FAMILY CRISIS INTERVENTION TRAINING:

A CREATIVE FRAMEWORK

THESIS

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Concomitant with increased awareness and emphasis on human relations training within the academe, business and governmental organizations are placing higher priority on research and implementation of new interpersonal skill development by their employees. Particularly within the law enforcement arena, the need for effective communication, especially under family crisis conditions, is crucial.

Running the gamut from Dale Carnegie courses to sensitivity groups, police training formats have been organized to enhance the officer's effectiveness during situations of stress. The impact of various communication programs on officer performance during a family crisis has been the subject of some study. However, research into a human relations training program with regard to (a) the role and psychological disposition of the officer, (b) a general program of interpersonal skill development, and (c) a practical application of those acquired interpersonal skills represents a virtual nonentity of academic research and formulation. As psychologists Flynn and Peterson describe in their analysis of patrolman behavior, only recently has the policeman become more than the sharp-shooting sheriff of yesteryear:

1

A perusal of the literature, which is not very replete, suggests that formalized procedures for the selection and training of police recruits are quite new. Only a few decades ago a police officer was considered appropriately selected and adequately trained if he possessed the necessary skill to fire a weapon and to interpret the penal code of his local community (8, p. 454).

Flynn and Peterson further suggest that metamorphosis in social structure and the management of urban centers compels city officials to reevaluate methods for police training. The shift in training procedure, the authors posit, stems from a defiance of the law exhibited in the post-depression years. This change, although instigated over thirty years ago, remains in the infancy stage in most police departments (8, p. 454). In the light of the paucity of interpersonal crisis training guides, development of a family crisis control framework seems both appropriate and necessary.

Significance of the Problem

While skeptics might argue that the abundance of mental health facilities, crisis communication hotlines, and social work centers obviates any justification for exhaustive police crisis training, in reality, the converse is true. First, any plethora of crisis counselors seems seriously in doubt, whether the area be urban or rural. Second, as psychologist Robert Carkhuff informs, the most effective interpersonal helper usually wears no psychological training label. Bartenders, barbers, gas station attendants, and, to perhaps a lesser degree, policemen are accepted more freely by the

helpee in times of crisis. Relative to what he terms the
core dimensions of crisis aid, Carkhuff observes, "In gen-
eral, there is evidence to indicate that traditional prac-
titioners neither concentrate effectively upon the core
dimensions nor offer high levels of these dimensions in their
helping" (4, p. 22). The fear of being emotionally manipu-
lated or psychologically analyzed by an omniscient "head
shrink" generally does not transfer to the patrolman on the
beat. As far as much of the public is concerned, the police
officer resides outside of the "traditional practitioner"
category of interpersonal skills.

Beyond these two reasons, it should also be noted that
the poor, who have the highest incidence of family crisis
occurrence, are unique in their calls for assistance. While
troubled middle- and upper-class families may invoke the aid
of lawyers, clergymen, marriage counselors, psychiatrists,
and psychologists of the various behavioral disciplines,
lower socio-economic levels tend to call solely upon the
police on occasions of familial disturbance. Indeed, as
sociologist Elaine Cumming's survey indicated in 1965, over
half the calls for assistance to an urban police department
may involve family crises or other complaints involving
personal or interpersonal conflict. And again, of these
crisis calls, the impoverished lodged the majority (5).

The burden of responding to disturbances among relatives,
lovers, and close friends rests solidly upon the police.

In terms of time and manpower, Epstein, 1962, estimates that 90 per cent of a policeman's duties entail activities unrelated to crime control or law enforcement (7). The President's Commission on Law Enforcement reinforces Epstein's estimate through their 1967 report:

> A common kind of situation that illustrates the complexity, delicacy--and frustration--of much police work is the matrimonial dispute, which police experts estimate consumes as much time as any other single kind of situation. . . . Yet the capacity of the police to deal effectively with such a highly personal matter as conjugal disharmony is, to say the least, limited . . . an activity for which few policemen--or people in any profession--are qualified by temperament or by training (10, p. 92).

Such demands on time, coupled with current training practices, pose a dilemma for the policeman. For the 90 per cent of officer working time spent in interpersonal services, police psychologist Morton Bard estimates that "99 per cent or more of training and of professional rewards are related to that small proportion of their time that is devoted to crime and law enforcement" (1, p. 249).

Even more serious than police time spent is the incidence of injury during a crisis call response. The New York City Police Department in 1966 announced that approximately 40 per cent of its men injured in the line of duty were hurt while responding to family disturbances (9, p. 78). The President's Commission on Law Enforcement reports that family disputes probably cause "more assaults on policemen than any other kind of encounter" (10, p. 92). Even more recently, the Washington Planning and Community Affairs Agency recorded,

"In 1969, 16 per cent of the police officers killed in the line of duty in the United States met death while answering disturbance-type calls such as family disputes . . ." (12, p. 301). So whether the toll is kept in assaults or homicides, relatively untrained policemen suffer deleterious effects of a family crisis confrontation.

What adds even more substance to these already significant statistics resides within the family unit itself. There is perhaps no method of presently detecting how many crimes are a direct outcome of uncontrolled aggressive outbursts within families. There are indications, however, that their number may be considerable. If only the category of homicide is considered, the evidence is impressive. There are numerous studies which support Durkheim's observation (6, p. 354) that "while family life has a moderating effect upon suicide, it rather stimulates murder." In 1965, there were 634 homicides in New York City, of which 35 per cent involved family members or close friends (9, p. 78). A study of homicide in Houston, Texas, by Bullock concluded that most felonious assaults result from either petty quarrels, marital discords in which one spouse kills another, or love or sex disputes in which the deceased was slain by someone other than a spouse (3, p. 573). Bensing and Schroeder also studied 622 homicides committed during robberies in Cleveland, Ohio, and said, "Homicides committed during robberies receive much publicity but do not represent as great a number of

killings as do marital discord and quarrels between friends"
(2, p. 77). In Wolfgang's study, 65 per cent of 500 homicide
victims were relatives, close friends, paramours, or homosexual
partners of the principal offender, while only 12 per cent
were complete strangers (14, p. 73). The President's Commission
on Law Enforcement also concludes that family strife is "prob-
ably the single greatest cause of homicides" (10, p. 92).

Whether calls for police assistance constitute either
a hitherto unrecognized "homicide signal," or represent a
warning of family disorganization and disintegration, the
highest possible level of skilled intervention is indicated.
The policeman's predicament and his need for rapid response
to interpersonal crisis is illustrated by the report given
by a Los Angeles police officer:

> Her husband was drunk and ugly when we got there
> . . . . I started to grab him and struggled with him
> and the first thing I know I felt an aluminum pan
> pounding on my head and there is the little woman who
> ten seconds ago was standing there trembling at what
> the husband would do when he left, beating me on the
> head with an aluminum pan and saying, "You are not
> supposed to hurt him. Let him alone" (13, p. 60).

The policeman's social identity as a law enforcement
official, and therefore as a "sanctioned" intruder, is a
"master status." His superior standing manifests itself in
many forms. All other elements of his public identity are
overshadowed by the badge of authority that he possesses.
It overrides all other aspects of his societal image. What-
ever else the policeman may be, he is still the cop who can
arrest you if he desires. The caveat, "Better play it cool,

he's a cop," underscores the policeman's marginal identity.
With such proximal and frequent contact with crisis, the
rationale for designing an intensive interpersonal training
program seems self-evident.

Statement of Problem and Methodology

The purpose of this analysis is to construct a program
framework relating relevant factors of the law enforcement
environment to a communication crisis training format. Such
a design transcends simple reporting of existing programs by
incorporating the as yet unrelated research of communicolo-
gists, psychologists, and sociologists into a unified
approach.

The underlying thrust of this study encourages the
development of a broader base for police training. The
need for that broader base, with full awareness of the
interrelated nature of this program to the policeman's
total responsibilities, seems apparent. The approach of
this design seeks to be creatively utilization rather than
traditionally value-laden. Sociologist Louise Riscilla,
through extensive examination of police family crisis inter-
vention responses, advocates more than mere amendment of
existing programs. Rather than a two-hour lecture on mere
"techniques" for containing a family conflict, Riscilla
supports more intensive instruction and change:

> What is needed is not reform, because reform
> implies a re-forming of ideas which are often vari-
> ations of the analytic objective, subjective perspective,

but radical transformation based on a perspective geared
to being beneficial . . . . Crisis intervention therapy
would be geared to using all available resources toward
treating crisis in society and helping the individual
to find a way of life . . . that would not be necessary
to violate laws. The primary concern is not with . . .
determine guilt vs. innocence, right vs. wrong, and
justice vs. injustice, but with what is going on and
responding in a positive manner (11, p. 12).

Riscilla, through her evaluation, sets the philosophical

stage for methodological development of this study. The

program would have at its base an approach not as much con-

cerned with "oughts" and "ought nots" as with promoting

positive change through interpersonal growth and family

crisis alleviation.

The precise areas of methodological concern will be

(a) background and context of crisis control training; (b)

development of a communication selection and training program;

and (c) application of the program framework, statement of

projected results, and suggestions for further research.

The background and context area involves an examination

of the policeman's role and personality composition. Studies

from social scientists and psychologists are consulted within

this area.

The development of a communication selection and training

program interrelates with the background and context area.

Selection involves a detailed look at four test instruments

which complement practical considerations for choosing train-

ees. The tests studied are the Adjective Check List, Semantic

Differential, Niederhoffer Cynicism Scale, and Adorno F Scale.

Training is theoretically based upon the Carkhuff Systematic Human Relations Training procedure with practical application to family crisis intervention.

With the application of the training framework comes a statement of program goals, areas of improvement, and guides for continued study.

Summary of Design

The study consists of four chapters. Chapter One includes an introduction, description of the problem and its significance, and a discussion of methodological considerations. Chapter Two examines the significant portions of the police role and psychological composition, with application to the family crisis situation. Chapter Three involves actual program design. The last chapter incorporates a broader, evaluative view of the entire program, with suggestions for program maintenance.

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CHAPTER II

THE ROLE AND ATTITUDE OF THE POLICEMAN

Cognizance of the police officer's role and viewpoint
toward the public is crucial to the development of any family
crisis intervention program. Any action to settle a family
disturbance is more than a simple enforcement of statutes
and ordinances. The necessity for split-second decisions
under often unfamiliar circumstances requires that the officer
be more than a walking law book. As the National Advisory
Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals observes,
the security and self-defense mechanisms of strict law appli-
cation may void the policeman's capacity for compassion and
engender resentment in the public that he has pledged to
serve. The National Advisory Commission further notes that
when an officer's repertoire of enforcement skills is so
rigid and restricted that "going by the books" is the only
recourse, he forms an emotional shell insulating himself
from the crisis which he encounters (8, p. 154). The image
of the hard nosed policeman, impervious to emotional crises
which develop within the family unit, offers little hope of
alleviating the interpersonal conflicts between relatives or
between neighbors. The key to solving family disputes is
found in understanding the role of the officer's flexibility
in handling such disputes.

12

The Role of Police Discretion

The flexibility needed for management of family crisis situations is usually described as police discretion. Regarding police mediation of family disputes, Herman Goldstein suggests, "The approach taken in each case of family disturbance is a matter of choice on the part of the individual officer" (6, p. 1135). Goldstein further notes that police administrators attribute little importance to family squabbles (6, p. 1136). Hence, in the realm of family crisis intervention, the discretion which officers possess is a result of default rather than design.

No matter what the source of police discretion is, as Charles Reich shows in "Police Questioning of Law-Abiding Citizens" (10, p. 72), the sociological power which the officer can use is immense. The ability to subject members of a family dispute to arrest, delay, a night in jail, frantic calls to relatives and lawyers, or subjection to physical force gives the policeman a wide array of significant actions affecting the parties in conflict. The significance of discretion is even more pronounced when, as Goldstein shows, the appropriate police behavior in family crisis intervention can often fall outside of the usual law enforcement options (6, p. 1137). Choices concerning the appropriate interpersonal skills used in a family crisis are equally as important as correctness of law enforcement.

The boundaries of the discretion which an officer employs are at least partially determined by the socialization that he receives in training and the norms of departmental life. The informal code of peer expectations delineates the limits of police discretion within a family conflict. In order to maintain the solidarity of the members of a law enforcement unit, modes of behavior for handling certain situations may be kept within rather narrow limits (15, p. 72). If departmental norms require a tough, legalistic approach to family disturbances, for example, the actual range of discretion by the attending officer may be far more restricted than the theoretical range which he could employ.

Under current conditions in many police forces, sociologists, psychologists, and criminologists have found that departmental norms, both formal and informal, have limited discretion to the point that arrest of the conflict participants is the most likely option. Psychologist Hans Toch labels discretion which frequently results in arrest as "policemanship" (13, p. 23). The practice of policemanship includes the maintenance of an informal "track record" of arrests. Policemanship manifests itself in two dimensions relevant to crisis intervention: (a) gains in peer worth and status through acquisition of a high arrest rate and (b) the threat of arrest to coerce desired behavior while the officer is present. These dimensions have corresponding results in management of crisis situations. If (a) arrest occurs, the

conflict within the family or between close associates becomes
unsolved and unreconciled in the legal maze which follows.
If, however, only (b) the threat of arrest is issued, par-
ticipants in the disturbance assume a temporary state of
"good behavior" until the officer leaves. In either situation,
where arrest transpires or only the potential of arrest is
present, the causes of the conflict never emerge. Since the
police represent the only therapeutic contact which many
crisis-prone families possess, the 1965 Cumming survey
declares that arrest-oriented behavior maintains the family
pathology until it is resolved through death or separation
of family members (4, p. 277).

Rather than helping solve the undercurrents of conflict
within a warring family, the officer might use his discretion,
as Paul Chevigney notes, to provoke an arrest. Chevigney
comments, "The consensus among the authorities who have studied
the problem is that the police do sometimes try to provoke
violence in order to make an arrest" (3, p. 74). Even if
arrest is not the option taken, James Wilson describes the
policeman's discretion of "curbstone justice" which allows
him to handle the situation through physical chastisement
since the incident will never be reviewed by a judge (16,
p. 62). Again, sociologist William Westley reports that,
"the police believe that certain groups of persons will
respond only to fear and rough treatment. In the city studied,
they defined both Negroes and slum dwellers in this category"

(14, p. 40). With the Cumming survey (4, p. 277) showing
the highest incidence of family stress among the black and
the poor within the inner city, the discretion often employed
by the officer seems neither effective nor beneficial to
crisis management.

Even with problems of inappropriate arrests and police
violence, to reject unequivocally the notion of police
discretion would be unfair and harmful to the citizens whom
the policeman serves. The use of discretion for either
good or evil ends is not innately acquired, but rather a
learned, reinforced behavior (13; 2, pp. 36-38). Goldstein
balances the view on police discretion by stating, "Dis-
cretion is often exercised by the police in a sincere effort
to accomplish a social good" (5, p. 151). Indeed, the
officer who views himself as a concerned helper to an em-
battled family, rather than as a legal intruder into alien
territory, can use discretion as a vital vehicle in allev-
iating the crisis situation. The educated use of such
discretion is the task which Chapter Three hopes to
accomplish.

Police Psychological and Attitudinal Composition

Like police discretion, much has been researched and
written concerning the policeman's personality and attitudes.
One of the foremost psychologists on police personality
study, Jerome H. Skolnick, emphasizes the need to look at
the differences of police personalities as well as the

similarities. He asserts that higher education levels, broader bases of selection, and increasing specialization of police tasks renders the "typical" cop on the beat an anachronism. But Skolnick's thesis is the similarities, or as Skolnick terms the "working personality" of the policeman:

> A recurrent theme of the sociology of occupations is the effect of a man's work on his outlook on the world. . . . Thus, the police, as a result of combined features of their social situation, tend to develop ways of looking at the world distinctive to themselves, cognitive lenses through which to see situations and events. The strength of the lenses may be weaker or stronger depending on certain conditions, but they are ground on a similar axis. Analysis of the policeman's cognitive propensities is necessary to understand the practical dilemma faced by police required to maintain order under democratic rule of law (11, pp. 26-27).

Since understanding the "practical dilemma" encountered by the policeman in a crisis intervention call is the thesis of this study, a brief sketch of the policeman's working personality would seem fruitful. The two variables of "danger and authority," Skolnick comments, are the cornerstones to the working personality. The variable of danger, particularly prevalent in heated family arguments, inclines the officer to maintain a defensive, guarded position (11, p. 143). Such an awareness of danger places numerous barriers to communication between the officer and the complaining parties. The patrolman is hesitant to display sympathy, warmth, and understanding when the wife is armed with a frying pan and the husband is clutching a butcher knife.

Skolnick relates authority, the second variable, to the constant pressure to appear "efficient." The "power of the badge" can become the shortcut to quelling marital disturbance. Authority shields the officer from the responsibility of relating on a person-to-person level. The unequal power distribution, although essential for law enforcement, often only introduces another explosive element of resentment to an already volatile situation. Through the use of authority, the officer might restore "peace" within the family quickly and, therefore, "efficiently," but the underlying crisis still remains.

Of the two key variables of danger and authority, more has probably been written upon the latter with regard to the policeman's personality. In Arthur Niederhoffer's frequently cited book, Behind the Shield, the authoritarian police personality is extensively examined. Niederhoffer concurs with Skolnick in warning that "Obviously different needs are satisfied by the same job and in most occupations there is no indication that one type of personality predominates" (9, p. 104). Although a distinct authoritarian personality type may not be recruited by police forces, the very role which a policeman must perform enhances authoritarianism. The departmental directives to "arrest," "detect," "prevent," "summons," "regulate," "Disperse," and "warn" serve to augment the officer's feeling of authority (9, p. 104). In the crisis intervention arena, the steel of authority must be

tempered with respect and regard. Sheer use of police power to "solve" a family problem is only a stopgap measure with the eventual outcome to be renewed and perhaps more severe conflict between the concerned parties.

In addition to the key variable of authority, other psychological characteristics have been described by psychologists as norms for the police personality. Ruth Levy's research led her to conclude that certain personality traits, well established before a man becomes an officer, are important in determining whether he can cope with the stresses of police life. The studies of Levy purport to reveal the typical officer as "more unresponsive to the environmental stresses" than those appointees that failed to remain in the law enforcement field (1, p. 275). The stresses which Levy delineates include becoming a member of a "minority" (occupationally speaking) group, need to adhere to a quasi-military regimen, community expectation of incongruous roles and the assumption of a position of formal status complete with the trappings of uniform, badge, holster, gun, and all that these imply. The lifetime officer more likely comes from a rigid parental code maintained by a dominant father. As a child, the career officer learns to adhere to conservative standards and feels little inclination to defy or rebel against authority. Levy's emphasis is placed upon the reinforcement contingencies within a department which eliminate those personality types unsuited to the stress of a policeman's life (7, p. 266).

The impact of learning and social environment is used by Michael Banton to describe the characteristics of police. In contrast to Levy's view of inner departmental forces shaping the policeman's outlook, Banton sees the officer adopting the values of the society in which he exists. A corrupt community breeds corrupt police, according to Banton's theory. If the society sets store by differences of social class, this will affect the police both as an occupational group in the class hierarchy and in their dealing with people of varying class (1, p. 101).

Although Levy and Banton hold somewhat contrasting positions, their views merge when considering the family crisis intervention situation. Levy's analysis shows the police to be rigid and traditional because of inner department influences. Banton's study reveals the majority of policemen adhering to white, middle-class, traditional family values. Inherent in both positions is a tendency for the intervening officer to perceive a family crisis as that which is alien and repugnant. Since lower socioeconomic families have the most conflict (4, p. 277) and because they lie outside of what is valued as desirable by the white middle class (12, p. 43), then police response to their dilemma is likely to be less than wholeheartedly positive.

The Police and Crisis Intervention

Family crisis intervention training requires at least a basic understanding of the policeman's role of discretion

and an awareness of some of the psychological touchstones used by the policeman to form his attitudes toward the public. Several assumptions emerge from the overview of police discretion and psychological composition. First, in both the area of discretion and attitude, the officer's behavior is a learned event. The purpose of any crisis training program is to stress those communication skills which will reinforce the appropriate behaviors with regard to discretion and attitude.

In addition to the emphasis on learning, a second precept involves an understanding of the department's composition regarding discretion and attitude. Since variability among and even within departments exists, effort should be made to discover the degree of officer discretion, how it is employed, some of the psychological underpinnings of the department, and predominant attitudes regarding the public. A basic understanding of police discretion and psychology is a prerequisite to an effective training program.

A final consideration centers upon the distinctive nature of each officer. Although generalizations are useful, each policeman must be received as a unique individual with special weaknesses and strengths. Such singular consideration is essential for effective family crisis intervention training.

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CHAPTER III

FRAMEWORK FOR CRISIS INTERVENTION TRAINING

"All I've got for you is a little family trouble
at Sixteen-Thirteen Madison." He'll tell you which
floor and thank God it isn't the top, and so you'll
climb, climb, climb, and all the while you'll be pre-
paring to say, "Listen, what's the matter with you
folks? Pipe down, can't you? Oh shet ep, [sic]
sister. Look--people are complaining; you're waking
up folks in the building. O.K.--so you can't get
along. O.K.--so you're drunk too. Now, look, I want
you out of here. And quit socking your wife, and if I
see you around here again before morning--before you're
sober and ready to behave--I'll break your head wide
open!"
        That's the little speech, the succession of dis-
ciplinary directions that you'll be composing as you
trudge up the stairs; and then you hear the shuddering
gasp, and somehow you're through the door before they've
opened it for you, and he's standing there alone. The
woman is on the floor with her skirts around her middle.
But beyond her he is there. He's very large; he looks
colossal to you now. He doesn't have anything on
except a pair of striped underwear shorts, and his eyes
are rolling. He keeps watching you. He has a bloody
bread knife in his hand, and you keep saying "Put it
down, put it down--let go that knife," as he comes
toward you a step at a time, and as the woman grunts
and shifts on the floor in her blood, and still he
keeps coming in, you've got to decide, and all in the
instant. Do you shoot or do you try to use your stick?
Do you try to take the knife away from him? . . . You
don't like to be alone, nobody would like to be alone.

                                --MacKinlay Kantor
                                Signal Thirty-Two

The threatened cop in Kantor's novel represents the

complexity and confusion inherent within almost every crisis

intervention call (17, p. 59). Although in this instance,

the crisis call came too late, the glaring reality that the

police are ill-prepared to intervene effectively seems
obvious. Skeptics might label the excerpt from Signal
Thirty-Two as overly dramatic and inaccurate. After exten-
sive studies on domestic disputes, however, the President's
Task Force Report: The Police seems to concur both in tone
and in substance with Kantor's portrayal:

> Domestic disputes account for a high percentage of the
> total number of incidents to which the police are
> summoned. They generally occur late at night and
> result in a call for the police because an assault has
> taken place, because there is the potential for violence,
> because the neighbors are disturbed, or simply because
> a low income couple has no other source of help in
> arbitrating marital conflicts. In the absence of
> likely alternatives to police involvement, police
> officers are left with the responsibility for dealing
> with such situations without being adequately equipped
> to do so [emphasis added] (16, p. 14).

Both accounts stress the uncertainty and lack of train-
ing prevalent among policemen trying to effectively handle a
domestic crisis. The purpose of this chapter is to alleviate
some of that uncertainty and insufficient training by offering
a flexible framework for crisis program construction. Since
departmental needs and resources vary, the aim here is not
to construct a detailed manual or program plan for crisis
intervention. Rather, an overall guide discussing the
major components of any crisis training program insures the
widest range of applicability to differing situations.

Relevant to Chapter Two, this framework hopes to fashion
the discretion of the officer and affect his psychological-
attitudinal structure in a manner beneficial to families
involved in extreme stress. The discretion which the officer

employs should aid in detecting causes and providing solutions to the family crisis. Better psychological awareness of himself and those with whom he comes in contact is also a goal of this program structure.

The crisis intervention structure will consist of a three-stage process. The first stage, testing and selection, provides guides in selecting men qualified for crisis intervention training. After the officers are selected, the initial phase of training, the skill-development stage, is instituted. The final facet of the program regimen concerns skills application, a simulation of actual crisis situations with expert and peer evaluation.

Selection

Selection of trainees can easily be regarded as the "make or break" step of a family crisis intervention program. Effort at making the Family Crisis Intervention Unit an elite, respected portion of the department is particularly important. Veteran police reporter Ronald Sullivan depicts police attitude toward family crisis work as an unattractive, low-status position. He attributes this attitude to the dearth of program development in most departments (17). This lack of emphasis makes crisis intervention work a job for the "scrubs," or a particularly bothersome and demeaning call for the superiors. Ironically, Bard estimates that family calls are second only to motor-vehicle accidents as incidents involving police action (2, p. 10). So the selection process

is important for at least two reasons: (a) discriminating
selection can improve the status of family crisis work in
the eyes of the department and (b) the importance of the
work requires well qualified men. Referring to a similar
program of small-group training, psychologist Robert Carkhuff
terms the selection stage as a prime determinate of group
success (6). The converse, inadequate selection, can
exacerbate the barriers to effective program development.

The first criterion for selection, then, should be
based upon exclusiveness of personnel. Departmental re-
cruiters should refrain from issuing the call of the old-
time-gospel revivalist imploring "Whosoever will may come."
Social psychologists, sociologists, and communicologists
generally concur that group status and attractiveness can
be augmented through exclusiveness (3, p. 24). A high standard
for selection should permit program progress at the fastest
rate. Manageability of problems and skill acquisition should
also be easier with the higher status selection.

To attain the highest level of trainees, a battery of
tests should be administered. Although examinations represent
no panacea insuring officer quality, the measurement of
psychological, intellectual, and communicatory attributes
by trained administrators can provide added insight into
an officer's ability to master crisis intervention tasks.
Since personality tests like the Minnesota Multiphasic
Personality Inventory and intelligence tests like the

Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale are routinely administered
to new recruits, their usefulness needs no elaboration.
Other psychological and intellectual instruments, although
less well known, offer a more complete picture of the pro-
spective family crisis intervener. These measuring devices
help insure that the selected officer possesses the approp-
riate policy-discretion potential and reflects an acceptable
psychological and attitudinal composition.

The first of these tests, the Niederhoffer Cynicism
Scale, measures the degree of cynicism that an officer might
experience toward crisis respondents. Although the instrument
is not specifically designed for crisis intervention use,
its application is readily apparent. As the next stage of
skill development suggests, the officer's frame of reference
must be positive, non-skeptical, and accepting for effective
crisis intervention. Acute cynicism would seem to be at
cross-purposes with these qualities. The Niederhoffer
detecting procedure presents the policeman with twenty
open-ended statements about police matters with three
sentence-completion options, each of which expresses a dif-
ferent degree of cynicism. Of the three choices, the first
choice (a) represents the "professional view" of the ideal
police situation. The second option (b) is a less extreme,
middle-of-the-road position. The final alternative (c)
portrays a cynical or disparaging assessment of the subject.
If the respondent chooses (a) in all twenty questions, he

ranks lowest both in terms of score and degree of cynicism.
Likewise, straight (c) responses would produce the highest
degree of cynicism. Although Niederhoffer's overly con-
sistent pattern might be questioned, he asserts that the
scale shows logical and face validity. He also implies that
empirical validity is present because of the division of
respondents into three distinct groups when measured by
high, low, and middle scores. The full test appears in
Appendix II. Niederhoffer, after discussing the test find-
ings with seasoned police officers, contends that, "In their
opinion (the police), this study, if anything, has underesti-
mated the true degree of cynicism that is rampant in the
force" (14, p. 189).

Another personality test related to crisis intervention
involves measuring degrees of authoritarianism which an
officer possesses. The F (Facist) Scale developed by T. W.
Adorno represents the most widely implemented measure of the
authoritarian personality yet devised. Particular application
of this test to police communication skills and their relation
to authority has been made throughout the country. The test
grew out of a conference on racial and religious prejudice
called by the American Jewish Committee in 1944. The scien-
tific investigation of anti-Semitism led to ethnocentrism,
and ended with the more inclusive concept of authoritarianism
that contains nine main clusters of variables:

    (a) Conventionalism.
    (b) Authoritarian submission.
    (c) Authoritarian aggression.

(d) Anti-intraception.
(e) Superstition and stereotypy.
(f) Power and toughness.
(g) Destructiveness and cynicism.
(h) Projectivity.
(i) Sex (1, p. 228).

The Adorno F Scale is still considered to be the best measure of authoritarian personality and is routinely administered by the New York City Police Department (14, p. 147).

The value of the Adorno F Scale involves the need for an officer who has a high I.S. (internal security) in proportion to a low E.D. (ego defense needs). The higher I.S. to E.D. ratio corresponds with a lower F scale reading. It should be noted that a low value on the authoritarian scale would not negate the officer's effectiveness to "get the job done" in a family crisis situation. The converse, however, a high authoritarian score, would denote a potentially harmful interaction between the attending officer and participants in a family disturbance.

A third testing device, the Adjective Check List Manual developed by Gough and Heilbrun in 1965, measures four qualities relevant to the family crisis arena. In each of these four areas, an officer should rank high in order to render the most efficacious service to the distressed family. The first of these qualities, intraception, is present in a negative form on the Adorno F Scale. Intraception reflects the extent to which an individual is seen as trying to understand his own behavior or the behavior of others. Nurturance, a second attribute, determines the range that a person grants

material gifts or emotional benefits to others. The Adjective
Check List also measures aggression, the degree to which one
individual will attack or harm another. The final factor,
change, centers upon a human's search for that which is
novel and the avoidance of that which is mundane (10, p. 53).

A final scale, the Osgood Semantic Differential, can be
constructed to measure a variety of qualities. Attitudes,
levels of "common sense," and potential for skill development
could be constructed upon a crisis intervention foundation.
The Semantic Differential offers a flexibility not present
in the three preceding tests. Osgood provides a format which
can be adapted to any subject under consideration by pro-
viding the appropriate contrasting adjectives. As a measure
of meaning, the instrument involves a set of seven- or eight-
point scales ending in bipolar adjectives (15, p. 32). This
test would be particularly useful in detecting officer atti-
tudes relevant to family disputes.

Such testing serves a two-fold function. First, it
would help solve what the Washington State Commission on Law
Enforcement terms the problem "of predicting an applicant's
ability to perform capably as a law enforcement officer"
(19, p. 289). Better knowledge of the overall officer makeup
constitutes better predictive ability of his effectiveness
in family crisis intervention. Inherent within this pre-
dictive function would be a culling of the best qualified
officers, thus providing the elite status necessary to gain
departmental respect for this unit.

The array of tests listed serves a secondary purpose of providing extra insight into the men selected. These measuring devices illustrate individual profiles of each member of the Family Crisis Intervention Unit. Each person's particular strengths and weaknesses are noted through testing. Although the profile would be incomplete, valuable data for training could be gleaned from the tests.

A final factor, perhaps somewhat independent of testing, focuses on what Carkhuff terms homogeneity versus heterogeneity in group composition. Since a large portion of training will transpire from the small group configuration, the question of composition is paramount. Carkhuff advocates the heterogeneous composition as a prerequisite for sharing, feedback, and group growth (6). With similar regard to composition, Bordura states that selection should reflect socio-economic background of the population which the police serve. Failure to achieve heterogeneity in the selection stage will certainly carry over into the actual field practice of crisis intervention. Homogeneity restricts the ability, warns Bordura, "To do veridical role-taking with the many different types of citizens that make up the heterogeneous urban population . . ." (4, p. 199). So to promote accurate, emphatic responses and identity-sharing between officer and family members requires a heterogeneous composition. Since one officer cannot be so specialized as to deal only with those who share his socio-economic background, nor be so versatile

as to become, like the Apostle Paul, "all things to all men," some adjustments must be achieved through the crisis intervention training program. Those adjustments, along with other concerns, will be the subject of the next section.

Interpersonal Skill Development

Training for appropriate behavior in crisis calls necessitates both didactic and experiential modes of instruction. Since family disturbance contexts vary, the officer should possess a broad enough repertoire of skills for differing situations.

Although individual skill development can best adapt an officer to varying situations, the training group structure and composition can also promote better application of skills (6). Training units with six to twelve members offer the most beneficial size for group progress. The optimum number cited by J. A. Johnson in Group Therapy ranges from eight to ten (12, p. 32). The importance of group size is emphasized by Thomas and Fink when they conclude, "On the basis of this review, it is apparent that group size has significant effects on aspects of individual and group performance, on the nature of interaction, . . . and on member satisfaction" (18, p. 343).

Group size not only has an intrapsychic impact on individual members, but also manifests itself in terms of synergy and cohesiveness within the group. Synergy, a group force akin to brainstorming, suggests that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. In terms of group training,

synergy reflects the fact that the interaction of the family
crisis training group augments the individual skill-acquisition
potential of the members. To put it simply, a group working
together can gain more than members working individually.
Although there are some exceptions to the general principle
of synergy, an understanding of its potency for training
seems beneficial.

The second factor, group cohesiveness, relates to synergy
in improving group effectiveness. The cognitive and affective
interweaving of group members into a force of solidarity and
sharing improves not only training potential, but also actual
implementation into the family crisis setting. Along with
synergy, cohesiveness directly relates to the degree of inter-
action present within a group. If group interaction between
officers is guarded and defensive, the capacity for attaining
high levels of synergy and cohesiveness greatly diminishes
(7, pp. 109-113).

As stated initially, group size is a prime determinant
of interaction capability. The population of a group, there-
fore, indirectly influences cohesiveness and the related
concept of synergy. The relationship between interaction
and cohesiveness is one of crucial development. As Dinkmeyer
and Muro explain, "Group cohesiveness is also promoted by
the frequency of interaction; hence, the more often members
speak to each other, the more rapidly cohesion will develop"
(7, p. 110).

The actual program framework provides both intra- and interpersonal awareness for the officer. Using Robert Carkhuff's Systematic Human Relations Training format (6), an officer learns new skills which give him personal insight while applying to family crisis situations. Presentation of the Carkhuff system would be both didactic and experiential. An introductory statement about Human Relations Training, similar to Appendix III, provides a partial didactic base for program introduction. Group facilitators would give other instruction interpolated with the actual "doing" of the Carkhuff system.

The interpersonal skill development stage explores and refines general officer communication skills. Application to crisis intervention situations occurs after the basic skills are developed. This incremental learning process, according to educational psychologist Asahel Woodruff, provides the key to effective training and technique acquisition (20). First the officer must understand his own feelings and the feelings of others, and then relate his understanding specifically to the family crisis context.

A group training program with a three-month minimum duration would sensitize the officer to his own values, attitudes, and automatic responses through leader facilitation and group feedback. Since Carkhuff lists time as a key variable to interpersonal growth, two weekly sessions of two hours each would be instituted (6).

In officer training, three general stages of skill development employing six core dimensions are advanced by the facilitator over the three-month period. Carkhuff lists the three stages as exploratory, understanding, and action. Empathy, respect, concreteness, genuineness, confrontation, and immediacy comprise the core dimensions termed by Carkhuff as central to human growth (6).

A third consideration in the Carkhuff training schema involves the five levels of response which can occur within any communication dyad. It is upon these five levels that Carkhuff introduces a third learning form, modeling.

> The trainer, then, provides a model for the trainee to identify with and emulate. Without such a person there is no program. The trainer must be a person who is not only congruent and genuine but also be able to act upon his fine discriminations. At the highest levels he lives his life with immediacy, living fully in every moment, draining each moment of its full meaning for himself and others involved (5, p. 187).

In other passages, Carkhuff substitutes helper-helpee for the trainer-trainee relationship. To be an effective model, trainer, or helper, the facilitator must operate at a higher level than the helpees.

The first step in presenting this communication improvement program to the police revolves around the five levels of functioning. Carkhuff terms this cognizance of the five response levels as discrimination. He explains that "Discrimination is simply learning to understand the different levels . . ." (5, p. 172). Carkhuff succinctly describes the levels by stating,

The key to learning to understand the conditions (level 3) is to set up some kind of a mid-point which, if people reach it, means that they are doing enough to help. Above this point (levels 4 and 5) they will be doing as much as they can do. Below this point (levels 1 and 2) they are doing less than they should do to help. With emphathic understanding, for example, the goal at this mid-point would be to give the helpee back at least as much as he gave to you in terms of the feeling and the personal meaning that what he was expressing had for him (5, p. 172).

So Carkhuff employs the level 3 response as a mid-point, the beginning of positive growth. Levels 1 and 2 are solidly subtractive to interpersonal growth. Level 1 represents no degree of understanding of a respondent's actual feelings. A distressed wife wails that "I just don't understand my husband's actions," and a crisis intervener responds, "You people don't understand anything, do you." The crisis officer has just issued a detrimental level 1 response, missing both the emotive and content levels of the woman's stimulus statement. A level 2 response, still subtractive, might find the policeman remarking, "I don't understand your husband either." Although some of the content of the woman's statement has been transmitted, the feelings which she expresses have been ignored.

The level 3 response, the first positive position, centers upon openness, receptivity, and reflection of feeling from the helper to helpee. Dealing with the same stimulus statement of the wife, the officer might respond, "You really feel upset and confused over your husband's actions." Such a level 3 response accurately reflects and focuses upon the feelings which the crisis victim is experiencing.

After an accurate reflection of feelings emerges and a degree of openness develops, movement toward a level 4 response is appropriate. A level 4 response adds to the overt feeling expressed by the helpee. After sufficient conversation, the officer could comment, "I understand your worry, Mrs. Smith. Feeling so dependent upon your husband can really be frightening." Here the officer goes beyond the actual content and overt feeling expressed by Mrs. Smith to an underlying and extended level of affect. For a response to be a level 4 or 5, Carkhuff asks these questions:

> Did the helper's responses help the helpee to go to explore and/or understand himself better than he had before? If so we give the helper a higher rating (above 3). If not, if the helper's responses held the helpee back in some way, we give the helper a lower rating (below 3) (5, p. 174).

As shown in Carkhuff's statements, the level 5 response should help a person understand his or her problem in depth and lead toward some course of action, that is, behavioral change, which the helper initiates. These higher level responses are typified by such preliminary phrases as "What I really hear you saying is this" or "What this all adds up to for me is this" (5, p. 176).

Related to the five response levels and the core dimensions are the previously mentioned stages of interpersonal growth. Before an officer can effectively relate in a crisis situation, he must personally be operating on a high enough level (3 or above) to be a helper. Exploration, the first stage of interpersonal growth, centers upon developing empathy,

openness, and trust. To crack the wall of fear and to remove
the bars of mistrust is an early goal of group work. As
Johnson correctly contends, "It is the rare group member who
does not fear discussing himself in front of others, and
such fears are compounded in a situation where trust has not
yet developed" (12, p. 23). Within the exploration stage,
the officer begins to understand himself better while ad-
vancing his awareness of others. The key consideration, as
depicted in Appendix III, is feeling based. The emphasis
upon feeling is neither esoteric nor pretentious. The group
leader discusses affect in concrete, operational terms. The
police participants should reach a skill level reflecting the
accurate communication of honest concern and understanding.

Since empathy, the understanding and reflecting of
another person's feelings, is central to exploration, specific
activities can improve this communication skill: (a) writing
responses to leader-prepared sentence stimuli, (b) role-playing
transactions between helper and helpee, (c) responding to
taped helpee communications, and (d) round-robin evaluation
of particular helper-helpee interaction.

Overlapping with exploration, the second stage, under-
standing, ascends to the higher 4 and 5 response levels.
Understanding denotes that the individual can "touch base
with his own feelings." The motivations, attitudes, and
general psychological matrix within which an officer relates
to humanity becomes clearer during this phase. Inner-consciousness

increases as a policeman reaches deeper levels of personal understanding.

The final stage suggests action. In the last part of the skill development phase of training, behavioral modification evolves. As Carkhuff describes, "The whole purpose of the helping process is to help someone to do things differently from how he did them before . . ." (5, p. 177). Completion of the third stage of the program centers upon proper use of feeling. Confrontation and immediacy, the last two core dimensions, find their primary application in this phase. Confrontation means dealing with feelings and inconsistencies in an open and frank manner with a consequential high level of response. "Putting your cards on the table" or "letting it all hang out" is not necessarily effective confrontation. Frankness and candor which create communication barriers cannot be justified under the guise of confrontation.

The other high-level core dimension, immediacy, concentrates upon the "here and now," the current feelings which exist between the helper and helpee. Immediacy implies a courage and security of expressing honest feelings to a person as those feelings occur. This dimension helps compose the highest degree of openness which an officer can possess.

To better visualize the stages, core dimensions, and levels inherent in interpersonal skill development, a chart (Figure 1) adapted from Gazda's Group Counseling and Carkhuff's

The Development of Human Resources appears on the following
page (9, p. 155; 5, p. 173). Comprehension and assimilation
of the Carkhuff training system into the officer's range of
communication skills is a product of time and experience.
Practice at reaching higher response levels should be seasoned
with caution and perception. If a "legitimate" level 4 re-
sponse, for example, shuts down the helpee's openness and
trust, then the helper has really given a level 2 response.
As revealed in the following chart, the effect of a response
upon the helpee determines its level. A simple guide to
level discrimination can be that when interaction and
emotive understanding are enhanced, an additive response
has occurred.

To assist the attainment of additive responses (levels
3, 4, and 5), an officer should understand the affect dimension
of language. According to semanticist S. I. Hayakawa (11,
p. 68), the use of "snarl-words," which are a consequence
of unprocessed emotion, represent the antithesis of additive
interaction. Phrases which demean an individual's character,
his lifestyle, his heritage, or his belief structure can
doom an officer to the dungeon of consistently subtractive
responses. The President's Task Force Report: The Police
discusses the impact of language of officer-citizen
relations:

        Discriminatory statements, in particular, produce
    both anger and strong counterprejudice among minority
    groups. The use of racial ephitets, such as "nigger,"
    "coon," "boy," and "Pancho" appears to be widespread

	ACTION			UNDERSTANDING		EXPLORE
Core Dimensions	Response to Helpee			Initiated by Helper		
LEVELS	Empathy (Understanding)	Respect (Caring)	Concreteness (Being Specific)	Genuineness (Being Real)	Confrontation (Frankness and Candor)	Immediacy (Here and now feeling)
5++	Really understand	Really caring	Really specific	Really being real	Really frank	Really current
4+	Understanding	Caring	Being specific	Being real	Frank	Current
3	Interchange of feeling	Open to caring	Open to being specific	Open to being real	Open to frankness	Open to current feeling
2-	Not understanding	Not much concern	Vague and abstract	Being phony	Evasiveness	Concern not with present feelings
1--	Really not understanding	No caring	Very vague and abstract	Very phony	Very evasive	Avoids present feeling entirely

Fig. 1--Human relations growth scale

. . . and in most cases, the language is chosen delib-
erately to demean the citizen and demonstrate the
superiority of the officer (16, p. 180).

A trained crisis intervention officer operating at a level

4 or 5 of communication ability can identify (understanding

stage) and control (action stage) the needs for superiority

which he perhaps feels. So the interpersonal skill devel-

opment phase offers more than a set of external techniques

for managing a crisis situation. With concentration on the

core dimensions of feelings, the program provides the officer

with more than the "correct" phrases on a verbal plane or

the "appropriate" actions on a non-verbal level. One psy-

chologist, working with police groups, demonstrates the

importance of elliciting police feeling:

A major goal of the group process has been to
increase the police officers' understanding of their
own feelings in dealing with a variety of other
people. They have come to recognize that people who
seem very different at first are similar to themselves
in having similar feelings, needs and concerns to deal
with in their lives . . . (3, p. 17).

In overall impact, interpersonal skill development ful-

fills a dual role. The program first sensitizes the officer

to his own feelings, motivations, and hang-ups. The officer

emerges a generally better communicator. Also, the crisis

intervener gains experiential skills in encountering the

emotions of others. Through the group sessions, the policeman

acclimates himself to the new environment of intense feeling--

the key ingredient in most crisis calls. No longer is he as

uncomfortable, perplexed, or uncaring when faced with the

extreme emotion of a family conflict.

So, in totality, the human relations training format extends the patrolman's psychological helping abilities toward society in general while the program augments his crisis acumen toward the family in particular. The officer acquires a firm foundation for further skill application. Functioning from an evolving base of expertise, the crisis specialist advances to the "operational phase" of program sequence. Within this area, evaluation and refinement of his specific crisis abilities occurs. Furnishing a realistic setting for skill application is the objective of the final unit.

Crisis Skill Application

I will . . . maintain courageous calm in the face of danger, scorn, or ridicule; develop self-restraint; and be constantly mindful of the welfare of others. I will never act officiously or permit personal feelings, prejudices, animosities or friendships to influence my decisions . . . . I will enforce the law courteously and appropriately without fear or favor, malice or ill will, never employing unnecessary force or violence (16, p. 179).

The above excerpt from the Law Enforcement Code of Ethics typifies one side of the dichotomy between police training and police practice within the interpersonal communication spectrum. Police training practices, like most forms of pedagogy, are not immune to the conflict between the "ideal" and the "real." Sociologist John McNamara analyzes traditional police training as a "dilemma . . . involving the inconsistencies between what the academy considers ideal practices in police work and what the majority of men consider

to be the customary and perhaps more practical procedures in the field" (13, p. 251).

The purpose of the skill application stage is to merge theory and practice and to answer the frequently posed request for relevance. McNamara extends his criticism of current police interpersonal training with the following analysis:

> For the most part, any principles regarding interpersonal skills were presented either in the form of rather general prescriptions, for example, "be firm but courteous," or in the form of rules of thumb which individual instructors had evolved from their own experience in patrol work. . . . The major difficulty in any attempt to transmit knowledge concerning interpersonal skills . . . is that little exists in the way of such knowledge . . . there are few clear-cut and reliable methods by which one can proceed from experimental findings to the application of these findings in everyday life. . . . Recruits had few, if any, opportunities to test their interpersonal skills, to develop them or to integrate them with the skills and knowledge acquired during their stay in the academy (13, p. 219).

From McNamara's examination of current interpersonal training techniques, the need for application can be divided into three criteria for successful program implementation: (a) a strong theoretical base manifest in concrete, readily applicable practices; (b) training sufficiently flexible and universal to be pertinent to the diverse situations which an officer encounters; and (c) an ability to test and evaluate new skills in a laboratory environment.

The combination of the interpersonal skill development phase and the skill application phase of this program provides at least a partial answer to this three-pronged need.

Beginning a week after the small group training sessions, the skill application stage is initiated. Both phases run concurrently throughout the remainder of instruction. This implementation section of the program signals of birth of the Family Crisis Intervention Unit. For the next three months, the selected officers become more than a nameless group receiving another portion of extra coursework. They now distinguish themselves as a semi-autonomous group under-going rigorous training.

The Unit officers reflect the "generalist-specialist" model of police patrol. It entails utilizing the special talents of each patrolman, while also having each perform overall patrol duties. The unit operating as family crisis intervention specialists patrol like all other members of their command, but are available within their precinct area whenever a family disturbance occurs.

Other factors of unit composition are equally important. The Family Crisis Intervention Unit (FCIU) should consist of two-man teams. A biracial combination is helpful in racially mixed neighborhoods. In terms of receptivity to new training techniques, the officers should be relatively young officers. According to Dr. Morton Bard, policemen used for community service work should also be "experienced, . . . enthusiastic, . . . showing every indication of being sensitive to the changing role the police must assume in the cities" (17, p. 115). The officers should not be newcomers to their

precinct, but rather share common knowledge and familiarity with the residents.

Like the composition of the Family Crisis Intervention Unit, the skill application stage also represents a multi-faceted venture. First, procedural guidelines, similar to Appendix VI detail the "normal" crisis reaction. These steps relate in many instances directly to the interpersonal skill development which the officer is receiving. Regarding an informal program in New York City, crime reporter Ronald Sullivan reveals some other practical observations to improve communication channels:

> Family cops have some fundamental ground rules. They always stay calm; they don't threaten and they don't take sides. They don't challenge a man's masculinity; they don't degrade a woman's femininity. They intentionally give people verbal escape routes to save face. And mother isn't always right--they know about Oedipus complexes (17, p. 63).

The lack of value judgments, the openness, the warmth and respect, and the appropriate form of confrontation are all Carkhuffian qualities expressed in the above excerpt. With the overlay of the Systematic Human Relations Training format, the officers' actual responses fit into a comprehensible pattern.

Another portion of the skill application phase involves the use of psychoskits, psychodrama, or sociodrama. Social scientist for the Philadelphia Police Department, Dr. Charlotte Epstein, finds sociodrama helpful in authentic simulation of actual police-citizen confrontations (8, p. 112).

Other psychologists use a series called Plays for Living published by the Family Service Association of America for psychodrama application (2, p. 11). To make this role-playing technique most effective, professional actors should play family victims. The ending should be at the discretion of the acting officers, and evaluation should be made by trained observers, peer officers, and the participating actors. An audio-visual recorder should play back the action after initial evaluation. This use of the laboratory setting enables the patrolman immediate and widespread feedback with the opportunity for guided correction of any mistakes.

In addition to role-playing crisis events, the recounting of successful crisis interventions encourages officers while further reinforcing the practical side of training. The following portion from one of Sullivan's officer reports demonstrates the application of many theoretical consider-ations:

> You could see the fear in his eyes, the hostility in his face. His fists were clenched, and he was ready to do combat with us. God knows what he would have done if he'd had a gun or a knife. I moved toward the kitchen table and opened my blouse and I told him in a nice quiet way that I wanted to talk to him, but he's still looking at my stick. Well, the stick is under my arm so I hung it up on a nearby chair, purposely, to show there's no intent here. "Look, I don't need it," I'm trying to say to this guy. "I don't need it because you're a nice guy in my eyes. You don't threaten, so I'm not going to threaten you." I've got to show this guy that I'm not a bully, a brute, a Nazi or the Fascist he thinks all cops are.
> So he calms down a little. Then I took my hat off and I said, "Do you mind if I smoke?" And he looks funny at me. And I say, "I'm a cigar smoker and some people don't like the smell of a cigar in their house,

so would you mind if I smoke?" And the guy says, "Oh
sure, sure," and you could see he was shocked. I felt
he saw a human side of us, that I had respect for him
and his household (17, p. 114).

High response levels of warmth, genuineness, respect,
and empathy are evident in the officer's recollection. The
patrolman further recounted that after emotionally diffusing
the situation, the husband and wife explained their feelings
and eventually understood each other's position. The offi-
cers refrained from taking sides and making judgments. The
outcome is one that this crisis intervener was glad to
report: "They eventually shake our hands; they were happy
and we never had another call from them" (17, p. 114).

Unfortunately, not enough evidence exists on the impact
of FCIU training to determine overall effectiveness of the
program, officer receptiveness, and organizational barriers.
From Bard's New York study of trained crisis interveners,
however, comes a report of a decrease in family assaults, a
one-year elimination of homicides in the program precincts,
and no injuries among officers (2, p. 29). Appendix VIII
also reflects the optimism of officers involved in a recent
crisis training program in Dallas.

Although all results are not as positive as those re-
lated here, the overall beneficial effect of examining and
refining specific crisis skills seems indisputable. Through
proper unit composition, procedural guides, role-playing,
and experience sharing, the crisis intervention officer
supplies a definite plus factor for any department. By

blending the theoretical with the practical in terms of training, cops like the one in Kantor's novel have more reason to feel secure and to feel effective.

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CHAPTER IV

IMPLICATIONS OF THE FAMILY CRISIS INTERVENTION UNIT

The final result of family crisis intervention training should initiate four changes. The first effect relates to the officer undergoing training. A result of this project is to sanction compassion--making it possible for policemen to be compassionate without experiencing ego threat. Successful trainees can crack the mold of police indifference and cruelty.

A related impact manifests itself upon officers not receiving instruction in interpersonal communication. Through the rippling effect, New York studies show that officers with high interpersonal skills serve as models and informal consultants for their fellow department members (1). Norms of high status for the "tough cop" are subtly transformed by enlightened officers with exceptional communication skills. The criteria for departmental respect no longer rests solely upon the "hardness" of an officer.

A more quantifiable consequence is the probably reduction of police injuries and family homicides. In New York, the only city where any form of crisis training results have been followed up, both injuries and homicides decreased significantly (6, p. 29). Given other options than a violent recourse, the community becomes a safer environment.

Relating to the reduction in violence, the fourth effect of an upgraded police image occurs. As sociologist Bill Westley states, the impression left on the citizenry by the police relies on containment of brutality (7). Improved community relations can be a potential service boon. The possibilities for collaboration between the psychological community and the police are limitless. There are many mental health services which can best be rendered by individuals in the psychological front lines--and perhaps no one represents that position better than the police. Available twenty-four hours daily, it is a resource agency without parallel. An effective crisis program helps tap that resource more extensively.

Continued Crisis Preparation

Since the police, like all of society, are a constantly changing phenomenon, continued crisis training seems essential. Consistent with the theory of Luft and Ingham, continued interpersonal communication instruction increases self-awareness and openness while reducing barriers to productive interaction (4). On a more concrete level, Dr. Howard E. Mitchell, director of the human resources program at the University of Pennsylvania, and an expert on police, senses the need for a training process rather than a program package: "Advancing qualified officers into the field is only the first step. If we are to crawl out of our psychological crib, family crisis intervention training must be an ongoing event" (6, p. 127).

To promote the ongoing status which Mitchell advocates
requires some form of continuous group experience and con-
sultation. Weekly debriefing sessions conducted by graduate
psychology or communication students can constantly update
each Family Crisis Intervention Unit. Furthermore, to facil-
itate evaluative procedures, a neighboring police precinct
with a population profile similar to that of the trained
precinct can crudely measure progress in alleviating family
stress. In smaller forces, neither graduate students nor
comparable precincts will exist. Trained local police
personnel can substitute as facilitators, and past records
of the same precinct will serve for comparison.

Areas for Further Research

Far from being finalized, family crisis intervention
training demands much more research and refinement. With
the genesis of work in this area only a decade old (2, p. 360),
the field of exploration is still immense and uncharted.
New research should originate in both the area of police
motivation and family needs. As Charlotte Epstein suggests,
little conclusive knowledge exists about the psychological
underpinnings of the average policeman. Although significant
study has already been advanced, continued investigation is
crucial (3, p. 112).

Concerning the family unit, more specific solutions
help secure what sociologists Broom and Selznich term "the
intimate interdependence of family and social structure" (2,

p. 360). Further sociological work into understanding the causes of family disintegration benefits the practitioner as well as the researcher. New findings supply new solutions, and new solutions upgrade the quality of police work.

Departmental recommendations are also necessary. Widespread testing and consequent modification result from replicating this program in a wide variety of settings. Further refinement of the generalist-specialist model as it applies to the range of interpersonal services that policemen should perform will be beneficial. Morton Bard also proposes extensive collaboration between universities and law enforcement agencies to augment understanding of human behavior in the real world (1). Finally, overall cooperation between law enforcement entities and the other community service branches reduces workloads while enriching the knowledge capabilities of all involved organizations.

Final Thoughts

This program does not convert the police officer into a social worker or psychotherapist. The intent here has been to first demonstrate a need for crisis framework creation. The lack of present instruction, the burden and danger of the police, and the crisis within the family structure all attest to the significance of that need. Before program construction occurs, a look at the on-duty policeman--at his role in law enforcement and at his working personality--was essential. Actual program development involved an examination

of the selection process and the institution of a two-phase
training structure. Phase one applied the Carkhuff Systematic
Human Relations Training process to police interpersonal skill
development. The second part of training consisted of prac-
tical application and specific procedures. The final unit
discussed some of the predicted results of training, some
suggestions for further instruction and recommendations for
extended research.

This project is an attempt to demonstrate a method of
increasing the effectiveness of the policeman in a charac-
teristic police role. This is laden with import for community
and family mental health. Given the knowledge and skills
consistent with his function, the policeman's efficiency
may be improved, lives saved, and families preserved.

If the results of this project positive, the methods
employed could enjoy widespread application. Family Crisis
Intervention Units can be trained to serve as specialists
within any police agency--similar to police units that
specialize currently in accident investigation or emergency
services. Furthermore, the methods utilized in this study
may be adapted for the training of police recruits; such
training would familiarize every new policeman with basic
knowledge in an important dimension of police work. Finally,
this program affords an opportunity for the psychological
study of such dimensions of human behavior as intrafamilial
aggression under circumstances not previously available to

scientific investigation. Such a service will move the police closer to the community.

But regarding police-community relations, social psychologist Albert Reiss warns that until a progressive program of human relations training becomes firmly established, it will be difficult for the police to appear "civil to the civilians" (5, p. 110). To paint law enforcement personnel as ogres of oppressive power, however, distorts the true image. The police, like most citizens, search to accomplish social good, but lack the mechanism for achieving their task. Continued crisis intervention training would furnish them with an appropriate vehicle.

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APPENDIX I

LETTER FOR TRAINING PROGRAM

Memorandum

Date: April 6, 1973

To: F.Y.I.

From: City of Dallas

Subject: Crisis Intervention Specialty Training

The Patrol Division is seeking volunteer officers to par-
ticipate in a specialty training program. This training
will concentrate on developing specific skills needed to
handle interpersonal crisis calls, such as family fights
and landlord/tenant disputes. The officer will be trained
to quickly identify problems and apply a number of alterna-
tive solutions to resolve the crisis. It will also provide
the officer with a knowledge of assistance agencies so that
persons involved can be referred to professional aid.

The basic training content will include Psychology, Social
Environment and Philosophy with a strong emphasis placed on
practical role-play experience. Role play will be situational
in nature and demonstrate results of alternative solutions to
realistic problems. The first class is scheduled tentatively
for the first week in May. The course will be approximately
four weeks in length. The course leader will be Dr. Frank
Trimboli, Psychiatry Department, Southwestern Medical School.
Upon completion of the training, officers will be assigned to
duty in the Southeast District.

Using these trained officers, a project will be conducted in
the Southeast District. The results of the specialty training
project should be:

   1. Gaining control of or defusing the crisis situation
       more effectively.

   2. Increasing officer safety when responding to a dis-
       turbance call.

   3. Involving professional agencies in helping to resolve
       crisis situations.

Crisis Intervention Specialty Training
Page 2
April 6, 1973

4. Reducing the possible number of assault and homicide
    incidents.

Based on the results of the training and experimentation,
this specialty training could be considered as the initial
step for certification as a specialist in crisis intervention.
Therefore, officers wishing to volunteer for this training
will meet pre-determined selection criteria including having
demonstrated past ability in handling crisis calls.

For further information contact Lieutenant Jerry Hill,
Southeast Station, Ext. 686-689.

Frank Dyson
Chief of Police

HC/sh

APPENDIX II

NIEDERHOFFER CYNICISM SCALE

1. The average police superior is ____.
   a. Very interested in the welfare of his subordinates.
   b. Somewhat concerned about the welfare of his subordinates.
   c. Mostly concerned with his own problems.

2. The average departmental complaint is a result of ____.
   a. The superior's dedication to proper standards of efficiency.
   b. Some personal friction between superior and subordinate.
   c. The pressure on superiors from higher authority to give out complaints.

3. The average arrest is made because ____.
   a. The patrolman is dedicated to perform his duty properly.
   b. A complainant insisted on it.
   c. The officer could not avoid it without getting in trouble.

4. The best arrests are made ____.
   a. As a result of hard work and intelligent dedication to duty.
   b. As a result of good information from an informer.
   c. Coming from the "coop."

5. A college degree as a requirement for appointment to the police department ____.
   a. Would result in a much more efficient police department.
   b. Would cause friction and possibly do more harm than good.
   c. Would let into the department men who probably are ill-suited for police work.

6. When you get to know the department from the inside, you begin to feel that ____.
   a. It is a very efficient, smoothly operating organization.
   b. It is hardly any different from other civil service organizations.
   c. It is a wonder that it does one-half as well as it does.

7. Police Academy training ____.
   a. Does a very fine job of preparing the recruit for life in the precinct.
   b. Cannot overcome the contradictions between theory and practice.
   c. Might as well be cut in half. The recruit has to learn all over when he is assigned to a precinct.

62

8. Professionalization of police work _____.
   a. Is already here for many groups of policemen.
   b. May come in the future.
   c. Is a dream. It will not come in the foreseeable future.

9. When a patrolman appears at the police department Trial Room _____.
   a. He knows that he is getting a fair and impartial trial with legal safeguards.
   b. The outcome depends as much on the personal impression he leaves with the trial commissioner as it does on the merits of the case.
   c. He will probably be found guilty even when he has a good defense.

10. The average policeman is _____.
    a. Dedicated to high ideals of police service and would not hesitate to perform police duty even though he may have to work overtime.
    b. Trying to perform eight hours of duty without getting into trouble.
    c. Just as interested in promoting private contracts as he is in performing police work.

11. The Rules and Regulations of police work _____.
    a. Are fair and sensible in regulating conduct off and on duty.
    b. Create a problem in that it is very difficult to perform an active tour of duty without violating some rules and regulations.
    c. Are so restrictive and contradictory that the average policeman just uses common sense on the job, and does not worry about rules and regulations.

12. The youth problem is best handled by police who are _____.
    a. Trained in a social service approach.
    b. The average patrolman on post.
    c. By mobile, strong-arm Youth Squads who are ready to take strong action.

13. The majority of special assignments in the police department _____.
    a. Are a result of careful consideration of the man's background and qualifications, and depend on merit.
    b. Are being handled as capably as you could expect in a large civil service organization.
    c. Depend on whom you know, not on merit.

14. The average detective _____.
    a. Has special qualifications and is superior to a patrolman in intelligence and dedication to duty.
    b. Is just about the same as the average patrolman.
    c. Is a little chesty and thinks he is a little better than a patrolman.

15. Police department summonses are issued by policemen _____.
    a. As part of a sensible pattern of enforcement.
    b. On the basis of their own ideas of right and wrong driving.
    c. Because a patrolman knows he must meet his quota even if this is not official.

16. The public _____.
    a. Shows a lot of respect for policemen.
    b. Considers policemen average civil service workers.
    c. Considers policemen very low as far as prestige goes.

17. The public _____.
    a. Is eager to cooperate with policemen to help them perform their duty better.
    b. Usually has to be forced to cooperate with policemen.
    c. Is more apt to obstruct police work if it can, than cooperate.

18. Policemen _____.
    a. Understand human behavior as well as psychologists and sociologists because they get so much experience in real life.
    b. Have no more talent in understanding human behavior than any average person.
    c. Have a peculiar view of human nature because of the misery and cruelty of life which they see every day.

19. The newspapers in general _____.
    a. Try to help police departments by giving prominent coverage to items favorable to police.
    b. Just report the news impartially whether or not it concerns the police.
    c. Seem to enjoy giving an unfavorable slant to news concerning the police and prominently play up police misdeeds rather than virtues.

20. Testifying in court _____.
    a. Policemen receive real cooperation and are treated fairly by court personnel.
    b. Police witnesses are treated no differently from civilian witnesses.
    c. Too often the policemen are treated as criminals when they take the witness stand.

APPENDIX III

INTRODUCTION TO HUMAN RELATIONS TRAINING

Since this is probably your first experience with group interpersonal training, some pointers on what to expect might be helpful. There seems to be some uncertainty and a little fear felt by each group member including the leader at the beginning of a new group experience. Perhaps we can all feel more assured realizing that we all go into this group as equals with no one making demands that you don't want to fulfill.

One of the most important things about this group is its composition. Each one of you was selected because of your ability to make this a very productive group happening. Although a hard and fast criteria for your selection is difficult to give, such factors as warmth, consideration of others, openness, sensitivity, sincerity, and frankness were observed in your behavior. Such qualities are essential to group growth and happening.

By now you're probably wondering what exactly is supposed to happen within this group. Again, hard and fast guarantees are difficult to give. It is relatively easy, however, to say what are not the purposes of our meetings. This is not a study group, a bull session, a game time, or a debate society. The emphasis will be on genuineness--not artificiality; on dealing with ourselves right here and now--not the past or future; on feeling the emotions of others--not judging or responding strictly to content. These sessions will make you a better responder to others--a better responder in the sense that you will be more sensitive to what others are feeling and more able to reflect back that sensitivity to them.

Since the goal of this group is to make you more perceptive and adroit in the management of your feelings and the feelings of others, some approximate stages of skill development might be delineated. Early sessions will be concerned with identifying our own feelings and the feelings of others. During these initial meetings we will also be concerned with an accurate reflecting back of another person's emotions. The emphasis here is _not_ on artificiality or "techniquery" but on a sincere feel_ing_ _with_ the other person.

Latter group gatherings will extend our skills to not only an accurate and sincere transmittal of what the other person is feeling right then, but also to deeper probing

into why he feels the way he does. This stage is character-
ized by going beyond the individual's surface feelings to
emotions which perhaps the subject had not recognized previ-
ously. In both early and later group sessions the need to
be able to express your own feelings honestly and openly is
just as important as responding to the feelings of others.
We will seek to strike some sort of balance between moni-
toring our own feelings and being in touch with the emotions
of others.

Our final group meetings take us into the stage of action.
When you are fully "in tune" with the other individual, you
can offer courses of action to remedy any emotional problems
which might exist. Since we all have problems, effective
emotional exploration and help by others is universally ben-
eficial. It must be emphasized that this stage is not just
a sterile advice giving session. It is the result of time,
emotional acquaintance, and shared exploration into the
realm of feeling.

APPENDIX IV

EXPLANATION OF EMPATHY

I. Empathy, or understanding, is the ability on the part
    of the Helper to see the world through the eyes of the
    Helpee. The Helper attempts to "crawl" inside the
    Helpee's frame of reference in order to understand and
    feel the things that the Helpee understands and feels.

    Empathy is not sympathy nor is it judgmental of the
    experiences of the helpee.

    The helper not only sees things the way the helpee sees
    things, but lets the helpee know what he sees, that is,
    he communicates what he sees to the helpee.

II. In order to offer high levels of empathy in interpersonal
    relationships, an individual must

    A. "Clean" up his own system from contamination caused
        by competition from both internal (within the helper)
        and external (within the helper-helpee situation) in
        order to totally "tend to" the data being generated
        by the helpee . . . and

    B. Totally absorb all of the data, both verbal and non-
        verbal, that the helpee is communicating. Through
        active listening, the helper assists the helpee in
        expressing his thoughts and feelings in a clear and
        complete fashion.

III. Levels of Empathic Responses.

    LEVEL FIVE   Really understands both the surface and
                    deeper levels of meaning generated by the
                    helpee. The helper's responses add signif-
                    icantly to both content and affect. The
                    helper is "together" and "tuned in" com-
                    pletely and fully.

    LEVEL FOUR   The helper's response adds noticeably to
                    the expressions of the helpee in such a
                    way as to express an understanding of the
                    helpee's experiences and feelings at a
                    deeper level than the helpee was able to
                    express himself.

LEVEL THREE   The helper's response and the helpee's
              statement are <u>interchangeable expressions</u>
              in both content and affect. These reflec-
              tive statements by the helper convey to
              the helpee that he has been heard and that
              he has the "green light" to proceed with
              his line of thought and/or feeling.

LEVEL TWO   The helper primarily responds to the
              <u>content</u> and problem area of the helpee
              <u>while neglecting</u> the helpee's <u>feelings</u>.
              This sometimes takes the form <u>of advice-</u>
              giving or "sugar-pills."

LEVEL ONE   The helper either <u>misses</u> or completely
              <u>ignores</u> the <u>message from</u> the helper. He
              <u>may change</u> subjects because he is tending
              to self or cannot deal with the data
              offered by the helpee.

APPENDIX V

RESPONSE LEVEL CONTINUUM

The facilitator is a person who is living effectively himself
and who discloses himself in a genuine and constructive fashion
in response to others. He communicates an accurate empathic
understanding and respect for all of the feelings of other
persons and guides discussions with these persons into spe-
cific feelings and experiences. He communicates confidence
in what he is doing and is spontaneous and intense and is open
and flexible in his relationships with others and committed
to the welfare of the other person.

The scale below represents a continuum to rate the presence
of the core facilitative conditions of empathy, respect,
genuineness, and concreteness.

1.0   1.5   2.0   2.5   3.0   3.5   4.0   4.5   5.0
_____

None of these conditions are communicated to any noticeable degree in the person.	Some of the conditions are communicated and some are not.	All conditions are communicated at a minimally facilitative level.	All of the conditions are communicated, and some are communicated fully.	All are communicated fully, simultaneously and continually.

taken from R. Carkhuff, 1969.

69

APPENDIX VI

PROCEDURAL SUGGESTIONS FOR CRISIS INTERVENTION

A list of the steps in most effective interventions would probably read as follows:

1. Prevent violence by separating the disputants.

2. Allow only one person to talk at a time.

3. Take the disputants into separate rooms.

4. Switch officers so that the stories can be checked out.

5. In listening to the stories, try to find out in each case what each individual contributed to the conflict.

6. If one of the disputants holds himself to blame, find out in what ways the other shares the blame.

7. Ask questions so as to get the details as clear as possible.

8. Find out if there has been a previous history of this kind of behavior.

9. See if the history goes back to before the marriage to other relationships or similar relationships in the present.

10. Give each person the opportunity to speak in detail.

11. Bring the couple together to tell their stories to each other. Again, make sure only one person speaks at a time.

12. Point out similarities and discrepancies in the stories.

13. Point out the part that each is playing.

14. Get a reaction from both about what the officers say they see is going on.

15. Ask what the couple plan to do in response to what has transpired and to the officers' reactions. If they seem to understand and say they want to try to work it out, accept it.

16. If you disagree with their response, suggest that they seek other help. If necessary, make the referral.

17. Tell them that if there is another dispute, and they see that they are coming close to violence or to repeating the same pattern, they should go again for counseling or contact the FCIU.

18. While noting that there will be further difficulties, assure them that if they sit down and talk, at least they can come out in the open and try to resolve it.

19. If not in the beginning, then before you leave, make sure that they know your name.

APPENDIX VII

CRISIS DEBRIEFING FORM

Disputants: Disputants' Relationship:

Date of Dispute:

Officers:

Consultant:

1. Precipitating circumstances: What circumstances led up
to and caused current dispute? (Why did the dispute occur
now?) What is the nature of the conflict? History of the
problem, if available.

2. Previous patterns of violence: If the cause of dispute
is violence, when and how often did it happen before? Under
what circumstances did it occur? If no current violence,
has there been any in the past? What is the nature of the
violence, i.e., slap across the face, beating with the fists?

3. Relevant social unit: Who are the members of the social
unit involved in the dispute? What is the nature of the re-
lationship between the various members of the group? What
is the history of the relationship between the disputants?
Are there significant outside influences not living in the
immediate household, i.e., father, mother, etc.? Are there
children or third parties in the household? What is their
perception of the situation?

4. Officers' approach: How did the policemen approach the
disputants? What techniques of intervention did they employ?
Were they authoritarian, gentle, sympathetic, etc.? We are
trying to determine what kinds of cues the teams are responding
to. We would also like to know what particular approaches are
most effective with particular types of situations. Since it
is difficult for the police to verbalize just why they respond
to certain situations the way they do, the consultants must
try to help them as much as possible in this regard.

5. Disputants' response: How did the disputants respond to
the intervention? Favorably, unfavorably? If excited initially,
did they calm down or remain the same? If they were excited
initially, did they flare up again after being calmed down?
What was their personal response to the police? Were they
satisfied with the way the police handled the problem?

6. Alternative approaches: In this category are all the possible ways the policeman would have handled the case differently. Very often, after thinking about a case and discussing it with someone, they decide that a case might have been handled differently. Indicate also the rationale for the different approach.

7. Difficult or novel aspects: Was there any particularly difficult aspect to this case, i.e., did the disputant refuse to talk to either policeman? Was there anything novel that is worth noting?

8. Dynamic formulation: What psychological dimensions did the policeman think were contributing to the present difficulty? This is a good place for conjecture on the part of the police.

9. Topics for discussion: Topics which are worthy of group discussion should be referred to T-group leader or individually handled by the consultant, i.e., psychological manifestations of senility.

APPENDIX VIII

REPORT ON DALLAS FICY

Taken from The Dallas Police News, Volume XVIII, No. 8
(July 27, 1973), p. 71.

Crisis Interventionists Feel Confident
as Work Begins

The department's crisis interventionists, having gradu-
ated from their 200-hour training program last Friday, are
confident they can handle a lot of the situations they will
be encountering.

"I feel like I will be able to handle most situations,
now that I have a repertoire of skills," said M. C. Dunn.
"Previously if someone started yelling at me, I either told
him to shut up or took him to jail. Now I can let him yell,
then try to talk to him about his problem."

"During our training we became more aware of little
things," said K. S. Carroll.

"We listened not only to what someone said but to how
he said it; it would make a difference in what we did."

The 10 crisis-intervention officers, operating in teams
of two, began working in the Northwest District Tuesday.

"The officers are operating under the general-specialist
concept; that is, when they are not handling disturbance
calls, they are performing normal patrol functions," said
H. L. Craighead, project director.

The officers finished five weeks of training last
Friday, during which they had three days of classroom in-
struction and two days in the field to practice what they
learned. The classroom lessons included role-playing situ-
ations with professional actors from the Dallas Theater
Center.

"Working with the actors was real good," said D. W.
Smyers. "We would give them whatever situation we wanted,
and then they could give us feedback on it."

"We had a lot of success in defusing crisis situations
during the training period," Craighead said. "Besides using
recorders officers carried with them, Dr. Frank Trimboli and
other consultants rode with the officers to evaluate their
actions."

For the next three months the officers will be working as crisis interventionists, answering various disturbance calls. During that period, follow ups on the calls the officers make will be done to determine public acceptance for this kind of police function.

"At the end of the 90 days, officers are presently scheduled to return to their previous assignments, where bureau and district commanders will determine what role they will fulfill," said Craighead. "Other plans of action, however, are also being considered."

If the current program proves that this kind of training is successful, then it is probable that more officers will be trained as crisis interventionists.

Some benefits have already been reaped from the program.

"It has already been determined that part of the training will be extracted from the program and plugged into basic recruit training," Craighead said. "A training manual for crisis intervention is currently being developed, and it should be ready shortly after the 90-day period ends.

"The officers involved have been instrumental in developing the training for future input into the program through their knowledge and experience. That was one of the reasons for going at the training the way we did."

The Dallas program also has national implications.

"Through this program," Craighead said, "we can cooperate with other agencies in the nation to upgrade the work and the training being done in the crisis-intervention area.

"One police agency from Colorado will be sending some of its crisis interventionists here in September to meet with our officers. They will discuss common problems and other things of common concern. The Los Angeles Police Department has also expressed interest in coming here to review our program."

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