just the second year of operation.

Florida

Another effective use of hot spot policing is combining it with problem-oriented policing. A recent experiment in Jacksonville compared different hot spot strategies to provide some clarity on which hot spot mechanisms might be the most effective. As part of the experiment, one area received a more standard saturation patrol while a second hot spot area received a problem-oriented policing response involving a tailored strategy to that area. The results showed that the standard saturation of hot spots did result in less crime (although not a statistically significant reduction) during the experiment period. In the problem-oriented policing hot spots, while no significant crime reduction was recorded during the 90-day experimental period, in the following 90-day period, street violence declined by a statistically significant 33%. It was concluded that in employing hot spots policing it may be more beneficial in the long run to incorporate problem-oriented policing principles with hot spots policing as opposed to simply increasing the presence of law enforcement in the area, which is generally not a sustainable solution.

Problem-oriented Policing

In 1979 Herman Goldstein coined a then emerging policing model, known as problem-oriented policing (POP). There was a sense at the time that traditional policing was too reactive and that this new approach offered promise for proactive policing. The philosophical orientation of this approach was built upon the identification of pre-existing problems in order to reduce crime at its roots as opposed to focusing on a single incident, typically a call for police service. Goldstein maintained that a one-size-fits-all policing model was ill-advised and to be more effective, police needed to incorporate a wider array of strategies to the range of problems commonly underlying crime trends within their communities.

POP can be defined as "a policing approach that emphasizes the use of analysis and assessment to address crime and disorder problems." Analysis, study, and evaluation are at the core of POP as this approach requires that each new problem be individually examined and a unique response developed. This policing approach is often used in conjunction with the Scanning, Analyzing, Responding, and Assessing (SARA) model, a broader analytic model used in many fields and one that has become popular with police

departments employing POP. As was the case with community policing, POP can also be used in collaboration with other policing models. For example, the community can often be a valuable source for identifying problems for which the police can then collaboratively develop a response.

However, the evidentiary basis for POP remains limited. Of the more rigorous and well-designed studies that do exist, some found a modest but statistically significant impact of POP on crime and disorder. Notably, some of the reviewed studies in which produced weaker statistical evidence also reportedly experienced implementation issues. In other words, the more successfully implemented studies tended to show stronger effects. This speaks to the importance of collaborating with other partners who can effectively identify the underlying problems, design an appropriate response, and implement the solution(s). Other researchers have concluded that POP has significant promise to improvecrime and disorder problems broadly when:

- hot spot policing and POP are employed collaboratively;

- the police organization is committed to the model and buys into its value;

- program expectations are realistic, and departments avoid the pitfall of hoping for too much too soon; and

- cooperation with outside criminal justice agencies is emphasized.

There have also been some individual program evaluations which have supported the effectiveness of POP. For example, a review of the Milwaukee Homicide Review Commission, which employs POP principles in its efforts to reduce homicides and non-fatal shootings, reported a statistically significant reduction of 52% in the monthly count of homicides in the chosen districts. Another example, this time in Oakland, which used a specialized multi-agency response team implementing POP strategies to reduce drug-related problems, found that almost half of the identified areas experienced improvements. The mean number of people arrested at sites lowered from 3.7 in the year before implementation to 1.5 in the year following—59% decrease. At an individual level then, there appear to be some successful examples of POP in practice.

Problem-Oriented Policing in Action

San Diego

In the 1990s the San Diego Police Department had jurisdiction over the sixth largest city in the U.S., serving a population of just over 1.1 million. Its proximity to the Mexican border, among other factors, was thought to contribute to the growing presence of drugs in the city. One mechanism which the San Diego police department employed to confront the growing drug issue was called the Drug Abatement Response Team ("DART"). The aim of the program was to reduce drug exchanges in residential settings, and the main strategy of the program was to promote and enforce enhanced property management practices in order to see a reduction in residential drug dealings. The program sought to utilize the authority of civil law with the view to coerce landlords into confronting issues

at their rental units where drugs problems have been identified. The predominate enforcement activity was a search-warrant-based raid. Other tools included knock-and-talk events (police requested permission to search the premises for drugs); buy-bust events (an undercover officer made a buy, which led to an arrest); parole searches; and Fourth Amendment waiver actions[2]. Over one hundred properties were included in the program and those that received the full intervention benefited the most, recording a significant reduction in crime at rental units with drug problems and more drug offender evictions.

Stockton

In 1997 Stockton implemented both a community-oriented and problem-oriented policing program. Operation Peacekeeper, modelled on Operation Ceasefire in Boston, was designed to confront gun violence and gang involvement among youth aged 10 to 18 years old. Operation Ceasefire relied on the work of Youth Outreach Workers to communicate with vulnerable youth about the consequences of gang involvement and healthy alternative options to the lifestyle. Youth Outreach Workers, who served as role models, were streetwise young men and women trained in community organization, mentoring, mediation, and conflict resolution. The program was associated with a significant reduction in the monthly number of gun homicides.

Predictive Policing

Predictive policing is one of the newer policing models. It can be defined as "taking data from disparate sources, analyzing them, and then using the results to anticipate, prevent and respond more effectively to future crime."[i] There are four primary categories of predictive policing methods:

1. methods for predicting crimes

2. methods for predicting offenders

3. methods for predicting perpetrators' identities

4. methods for predicting victims of crime

Methods for predicting crime and offenders are more established than the remaining two methods. Nonetheless, each category offers approaches to both large and small departments with varying needs. Available methods range from basic common-sense techniques to sophisticated, cutting-edge mathematical models. Predictive policing shares similarities with hot spots policing. However, predictive policing seeks to predict future crimes, offenders, and victims rather than just responding to past/ongoing concentrations.

Predictive policing is growing in popularity and usage. In the U.S., 20 of the 50 largest police departments now use predictive technology. Closer to home, the Vancouver Police

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[2] The Fourth Amendment of the U.S. Constitution refers to the right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures by the government.

Department, in 2016, became the first department in Canada to adopt such technology. At present, predictive policing lends itself best to identifying property crime. Predictive technologies typically use three data points—time, place, and type of crime—to draw up boundaries in which crimes are most likely to occur, and then assign local police patrol these areas. Most units who employ some form of predictive policing software (PredPol, Hunchlab, Civisscape, or Crime Scan) do so to prevent residential break-ins. However, some police departments such as Los Angeles Police Department and Chicago Police Department have taken the software one step further and are using it to identify offenders future behaviour.

Many have praised predictive policing technologies as a mechanism for reducing crime, maximizing scarce resources, and substituting human biases with hard data. Yet, predictive policing is criticized by privacy and racial justice groups for its potential impact on poor and minority communities and implications for civil liberties due to implicit biases in the algorithms underlying the technology.

There is not yet sufficient robust evidence to support or refute the effectiveness of predictive policing as it is still largely in its infancy. To date, there has been only one independent study of a place-based predictive-policing system which found the software had no statistically significant impact on property crime in Shreveport, Louisiana. There was no statistically significant change in property crime in the experimental districts that applied the predictive models compared with the control districts. Therefore, overall, the intervention was deemed to have no effect.

Many departments in Canada have been slower to adopt and invest in predictive policing technologies than their American counterparts. But perhaps, the recent example of the Vancouver Police Department acquiring and employing predictive technology illustrates that it is worth the investment. Vancouver has implemented predictive technology and demonstrated that it reduced property crime by as much as 27% in areas where it was tested, compared to the previous four years.

Predictive Policing in Action

Pennsylvania

New predictive technology has been implemented by the Pennsylvania Sentencing Commission. The commission has been employing a risk assessment, with success, to highlight individuals for alternatives to prison time. To alleviate fears over racial bias and profiling the commission has operated transparently in terms of assessing the technology's success and has held 11 individual hearings to invite feedback on the algorithm.

Vancouver

The Vancouver Police Department recently introduced a city-wide predictive policing technology after a successful six-month trial. The new technology is the first to be implemented in Canada and will exclusively focus on predicting, and thus hopefully

preventing, break-ins. The software works by examining historical records of break-ins around the city and can generate where future break-ins are likely to occur over two-hour intervals, within a 100 to 500 metre radius. Preliminary data during the trial indicated that the system reduced property crime by as much as 27%, compared to the previous four years. The system is thought to be about 80% accurate, but more research is required to establish this parameter.

Chicago

The Chicago Police Department has gone one step further with predictive technology as it uses predictive policing software to identify both offenders and victims. The technology uses an array of factors to generate the infamous Strategic Subjects List (SSL) which details the individuals estimated to be at highest risk of being involved in gun violence. Specifically, an algorithm is used to analyze data such as gang affiliations, criminal records, past shootings, and previous contact with police. The police then use the generated data and list to approach individuals on the list to try and intervene before a crime is committed. Additionally, the police engage community members and social service groups to also connect with identified individuals. The list is approximately 400 names long and the police department states that the people on the list are responsible for the majority of crime in Chicago. The software also allocates a number to each name. The higher the number, the greater the chance that the individual will be involved in criminal activity. Advocates of the model contend that one of the benefits of the model is that it does not use race, gender, ethnicity, or geography. Racial and social justice groups are much less convinced as they say the system for generating the list is often kept secret and it is not clear whether implicit biases are embedded in the algorithms.

Focused Deterrence Strategies

Focused deterrence involves "assigning officers to a particular area and freeing them from responding to calls for service so they can engage in proactive investigation and enforcement of suspicious activities." Focused deterrence strategies are predominantly concerned with equipping police departments with the capability to increase the reliability, speed, and intensity of punishment via a number of mechanisms, often by engaging with offenders directly to convey to them the consequences of non-compliance and motivation for refraining from illegal behaviour. This model of policing usually focuses on high rate offenders such as gang members or drug traffickers.

Operation Ceasefire in Boston in 1996 offers a good example of this policing model. During Operation Ceasefire, gangs were identified and explicitly told by police and prosecutors that violence was no longer going to be tolerated and that should any violence occur after the explicit message every available legal lever would be pulled to bring an immediate and certain response. This is known as the 'pulling levers' framework which was popularized during this ceasefire and which empowered police departments to act swiftly and seriously. Typically, this message of zero tolerance is issued alongside a message of help, highlighting alternative options to criminal activity and the availability of social and employment services.

To date, empirical evidence has shown focused deterrence strategies to be effective in lowering crime, particularly violent crime. One recent study reviewed 24 eligible studies and identified strong positive findings for focused deterrence approaches. Programs which focused on gang violence tended to have stronger effects than programs focused on drug market violence. There have also been some individual program evaluations which have supported the effectiveness of focused deterrence strategies. For example, a study of the High Point Drug Market Intervention in North Carolina in 2012 found that targeted census blocks (the treatment group) experienced a 7.9% decrease in violence, which was considered to have a statistically significant reduction. If a focused deterrence strategy is to have a chance of success it must at least create a credible deterrent threat. Creating a credible threat is achieved, to some degree, by narrowing the focus of intent to specific offenders or locations. Operation Ceasefire was considered credible because gang members believed the police could effectively target members who were offending in small geographic areas.

Focused Deterrence Policing Strategies in Action

Seattle

The Seattle Police Department has employed the Drug Market Initiative (DMI), a focused deterrence strategy, on three occasions. Similar to Operation Ceasefire in Boston, drug dealers were advised during a call-in meeting that should they continue to engage in criminal activity they would be arrested and prosecuted. The offenders were also alerted to the alternative options and services that existed for them to access. In the case of the Seattle DMI, low-risk drug dealers were the focus of this operation. The Seattle Police Department is also operating a program called Law Enforcement Assisted Diversion (LEAD) which focuses on low-level drug and prostitution offenders. Similar, to DMI, the LEAD program aims to connect offenders with treatment and services. Low-risk offenders can avoid charges if they engage with and complete the program of services. The evaluation suggests several positive outcomes from LEAD, including reduced recidivism and criminal justice system costs.

New Orleans

New Orleans implemented the Group Violence Reduction Strategy (GVRS), a focused deterrence strategy, which aims to confront persistent, citywide patterns of violence. The intervention engages interagency partnerships and data analysis to highlight key offenders who are responsible for a disproportionate percentage of violence in the city. In addition to pinpointing high-risk individuals, GVRS is also designed to inform them of available social services and that if they choose not to engage with the services and continue to commit crimes they will be arrested and prosecuted without hesitation. Upon evaluation, statistically significant reductions in homicide were reported, as were reports of gang member-involved homicides, and firearms assault.

Integrated Policing

Integrated policing is "a philosophy that recognizes the value of bringing together the resources of different law enforcement agencies to combat a particular crime problem." Integrated policing is typically employed when the nature of a crime is costly, time-consuming, complex to investigate, and impacting multiple jurisdictions. A number of integrated policing teams operate across Canada and British Columbia addressing a range of issues. Teams can be integrated at the federal, provincial, or regional level. Examples of some provincially integrated teams in British Columbia include the Combined Forces Special Enforcement Unit, Hate Crime Task Force, Real Time Intelligence Centre, and the Integrated Technological Crime Unit. Integrated teams rely on formal agreements to guide their partnerships, ensuring that member partners contribute to agreed staffing levels, equipment, infrastructure, and operational expenses. Governments may also assist by providing funds to cover salaries, infrastructure, and other expenses. Jurisdictions generally share the cost of these units based on a pre-determined funding formula.

The benefits of integrated policing are well recognized and include economies of scale, access to specialized equipment, information sharing, eliminating duplication of work, enhanced training and personnel, and increased effectiveness in addressing criminal activity that affects more than one community or geographic region. Smaller police departments have reported gratitude for integrated police teams. However, some larger districts have, at times, demonstrated a reluctance to join and invest in integrated teams, particularly if they feel they are simply subsidising other police departments by sending resources to an integrated team.

Integrated Teams in Action

Victoria

The integration of teams is expanding beyond just police collaboration. A recent report highlighted the success of the integration of the Victoria Police Department with the healthcare based Assertive Community Treatment (ACT) program. While ACT began in the early 1990s to help people living with complex mental illnesses and substance use disorders, police officer integration on ACT teams was largely uncommon. More recently, in Victoria, police officers have been integrated into ACT with success. The report's findings have far-reaching implications, as it documents for the first time the strengths and challenges of a police presence within the ACT approach.

Halifax

The Halifax Regional Police are integrated with the RCMP based on an assessment of empirical evidence that indicated the most effective way to share resources. Their analysis revealed that integration was most effective for high-level criminal investigations, such as homicides, sexual assaults, and fugitive offenders. As such, they formed a single integrated unit which became known as the Criminal Investigation Division. Approximately 30 RCMP officers and 90 officers from the Halifax Regional Police

were deployed to the unit. The Officer in Charge of the division is originally from the Halifax Regional Police while the second in command is an RCMP member, which allows for close cooperation and collaboration. The result has been flexible, cohesive law enforcement for the busy capital of Nova Scotia.

British Columbia

Joining and forming integrated teams is not always welcomed by all police departments. For example, while BC has an Integrated Homicide Investigation Team (IHIT), not all police departments are members of this team. To date, the Vancouver and Delta Police departments have not joined while West Vancouver Police Department was late to join. The premise for such reluctance is rooted in the belief that not many homicides are committed in these locations and yet these departments would be expected to pay into the IHIT leaving some departments feeling that they may simply be subsidizing other units. Table 3 summarizes the key aspects of modern urban policing models that have been deployed across jurisdictions. It outlines the advantages and challenges of implementing these models and highlights those that have proven effective.

Typology	Locations Implemented	Predictive Element	Advantages	Challenges	Effective
Hot Spot Policing	Toronto Los Angeles Florida	Yes	Effectively targets geographic areas which typically produce a disproportionate level of crime in cities	Positive outcomes in terms of crime reduction might only be achieved because police officers patrol the identified high crime areas. Suggesting that hot spot policing doesn't solve the root problem but just deters illegal activity so long as officers are focused on a given area.	Yes
Community Policing	Seattle Halton Calgary	No	Works to bring the community together to prevent and solve crime, to educate them, to involve them in decision making and enhance community trust in the local police department	Community policing (CP) might work best when combined with other approaches. CP is also expensive and labour intensive. In implementing CP, must be conscious not to signal a retreat from the prosecution of organized crime and sophisticated white-collar criminals.	Insufficiently responsive to community.
Problem-Oriented Policing	San Diego Stockton, California	No	Attempts to solve the root cause of problems in the community which benefits them in the long-term. Typically uses mediation and negotiation skills to resolve issues as opposed to blunt force.	POP has been labelled by some as impractical because of limited police resources and this model requires significant time and personnel input. Additionally, it has been queried whether police officers have the analytical ability to conduct sophisticated problem-solving projects.	The studies to date have signalled moderate effectiveness. More research is needed.
Predictive Policing	Pennsylvania Vancouver Chicago	Yes	Has the potential to focus scare in resources in areas which require the most police attention	Predictive policing software can be expensive. It also raises issues of racial profiling and has yet to be conclusively proven as effective.	More research is needed.
Focused Deterrence Policing Strategy	Seattle New Orleans	No	Effectively used to target high-level offenders	Requires the cooperation of repeat offenders to engage in the program. It is also labour intensive, and results are unlikely to be seen instantly.	Yes
Integrated Teams	Victoria Halifax British Columbia	No	Shared resources, avoid duplication of work, economies of scale	Some departments may be unwilling to join forces and allocate personnel and resources to the integrated unit.	Yes

Table 3 – Comparison of Policing Models

One of the underlying factors that can affect the success of these modern policing strategies is the degree to which they are built on accurate and current information. Given this, it is essential that police pay significant attention to building an effective and reliable information management framework.

4.5 Best Practices in Law Enforcement Recruitment

Recruitment, selection and training have become critically important issues for police departments around the world in large part because of significant changes in the philosophy and nature of policing, higher expectations by their constituencies and continuing professionalization of the police. Police departments must ensure their recruitment plan is in line with key best practice approaches including:

- Consideration of a broad range of post-secondary education for both experienced hires and recruit candidates;

- Hiring for resiliency to support positive mental health and employee wellbeing, and appropriate screening of applicants using psychological testing and assessment of emotional intelligence;

- Recruitment outreach and promotion using proven approaches that recruit for diverse applicants that are representative of the city;

- Screening of candidates based on knowledge of big topics and trends in policing with a focus on community-responsive and problem-oriented policing; and

- Recruitment processes that support and guide applicants through each step of the process.

The following outlines some detail on each of these areas of best practice.

Post-Secondary Education

In 2018, according to Statistics Canada data, there were over 99,000 police officers in Canada. Approximately half of existing officers and 60% of recruits have completed college, obtaining an appropriate diploma, certificate, degrees or graduate education program. Given the increasing demand for post-secondary education in law enforcement and increasing professionalism of policing in general, it is important to ensure that the quality and content of post-secondary programs marketed to students as appropriate for a policing career, matches the needs of potential employers.

Recent studies of post-secondary programs have demonstrated that not all programs marketed for policing careers are sufficiently evaluated to determine their efficacy for preparing recruits to meet departments' current and future needs. Research findings are mixed as to the utility of current college and university-based programs that seek to produce individuals with the knowledge, attitudes and skills desirable in police recruits. In addition, a 2018 study by Huey, Peladeu and Kalyal found that criminology and criminal justice degree holders should not be privileged in the recruiting process over

applicants from other disciplines. A police department will need to recruit candidates with appropriate post-secondary education from a range of disciplines to ensure the broad depth of skills, knowledge and experience needed to support a community-responsive policing model.

Hiring for Resiliency & Applicant Screening Tools

A major trend in police recruitment is attention to issues of resiliency and the mental health of applicants. The nature of police work is continually evolving and officers today work within complex task and decision-making environments that require them to have understanding of police operations and administration, and different anti-crime strategies and technologies, but also the ability to function at peak performance in an environment of increasing public scrutiny, organizational and operational stress.

This makes it more important than ever that recruitment process focus on employee mental health and wellbeing and hire for resiliency and stress management skills. The American Psychological Association defines resiliency as the process of adapting in the face of adversity, trauma, tragedy, threats or significant sources of stress. As the number and variety of challenges facing law enforcement continues to increase, the law enforcement profession must hire for candidates that demonstrate resiliency. There is significant research examining stress in law enforcement and among first responders. Some studies have focused on how to screen for candidates that have increased innate resiliency and/or aptitude to be trained in stress management and resilience.

A University of Pennsylvania study found that several characteristics can be examined during the recruitment process through psychological assessments and interview techniques to increase the chances of hiring a resilient workforce for policing.   These include individuals demonstrating characteristics such as:

- High self esteem

- Optimism

- Flexibility

- Ability to move on from traumatic events/hard times

- Ability to build and maintain strong social support networks

Studies have also shown significant correlations between emotional intelligence and police job performance. After controlling for general abilities and personality traits, emotional intelligence has been found to explain additional incremental variance in predicting police job performance.

Hiring for Diversity

First responders, including law enforcement, serve a crucial role in the safety and wellbeing of the community. Members of the public and officials are placing renewed focus on ensuring that the police have strong relationships with their local communities,

in part by ensuring that police reflect the populations they serve. The potential benefits of increasing diversity and moving towards greater representation could also provide more rewarding employment opportunities to historically underrepresented populations.

There is considerable research in this area and several promising recruitment practices have been identified. These include population specific outreach, partnerships with colleges and high schools, and incentivising recruits with multiple language skills. Information sessions and community engagement activities provide opportunities for recruit candidates to learn more about policing careers while also fostering a positive image in the community for the department, particularly among previously underrepresented populations. In addition, there are research studies proving the efficacy of non-traditional outreach methods including use of social media, online processing recruitment software tools, and promotional collateral and approaches that focus attention on the service orientation of potential recruits. Events also provide opportunities for candidates and their families to learn about the department's culture.

Screening for Knowledge

Recent research has also demonstrated the importance of selection of candidates based in part on their knowledge of the big topics and trends in modern urban policing. The nature of police work is being fundamentally altered as a result of the ever-increasing array of challenges that police organizations face. Police organizations today must attract and retain a dynamic and flexible workforce that understand issues such as problem-oriented policing, focused deterrence strategies, hot-spot policing, predictive policing, integrated policing and use of policing technologies.

As community-responsive and problem-oriented policing have become the accepted philosophy for law enforcement, the selection of sworn employees who are attracted to service and problem-solving becomes important. While psychologists, arguably, have difficulty validating factors that reflect attributes and abilities necessary for effective performance, it is possible to screen for problem-solving, decision-making and the ability to gain new knowledge, technology, and procedures.

Such knowledge will be useful for future recruits in developing a clear understanding of the challenges and realities of modern policing, but it will also lead to time and cost savings in terms of training and development when recruitment processes are attuned to the existing knowledge base of recruits and experienced hires.

Experienced sworn employee applicants that demonstrate awareness of and experience in big topics in policing will have advantages over candidates who are focused on traditional enforcement oriented policing approaches.

Supportive Recruitment Processes

Another key trend in recruitment best practices is the structure and design of the recruitment process itself. Recent studies have also demonstrated the efficacy of mentoring candidates through the process, a role that early hires to the Training and HR Sections can participate in to support the TRU.

Studies have shown that if the process drags on, or candidates do not receive timely updates and communications at various stages, they may lose interest or grow impatient, as police recruitment is, by design, a multi-stage process. Assigning a mentor to candidates may help keep applicants aware of their progression throughout the recruitment steps.

4.6 Best Practices in Recruit Training

Principles for Best in Class Recruit Training

Police agencies and educational institutions are continually striving to improve how police training, research and education are delivered. Innovative and creative change requires an understanding of how to integrate training to meet the future demands of the profession. In Canada, the enforcement of the federal criminal code is the same throughout all provinces and territories. Therefore, police training, police practices, and investigative policies are standardized regardless of a police officer's location in the country.

In British Columbia, all municipal, transit, and tribal police recruits are trained at the JIBC Police Academy. In 2016, the police academy implemented a recruit-training program that is centred on the development and assessment of the Police Sector Council (PSC) National Framework of Constable Competencies. The core aspects of this program include: integrated delivery of materials focused around common patrol-level calls, application and performance through case-based and scenario-based learning activities, development of individualized training plans with instructors mentoring recruits over the course of training, performance-based assessment exam scenarios, and assessment portfolios at the end of each component of training. This is the first police recruit training program in Canada to directly integrate the PSC competencies.

The Canadian Association of Police Educators (CAPE) is a national organization dedicated to fostering collaboration among police educators to ensure police service training representatives along with university and community college criminal justice program researchers, professors, and administrators collaborate to innovate in recruit training best practices.

In addition, the Canadian Police Knowledge Network (CPKN) and Canadian Society for Evidence Based Policing (CANSEBP) work to improve the professionalism of police training nationally. The Police Research Lab at Carleton University, University of Toronto (HART Lab), Wilfred Laurier University and Simon Fraser University are a few of the Canadian institutions conducting important, timely police related research and improving the professionalism of police training and education.

A 2017 study *Preparing Police Recruits of the Future: An Educational Needs Assessment* at Western University provides important insights into a review of Ontario police recruitment programs. The study noted some key recommendations of relevance to recruit training:

a) Applied college diploma programs should consider increasing analytical content to build critical reasoning skills;

b) Post-secondary education programs that are marketed to students as appropriate for a policing career should match the needs of the future employer;

c) University-based degree programs should implement skills-based course work that build the professional skills of students (i.e., communication, teamwork, leadership and ethics);

d) College-university hybrid programs should combine practical, applied aspects of police work with broader skills and knowledge, such as critical thinking;

e) Development of experiential learning modules place students within different communities as a means of learning to respect and value diversity; and

f) Criminal justice programs should also include a range of instructional methods, from e-learning and simulation/role play exercises to student placements, professional mentorships and internships.

Canadian Police Training Models

The majority of police recruit training programs in Canada still operate under a traditional educational model, which does not align with best educational practices. The traditional model has a strong emphasis on instructor-led instructional methodology, with a heavy focus on lectures, which often have an instructor reading to recruits from a PowerPoint presentation. Lectures leave the recruits as passive learners, rather than as active participants in their own learning and development. Lectures and inflexible lesson plans have all recruits doing the same activity at the same time, which leaves the recruits to be developing at the instructor's or program's pace, and not the learner's pace.

The ability for recruits to practise demonstrating the skills they will be required to develop to work through scenarios and simulations is infrequent. Inflexible scheduling means that recruits often have to move on before actually mastering the learning outcome or competency that is required of them. Learning in this way also requires additional resources for 'remediation' when recruits fall behind. Many agencies noted that they dedicated thousands of dollars in remediation per class.

Research has identified that individuals may indeed approach learning from distinct patterns, but a large majority of police training is conducted in a very uniform manner, consistent with behaviorism, with little regard for individual differences in learning (Birzer, 2003). Consistent with the research, police training environments should be free of fear (Birzer, 2003).

How Adults Learn

Studies that measure effective practices in adult education typically base their analysis on Knowles' (1980) basic tenants of andragogy: (a) the adult learner wants to self-direct his or her own learning, (b) the adult learner wants to call upon life experiences as an asset to learning, (c) the adult learner wants to align their learning needs to their roles in society, (d) the adult learner wants to apply knowledge immediately, and (e) the adult learner is internally motivated (McIntrye-Hite, 2016). Training should be oriented to a mission and align to what police officers need to know in order to do their job effectively (Birzer, 2003). The learning environment should mirror the on-the-job environment as much as possible.

To this extent, learning environments can be set up so that learners can engage in self-directed group discussion and active debate, in a comfortable environment—both physically and psychologically. Recruits should work out differences and develop strategies for effective communication and collaboration on perspectives. This would mirror what police officers would encounter on the job, with the many voices, perspectives and varied problem-solving strategies (Birzer, 2003). Instructors then can manage the classroom by allowing participants to share their experiences and knowledge, integrate new knowledge, and provide strategies that will allow transfer of learning back to the job (Zemke and Zemke, 1998 in Birzer, 2003).

Casey and Sturgis (2018) have identified several tenets of how adults learn:

- Learning is an activity that is carried out by the learner. Students do not simply absorb information and skills. Rather, learning requires active engagement and effort and effort is influenced by motivation. People learn new knowledge optimally when their prior knowledge is activated. Learners need to have structures to organize and retrieve information. Thus, attaching new information to what they already know in a context where that knowledge is accessible, relevant and responsive to cultural understanding can be helpful in mastering new ideas and skills.

- Acquiring new knowledge and skills requires effective feedback. Effective feedback focuses on the task (not the student) and on improving (rather than verifying performance). Assessing student learning, identifying misconceptions or gaps in understanding and providing feedback are critical steps in the learning process. Assessment information is as important to helping teachers to adjust their teaching strategies or improve their skills as it is for helping students adjust their learning strategies.

- Learning is a social process. Learning occurs in a socio-cultural context involving social interactions. Students need opportunities to observe and model behaviors—both from adults and peers—to develop new skills. Dialogue with others is needed to shape ways of thinking and constructing knowledge. Discourse and

collaborative work can strengthen learning when they allow students to assist each other and take on expert roles.

- Learning occurs through interaction with one's environment. The human brain, and therefore learning, develops over time through exposure to conditions, including people, experiences and environmental factors. A person's culture may also serve as "context" that influences learning. Learning occurs best in conditions that support healthy social, emotional and neurological development. Students will be more motivated in schools when they believe that they are accepted, belong and respected. Optimal learning environments eliminate status differences and social hierarchies so that students do not feel marginalized, ostracized or threatened.

Competency-based Education

Competency-based education has ties to the industry that students are being prepared for. Competencies are often anchored to external expectations, such as those of employers. To pass a competency, students must generally perform at a level considered to be proficient or exceeding expectations on the job (Gulikers, 2004). In competency-based education, the focus is on authentic learning and authentic assessment, with authentic reflection what is required on the job. Acquiring skills and knowledge is important, but a competency requires students to process learning in a way that enables them to apply it in a variety of situations (Gervais, 2016). One of the key benefits of competency-based education is that learning centres on real-world skills development needed for a career (McIntyre-Hite, 2018). A competency can be defined as the application of knowledge, skills, and behaviors used in performing specific job tasks.

True competency-based education combines an intentional and transparent approach to curricular design with an academic model in which the time it takes to demonstrate competencies varies and learning is held constant. Learners acquire and demonstrate their knowledge and skills by engaging in learning exercises, activities and experiences that align with clearly defined programmatic outcomes. Learners receive proactive guidance and support from faculty and staff. Learners can progress by demonstrating mastery through multiple forms of assessment, often at a personalized pace (McIntyre-Hite, 2016).

The foundational tenets of competency-based education include that it be learner centred; learners can progress at an individualized and flexible pace upon demonstration of mastery of competencies. The benefit of a competency-based education system is its ability to better bridge the gap between academia and employer needs. Transitioning away from seat time, in favor of a structure that creates flexibility, allows students to progress as they demonstrate mastery of academic content, regardless of time, place, or pace of learning. Competency-based strategies provide flexibility that provide students with personalized learning opportunities. This type of learning leads to better student engagement because the content is relevant to each student and tailored to their unique needs (McIntyre-Hite, 2018).

Applied Learning and Skills Training

As police officers will be practitioners, it is essential that they acquire not only the knowledge required for the role, but that they are then given situations in which they can apply their knowledge in the various ways that will be expected of them on the job. As traditional education has a long-established tradition of focusing on information transfer, the processes needed to develop skills are different from those used to accumulate information (Gervais, 2016). While information can be learned very quickly, skills development takes repetition, structure and regular feedback (Gervais, 2016). Looking at how an individual learns, must include examination of the neuropathways for learning. There are two separate memory systems within the human mind, episodic and semantic memory, that encode information, and a third, procedural memory, that is critical for skills learning (Joordens, 2018).

Procedural memories build up via repeated practise of skills, preferably in a structured environment that provides as much feedback as possible (Joordens, 2018). That is, one learns a skill by performing that skill, poorly at first, but with repeated structured practice in a feedback rich environment the performance of the skill improves and continues to improve with more such practice (Joordens, 2018). Skills development is enhanced by regular feedback that encourages the "student" to reflect on their abilities (Joordens, 2018).

Mindshift Change: Instructor-Led to Learner-Centered Instruction

In a traditional classroom, instructor-led, instructor-centred, or direct instruction implies that instructors are the formal authority and expert, and their role is to pass on knowledge and information to a passive audience (the students) (Bergmann and Sams, 2012). The instructors 'teach' by offering information through the way of guided reading activities, informational lectures, demonstrations, or video presentations. The students then watch, listen, and take notes. Homework is then assigned, based on the information taught by the instructor with the direct intention to have students independently practise skills, rehearse, or expand on the information presented by the instructor at home, or under no direct supervision. The instructor then would the follow up with an assessment of the student.

Although direct instruction can have its place in education and learning, the literature is clear that adult learners do not learn in this capacity as effectively as in other techniques (Wheller and Morris, 2010). Instructor-led instruction limits the student's ability to interactively engage with their own learning. This traditional technique is not aligned with the best practices in how students learn, and how adult learning techniques can be applied (Gervais, 2016). Traditional education has its many challenges and issues. One such issue is that traditional education generally teaches to the masses, time is fixed, and learning is the variable. This allows students to advance with gaps in key knowledge areas and does not prioritize real mastery of holistic success skills. This type of education is unlikely to actually prepare learners for the future or close equity or knowledge gaps (Klein-Collins, 2012). A technique that is more in line with adult learning principles is

increasing student engagement with their learning, a key concept of learner-centred instruction.

Police education has long been criticized for its instructor-centred focus and for failing to promote effective communication, critical thinking and problem-solving skills required for effective police operation (Davies and Kelly, 2014). An increasing shift has occurred in which learner-centred techniques are being encouraged in police education to deeper learning with a higher level of cognitive engagement among police students (Davies and Kelly, 2014). One of the fundamental tenets of learner-centred education enables students to be active learners who do more work in class than a traditional lecturer would, creating a shift in the power relationship between student and the instructor (Davies and Kelly, 2014). This paradigm shift has shown progress in many educational institutions, and police education has started to adopt this shift internationally (Davies and Kelly, 2014).

Best Practices in Instructional Design and Development

A review of the literature reveals that there are a number of established best practices for the design and development of instruction. The detailed planning and development of mechanisms for delivery of instruction are essential for ensuring quality in education (Goksu, et al., 2017). The emergence of new technologies has had a significant impact on instructional design.

Advancements in educational and instructional strategies have highlighted the shortcomings in the design of traditional instructional models. In higher education, the principle of constructive alignment for devising teaching, learning activities and assessment tasks is the underpinning concept in instructional design and development to achieve intended learning outcomes (Ali, 2018). Many instructional designs are modeled on ADDIE and Problem Based Learning (PBL) approaches which have been shown to improve academic success (Ali, 2018). Creating a learning environment in which deep learning can occur is the responsibility of the curriculum developer who ensures that there is synergy between formative and summative assessment (Ali, 2018).

Critical Issues Surrounding Police Recruit Training

The broad range of demands that are made on the police within the dynamic environments in which officers work requires that recruit training provides officers with the knowledge and competencies necessary to be effective in their work. It is critical that police officers have the requisite competencies, including cultural competencies, to effectively carry out their role.

Despite the importance of recruit training, recruit training programs, and curricula, the methods used to deliver training have rarely been subjected to either internal or independent evaluation (Huey, 2018). There are few evaluations of the efficacy of recruit training or on how recruit training affects the attitudes and behaviours of officers once they are deployed. As one police scholar has observed, "In reality, there is little research to date on the impact of any police training, we rarely evaluate, we rarely obtain structured feedback on outcomes measured on the street, and thus we never understand

whether training is achieving our intended goals" (Mitchell, 2016:22-23). More specifically, there is a lack of research on whether police academies provide recruits with the core competencies to be effective in carrying out mandated and assumed responsibilities.

Concerns have been expressed about the "absence in the police training literature on concrete, empirically supported instructional strategies that can be incorporated into training to promote the long-term retention and transfer of learned skills and knowledge" (Lum, 2016; Mugford, Corey and Bennell 2011: 314). This makes it difficult to determine the effectiveness of police training both in developing core competencies and in preparing officers for a successful career in policing. The absence of a body of research on police recruit training is due, in part, to the historical divide that has existed between the police and university-based police scholars (Griffiths, Murphy, and Snow, 2013) where police training has been viewed as training for a craft and, therefore, there was no need for training to be research informed (Stanko and Dawson, in Huey, 2018).

Further, even the best recruit training program cannot prepare officers for all of the situations in which they will become involved. This reinforces the importance of an effective recruiting process. As one senior police leader stated, "Who you hire to do the job makes a difference" (Lantigua-Williams, 2016:5).

Police scholars have also raised concerns that recruit training has not kept pace with the changing models of policing, more specifically, the implementation of community policing (Werth, 2011). A related concern is that police training is still oriented toward the warrior role of the police and reflects "an authoritarian-based model geared to produce a student who obeys orders without question and provides the appropriate response (i.e. regurgitates) as provided within policy, procedures, or during the lectures" (Vander Kooi and Palmer, 2014:176). This approach "does not facilitate an environment for reflective learners who analyze, evaluate, consider alternatives, and then respond" (Vander Kooi and Palmer, 2014: 176).

It is imperative to understand the return on investment that training brings to a police service and the communities they serve. Training programs exist to enhance officers' knowledge, attitudes, skills, and behaviors. The challenge is to determine whether training programs are producing police officers with the required core competencies to function effectively as police officers. One challenge is in determining the applicability of best practice training approaches used in other professions, such as the field of medicine. This field has been at the forefront of innovation in the use of simulations and scenarios, case-based and problem-based learning, and in the use of a variety of methodologies to assess the competencies of medical students.

This could provide a model for police recruit training, although the extent to which this can be replicated in police academies remains to be determined, as are the capacities that police training facilities would require to effectively utilize these strategies. Research comparing problem-based learning and traditional approaches to instruction in police academies found that while both instructors and recruits favoured problem-based

approaches, there were few statistical differences in learning outcomes between the two approaches (Vander Kooi and Palmer, 2014). This suggests the need to study the dynamics of the learning environments in police academies, as well as the capacities of recruit training facilities, including the quality of instruction, how the various learning approaches interface with one another, and other qualitative dimensions of the recruit learning experience.

Another important consideration is the research finding that the training recruits receive in the police academy may account for as little as 10% of the performance variance in the field training program (Caro, 2011:357). This relates to the concept of "learning transfer," wherein police recruits are able apply the knowledge and skills learned in the police academy once they are in the field. It also highlights the important requirement for a seamless thread of continuity and for alignment between the academy and the recruit's field training.

In discussing the current state of research on police training, and the extent to which police recruit training is evidence-based, a police scholar stated:

"There is little research to date on the impact of any police training. Policing has done a poor job of evaluating any of its training methods, from academy and in-service training, to specialized training such as Crisis Intervention Training, Implicit Bias Training, or Diversity Training (to mention a few examples). Policing as a profession continues to create new training programs to address contemporary problems without ever firmly establishing whether the training is the appropriate solution" (Mitchell, 2016:22).

When properly designed and delivered, training increases both the effectiveness and efficiency of employees (Birzer, 2003). However, there appears to be a lack of information on what constitutes best practice in police training. With the inclusion of curriculum developers, police agencies and training academies are now relying on experts in education to help reshape their training programs, and to provide an educational environment that is grounded in educational best practices.

Police-training programs have often struggled to move away the traditional militaristic environment (Birzer, 2003). Many have argued that the paramilitary model of policing has promoted a warrior-like mentality and has created a myriad of problems not only in the training environment but also in the general culture of the organization (Birzer, 2003). The ideal police recruit training environment would incorporate adult educational methodologies and learning strategies (Birzer, 2003). This, however, requires a paradigm shift in how police recruits are taught.

Among the findings of a review of recruit training in 13 Canadian police academies was the 'clients' (receiving departments) appreciation of the proficiency level being achieved in academies is lower than the academies perceive (Hay Group, 2011:26). The report noted that "there is significantly more competency development that needs to be done in field training and through on-the-job experience" (Hay Group, 2011:26).

Many police training academies focus a considerable amount of attention on crime-fighting and enforcement, to the exclusion of time spent training officers in community engagement skills and self-care. Commenting on police training at the Ontario Police College as part of a review of street checks in Ontario, Mr. Justice Tulloch stated:

"The majority of police work involves dealing with issues of social discord rather than responding to actual crimes. Yet only two hours of Ontario Police College training is spent on community policing and two hours on interactive policing. In other words, as recounted by several police stakeholders, 90% of police training is for what officers do 10% of the time" (2018:174).

As a Canadian police scholar has stated:

"There is a need to develop a stronger evidence base through research and evaluation to identify which models are more effective than others. In the meantime, when choosing a training or research model for either corrections or policing, organizations may be best served by reflecting upon their values, mandate, structure, and what they hope to accomplish. These considerations will likely lead to the training and research models best suited to their needs" (Jewell, 2013: vii).

Regardless of the model of police training, recruits often struggle to retain all of the information that is provided to them during their time at the training academy. One officer described the challenges of attempting to absorb all of the materials being presented during recruit training as akin to "drinking from a firehose" (Griffiths, Montgomery, and Murphy, 2018:250).

It has been noted that in Canada "There is no single, standard, nation-wide model for how constables are trained. The process can take a few weeks or a few years, depending upon where you live, the Police Training Academy (PTA) where you train, and the police service that you eventually join" (HayGroup, 2011:1). Concerns have been raised about the differences in recruit training, and questions have been asked about whether all recruits are receiving training in the core competencies set out by the Police Sector Council (HayGroup, 2011:6).

Many traditional educational programs in policing have not been developed with the rigour of an instructional design model. Reviews of police training often recommend the involvement of an instructional designer/curriculum designer who can assist with the development of instructional practices. As a consequence, police services are giving increasing attention to ensuring continuity between the training a recruit receives in the academy and the supervision provided once the new recruit has moved into operational policing.

The recruit's field training may have as significant an impact on the subsequent performance of a recruit as the academy (Caro, 2011; Engelson, 1999). There is some evidence, though, that in some cases field training may negate the recruit's positive attitudes toward various aspects of policing, including community policing and problem solving (Haar, 2001). Given the role of field training in moulding the attitudes and

perceptions of new recruits, it is important for police services to select FTOs carefully and to monitor their approach to that role (Novakowski, 2004).

A review of the literature reveals a several best practice recruit training programs operating in other jurisdictions, most notably in the U.S.A. The operant model in recruit field training is problem-based learning (PBL). This approach provides an opportunity for police recruits to apply the knowledge gained in the academy to real-world situations to demonstrate problem-solving and critical thinking (Makin, 2015:4).

The Current State of Police Recruit Training

A review was conducted of police recruit training programs in England, Wales, Australia, and New Zealand, as well as across Canada. Best practices in specific areas of police recruit training are discussed throughout this report. For example, best practices in field training are included in the field training segments. The following discussion considers leading practices in recruit training programs and police academies in England, Wales, Australia and New Zealand. The discussion is based on interviews with senior police officials, university-based police scholars, recruit training staff, administrative staff, and a review of documents.

Peter Fahy, former chief constable, Greater Manchester Police and specialist advisor to House of Commons Home Affairs Committee Policing for the Future said: "It is unfair to ask police to do a complex job with increased levels of scrutiny and accountability without the relevant depth of training needed to do that job."

There has been a move in England, Wales and in some states in Australia to a blended university/police academy training program for police recruits. This segment examines the drivers of change for police recruit training in these jurisdictions and provides some limited examples of the changes that have been introduced, particularly as they relate to the use of standards, and joint academic-police-community program development, delivery and assessment.

Police Recruit Training Standards

The College of Policing in the United Kingdom is a statutory body mandated to set police training, professional development, skills and qualifications standards, and codes of practice for policing in England and Wales. It was established by the Anti-social Behaviour, Crime and Policing Act (2014) and the Crime Act (2017). The College develops professional policing practice standards, learning standards for the national policing curriculum for recruit and specialized learning, fitness standards for recruits and specialist roles, and standards for police training roles. It maintains a register of approved training providers, has developed professional profiles that describe generic roles for police officers and police specific staff roles, and has developed a competency and value framework. It also provides associated products to support developmental reviews, promotions, assessment of competence and provides support and guidance for assessors (College of Policing website).

In Australia and New Zealand, the Police Advisory Agency (ANZPAA) was established by the Australasian Police Ministers Council (now known as the Law, Crime and Community Safety Council) to carry out the work of the Australia New Zealand Council of Police Professionalization (ANZCoPP), the body responsible for police education and training in Australia and New Zealand. ANZCoPP is comprised of the police commissioners and the police union presidents of Australia and New Zealand, who collectively make decisions on police professionalization and jointly fund work that has been agreed upon by members.

ANZPAA developed the Australia New Zealand Policing Profession Framework to guide its work on police education and training. Its focus is on building a flexible, professional, capable workforce; professional development; developing a body of knowledge to drive informed, evidence-based decision-making; and fostering innovation in cooperation with jurisdictions, universities and the Australian Institute Project.

A New Model of Police Training for England and Wales

Changes in police recruit training in England and Wales accelerated in 2008 after a BBC reporter went undercover as a new recruit and found that racism pervaded the training process. This, coupled with increased complexity, more expectations, increased scrutiny through the use of cameras and social media and a more robust stance by investigative bodies, led to increased calls for accountability and prompted increased emphasis on ensuring police officers understand and incorporate accountability as a critical component of professional policing in police training and practice.

Reviews found that police recruit training was not sufficiently comprehensive to address needs in new and evolving environments and did not incorporate consideration of local needs (Independent Police Commission, 2013: 31-34). Issues raised about officers' expertise included questions about their ability to meet expectations and requirements if they did not understand theory and doctrine. These and other issues prompted calls for a new police education training model to meet these needs. Research highlighted the need for a combined academic and practical program, informed by input from police chiefs, politicians and unions.

In 2018 the College of Policing introduced a new entry requirement that specifies that police officers in England and Wales must have a minimum academic degree qualification. The new Policing Education Qualification Framework (PEQF) requires that recruits have either an academic degree or a degree in policing, or that they join policing and obtain a degree qualification through an apprentice degree program (Rogers, 2016). They conducted research which found that, to be effective, police learning must be tailored to adult learning styles, and that theoretical and practical components must be properly integrated to ensure they can be sufficiently enshrined to withstand the influences of occupational culture (Mayor of London Office for Policing and Crime, 2018).

The report cautioned that failing to develop and adhere to a strategic roadmap that connected theory and practice in program delivery could be the downfall of a recruit

training program. Additionally, a parliamentary inquiry recommended a number of changes to police training in the UK, including increased training in online fraud, child sexual abuse, safeguarding vulnerable people, and mental health training for police officers.

The new training program is focused on providing entry level police officers with foundational knowledge and the skills and the ability to quickly recognize and call on specialists when needed. Foundations blend theory and practice in a way that requires officers to reflect on what they are doing and evaluate and assess why they are doing it. Accountability is incorporated throughout to ensure officers can articulate the theory, doctrine, and practice that backs up their actions. Programs can differ from one department to another, based on local police and community needs.

Historically, police recruit training in the UK focused on rote learning and regular testing. This model lost credibility over time as reviews found that police officers knew what to do and how to do it, but were not able to articulate why they were taking or not taking actions in complex situations, and did not understand the necessary theoretical foundations for decision-making in investigations. For example, they did not understand the value of, or how, victimology and risk assessment needed to be considered and incorporated into domestic violence investigations (interview with Advisor to House of Commons Home Affairs Committee Policing for the Future [UK]).

In the UK police officers at all levels are now required to evaluate intelligence and the impacts of what they are doing based on potential threat, harm and risk. They are being held accountable for their actions and are being taught, at all levels, to record decisions made, as well as the rationale for those decisions, to assist them in responding to questions and to help them make better decisions.

Each of the 43 police forces in the UK are responsible for providing practical training for recruits that meets the standards set by the college. They are required to identify and work with a College of Policing qualified and authorized academic institution to incorporate the theoretical and academic components into the learning process. In some cases, the programs are fully integrated; in others they are not. For example, the South Wales Police Force and University of South Wales/Gwent police recruit training program fully integrates the policing stream and the academic stream.

The University of South Wales, a College of Policing approved learning centre, in cooperation with the local police, provides training for police recruits in the Degree Apprenticeship Program and the Police Constable Degree Program, as mandated by the College of Policing. The university is revalidated every five years to maintain its qualification. Modules and programs are reviewed annually. The university is equipped with simulation suites, crime scene house and all other facilities needed for recruit training.

Recruits are employed at the beginning of the program as trainees. The part-time, three-year program combines academics and skills building. Practical training, including officer

safety training, is jointly provided. The university provides centralized quality control through development of an academic blueprint. Police training officers work with the university team members to ensure the centre program is recognized and can be accredited.

The program is modern and immersive. For example, academics teach laws and authorities and why an officer should or should not arrest. This learning is complemented by practical sessions taught by a police instructor on how to conduct an arrest and arrest related processes. In another example, when working with crime scenes, academics teach the criminal law, and powers of search and seizure, while police specialists teach crime scene awareness, evidence preservation and scene protection. The instructors work together to build not just legal skills, but also critical thinking and articulation skills that enable recruits to think about what they have to do and why, in a way that incorporates ethics, decision making processes, and presentation of facts.

Requests for additions or changes to the program can be made by the university or the police. Once developed and approved at the university level, proposals are signed off by the deputy chief of police. Within the past year, modules on cyber/digital policing and counter terrorism have been added to the recruit training program. For example, they have added play stations, memory sticks shaped like chess pieces and, cell phones to crime scenes to teach recruits how to recognize and preserve potential digital and physical evidence. Sub-topics on the theme of counter-terrorism have been integrated with cultural competency training and now include what officers should look for, unintended consequences and impacts of these crimes, strategies and techniques to reduce barriers to connections with communities, and how and where to access services for victims.

Both parties maintain a close relationship to ensure currency with recruit progress and are involved in providing feedback to students. Assessments are integrated and are carried over several days. For example, a case could involve an intensive scene simulation. The simulation does not stop after the recruits interact with the subject at the incident scene. Rather, the model extends to include the recruit going to the hospital, and finally going to court. Most often, a simulation begins with a one-hour lecture. Recruits are then split into groups and rotate through two 20-minute pre-recorded video Q&A sessions, and then work through a tutorial to do a knowledge check and set the scene for a discussion. Only then is the simulation started and at the conclusion there is a debrief.

Many of the pre-course activities include readings, videos of lectures, and on-line group discussions. Students are encouraged to watch videos together in large comfortable rooms with big screens rather than by themselves. Offering the program at the university encourages blended learning. The school is able to use the university's media team to make video recordings which are used in learning sessions. Both parties feel that there are benefits in this model. For example, if students watch a video about a theft, and then participate in a lecture or discussion, instructors can replay pieces of the video repeatedly to help students understand how they need to think about what is going on, what they

see, what they hear, what is not being said, their rights, their responsibilities and what they need to consider. This ensures they have solid foundational knowledge before they move on to a simulation.

Canadian Police Training Models

The majority of police recruit training programs in Canada still operate under a traditional educational model, which does not align with best educational practices. The traditional model has a strong emphasis on instructor-led instructional methodology, with a heavy focus on lectures, which often have an instructor reading to recruits from a PowerPoint presentation. Lectures leave the recruits as passive learners, rather than as active participants in their own learning and development. Lectures and inflexible lesson plans have all recruits doing the same activity at the same time, which leaves the recruits to develop at the instructor's or program's pace, and not the learner's pace.

The ability for recruits to practice and demonstrate required skills through training scenarios and simulations is infrequent. Inflexible scheduling means that recruits often have to move on before actually mastering the required learning outcome or competency. When recruits fall behind, it This may require additional resources for 'remediation.' Many agencies noted that they dedicated thousands of dollars in remediation per class.

Consistency and Sequencing of Curriculum

In many recruit training programs, there is little documentation or evaluation of lessons and lectures delivered to recruits. Lessons are often not sequenced to ensure that longitudinal themes can be taught throughout and to ensure there is not a siloed approach to teaching and learning. Most recruit training programs are not utilizing a curriculum map that identifies and links all elements of the program and aligns required competencies and job tasks with program outcomes, lesson outcomes, content, instructional strategies and assessment methods.

At JIBC, lesson plans are documented, and consistency of content is an expectation for the instructors. A curriculum map has been built to align competencies to job tasks, and the major elements of the program. JIBC has stated future development plans would include documenting all aspects of the program in the curriculum map.

Instruction

Many of the Canadian police recruit training programs do not have certified instructors and standardized instructor selection processes. Instructors or subject matter experts (SMEs) may be brought in to teach specific content areas. Having a variety of SMEs often does not align with their desired program outcomes.

Ideally, instructors should be trained, certified, and re-certified to ensure they are able to effectively teach in order to develop the recruits' core competencies. JIBC instructors are expected to follow lesson plans and be able to teach holistically in a variety of content areas utilizing a longitudinal themed approach.

The Block Training Structure

There is variability in how recruit training programs across Canada are structured. Most offer an intense 'recruit training program' for approximately six months, followed by field training. In these programs, the recruits do not return to the recruit training program upon the completion of field training.

Some agencies offer a period of experiential learning in which their recruits go out with a supervisor to watch and learn from a field training officer (FTO). The recruits are not in uniform during these weeks as they have not passed qualification for firearms, so their engagement is limited to observing an FTO. In contrast, the JIBC recruit training program is centred on three blocks of training: Block I for 13 weeks, Block II for 21 weeks, and Block III for eight weeks. Block I is designed to prepare recruits with the foundational and fundamental knowledge in order for them to be actively engaged in actual police work. The recruits are not meant to be passive observers. They work with a field training officer/instructor to help mentor and guide them in the context of 'real world' policing situations. This model reflects best practice in learning and "learning by doing." In this model, recruits have opportunities to learn from their FTOs and be in a developmental environment in which they have opportunities to make mistakes, reflect on their performance, and devise a plan with their FTO to overcome any development deficiencies they may have.

This level of engagement at the developmental level is crucial and avoids a lot of "pretend practice time" that may be present if the recruits were to stay in the JIBC for the duration of their training. The recruits spend enough time in Block II to appreciate the reality of on-the-street policing. They then return to Block III to check their skills, evaluate their competencies and advance their development.

The Vancouver Police Department currently provides recruits with 27 days of supplemental training. Of note is that this is an increase of 10 days over the 17 days of supplemental training it provided for recruits in 2017 (German and Rolls:2017). Delta, New Westminster and Port Moody have partnered to cooperatively provide their recruits with a nine-day "Core Patrol Tactics" program, which was specifically designed to fill gaps in the JIBC training. The program includes Conducted Energy Weapon (CEW) and carbine training, as well as Arwen, Taser, and cover and control training. Other agencies offer no supplemental training. West Vancouver participates in some of their training. There is variation in the content of this supplemental training. For example, Delta, New Westminster, and Port Moody require that all police officers are CEW trained; other agencies do not.

4.7 Best Practices in Policing IM/IT

Information is the currency of law enforcement. To be effective and efficient in their operations and investigations, police need access to information that is accurate and current. Police departments must foster a robust and secure information management and knowledge sharing environment that allows for information to be accessed,

analyzed, and shared in a timely fashion between public safety agencies, many of whom are dealing with the same clientele. Information management concerns the sources of information, the processes by which information is collected, and the technologies and methods by which it is stored, analyzed, communicated, and otherwise used by police to achieve the organization's strategic goals. In other words, to develop a strong information management system, police leaders must create an environment in which the collection of information is valued and used effectively and is shared with others to further their operations in a way that respects and protects the accuracy and privacy of that information.

While British Columbia has made progress in information management platforms and policies amongst public safety agencies, particularly compared to other Canadian provinces and territories, challenges to effective information management both between police agencies, and between police and other public safety sectors more broadly continue to exist.

The Role of Information Management in Policing

Accurate and current information is essential to all policing activities. A successful information management environment increases the effectiveness and performance of policing services. It reduces time and resources for data collection and entry, providing access to information held by different organizations working in the field of public safety, and by enabling knowledge to transfer securely, rapidly, and effectively. Information collected by police and other public safety agencies can be collated and analyzed to improve decision-making, resource allocation, and the development of evidence-based policies and practices. Through analysis, information is turned into intelligence, identifying links, patterns, or trends that can enable the prediction of future criminal behavior and the prevention of crime.

Shared National and Provincial Systems and their Interoperability

British Columbia is unique in that police agencies across the province access and utilize shared information management systems which inform their ongoing operational files, assist investigations, enhance communications, and provide timely access to data. PRIME is the integrated Records Management System (RMS) of British Columbia. PRIME consists of various platforms that connect all police agencies in British Columbia with each other, regardless of whether they are municipally contracted RCMP or independent municipal agencies, allowing for rapid entry and access to information. PRIME contains information on police calls for service, individuals involved in criminal and non-criminal files, and file clearance. The information held in PRIME on criminal events is shared with Statistics Canada for the purposes of calculating and analyzing crime rates and clearance rates. PRIME is accessible by all sworn law enforcement members in BC, as well as law enforcement organizations with broader access to the Police Information Portal (PIP). The RMS also connects to JUSTIN, another integrated system collating court data, which makes up the provincial Criminal Justice Information Management System (CJIMS).

As PRIME is a key source of information for police, and informs the development of crime statistics in Canada, it is essential that the information collected within this information management system is accurate and timely. For the information contained in systems such as PRIME to be used effectively and be reliable, it is important that common standards and governance processes are developed and maintained by all agencies, so that the full benefits of information sharing can be realized in ways that maintain the integrity of the data and the privacy of the information that is collected.

All Canadian police agencies access the National Police Services Network, which is managed federally by the RCMP. The systems that comprise this network include the Canadian Police Information Centre (CPIC), PIP, Real-Time Identification (RTID), the National Sex Offender Registry (NSOR), the Violent Crime Linkage Analysis System (ViCLAS), and Canadian Real Time Identification Services (CCRTIS). These systems provide police with access to investigative, identification, intelligence, and supplementary data banks and communications systems, based on permissions and regulatory requirements that all police agencies must meet and maintain.

Accessing these systems enables police to have access to information that can shape their response to a call for service, assist them to make informed decisions about public safety, guide their investigations, help them work with other agencies to effectively manage prolific offender populations, and problem solve community-level issues and crime trends. It is therefore necessary that the information contained in these systems be as accurate and current as possible to support police in making decisions in real-time.

Challenges to Information Management and System Interoperability

While information management is an essential component of policing, several significant factors can challenge effective information management and limit knowledge sharing between public safety agencies.

Privacy

In BC, the collection, storage, use, and exchange of personal information, including personal identifiers (e.g., name, date of birth, social insurance number, driver's license number) and demographic information (e.g., ethnicity, age) are regulated by the *Freedom of Information and Protection of Privacy Act* (FIPPA). The requirements of the Act apply to all independent municipal police agencies. Section 30 of FIPPA specifically states that "a public body must protect personal information in its custody or under its control by making reasonable security arrangements against such risks as unauthorized access, collection, use, disclosure or disposal." Privacy legislation does not prohibit the sharing of personal information between public safety agencies. However, it does place some restrictions on the nature of the information that can be shared, who it can be shared with, and how it can be shared.

Processes and Technology

Access to the shared information held in multiple technical systems, databases, and programs available to police can be restricted by government and agency policies and processes that govern information transmission and limit the sharing of certain forms of information. From a technological perspective, limited access to shared technology via portals, systems and platforms that do not talk to each other, and levels of security or encryption required by some organizations, can also make information difficult or impossible to retrieve efficiently. Each of these factors can hinder information flow, increase instances of duplication of work, and decrease stakeholder interest in contributing information to the database(s), particularly if the main purpose of entering that information is for use by other agencies.

When information is difficult to access and agencies resort to creating duplicate entries, it increases the potential for data entry errors to occur. Information management environments rely on correct and complete data reporting and entry to create an effective master name index (MNI) that can be used to identify which agencies are holding relevant information about persons of interest. However, these programs rely upon information being recorded accurately and consistently. Common issues involve misspelling of an individual's full name and date of birth, which can result in multiple and unlinked entries of the same person.

While there are technological programs that can search unlinked databases for duplicate entries, these programs rely upon the information about that entity being recorded correctly. The ability to access an MNI and create a file attached to that individual reduces the chances that multiple entities will be created for a single individual, and enhances the accuracy of the information, as the attached files are linked to each other.

Individual or Organizational Unwillingness to Share Information

Even when the technology supports accurate data entry and efficient information sharing, there are individuals or units who are reluctant to share knowledge or input data into an electronic environment for reasons of privacy, fear of legal repercussions, maintaining the perceived security of sensitive information, or a belief that what they know gives them an advantage in some competitive way. While providing technological solutions to information sharing facilitates knowledge transfer, police departments must also challenge ingrained beliefs or opinions in the interest of more consistent information sharing.

Police leaders can support greater engagement in information sharing by providing more clarity and direction. Providing flowcharts indicating which, with whom and how information can, and should be, shared can effectively reduce barriers to information sharing that stem from the fear of sharing something that should be kept private, or sharing it in a way that threatens the security of that information. However, changing attitudes towards information ownership can be more challenging, as these attitudes

and beliefs can form part of the internal philosophy or identity of an individual or team. Police leaders can help to address such concerns by expressly demonstrating the value and benefits of information sharing, in particular, as it relates to more effective workload management.

Workload-Information Overload

Information management systems that enable information sharing can reduce workload by reducing the need for duplicate data entry, providing access to information that would otherwise need to be collected by a public safety agency, and by providing up-to-date information on an entity's status or conditions, enabling more rapid and informed decision-making. Simultaneously, as an information management environment makes it possible for significant amounts of information to be accessed, these systems can also lead to workload or information overload, given that they can create a large quantity of data to sort through and evaluate when making decisions, particularly when time is of the essence. Time is also a barrier as too often individuals are working under time constraints, or have multiple on-going investigations, making the volume of data entry work arduous, which creates a disincentive for staff, particularly frontline personnel, to use and contribute to the system.

Moreover, information overload is also an issue in intelligence gathering, as the desire to 'catch everything' in a database leads to a 'more is worse' situation, where so much information is captured that it becomes impossible to process it in any meaningful way. This is particularly true during investigations, when all pieces of information must be investigated as to their potential role in the event and processed for disclosure purposes.

Organizational Structure

The way an organization or agency is structured can impact the internal information management and knowledge sharing practices utilized within the agency. For example, specialty units may intentionally hold information out of the shared system to reduce the likelihood of the information being used erroneously or for other purposes. Unintentional information silos can also exist between personnel and units that are caused by physical location, hierarchical structure, or different responsibilities and mandates. These factors can intentionally or unintentionally break down information sharing and effective communication within an agency's structure, resulting in personnel 'working blind.'

Risk Management

All information must be handled with attention to privacy legislation. However, sensitive investigative information must be further protected and secured within the information management environment to avoid unauthorized breaches, inappropriate data access, and information getting into the wrong hands, which could jeopardize investigations or court proceedings, endanger individuals, risk public trust and confidence, or result in

liability and lawsuits. This is more likely to be a consideration of specialty units, such as those managing confidential informants or who are investigating homicides. While done with good intentions, withholding data in this way can inhibit effective decision-making by police or other public safety agencies who may be dealing with that entity for other purposes. When law enforcement agencies are working on similar files or events, deconfliction practices can reduce the likelihood that agencies or personnel without access to the relevant information are working at cross-purposes with other agencies or personnel; however, this requires a strong information management system that will 'flag' potential conflicting interests and trigger a notification process.

Forming a Strong Information Management Framework

While there is no single method to reduce barriers to information sharing within and across agencies, efforts should be made to mitigate these barriers when forming philosophical and technological frameworks for effective information management and knowledge sharing within an agency. To do so, police agencies must consider adopting strategies such as those outlined below.

Create a Culture Valuing Information Management

Police officers should be encouraged and supported by their organization to accurately document information in the first instance, educated in efficient methods to do so, and provided with resources that help them with this (e.g., transcription via digital voice recorders or administrative assistants that can type up their voice dictation into a more detailed PRIME synopsis).

Agencies should incorporate a training program that will inform police officers early in their career of the concepts and processes of the system. Having a clear understanding about the system, the potential application and security of the data, and the ability of shared information and knowledge to benefit their own investigations as well as that of others, will assist in their engagement with the system and encourage them to appropriately and fully document their work in detail. Having an understanding about the potential uses and application of the data, the ingrained security of the system, and the benefits of shared information and knowledge to their own investigations will assist in their willingness and ability to record, use, and disseminate accurate and current information.

When addressing issues of data quality, so that information can be used and managed effectively, agencies should incorporate a systems-focused training program, incorporate knowledge about the importance of accurate and timely information collection for criminal justice purposes as part of entry-level training, direct common data-entry standards, and provide the best devices, technology, or mechanisms for data entry at the street level to assist police officers in their work. A timely quality assurance process for data-validation must also be implemented, ensuring systems and interfaces

maintain the integrity of information and develop an architecture and data standards of operation for all to follow.

Stakeholder involvement and engagement is recommended for system users to involve them in planning the information management structure and to better understand what the information is used for and how the information can be securely stored, accessed, and shared. This information, in addition to clear flowcharts and memorandums of understanding, when necessary, may initiate a shift in mindset to be more supportive towards information and knowledge sharing.

By creating an organizational culture that encourages accuracy in data, builds trust within and across units, and considers information sharing to be a significant benefit to both the organization and individual workloads, leaders can enhance the information management and knowledge sharing capacity of an agency.

Address Data Security and Manage Risk

Policies and procedures regarding the appropriate handling and securing of data have been well established and legislated in British Columbia but they rely upon each individual agency to comply with those policies. Rigour in the business practices of each individual agency must be applied and quality assurance measures implemented, to ensure all standards are upheld. Data handling, sharing and security protocols must be strictly complied with to minimize risk and allow users to work responsibly within the environment. Providing a strong policy and technological framework for information collection, use, and dissemination will enable these concerns to be mitigated.

4.8 Best Practices in Officer and Organizational Health and Wellbeing

Occupational Stress Injuries and Risks to Officer Health and Wellbeing

Research has clearly established that policing is a dangerous job, both physically as well as psychologically. Occupational Stress Injuries (OSIs) are described as psychological injuries that occur as a result of workplace factors and operational duties. Occupational, or organizational, stress is driven by the structure and functioning of the workplace environment, and can include shift work, paperwork, understaffing, criminal justice system frustrations, and high-performance expectations combined with limited resources.

One review study examining sources of police stress concluded that the major sources of stress for police came from the organization. In contrast, operational stress reflects the typical activities engaged in during the job, such as executing an arrest, responding to fatal accidents, making next of kin notifications, or investigating cases of child abuse. Occupational and operational sources of stress are both detrimental to officer wellbeing. Consistent exposure to occupational stress depletes the officer's internal resources, leaving them underprepared emotionally and psychologically to manage an unexpected crisis.

Critical Incident Exposure

A critical incident has the potential to overwhelm an individual emotionally, either while at the scene or afterward. Some of the earlier research into stress related to critical incidents with police officers from a midsized urban department reported that officers experienced an average of 3.41 traumatic events over six months on the job. Notably, 21% of these officers reported six or more traumatic incidents in the past six months. In this study, traumatic or critical events were broadly defined as including domestic violence calls for service, which was the most commonly identified source of trauma, as well as child abuse/neglect, using force, confronting an aggressive crowd, confronting an individual with a gun, or involvement in a high-speed chase in the city. Research has also documented that police respond to on-the-job stress with physiological changes and that these changes can occur while preparing to go on shift. In addition to routine stress that occurs over the duration of a typical shift, police officers exhibit measurable levels of anticipatory stress at the outset of their shift. Essentially, putting on the uniform triggers a visceral reaction among officers as they begin to prepare themselves mentally for what's to come. Officers start their shifts with elevated blood pressure and heart rate, indicating comparatively high levels of stress even before responding to their first call for service. As well, research has shown that officers who have been traumatized continue to exhibit high levels of cortisol production even beyond the critical incident, to the point where it becomes a regular pattern. This is likely due to both the occupational and organizational stressors associated with policing.

Burnout in Policing

Burnout is a common outcome of OSIs. Burnout can occur when individuals become consistently overwhelmed and fatigued, leading to workplace dissatisfaction, reduced efforts at work, low frustration tolerance, and increased absenteeism and turnover. Several authors have argued that burnout is common in policing as recruits are not sufficiently prepared for the frequency and range of stress-inducing operating conditions. Further, the police culture, which expects officers to be naturally resilient to trauma and workplace stress, prevents officers from seeking help when struggling.

Shift Work and Officer Fatigue

Certain types of rotating shifts between days and nights contributes towards excessive levels of fatigue. In the late 1990s, Bryan Vila and colleagues conducted a large-scale study on 'tired cops' using four municipal law enforcement agencies from across the United States. Their groundbreaking research identified that while uncontrolled overtime shifting was a major cause of dangerous levels of police fatigue, shift length was also a contributing factor.

In a large multi-national study with 4,957 municipal police officers in the United States and Canada, sleep apnea was a commonly identified condition among officers, with one-third (33.6%) screening positive for this condition. These researchers identified significant associations between sleep apnea and mental and physical conditions, including

depression, burnout, and cardiovascular disease. Notably, they were also significantly more likely to experience workplace issues, including administrative errors, safety violations, falling asleep while driving, uncontrolled anger towards citizens or suspects, citizen complaints, and absenteeism from work. In a separate study, officers on night shift were 72% more likely to experience an injury. Interestingly, the likelihood of experiencing an on-shift injury was also greater on the first shift of the rotation. In a Canadian study, police officers involved in a motor vehicle collision while on duty were overwhelmingly (91%) on their first shift of their cycle and yet reported only an average of five hours of sleep in the 24-hours prior to their shift.

One experimental study with 275 police officers from two American departments found evidence favouring a 10-hour shift. Shift models that follow an equal number of officers assigned to each watch, rotating through a four-on, four-off shifting pattern are not only apparently detrimental to the physical and mental wellbeing of officers, but they are also not informed by the patterns of calls for service, which typically drop substantially overnight, picking up in the early morning hours as people rise for the day. Shifting patterns that follow the patterns in calls for service are better able to accommodate calls for service as they allocate a greater number of officers into shifts where they are in demand.

Attending to officer fatigue is critical from an organizational health perspective. Moreover, it is essential to attend to officer fatigue given that the potential outcomes of tired officers include poor decision making and judgment calls, possibly including increased use of force or officer misconduct, as well as an increased likelihood of police motor vehicle incidents.

Police Culture Stigmatizes Help-Seeking

Police culture has long been one that has resisted interference from outside supports, but which also admires itself for being strong and impervious, and which sees occupational violence as an expected routine part of the job. While it is now well known that police officers are routinely exposed to critical incidents, and that their capacity to effectively manage their emotional response to those incidents is affected by organizational sources of stress, the police culture is still largely resistant to help-seeking behaviours. Officers who may otherwise express a desire for psychological support fear being alienated from their colleagues who they fear may perceive them as weak and undependable in a crisis.

In addition to inhibiting help-seeking behaviours, the police culture itself can also be a source of stress. In one study using data from 1,632 officers across 51 American police agencies, officers who defined themselves as being outside of the police culture exhibited higher levels of occupational stress than officers who closely identified with the police culture. The nature of police culture not only inhibits help-seeking behaviour by officers for fear of stigmatization it has direct impacts on lost productivity and cost to the police organization. Research has estimated that the annual cost per officer of untreated mental health conditions (PTSD, alcohol abuse, or depression) is around $4,489 USD.

The failure to seek help following exposure to trauma has led some officers to manage their post-traumatic stress symptoms in less effective and potentially dangerous ways, such as via alcohol abuse or suicide. Police officers have higher rates of suicidal ideation, planning, and attempts, as well as completed suicides as compared to the general population. A recently released review study on law enforcement suicide summarized that suicide was commonly attributed to workplace stress, with sources of stress including lack of organizational support, exposure to critical or traumatic incidents, shift work, mental health stigma, and police culture.

Increasing Resilience and Wellbeing Among Officers

There is a clear need to enhance police resilience to both occupational and operational sources of stress. Resilience reflects an individual's ability mentally or emotionally to overcome adversity. In policing, this is interpreted as the ability to withstand continuous threats to psychological and physical wellbeing posed by workplace stressors. Protective factors, such as job satisfaction and higher levels of self-esteem, coping self-efficacy, and social support, affect how individual officers respond to exposure to critical incidents and organizational stress, but it is not yet well understood how best to promote protective factors via the work environment. There are currently no agreed upon "best" practices for police when it comes to promoting wellness, enhancing resilience, and intervening post-exposure to trauma to reduce the development post-traumatic stress symptoms. However, there are several programs that show promise as potential prevention or intervention strategies.

Critical Incident Stress Management

While police officers are trained to react during a critical incident, exposure to challenging situations, such as abuse of a child, witnessing a death, or being involved in a shooting can overwhelm an individual. Critical Incident Stress Management, or CISM, is a program that has been implemented in other fields, including health care and social work, to both prepare officers for exposure by increasing their resilience and recognition of normal responses to trauma, as well as by responding post-critical incident through a debriefing process. The debriefing is primarily led by peer facilitators and provides psychological and emotional support by psychologists and triggers further interventions when needed. CISM is a seven-step "group crisis intervention technique" that uses education regarding critical incidents and trauma combined with psychological support to educate officers about common responses to trauma and reduce the likelihood that officers will develop PTSD following a critical incident. CISM has been implemented as a mandatory program to bypass the stigma towards help-seeking behaviours that are commonly found in police cultures. Involving peer facilitators improves perceived authenticity as those involved are from within the police culture rather than perceived outsiders.

CISM is distinct from Critical Incident Stress Debriefing (CISD), which is usually a single-point debriefing following a critical incident and does not involve the peer support and follow up of the seven step CISM program. As organizational health and wellbeing has garnered more attention in recent years, some departments have implemented CISD,

however usually without the additional elements of CISM. Research indicates that a single intervention point via debriefing following a critical incident is not an effective method to reduce the likelihood of developing PTSD following a critical incident, and in fact may even increase the risk that an officer will develop more post-traumatic symptoms. Comprehensive CISM programs have not yet been widely implemented to date in police settings and therefore there is limited data on its effectiveness outside health care settings, however many of the occupational and organizational stressors in health care have parallels to policing.

Peer Support

Social support is identified as one of the more effective protective factors when it comes to reducing the likelihood of developing PTSD following critical incident exposure. Social support can include emotional/informational support, tangible support, affectionate support, and positive social interaction. Support can include recognition of contributions from supervisors and police leaders, as well as advice and emotional care from colleagues. A study of Korean police officers concluded that providing officers with sources of organizational support, as well as tools to enhance their coping self-efficacy skills, would increase officer resilience to critical incidents. Similarly, other researchers have suggested that greater access to social support can reduce the effect of organizational stress and recommended the development of police peer mentoring programs.

Peer support programs seek to normalize an officer's response to a traumatic incident through discourse and counselling. These models provide employees with paraprofessionals (e.g., current or retired officers who receive some mental health training) who they speak with confidentially regarding their experiences, sources of stress, and psychological distress. While increasingly provided by law enforcement agencies, there is little research available on their effectiveness.

Employee Assistance and Health and Wellness Programs

While Employee Assistance Programs (EAP) are increasingly common in corporate and government organizations, data suggests that these are not as effective in a policing context when it comes to mental health concerns. This is due in part to the fact that use of EAP services is voluntary and there are concerns by employees that information shared with service providers may be disclosed back to the organization, which officers fear could result in their being pulled off the road. One study on mental health help-seeking among 150 American police officers indicated that of those who sought programming for mental health conditions, 35.7% chose non-EAP options, whereas those seeking help for non-mental health conditions were much more likely to proceed with the EAP program (75%). Nearly 47% of officers with either PTSD, alcohol abuse, or depression expressed concerns with using their department's EAP, with the most common concerns involving perceived confidentiality (35.0%), potential negative impact on their career (16.7%), and perceived stigma with help-seeking (13.3%).

Some law enforcement agencies have entrenched health and wellness within their organization by introducing health and wellness programs or units. This might involve providing opportunities for nutrition education, fitness training, mindfulness, yoga, or massage. While voluntary, health and wellness programming provides officers with opportunities to enhance their resilience, locating paraprofessionals within these units may also be a helpful approach in reducing stigma towards mental health supports and encourage greater use of these types of resources.

A more recent development in wellness programming has been the release of mobile applications that individuals can use to screen themselves for symptoms of psychological distress and trauma. One study evaluated the Smart Assessment on your Mobile (SAM) application as it pertained to accurately screening for PTSD and depression. Among a sample of 89 police officers, the SAM was demonstrated to be a valid screening tool for these mental health issues. The SAM can therefore provide officers with a quick, accurate, and anonymous assessment of their own levels of mental health issues. Similarly, researchers evaluated the PTSD Coach application among a sample of 45 veterans in treatment for PTSD. Their participants rated PTSD Coach as very easy to use and helpful in understanding and managing their PTSD symptoms and engaging in coping strategies when their symptoms threatened to overwhelm them. While these programs do not reduce the stigma typically associated with health seeking behaviours, they enable officers to take the first step in identifying when they may need to seek mental health supports, and they appear to increase the number of individuals who are willing to complete mental health screening assessments. The apps can also enhance mental health literacy by linking in information and resources that officers can click on if they desire more information about where and how to seek assistance to deal with these symptoms.

Mindfulness-based interventions are an increasingly popular approach to countering stress and psychological distress and promoting resilience. In one of the few studies focusing on mindfulness practice among police officers, police recruits in Australia with higher self-reported mindfulness levels exhibited lower levels of depression. Similarly, another study with a sample of 183 police officers showed that self-reported mindfulness was associated with lower levels of PTSD symptoms. One group of researchers implemented an eight-week mindfulness-based intervention with 43 police personnel and found that participants experienced reductions in stress, burnout, emotional dysregulation, anger, fatigue, and sleep problems, while also experiencing increases in mental and physical health. Similarly, a review study on mindfulness found that mindfulness practices by participants expressing suicidal ideation reduces suicidal thoughts, reduces abnormal stress response (e.g. consistently high levels of cortisol production), and increases problem solving skills and attentional controls. It appears then that mindfulness is a skill that can be taught to officers in order to enhance their internal resilience to workplace stressors and assist them in coping with symptoms of post-traumatic stress and other related mental health conditions.

Community Responsive Policing Reduces Social Isolation

In a review of occupational violence in policing, social isolation was identified as a factor that prevents officers from help-seeking following a traumatic incident. Social isolation was referring to police culture and the tendency to create an "us versus them" mentality, wherein only other officers are perceived as being able to understand what police experience. Programs like CISM and peer support networks have attempted to build this mentality into their program delivery approach by using paraprofessionals. However, shifting the organization towards a community responsive mentality can also help to reduce social isolation and increase officer access to social supports, which is a key protective factor in enhancing resilience to critical and traumatic incidents. Connecting more closely with the surrounding community reduces the sense that the community and police are distinct entities. Whereas police culture is typically associated with the suppression of emotional reactions or expressions, when an organization is practising community responsive policing, they naturally show empathy when interacting with the community in more positive ways than when they are engaging with the community for enforcement purposes.

CASE STUDY: The San Diego Police Department Wellness Unit Program3

The best practice program on officer wellness, operated by the San Diego Police Department (SDPD) is an exemplar (Police Executive Research Foundation, 2018). It outlines a process of normalization.

> "The heart of training for wellness is reaching new officers early and often to normalize wellness services. Normalizing means trying to ensure that SDPD officers and other employees see nothing unusual in asking for these services, just as they would apply for any other benefits of employment" (2018:47).

The program has a number of components, including "Emotional Survival Training" offered to recruits in the training academy.

> "The goal of Emotional Survival Training is to equip new officers with tools to recognize and manage the unique stressors that are associated with a career in law enforcement. The Wellness Unit and the SDPD's help services providers deliver the training in the academy. It is offered near the end of officers' time in the academy so that they are more aware of law enforcement culture and can relate more directly to the training material" (2018:48).

Following is a description of how the materials are delivered:

> "The training began with a discussion of Dr. Gilmartin's book, *Emotional Survival for Law Enforcement* and a discussion among the new officers about how they have changed since entering the academy. Recruits were asked to identify different coping strategies such as engaging in physical activity, talking with friends and family, investing in hobbies, and using the resources of the Wellness Unit. The instructor also discussed how hypervigilance and repeated exposure to critical

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[3] Reference: Police Executive Research Forum. 2018. Building and Sustaining an Officer Wellness Program. Lessons from the San Diego Police Department. Washington, D.C.https://www.policeforum.org/assets/SanDiegoOSW.pdf

incidents can induce symptoms of PTSD. Warning signs of stress such as social isolation, infidelity, and procrastination in off-duty decision-making were also presented. The training also addressed the leading causes of death among police officers, including heart disease and suicide. The importance of physical fitness and regular exercise to mitigate these risks is stressed. The training concluded with the recruits dividing into small groups to discuss the symptoms and long-term effects of stress and anger, followed by suggested coping strategies" (2018:48).

"Psychological Preparedness Training for New Officers" also referred to as Wellness Day, is a 10-hour session that includes officers and their families. The goal is:

"To set realistic expectations about the emotional impact that police work may have on officers and to underscore the importance of wellness and utilizing wellness services to long-term career success. The Wellness Day gives help service providers an opportunity to reach officers' family members, familiarize them with the wellness services the department offers, and establish direct lines of communication with officers' loved ones" (2018:49).

"Effective Interactions Training" is mandatory for all new officers.

"The goal of the training is to help officers develop their emotional intelligence to make them more successful in their work and better able to manage the stressors associated with policing. The Wellness Unit developed the initial iteration of its Effective Interactions training in partnership with Dr. Daniel Blumberg, a police psychologist who is developing strategies for agencies to prevent and respond to police misconduct" (2018:50).

Following is a description of a half-day session offered as part of the training.

"The latter half of the first day was dedicated to interactive breakout sessions that demonstrated the effects of stress, exhaustion, and hypervigilance on the mind and body. Then, students were presented with tools to mitigate these effects in the course of their duties. The class was divided into five groups, which rotated among stations at which facilitators discussed one of five topics:

- Self-awareness

- Self-management

- Social awareness

- Relationship management

- Communication with peers" (2018:52)

In addition to helping build a healthy team mentality, the benefits of PT on the physical and mental health of police officers are well-established. Physically fit police officers are also better prepared to handle contingencies that may arise in the field and assist in

ensuring the safety of officers, victims, and community residents. Physically fit police officers also incur less injuries during recruit training, have greater physical literacy, and are less likely to injure others or themselves during critical movements when they are exercising force.

CASE STUDY: Vancouver Police Department Officer Health Program

The Vancouver Police Department (VPD) offers several prevention and intervention strategies focused on overall health and has developed dedicated units for these purposes. Several of the intervention approaches discussed previously are being implemented by the VPD including:

- Employee Assistance Program;

- CISM Team;

- Peer Support Member Team;

- Recruit Wellness Program; and

- Athletic Therapy and Wellness Unit.

In addition, VPD has developed its own Road to Mental Readiness program, an Early Intervention program, Employee Wellness Committee, High Stress Debriefing Program, and Concussion Protocol to go further in supporting officer health and wellbeing.

Under the VPD Employee Family Assistance Program, officers, as well as their immediate families, can access funded independent psychological services. Unlike other EAP programs, however, additional services under VPDs program include legal services, childcare and parenting, eldercare, and nutrition. The CISM team work not only with personnel, but also the families of officers who are involved in critical incident. By debriefing following a critical incident, the VPD believes it is helping officers to manage their emotional response to the incident, which will reduce the likelihood that they will develop more severe psychological problems at a later point. The Road to Mental Readiness program trains employees about mental health issues and creates awareness about stigma regarding mental health issues and help-seeking behaviours. The VPD also recognizes the importance of peer support, and has developed a Peer Support Member Support Team, which provides confidential outreach services to officers and their family members. Their services may include emotional support, mentorship, crisis risk assessment, and/or referrals to other programming.

The Early Intervention program is an organization wide effort that identifies employees who are struggling through an assessment of particular behaviours. Specifically, officers use of sick hours, excessive leave, overtime earned, involvement in motor vehicle collisions, use of force incidents, and complaints are tracked and officers scoring within certain parameters are flagged for discussion. If the discussion amongst program managers (Inspectors) concludes that an intervention may be warranted, the Human Resources Unit reaches out to the officer to offer supports and intervention services.

A similar program focusing more on physical health is the Employee Wellness Committee. This committee, composed of personnel from the Union, Human Resources, and other units, meet four times a year to discuss wellness initiatives that they wish to plan and/or implement to better promote employee wellness. The VPD also has a Police Employee Relations and Advisory Unit composed of sergeants and disability case managers who work with personnel submitting WorkSafe claims for OSIs or other issues. They provide supportive services, such as a High Stress Debriefing program, wherein officers working in high stress areas, such as those working child sexual assault files, have mandatory yearly (or more) appointments with an independent psychologist who is paid by the VPD for their services, but who keeps the disclosed information confidential. Similarly, VPD offers chaplain services for those officers who would prefer to talk confidentially about their concerns or challenges. The Unit also provides 'resiliency' sessions, which act as a booster to the Road to Mental Readiness Training. These sessions focus on techniques to manage stress and enhance resilience and discusses stigma to mental health treatment.

Recruit Wellness educates new recruits about the importance of wellness and creating positive habits, such as physical health, self-care, financial health, and avoiding or managing common work-related injuries. At the other end of the career trajectory, this unit also provides retirement planning and transition coaching services to help retiring personnel exit safely out of the profession and into a comfortable retirement. In addition to financial planning, employees nearing retirement are offered retirement coaching sessions, which encourages them to think about how things will change post-retirement and how to effectively manage the change in identity and cope with this major change in life.

The VPD specifically acknowledges that mental and physical health are closely connected, and so, in addition to psychological health, three programs focus on the physical health of officers. Personnel are offered medical examinations which focus on screening individuals for the purpose of catching issues early and preventing them from becoming more serious problems. The VPD also operates a concussion protocol to help personnel returning to work post-concussion do so in a way that is safe and reduces the risk of further injury. The protocol also involves increasing awareness of the signs of concussion to encourage help-seeking behaviours. A separate unit, the Athletic Therapy and Wellness Unit, focuses on providing access to physical health by managing on-site gyms and providing fitness classes and physiotherapy. While none of these programs or strategies have been formally evaluated, it is encouraging to see a large urban police organization take a strong stance on promoting resilience and officer wellness. Moreover, by recognizing that physical and mental wellness are connected and that it is important to attend to both in order to be healthy, the VPD is not only providing better care for its members, but it may also be reducing stigma around help-seeking behaviours and thereby changing the police culture.

The combination of a lack of sleep, poor overall nutrition, lengthy shifts in the car, rotating shift work, and routine exposure to critical and traumatizing incidents makes

policing one of the most dangerous professions, and it is essential that healthy practices are put in place to both model and promote wellness among employees. Yet while exposure to critical or traumatic incidents can trigger the development of post-traumatic stress symptoms, it is important to acknowledge that the literature on police wellness typically concludes that the most common threats to officer wellbeing come from the police organization itself. Organizational stress increases psychological distress among police officers and reduces their job satisfaction, increasing the likelihood of absenteeism, early retirement, and the development of physical and mental health issues.

Organizations can better prepare officers for workplace stressors and can modify the work environment to reduce some of the more common sources of psychological distress. By modifying several occupational sources of stress, the organization can enhance an officer's internal resources and resilience, increasing the likelihood that they can avoid developing conditions such as anxiety, depression, or PTSD. For instance, one of the most well-known researchers on fatigue amongst police officers, Bryan Vila, recommended policy changes to restrict the use of overtime, reducing off-duty attendance at court, and adopting different shifting models that are more in tune with natural biological rhythms. Increasing the number of civilian staff in the police force is one method of reducing workplace stress on police and may also have a beneficial effect on the police culture.

It is essential that the workplace culture shifts to one that is less stigmatizing towards help-seeking behaviours. By creating a culture that promotes wellness, police leaders, who have a critical role to play in leading this change, can enhance officer resilience to sources of occupational and organizational stress. Further, organizations can entrench police officer wellness by introducing Health and Wellness Units, which can be tasked with providing workshops and seminars on physical and mental health, conducting annual fitness (physical and mental) assessments, and providing access to programming. While the research is still in the early stages, there are promising practices that can be implemented by police leaders to better support the mental and physical health of their officers.

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CITY OF SURREY
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CITY MANAGER'S
DEPARTMENT
CORPORATE REPORT

NO: **R149**   COUNCIL DATE: **June 25, 2018**

REGULAR COUNCIL

TO:	**Mayor & Council**	DATE:	**June 21, 2018**
FROM:	**Director, Public Safety**	FILE:	**7450-30**
SUBJECT:	**Public Safety Strategy Progress Report – Introducing Performance Measures**		

RECOMMENDATION

The Public Safety Division recommends that Council receive this report for information.

INTENT

The purpose of this report is to provide the Public Safety Strategy Progress Report (the "Report") to Council for their review.

BACKGROUND

The development of a Public Safety Strategy was announced by Council in 2015. Staff consulted broadly across the community and launched a comprehensive Public Safety Strategy (the "Strategy") in October 2016, following endorsement by the Public Safety Committee. Publication of the Strategy signalled the City's commitment to transparent performance measurement. The Strategy was built with a focus on three core principles of being collaborative, comprehensive and measureable. All of the strategic initiatives embedded in the Strategy are delivered in partnership across City departments and with community organizations and not-for-profit agencies. The initiatives under the strategy are grouped into four priority areas – Preventing and Reducing Crime, Ensuring Safe Places, Building Community Capacity and Supporting Vulnerable People.

On May 14, 2018 the Public Safety Committee endorsed the release of the Report (attached as Appendix "I").

DISCUSSION

The Report provides a comprehensive overview of performance measurement data on the public safety program delivery and outcomes, as well as data on crime trends in Surrey over time. The Report also provides insights into the first year of implementation of the Strategy and evolution of Strategic Initiatives, including the addition of new initiatives such as the Mayor's Action Plan on Gang Violence Prevention. For some measures, data collection does not occur on an annual basis so the data period covered varies between indicators. Measurement data for the full year of 2017 is provided where possible.

Priority Measures Scorecard

To understand the context in which the Strategy is being delivered, measurement data is provided for indicators in each of the four strategic priorities (Table 1). Priority measures track trends related to the areas in which Strategic Initiatives are delivered. Table 1 outlines data for the current year, however, the Report shows the trend line on each of these measures over the last several years where this is available. It is important to note that priority level indicators cannot be only and directly attributed to the work of the Public Safety Strategy. Instead, they provide context on trends in the community regarding each of the priority areas. These trends are driven by multiple complex factors. Importantly, they provide a snapshot of our current status on several key community safety issues.

Table 1 – Priority Scorecard Measures

Priority Area	Measures	Current Data
Prevent and Reduce Crime	Crime Severity Index	117.2 (2016)
	High School Graduation Rate	95% (2015/16)
	Residential Break and Enter Rate (per 100,000 population)	294 (2017)
	Seniors as Victims of Crime	7% (2017)
Build Community Capacity	Applications for Community Events and Grants	398 (2017)
	Early Development Instrument	34% (2013-16)
	Average Recreation Hours for Adults	2.38 (2017)
	Residential Fire Rate of Death and Injury (per 10,000 population)	0.67(2017)
	Sense of Belonging to the Community	67% (2014/15)
Ensure Safe Places	Business Break and Enter Rate (per 100,000 population)	247 (2017)
	Casualty Collision Rate (per 100,000 population)	1,612 (2015)
	Rate of Fire per 1,000 Residential Structures	1.60 (2017)
Support Vulnerable People	Rate of Domestic Violence Incidents (per 100,000 population)	223 (2017)
	Rent Supplements for Homeless and At-Risk People	296 (2016)
	Transition and Supportive Housing Units for Homeless and At-Risk People	603 (2016)
	Total Homeless Count (per 100,000 population)	115 (2017)

Strategic Initiative Scorecard

Performance measures have been confirmed for each of the Strategic Initiatives under the Strategy and these are outlined in Section 6 of the Strategy, "Strategic Initiatives Scorecard". Each measure in the Report is supported by a narrative outlining key trends or changes in the program over the first year. The icons showing the status of indicators is outlined in the key in Figure 1. Twenty (20) Strategic Initiatives are outlined in the scorecard and have baseline data to report (Table 2). It is important to note that Strategic Initiative measures are more directly attributable

to actions taken under the Public Safety Strategy. These relate to the specific outputs and outcomes of our initiatives.

For this progress report, targets are still being assessed for some indicators as it is necessary to understand a baseline of performance before setting targets. Once baselines and targets are set these icons will provide a quick status check for the program leaders and enable the working group to provide additional support or review to assess why the program is, or is not, meeting the targets. Where indicators are yellow (moving away from desired outcome) or red (not achieving target) our related activities and the initiative itself will be reviewed and adjusted as necessary to ensure success of the initiative.

Figure 1 – Key for Status of Indicators

- ● Target achieved by deadline
- ◑ Moving toward desired outcome
- ● Moving away from desired outcome
- ● Target not achieved by deadline

Table 2 – Strategic Initiatives Scorecard Indicators

Strategic Initiative	Indicator	Current Data	Status
Age Friendly Strategy for Seniors	Seniors' Participation in Events	2,171 (2017)	●
	Seniors' Participation in Wellness Programs	14.2% (2017)	◑
Block Watch	Neighbourhood Participation in Block Watch	832 (2017)	◑
Code Blue/Mini Blue	Total Hours of Student Engagement Completed	3,226 (2016/17)	◑
	Total Number of Sessions Delivered	242 (2016/17)	◑
Cyber Security Outreach Program	Downloads of Resources	22,582 (2017)	●
	Events and Awareness Raising Activities Completed	11 (2017)	●
WRAP Program	Participant Graduation Rate	100% (2015/16)	●
	At-Risk Youth Participation	85 (2016/17)	◑
Yo Bro Yo Girl Initiative	Building Positive Social Norms	81% (2016)	◑
	Schools Participating in the Program	16 (2017)	●
	Total Program Reach in Surrey	710 (2017)	●
Community Enhancement	Attendance at Parks Related Events	5,341 (2017)	◑
	Rate of Program Completion by Youth	60% (2016)	◑
	Reports Received Related to Nuisance Incidents	9,176 (2017)	◑
Critical Hours – MYzone	Participant Resiliency Rate	67% (2017)	◑
	Rate of Child's Awareness of Supports Available	58% (2017)	◑
	Rate of Families' Awareness of Supports Available	82% (2017)	◑

Diversity Outreach Program	Diversity Presentations Delivered	83 (2017)	●
	Program Reach Through Events	116 (2107)	●
HomeSafe	Individuals Receiving Home Fire Safety Information	28,900 (2015)	◑
	Smoke Alarm Verifications	7,633 (2017)	●
Early Years Programming	Playbox Registrations	165 (2017)	◑
	Family Preschool Subsidies Provided	27 (2017)	◑
Surrey Emergency Program	Individuals Receiving Emergency Preparedness Information	13,504 (2017)	●
Surrey Libraries Information Access and Literacy Support	Access Cards Distributed	228 (2016/17)	●
	Vulnerable Populations Reached	3,182 (2017)	●
Volunteerism	Volunteer Hours Completed	112,895 (2016)	●
	Volunteer Participation	5,526 (2016)	●
Community Safety Support	Hours of Uniformed Street Level Walks in City	18,454 (2017)	●
	Events With Community Safety Support Presence	108 (2017)	●
Project IRIS	Camera Locations Registered	226 (2017)	◑
	RCMP Database Queries to Identify Cameras	27 (2017)	◑
Road Safety Education and Awareness	Vehicles Speeding in Program Areas	16.8% (2017)	●
Safe and Active Schools Program	School Travel Planning Participation	33 (2016/17)	◑
Inter-Agency Case Assessment Team (ICAT)	High Risk Offender Recidivism	11% (2016)	◑
	Domestic Violence Prevention Outreach	50% (2017)	◑
Surrey Mobilization and Resiliency Table (SMART)	Approved Referrals to SMART	65 (2017)	●
	SMART Interventions Completed	82% (2017)	●
	Cases Closed with Lowered Risk	64% (2017)	◑

A further eight initiatives have performance measures identified in the Report.

- Clayton Heights Activity Team (CHAT)
- Gang Exiting and Outreach Pilot
- WRAParound Program
- Girls Got Game
- Business Safety Surveys
- Safe and Active Schools Program
- Road Safety Education and Awareness
- Data Driven Approaches to Crime and Traffic Safety (DDACTS)

Baseline data for these new measures are currently being collected for inclusion in the 2018 Progress Report.

SUSTAINABILITY CONSIDERATIONS

Implementing the performance measurement framework for the City of Surrey Public Safety Strategy supports the Public Safety theme in the Sustainability Charter 2.0 allowing significant delivery on all related Desired Outcomes and Strategic Directions outlined in the Sustainability Charter 2.0.

The Public Safety Strategy also supports the Health and Wellness theme. Specifically the strategy supports the following Wellness and Recreation Desired Outcome (DO):

- DO3: Residents feel a sense of belonging and connectedness, and have opportunities for social interaction in their neighbourhoods and community.

CONCLUSION

When the City established the Public Safety Strategy, staff set out to develop and implement an approach which was comprehensive, collaborative and measurable. As indicated in the full report significant progress has been made on all three of those aspects of the strategy. It comprehensively addresses three strategic priorities - Prevent and Reduce Crime; Build Community Capacity; Ensure Safe Places; and Support Vulnerable People. It is collaborative and includes every internal department in the City and more than 75 external partners. The various aspects of the Strategy have engaged thousands of citizens. The Public Safety Strategy Progress Report outlines the success in measuring the performance of our strategic initiatives. It establishes benchmark performance data for each of the four priorities and each of the strategic initiatives.

Therefore, based on the above, the Public Safety Division recommends that Council receive this report for information.

Terry Waterhouse
Director, Public Safety

TW/mc

Appendix "I" - Public Safety Strategy Progress Report   *Appendix available upon request*

SAFE

Surrey Anti-Gang Family Empowerment Program

SUPPORTED BY:

Public Safety Canada

Sécurité publique Canada

Canada

IN PARTNERSHIP WITH:

CITY OF SURREY
the future lives here.

- 2 -

SAFE Highlights Up To March 31, 2020

- **47** Meetings | **180** Cases
- Dashboard Implemented

- **2** conferences | **~500** professionals from Canada | USA | Australia

- **159** Collaboration Functions
- **2015** Professional Visits
- Hired Evaluator

- **158** clients | Year 1 (Q4)
- **1357** clients | Year 2 (Q1-4)

SAFE PROGRAM LEADERSHIP GROUP

Foundational Research and Evaluation

SAFE CENTRE

Caregiver Education/Clinical Counselling

Female Youth Gang Intervention Program

SAFE Community Clinical Counselling

Family & Youth Resource Support Team (FYRST)

Children And Youth at Risk Table (CHART)

Peer Leadership Program

Youth Hub for Co-operative Enterprise

South Asian Family Strengthening Team

High Risk Youth Justice Program

Intercultural Family Intervention

SAFE | Surrey Anti-Gang Family Empowerment Program

Children & Youth At-Risk Table (CHART)

SAFE | Surrey Anti-Gang Family Empowerment Program

COMMUNITY SAFETY – CHART ACTIVITY UPDATE

198	28	126	71	14	108	21
Cases	Cases with Siblings	Male Cases	Female Cases	Average Age	Closed Cases	Avg Risk Factor

4 Min-RiskFactors
46 Max-RiskFactors

Reasons for Closure

- Connected to Services — 59
- Declined Services — 26
- Single agency mandate — 10
- Moved Outside of Surrey — 8
- Incapacitated/ Injured — 2
- Unable to Locate — 2
- Unknown (Duplicate case) — 1

Cases by Month and Year

Year ● 2019 ● 2020

2019: January 20, February 17, March 17, April 14, May 13, June 5, July 8, August 8, September 8, October 25, November 24, December 17

2020: January 0, February 14, March 1, April 17, May 13, June 9/5

Cases by Age

Gender ● Female ● Male ● Other

Age axis: 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19

Values shown: 4, 4, 12, 4, 7, 21, 10, 16, 10, 7, 9, 3 / 21, 12, 16, 12 / 14, 6

Cases by Neighborhood

- Newton — 63
- Guildford — 46
- Whalley — 29
- Fleetwood — 25
- Cloverdale — 17
- South surrey — 16
- Unknown — 2

Year
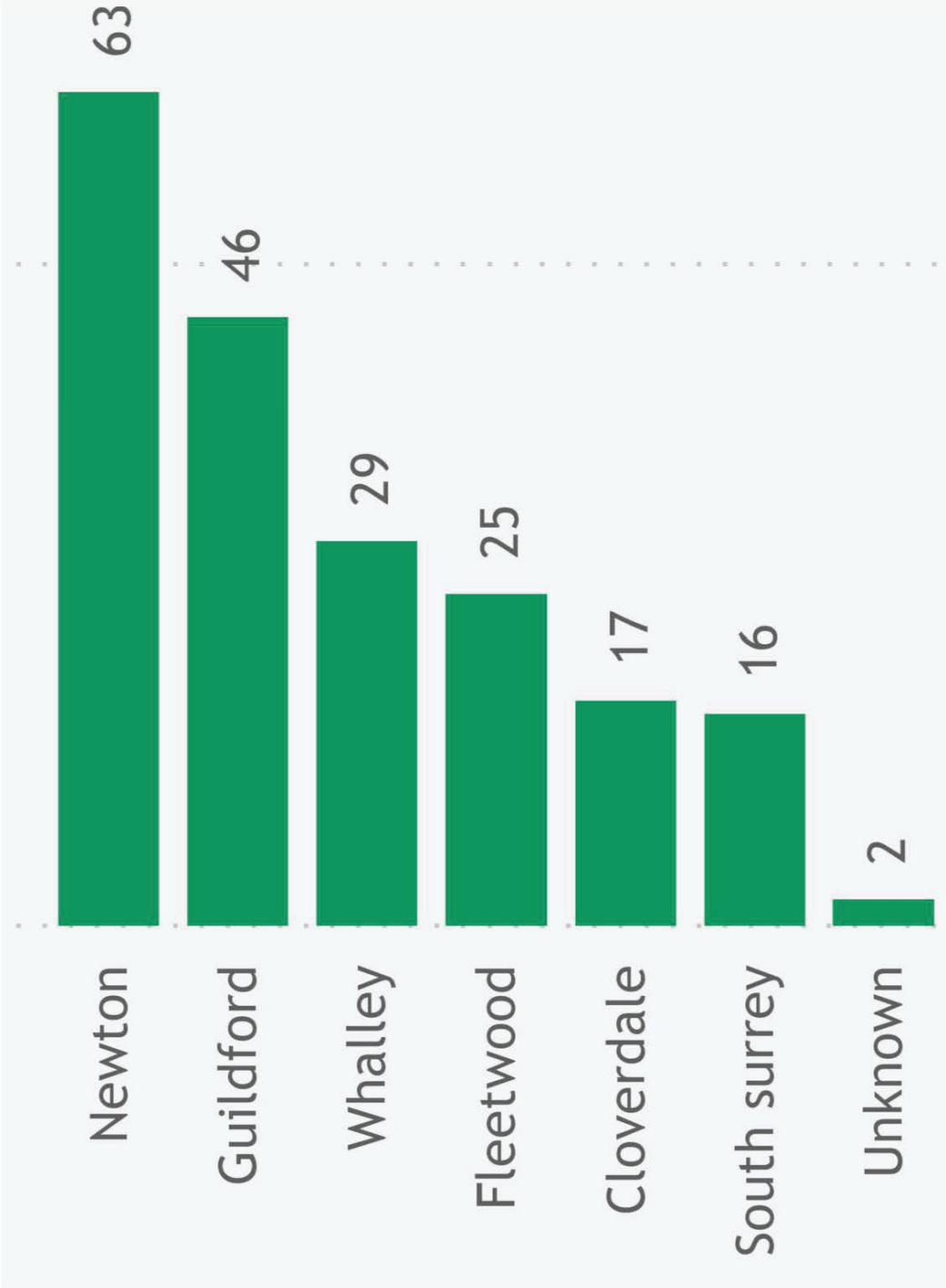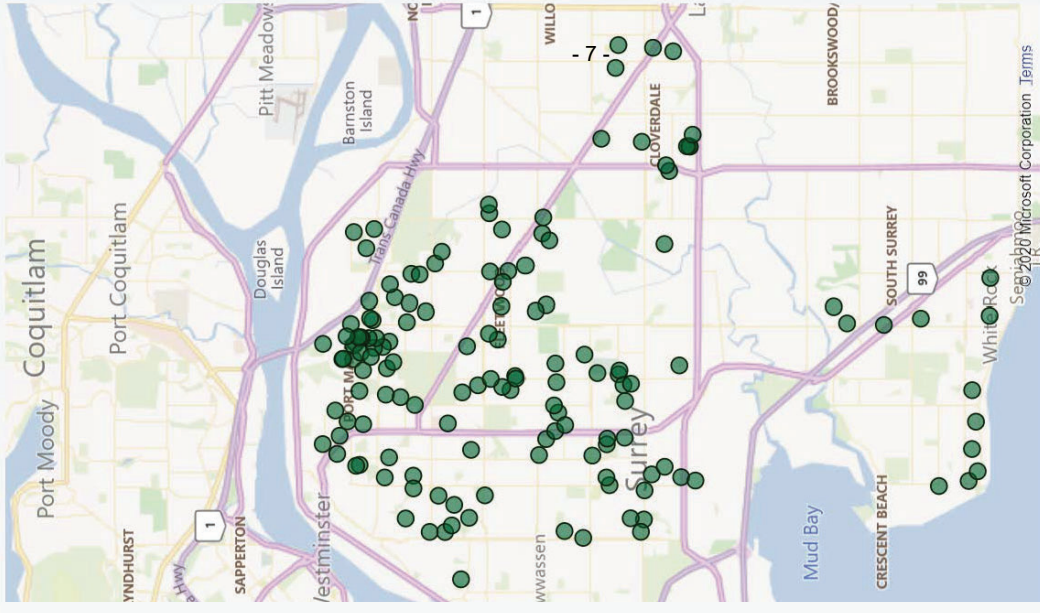☐ 2019
☐ 2020

Agency
☐ Alex House
☐ CFSEU
☐ City of Surrey
☐ DIVERSEcity
☐ FRAFCA
☐ MCFD
☐ Options
☐ PCRS
☐ PICS
☐ RCMP FYRST
☐ SD36
☐ SD36-Wrap
☐ SFU

Supporting Agencies
All ∨

CHART Dashboard | June 30, 2020

CHART Partners Per Case
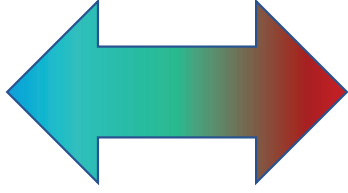
1 (7%)
2 (17%)
3 (29%)
4 (30%)
5 (8%)
6 (7%)
7

- 7 -

CHART Cases by Neighbourhood

CHART
| Children & Youth At-Risk Table

SMART
| Surrey Mobilization & Resiliency Table

Theory of Change

Decreased involvement in gangs & violence

Increased connection to family, school, & community

Risk reduced & resilience increased

Target audience reached

Collaborative intervention

Long-Term Outcomes

Short & Medium Outcomes

Outputs
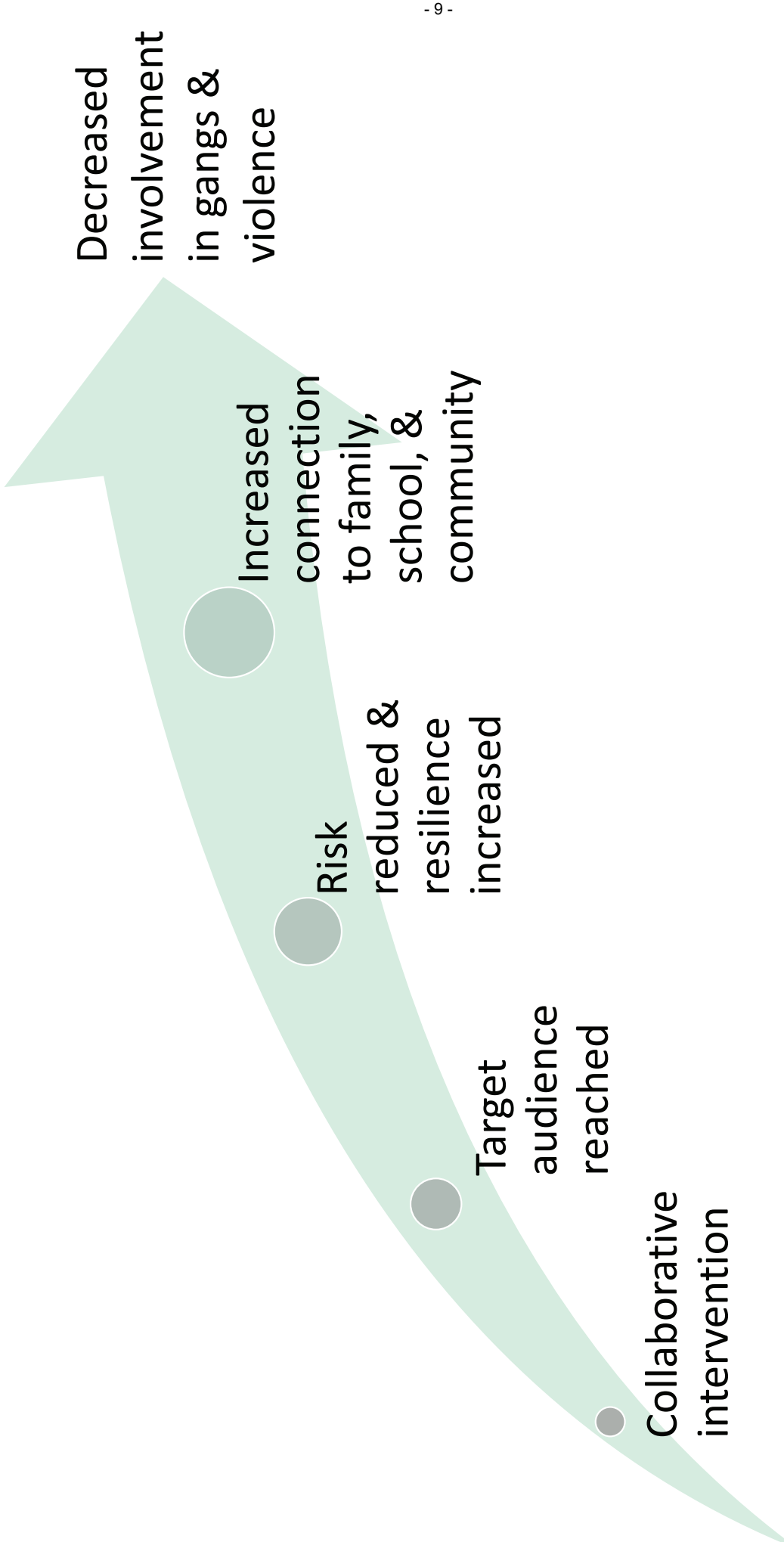
Performance
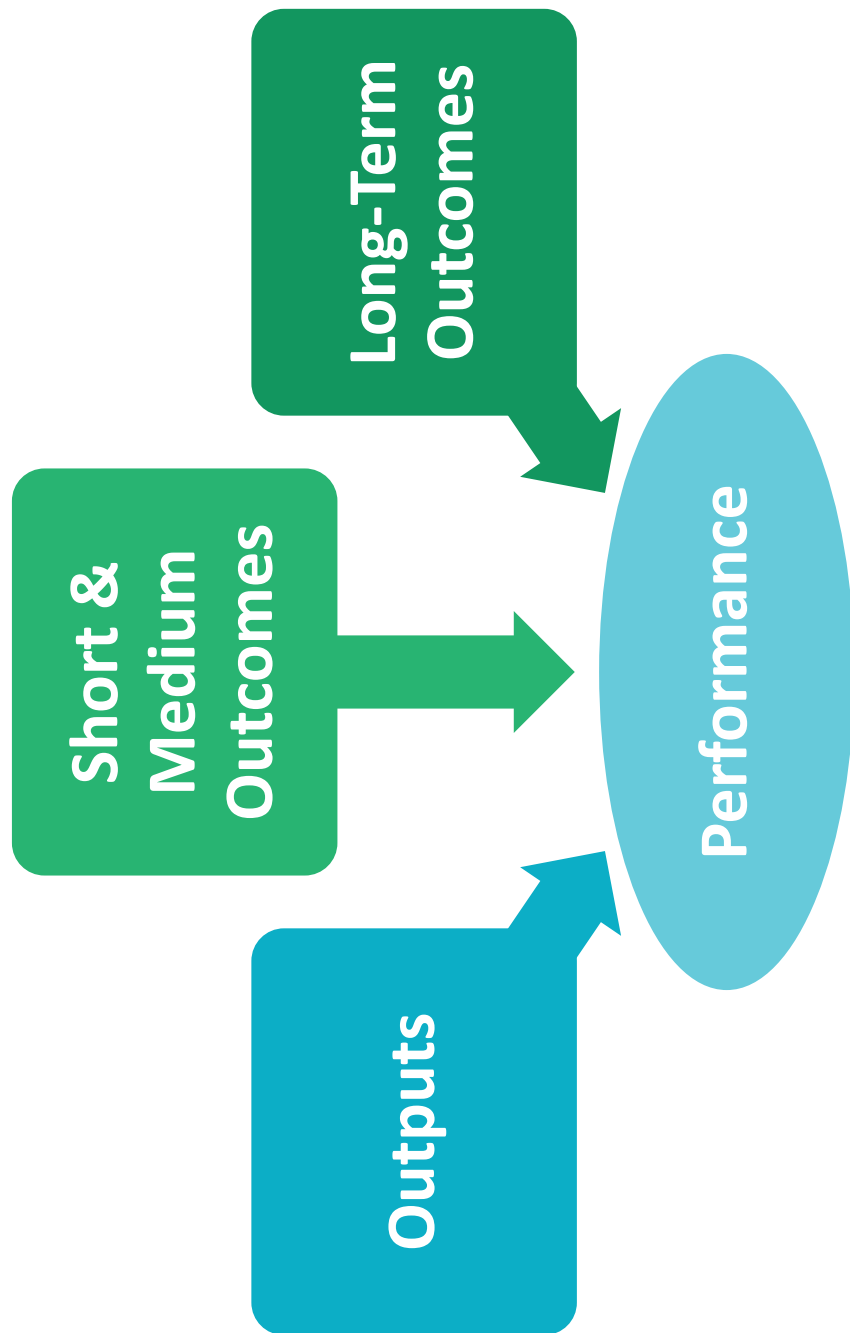
SAFE Measurement

Correct Approach to Service

- 66% have been victimized
- 23% possess weapons
- Trauma-informed approach

CHART Impact Data | June 30, 2020

Potential Quantitative Savings

$115,000 per year to incarcerate

4,000 vulnerable for gangs

400 potential for incarceration

400 x $115,000 = $46M

OFFICE OF THE PARLIAMENTARY BUDGET OFFICER BUDGET BUREAU

Average

587

- 12 -

Qualitative Savings

Complementary Research

Engage

Empower

"E2"

#SAFERTOGETHER

A Presentation Series

| SAFE Program | CHART | Community Safety | Empower |

SAFE

The Surrey Anti-Gang
Family Empowerment Program

🌐 surrey.ca/safe

✉ communitysafety@surrey.ca

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