

EXPLORING CORE POLICING AND THE REALITY OF POLICING RESPONSIBILITIES

by

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Abstract

In Canada, in recent years, concern has been expressed about increasing policing costs and a drift away from what is termed 'core policing.' In fact, the majority of police responses to calls for service are associated to non-crime or 'social' calls for service. To understand what constitutes core policing within policing services, analyses were conducted of reported police events and calls for service in different jurisdictional types within the Province of British Columbia. While differences in the percentages of police events and calls for service types were noted by jurisdictional grouping, there was general consistency in the nature of the police reported activities. This research sets the context for further discussions of the definition of core policing, changes in public expectations of policing services, and reform of the role of the police.

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Abbreviations and Acronyms

- i. CAD – Computer Aided Dispatch
- ii. CAD CFS – Computer Aided Dispatch Calls for Service
- iii. CompStat – Computer Statistics or Compare Statistics
- iv. OACP – Ontario Association of Chiefs of Police
- v. PRIME BC – Police Records Information Management Environment, British Columbia
- vi. RCMP – Royal Canadian Mounted Police
- vii. UCR – Uniform Crime Reporting

Introduction

In recent years, there have been calls from various levels of government, government institutions, and some researchers for the police to return to core policing duties or responsibilities, and for reforms to how policing is carried out in Canada (Leuprecht 2014; Association of Municipalities of Ontario, 2015; Ontario Association of Police Service Boards, 2012). There are several underlying factors that form the basis for these calls for change, with the main argument being the steadily increasing cost of policing during a period of substantial reductions in reported crime (Leuprecht, 2014; Police Modernization Report, 2015; Ontario Association of Police Boards, 2012).

While it is debateable whether the costs to policing are increasing at a greater rate than other public sectors, or whether police are less busy as the result of declines in reported crime (SECU, 2014; ICURS, 2014; Association of Municipalities of Ontario, 2015), the call for reform and controlling police costs has continued, often with demands for a return to ‘core policing.’ A principle theme is that higher paid, highly trained, sworn police officers should only respond to core duties, while the less-risky and non-crime responses, which consume a great deal of police time, should shift to non-sworn police or other agencies. These discussions often occur as part of the broader demand for the police to become more efficient and effective. While there should be continuous improvements and an evolution in policing in response to environmental, social, economic, and demographic changes, such changes would have significant implications, not just to policing, but to many other government services and the public. Therefore, a true understanding of what the police do and what public expectations are is essential before implementing reform measures.

While finding some efficiencies would be desirable, this might do little more than delay the more difficult conversation about whether the police are filling the right roles and doing so in a way that the community values. This requires ongoing good decisions around role and value as time unfolds and the environment changes (Caputo & McIntyre, 2015, p. 269).

One common conclusion found in the reports of various commissions and studies is that the nature and complexity of policing has changed substantially and continues to change. Policing is complex and influenced by many external factors, including legislation and changes in case law, public expectations, the ever-changing nature of crime itself, and technological changes. While reported crime has declined, the calls for service have remained relatively constant (Association of Municipalities of Ontario, 2015; ICURS, 2014). Given this, the police report being as busy as ever, and even busier as the calls for service have become more complex and require more time and resources to conclude (Report of the Parliamentary Standing Committee on Public Safety and National Security (SECU), 2014; Association of Municipalities of Ontario, 2015; ICURS, 2014; Young, 2010).

There has always been a substantial amount of police time devoted to non-crime activities, such as investigations into missing persons, sudden or unexplained deaths, calls for service to deal with persons with mental health issues, and responses to major events and disasters. As an example, police executives and government agencies have highlighted the increase in incidents that police respond to that involve persons with mental illness and addictions and the significant effect that has had on police time and resources (Iacobucci, 2014; Coleman & Cotton, 2016; SECU, 2014; Police Modernization, AMO (2015); Wilson-Bates, 2008). It is often said that the police are the only true 24-hour response that the public rely on (SECU, 2014; Criminal Justice Commission Research Paper Series, Queensland, 1996; ICURS, 2010). Given this, it is

reasonable to believe that there is a public expectation that the police will continue to take a lead role in a wide range of incidents and activities that might be meet the definition of core policing. Regardless, the focus on police costs has given rise to questions about whether police should devote most of their efforts to what is considered core policing. However, among the main challenges to any meaningful discussion on policing reform is a lack of a good, universally accepted definition of core policing.

As mentioned above, one of the main drivers of the reform discussion is the increased costs of policing, with particular emphasis on police compensation costs (Association of Municipalities of Ontario, 2015; Leuprecht, 2014; Ontario Association of Police Service Boards, 2012; Council for Canadian Academies, (2014). Related to this are the conversations based on the need to change current policing models to better reflect core policing principles. As has been argued, “containing policing costs while ensuring that core-policing services (e.g., those related to emergency response, criminal investigations and enforcing laws) are of key importance to policymakers and members of the Canadian policing industry” (The Economics of Canadian Policing Five Years Into The Great Recession, 2014, p.1).

The focus of many of the arguments is that core policing must be narrowly defined to focus on the prevention and investigation of crime, rather than responding to non-crime or social issues. However, suggesting that police refocus on ‘core policing’ ignores the history and evolution of policing in Canada and elsewhere. One has to consider whether the police were ever solely or primarily engaged exclusively in the prevention and investigation of crime. There has always been a significant part of policing that deals

with maintaining the public peace and order, community safety, and crime prevention, which goes far beyond exclusively responding to crime-related calls.

The purpose of this major paper is to explore the questions of what core policing is and what is the current scope of policing functions, and to consider core policing as it relates to or differs from the services and broader demands provided by police. This major paper will also consider whether the routine activities of police have strayed from core policing, and if so, how far, and what are the implications of this for police organizations and communities. To accomplish this, an analysis of what the police do on a daily basis was undertaken by analyzing PRIME BC¹ and CAD² data from British Columbia.

The literature review portion of this major paper considers whether there is a consensus of opinion on what constitutes core policing, and describes policing duties, responsibilities, and models. This section will also include an examination of how and where police operate, including public and police governance expectations, as it is clear that there are distinct mixes of crimes and calls for service based on the context of a particular police environment, such as geography, population makeup, and remoteness.

One additional piece that is critical as a precursor to reform is the need for decision makers and the public to be informed about the activities that the police are actually engaged in. For example, there have been many studies and police reports that indicate

¹ PRIME BC is the provincial Records Management System used by all police jurisdictions in British Columbia. It records all event files, both Uniform Crime Report (UCR) events and non-crime or non-UCR reported events, created by individual police jurisdictions, and it is how crime data is reported to Statistics Canada.

² CAD- Computer Aided Dispatch is the dispatch system utilised by police services in British Columbia. Complaints are sent to police officers from complaint takers by electronic means and form part of the police records management system.

that 70% to 80% of police calls for service are non-crime related; that is, police are responding to what have been termed ‘social’ issues or non-crime duties (Andresen et al., 2016; ICURS 2014; Collaborative Centre for Justice and Safety, 2014; Criminal Justice Commission Research Paper Series, Queensland, 1996).

This major paper will also include an analysis of certain police data to provide evidence to better understand the scope of policing duties in BC in different policing environments or contexts. As mentioned above, an important hypothesis of this research is that policing differs considerably based on geography, population, and remoteness, and that core policing may be different depending on the context of a particular policing jurisdiction. Finally, this major paper includes a discussion about why it is important to examine these issues as a basis to any meaningful discussions about changes to the overall police mandate, service delivery, and structure. This major paper analyses police recorded events and calls for service with a focus on general duty or the uniformed police as the primary responder. There is no doubt that there are reform opportunities for specialized sections; however, for the purposes of better understanding core policing and police activities, it is the first response by police that is of primary consideration in this major paper.

Background:

To aid in setting the stage for the examination of core policing, various models of policing, especially the most common policing models since the early 1960s, were examined. This review is intended to determine whether the changes or evolution of police models have affected or contributed to a shift away from core policing and how

they may have altered our understanding of core policing. The shifts in different policing models were very much driven by significant changes to the policing environment.

Ratcliffe (2008) described the evolution of policing since the 1960s as moving from the local constable dealing with localised crime in identifiable communities to a reactive policing model where the focus was on investigating crimes. In the 1960s and 1970s, crime rates increased rapidly challenging the ability of the police to deal with the volume and increasing complexity of crime. As a result of the strategies that were implemented to address these situations, the police began to lose touch with the communities they policed (Ratcliffe, 2008; Weisburd & Braga, 2006). In an effort to re-establish links with the community and provide reassurance to the public, the first community-based policing models emerged. The community-policing model also resulted in some structural changes in policing to support this new model. By the 1980s, a significant number of police agencies in the United States, Canada, and the United Kingdom had adopted some form of community policing (Ratcliffe, 2008; Weisburd & Braga, 2006; Morgan & Newburn 1997).

Ratcliffe (2008) described community policing, and the subsequent models of problem-oriented policing and intelligence-led policing, as different ‘conceptual frameworks’ that were not merely changes in police tactics, but fundamental shifts at a strategic level. There were some variations of the models, with some building off of previous approaches to policing, but all resulted from an identified need to move from the standard policing model, which will be outlined in more detail below. Later, police realised that they could strategically use data and data analysis to support decision-making and to develop new programs and initiatives. The use of data analysis and crime

analysis led to problem-oriented policing, intelligence-led policing models, and to Compstat.

Traditional, Standard, or Reactive Policing Model

The standard model of policing, also referred to as the Traditional, Standard, Reactive, or Professional model, traditionally comprised of random patrol, rapid uniformed response, the deployment of officers to crime investigations once an offence has been detected, and a reliance on law enforcement and the legal system as the primary means of trying to reduce crime (Weisburd & Eck, 2004). The standard model provided for a generalised model not focused on reducing crime, disorder, and fear of crime, but more on law enforcement (Weisburd & Eck, 2006). While Weisburd and Braga (2006) looked at policing in the United States, the challenges and pressures on policing were, to a large extent, mirrored in Canada and are, therefore, informative and relevant.

The models replacing or following the standard model moved beyond principally having a sole focus on reactive policing, to an emphasis or focus on different approaches to crime and disorder. These subsequent models were very much evolutions or refinements to previous policing models. According to Weisburd and Braga (2006), the tendency has been for police organizations to revert to or retain a certain element of what they know best when they implementing different models; namely the standard model of policing.

Kempa (2006) presented a view of the underlying factors that drove the introduction of public policing, and the economic and other broad societal changes that led governments to make structural changes to policing. Kempa referred to Sir Robert Peel as the father of modern policing and considered Peel's principles and fundamentals

to still be relevant. According to Kempa et al., “professional policing was an effective tool to deal with the relatively local, property-oriented minor crime, and public order issues of the post-war period” (2006, p. 11). Griffiths referred to this model as the Professional Policing Model, “based on the three R’s: random patrol, rapid response, and reactive investigations” (2013, p. 193). Griffiths’ view was that the professional model failed or became out-dated for several reasons, including a lack of analysis, a failure to consider community needs, and because it stifled creativity of the individual police officer.

There are fairly consistent views that the standard model of policing was not effective and resulted in an inability of the police to deal with the changing and increasing demands on police (Kempa, 2006; Griffiths, 2013; Ratcliffe, 2008). Weisburd and Braga described the significant changes in policing in the last quarter of the 21st century, driven in large part by the rapid pace of change that created significant challenges for policing, and resulted in a “crisis in policing that emerged in the late 1960s” (2006, p. 3). This occurred mostly in the United States, and caused police to rethink their primary purpose, to change core strategies, and to change the character of the relationships with communities.

Community Policing or Community-Based Policing

Ratcliffe wrote that community policing was difficult to clearly define; however, he suggested that; “while rarely articulated explicitly, the core purpose of community policing has been to increase police legitimacy in neighbourhoods that have lost confidence in the police” (2008, p. 66). Community-based policing is a model that places

primacy on being responsive to community priorities and expectations through partnerships with the community. Though there may have varying levels of community involvement and interest, or different programs depending on priorities, local programs are designed to respond specifically to the needs of the individual community. Community-based policing is about building or re-building relations with the community, and relies on police engaging community resources, not just a reliance on the police to deal with issues. Weisburd and Eck (2004) found in their review of the effectiveness of various policing models that, with community policing, there was no evidence to support that it reduced crime or disorder; however, there was strong evidence to suggest that fear of crime among residents was reduced.

Griffiths (2013) referred to the three P's of community policing; prevention, problem solving, and partnership with the community. Community policing relied on a traditional model to address crime and disorder, but expanded the police role to include "prevention, problem solving, community engagement, and partnerships" (Griffiths, 2013, p. 198-199). The important changes were that, while community policing was an organisational strategy, the individual police officer became more responsible to identify and deal with problems in the community, and the officer had increased authority and accountability. In this approach, officers were expected to identify the underlying issues related to crime and disorder, to engage the community in partnership, and to jointly find solutions in a proactive manner.

Griffiths (2013) identified among the key principles of community policing that the public were to be more responsible for identifying and dealing with community problems. This is referred to a *responsibilisation* of the public or community and falls

under the types of changes seen with the shift to neoliberalism. Police, particularly in larger centres, started to not respond to less serious complaints and shifted their focus on responding to more serious issues. At the same time, police started to identify larger issues in the community and directed some of their efforts to solving those recurring problems in partnership with the community and with other community services. The move to community-based policing pushed authority and accountability to front-line police officers relying on their discretion, and focussed officers on identifying and solving community problems, rather than simply responding to crime once it occurred. Taylor (2006) identified a social service ethos in which perceptions of community safety take priority as one key aspect of community-policing. From this perspective, one might conclude that the public's expectations were that the police do not deal solely with crime issues, but also address calls for service that have some social aspect. Social calls, in the policing context and for the purposes of this major paper, are considered those that are not necessarily crime related, but primarily involve individuals or situations in which there are some underlying social or economic factor, such as mental illness, drug or alcohol abuse, homelessness. This would also include those situations that affect social order or where individuals are found in some jeopardy, and are often prolific users of police and social services.

Problem-Oriented Policing - POP

Weisburd and Eck's (2004) research contrasted community-policing with problem-oriented policing (POP). With POP, the primary aim was to identify specific issues and problems that may have a crime component that also negatively affected community

wellness and safety. The desired outcome was to prevent a continuation or recurrence of the problem. POP often involved using crime analysts to identify crime and disorder issues, and POP provided for better evaluation of the effectiveness of police action and intervention, an integral part of the problem oriented policing model. POP uses structured problem-solving models, such as CAPRA³ and SARA⁴, similar to community-based policing. POP also relies on gathering information from many sources and forming meaningful and accountable partnerships. Bradley offered the following description of problem-oriented policing:

Problem-oriented policing would see police officers operating in highly autonomous environments. They would see their primary core business as generating data about incidents and cases and looking for possible relationships between such cases. They would seek to identify the basic underlying problems indicated by such relationships, and more accurate and comprehensive way(s) of describing them, analyze their causes, then set about tackling them. Problem-solving would in the first instance always look for ways in which non-police agencies and efforts might wholly or in part provide solutions or amelioration of the outcomes, and, feeding on this, the cycle would start again. *If there is one primary distinguishing characteristic of problem-oriented policing it is its focus on broadly defined social outcomes of policing activity, in contrast to a narrow concern with legally-defined process and criminal law enforcement as an end in itself (although this is not to say that it in any way abandons the notion of due process)* (1994, p. 2; emphasis in original).

Bradley recognized that there were social aspects of policing and that these social aspects were part of the police's responsibility. It is important to note that POP typically takes a bottom up approach to dealing with problems, which allows for local issues and concerns to be addressed, rather than approaches and strategies to be exclusively dictated by management. The POP model has played a key role in modern policing because it also demonstrated to police the benefits of crime analysis to identify problems and to identify targets.

³ CAPRA – Acronym for the police problem-solving model using the following five steps; Clients, Acquire/Analyse Information, Partnerships, Response, and Assessment of Action Taken.

⁴ SARA – Acronym for police problem-solving model using the following four steps; Scanning, Analysis, Response, and Evaluation.

Intelligence-Led Policing

With the challenges identified with POP, changes in globalisation, and the increased sophistication of criminal organisations, intelligence-led policing was the next model of policing and was touted as a smarter way to police. It started as an idea to change from reactive, or what Ratcliffe (2006) called the standard model of policing, to a proactive policing model using criminal intelligence as a tactical response. It also evolved to have a broader definition and scope. Ratcliffe (2006) described Intelligence-led policing as a ‘business model of policing’ that led to strategic solutions at local and regional levels. Intelligence-led policing is now used to determine broader police priorities and to direct or focus resources through an analysis of crime and disorder data. This strategy was adopted in the United Kingdom, New Zealand, Australia, the United States, and Canada.

Wood and Shearing asserted, “intelligence-led policing does not re-imagine the police role so much as it re-imagines how the police can be ‘smarter’ in the exercise of their unique authority and capacities” (2007, p. 55). Wood and Shearing were of the view that intelligence-led policing was just a reinforcement of the traditional model that added an evidence-base by using information and intelligence to target offenders. Ratcliffe (2008) suggested that intelligence-led policing also was a step forward because it included a strategic social harm approach that strengthen the notion that policing must also address, to some degree, the local social issues that were the primary contributors to crime and disorder.

CompStat is considered a sub-set of intelligence-led policing (Cohen et al., 2014), and is described as a police managerial accountability mechanism (Ratcliffe, 2008).

Compstat is not a model of policing, but a tactical tool to address crime problems and hold police officers accountable to addressing crime and disorder. CompStat relies on current and real-time intelligence and analysis, rapid response and reassessment, and accountability in local commanders. One of the biggest criticisms of Compstat was that, given the jeopardy for the commander in the original New York model, crime was misreported to meet targets, and also that there were wide-spread declines in reported crime that could not be accounted for through Compstat efforts (Eterno & Silverman, 2010; Eterno et al., 2016). Though not described as being core policing, the Compstat model's sole role is to fight and reduce crime.

Compstat had its genesis in New York and was an approach where precinct commanders had the authority and were held directly accountable to identify and respond to the most pressing crime threat in a community, district, or jurisdiction (Ratcliffe, 2006). Many police agencies in Canada have adopted Compstat or some variation of it, including the Vancouver Police Department and some lower mainland Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) jurisdictions. The Compstat approach does not focus on community engagement and directs resources to the most pressing crimes or crime trends.

Crime Reduction Strategies

As the title implies, a crime reduction model of policing focuses on offenders, crime problems, and being information and intelligence-led as the key elements of its strategy (Alberta Crime Reduction Strategy, 2013-14; Cohen et al., 2014; Ministry of Justice, British Columbia, 2014; City of Surrey, 2007). The British Columbia crime reduction model involves partnerships across government and other agencies to develop

and implement effective multi-agency responses to crime. According to Cohen et al. (2014), effective and efficient police-based crime reduction strategies require seven elements; be information-led, be intelligence-led, focus on offenders, focus on problems, develop meaningful partnerships, be pre-emptive, and be performance-based.

The changes to a Crime Reduction Strategy in British Columbia meant that there needed to be a shift in the culture of police, moving from a reactive policing model to one focused on targeting prolific offenders and to a problem-solving model relying on effective partnerships (Cohen et al., 2014). The changes were embraced by some police jurisdictions, but not all. From a resourcing perspective, commanders needed to dedicate a certain portion of their human resources to crime reduction efforts and needed to rely to a much greater extent on crime analysis to identify and target prolific and priority offenders, problems, and locations. As noted above, one of the drivers at the time was the call from some governments to reduce police resources as the crime rate was generally declining. Therefore, the intent of the crime reduction strategy was to allocating existing resources where they would have the most effect and be most efficient in reducing and preventing crime and disorder. There was evidence of success in those jurisdictions that implemented a crime reduction strategy, wherein those jurisdictions experienced a substantially greater reduction in crime than the general decline in reported crime elsewhere (Cohen et al., 2014).

The Alberta Crime Reduction Strategy (2013-14) incorporated various strategies into one overarching strategy:

The Alberta Crime Reduction Strategy is a consultative, research-based, intelligence-led approach to reducing crime. This is accomplished by focusing police actions toward high-volume offenders, known crime hot spots, and/or the underlying causes of crime. This multi-layered approach is focused and coordinated using components of crime reduction: problem solving, enforcement, intervention and prevention. For the problem-solving

component, the Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) uses CAPRA (Clients, Acquire/Analyse Information, Partnerships, Response, Assessment of Action taken), a community policing problem-solving model. The ultimate goals of the Alberta Crime Reduction Strategy are to lower crime rates, reduce the fear of crime, reduce the impact of anti-social behaviours in our communities and create efficiencies within the criminal justice system.

The Blue Ribbon Panel on Crime Reduction (British Columbia, 2014) recommended an expansion of the crime reduction focus to include strategies to deal with mental health and addictions, corrections, and prevention. Clearly, the panel contemplated the policing role including involvement in dealing with social issues, such as mental health, addictions, and homelessness.

There are a number of more recent policing models, such as the Community Mobilization Prince Albert, Saskatchewan (CMPA), a multi-agency team focused on crime prevention and the Ontario Mobilisation and Engagement Model of Community Policing. These are promising policing models or strategies. As presented in Appendix B, the Ontario Association of Chiefs of Police Ontario Mobilisation and Engagement model has four main elements; Enforcement and Crime Suppression, Community Engagement and Liaison, Community Mobilisation and Crime Prevention, and Community Safety and Consultation. This model includes a police service with the key responsibilities of investigating crime, crime prevention, and maintaining peace and order. The CMPA HUB approach is described as a community safety model based on the recognition that traditional policing was not effectively addressing increases in crime and the underlying issues leading to crime (McFee & Taylor, 2014). The model provides for a coordinated response involving community and community agencies for the early identification and intervention of emerging crime problems. The CMPA model claims some successes based on empirical reductions of crime and disorder, particularly recurring crimes. The

model calls for police involvement as the leader or as an active partner in intervention, prevention, and suppression programs depending on the nature of the intervention required (McFee & Taylor, 2014). These models contain elements of community policing and problem-oriented policing with a greater emphasis on cross-sector collaborative efforts and includes non-crime related issues that affect community well-being.

Importantly, notions of what should constitute core policing did not appear to have been a major consideration in the shift to or away from any of the policing models or strategies considered above. The changes were more driven by discontent, high profile events, significant challenges facing the police, demands for more accountability, or other external factors, but apparently not by any concerns with a drift away from core policing responsibilities. The focus in these changes is not so much on what the police investigate or respond to, but more on how they should respond and address calls for service, and how they interact with community and other agencies in addressing public concerns. There was no evidence that implementing these models was based on a conscious focus on questions of core policing. Of note, social responsibilities were more clearly included among the main policing functions in the POP and crime reduction models suggesting that police viewed these issues among their responsibilities and thus could be considered in a definition of core policing.

It is important to note that in each of these models, the police still responded to calls for service from the public, and there was no effort to limit or stop responding to certain types of calls. The review of these various police models found no research on the effects on police deployment, beyond the description of the move away from reactive policing, nor did any of the references provide any evidence to help define core policing.

Are core police duties or responsibilities truly defined?

Over the past ten years, there has been a growing suggestion that police have strayed from core policing responsibilities; however, it is unclear what is meant by core policing. As such, an examination of the historical context of policing, legislation governing policing, and some of the drivers of the change to current police duties and actual activities is required. There is wide agreement that Sir Robert Peel played a seminal role in the establishment of the first public police in the 19th century in England, (Reith, 1948; Robertson, 2012; Plummer, 1999). Peel's nine principles of law enforcement continue to be viewed as the foundation of policing models in Canada and other commonwealth countries. Peel's Principles of Law Enforcement was focused mostly on the relationship of the police with the public, the judiciary, and the fundamentals of an effective public police, not on the details of police responsibilities of the police beyond the first principle, which is that "the basic mission for which police exist is to prevent crime and disorder as an alternative to the repression of crime and disorder by military force and severity of legal punishment" (Reith, 1948).

The *Constitution Act*, 1867, Section 91, provided the power in the Legislative Authorities of Parliament to make laws for peace, order, and good government. This is sufficiently broad to allow legislative authorities to determine the roles and responsibilities of police. The *Constitution Act*, while giving parliament the authority to make criminal law, gives power and responsibility for the administration of justice, which includes policing, to the provinces. The following excerpt from the report by the Expert

Panel on the *Future of Canadian Policing* (2014) provides a good summary of what, in their view, defines the police role:

...the fundamental role of Canada's various police organizations is established through legislation that is broadly similar on this issue: to preserve the peace; enforce the Criminal Code; and enforce other laws in their jurisdiction, such as federal laws, provincial regulations, or municipal bylaws.

While most police forces are required by statute to enforce the laws of their jurisdiction, the level of further duty statutorily required differs by act, ranging from nearly no enumerated further duties to a fairly detailed list of duties. The breadth of the roles articulated, such as "preserving the peace," combined with the discretion to assign additional duties afforded by much of the legislation, suggests that Canadian police services can be called on to play a wide range of roles (2014, p. 128).

Perhaps most importantly, significant discretion is afforded to various actors, such as ministers, police chiefs, and police officers, to determine the duties of provincial and municipal police forces, and how these duties need to be delivered (Robertson, 2012). The federal Police Act, for example, permits the enumeration of further duties as identified by the Governor in Council or the Commissioner (Royal Canadian Mounted Police Act, 1985). Similarly, Manitoba's Police Services Act allows police chiefs to assign duties other than those identified in the Act (Police Services Act, 2009). As a result, the duties enumerated in statute are only the baseline, vague requirements, which are further developed by various actors (2014, p. 29).

The following is a selection of legislation, policies, and certain guiding documents regarding policing that serve as the legislative and regulatory basis for policing in various jurisdictions:

British Columbia

Section 2, *Police Act*, RSBC, 1996, requires the minister responsible for policing to ensure that an adequate and effective level of policing and law enforcement is maintained throughout British Columbia. Section 4.1(3) (a) indicates that an application for a designated policing unit must provide a description of all policing and law enforcement services to be provided by the designated policing unit on behalf of the entity, including a description of the geographical area within which the services are to be

provided. Section 4.2 (2) (c)(i) provides a broad statement of police duties and functions as a designated policing unit:

(c) prescribing the powers, duties, and functions of the board, including,

(i) a duty to

- (A) enforce, within the geographical area prescribed by the minister, the bylaws of the local government of the area, the criminal law, and the laws of British Columbia,
- (B) generally maintain law and order in the area, and
- (C) prevent crime.

There is nothing in the legislation or regulations of the Act that describe minimum levels of service or what levels of services are required by different sizes of municipality, or other criteria.

Ontario

The applicable Ontario legislation is the *Police Services Act*, R.S.O. 1990, Chapter 15. Section 2 identifies the basic police services;

(2) Adequate and effective police services must include, at a minimum, all of the following police services:

1. Crime prevention.
2. Law enforcement.
3. Assistance to victims of crime.
4. Public order maintenance.
5. Emergency response. (1997, c. 8, s. 3).

There are directives found under the regulations of the *Police Services Act: Reg. 3/99*:

Adequacy and Effectiveness of Police Services that require police agencies to establish procedures for providing the services under the categories found in Section 2.

Under the *Police Services Act*, the Government of Ontario introduced a set of “adequacy standards” in 1999 that required all police services in the province to meet a set of requirements relating to their core policing functions (Blandford, 2004). These standards

have created a level of consistency across police services, but have also required them to invest already scarce resources in a variety of areas. Blandford notes that “the province continues to direct through the Adequacy Standards the level and quality of police service that municipalities must maintain, but does not fund the training and capital expenditures required to meet these standards” (Council for Canadian Academies, 2014, p. 56).

Though described as core policing functions, as with most other legislation, the descriptions are quite broad and, at best, provide guidance to police.

Québec

The Province of Québec has taken a much more defined approach to what might be considered the core responsibilities of police. This was accomplished by creating requirements for six different levels of police service. The functions are listed for each level and fall within four categories of police activities; policing, investigations, emergency measures, and support services. Levels 1 through 5 are based on the population of municipalities, while Level 6 are the services provided by the Sûreté de Québec – the provincial police service – and include the specialized services provided to all police agencies in the province. Policing of smaller communities and the rural and remote areas in Québec are also a responsibility of the Sûreté de Québec (see Appendix A for a detailed listing of the services required at each level of population size).

The police duties found in the Québec legislation are the most comprehensive. The lists of duties include crime investigation, prevention of crimes, many non-crime roles, and duties relating to keeping the peace and providing overall safety and security. In contrast to other provincial legislation and regulations, which provide broad statements of police services to be provided, the Québec legislation and regulations articulate specific roles and responsibilities of police services, and are quite prescriptive with

respect to the services that must be provided by municipalities of certain sizes. The Québec legislation contains some specific non-crime related duties, such as emergency measures, peaceful crowd control, investigations of missing person, apprehension of the mentally ill who are at risk, and investigation of workplace fatalities. This specificity was not found in other legislation and regulations in Canada.

Manitoba

The Manitoba *Police Services Act*, S.M. 2009, c. 32, prescribes the following duties:

- S. 25 The duties of a police officer include
- (a) preserving the public peace;
 - (b) preventing crime and offences against the laws in force in the municipality;
 - (c) assisting victims of crime;
 - (d) apprehending criminals and others who may lawfully be taken into custody;
 - (e) executing warrants that are to be executed by peace officers, and performing related duties;
 - (f) laying charges and participating in prosecutions;
 - (g) enforcing municipal by-laws; and
 - (h) performing other duties assigned by the police chief.

No further role descriptions were found in regulations or other Manitoba legislation.

Federal/National - The Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP).

The following provides a brief description of the broad responsibilities of the RCMP:

The RCMP enforces laws throughout Canada made by or under the authority of Parliament. The RCMP Federal mandate, drawn from the authority and responsibility assigned under Section 18 of the RCMP Act, is multi-faceted; it includes preventing and investigating crime; maintaining peace and order; enforcing laws; contributing to national security; ensuring the safety of visiting state officials and dignitaries; ensuring safety of foreign missions; providing vital operational support services to other police and law

enforcement agencies within Canada and abroad (Info Source - Access to Information and Privacy Branch, “Responsibilities.”).

The *RCMP Act*, a piece of federal legislation, provides only a general description of the duties of the RCMP. Given the very wide mandate and levels of policing services provided by the RCMP, perhaps it is expected that duty descriptions are quite general in nature (see Appendix A for the *RCMP Act* ‘Duties’).

England and Wales

The primary duties of police in parts of the United Kingdom are found in Schedule 1, Police, England and Wales, *Police (Conduct) Regulations*, 2004:

The primary duties of those who hold the office of constable are the protection of life and property, the preservation of the Queen’s peace, and the prevention and detection of criminal offences.

Further the Statement of Common Purpose and Values for the Police Service sets out that:

The purpose of the police service is to uphold the law fairly and firmly; to prevent crime; to pursue and bring to justice those who break the law; and to keep the Queen's Peace; to protect, help and reassure the community; and to be seen to do all this with integrity, common sense and sound judgement (The Select Committee on Home Affairs, 2007-08).

Her Majesty’s Inspectorate of the Constabulary (HMIC) conducted a review on the ‘Core Business of the Police’ with the purpose of exploring “the effectiveness of policing activity in three important areas of police work: crime prevention; police response to incidents and crimes; and freeing up police time” (2014: p. 20). Despite the mandate to study the extent to which police were engaged in core business, the report does not offer a definition of ‘core policing responsibilities’ or ‘core business,’ beyond “crime prevention is the primary purpose of the police service. Preventing crime is the responsibility of all

police officers and police staff in a force” (2014: p. 22) (see Appendix A for relevant excerpts). No other specific description of core business or core policing was found in the review of the literature concerning policing in the United Kingdom.

Queensland, Australia

Each state in Australia is responsible for policing and creating their own legislation with respect to laws and police duties. The core duties of the police service in Queensland are found in the *Police Service Administration Act*, 1990, Queensland. The functions of police are defined broadly as:

preservation of peace and good order; protection of all communities from unlawful disruption of peace and good order, and; a specific identification of a responsibility of police to respond in an emergency situation.

The wording includes references to investigation of crimes, prevention of crimes, and ‘upholding of the law generally’. Section 2.3 (g) of the act expands the broad function of police responsibility:

the rendering of help reasonably sought, in an emergency or otherwise, as are; required of officers under any Act or law or the reasonable expectations of the community; or reasonably sought of officers by members of the community.

This legislation, therefore, recognizes the broader role of police in dealing with non-crime issues. Other than the inclusion of specific responsibilities for police in emergency situations or public expectations of reasonable assistance, the functions or duties included in this act are specific to law enforcement and prevention of crime.

Though not all-inclusive, relying on this sampling of legislation from Canada, England and Wales, and Australia, it is evident that there is no clear, consistent, or

commonly agreed upon definition of core policing. To address this concern, McKenna (1998) offered the following core functions of police in Canada:

- Prevent crime;
- Enforce the law;
- Maintain public order;
- Assist victims of crime, and;
- Respond to emergencies.

Of note, these core functions are essentially identical to those found in Section 4(2) of the Ontario *Police Services Act*. McKenna observed that, while there were substantial differences among provinces with respect to core responsibilities, there were still many similarities that could be attributed to a common criminal law in Canada and a common history. McKenna's summary of core duties captured the essence of the various pieces of Canadian legislation with respect to policing.

Caputo and Vallée addressed the question of defining core policing functions in their research and offered the following:

The first question we explored was what the participants considered to be “core” policing functions. Not surprisingly, we found a great deal of consensus on this issue. The core functions that were identified included responding to emergencies, enforcing the law, and ensuring public safety. Keeping the peace and doing criminal investigations were also seen as core policing functions. Importantly, these functions were often defined in relation to police work done in specific work environments (e.g., downtown versus suburbs, rural versus urban, etc.). These findings were consistent for all six police agencies and across all ranks. In general, the participants expressed a clear sense of responsibility. Indeed, it was obvious that they felt a tremendous obligation and sense of duty to respond if the public needed them (2010, p. 88).

Caputo and Vallée's definition was consistent with the other studies, using broad statements to describe police functions, though they also highlighted that the context, or 'specific work environments,' influences the definition of the police work.

The investigation by the Council for Canadian Academies (2014), having reviewed the various statutes and background into policing in Canada, also concluded that there was no generally accepted definition of core policing:

Although there is no agreement on core duties at the provincial or national levels, this discussion has been proposed as a crucial input to progress on professionalization (Council for Canadian Academies, 2014, p. 29).

The lack of a definition of core policing is a significant barrier to any serious consideration of reform of models of policing. Leuprecht expanded on this argument by stating that, “In all of the jurisdictions reviewed, a major challenge is that the core functions of the police have not been defined. This makes it difficult to identify the parameters of the role and responsibilities of the public police, and to determine the niche for private security, working in partnership either with the police, or in an outsourcing or privatization arrangement” (2015, p. 1). One might surmise, based on the findings of the literature considered in this major paper, that core policing, in its simplest form, is considered by many to be responding to high-risk situations that necessitate a sworn, armed, and fully trained police officer. As suggested elsewhere in this major paper, such a narrow definition fails to consider that policing has always been much more than that.

It is again worth noting that, given the unique role of the police in society, the description of core duties could not, and perhaps should not, be more narrowly defined. Broader statements of the policing role and responsibilities allow for the tailoring of services based on the context of the environment, and allows for an interpretation of and response to local public expectations. To be sure, there are very similar views of the policing role; however, the police role in a rural/remote environment with few

government or other services readily available, may be very different than public expectations in a large municipal or metropolitan area.

Yet, in spite of there being no clear common understanding of core policing, there are calls for reform of the policing function and the return to core policing for the police. These assertions lead to a consideration of why has there been much recent discussion about the role of police in Canada and calls for reform.

The interest in core policing and why it is important

Although there is a lack of a common definition for what is core policing, calls for the reform of police functions and a return to core policing is a common theme and recommendation found in the policing literature (Council for Canadian Academies, 2014; Association of Municipalities Ontario, 2015; Drummond Report, 2012; Ontario Association of Police Boards; Leuprecht, 2014). The concerns about the police role are not uniquely a Canadian issue, but can be found in references to other national and local police forces. For example, in the United Kingdom “the service is grappling with an expanding, yet imprecise, mission ... In 2008, the police service in England and Wales can be characterised as having a mission that is wider than ever before and having a lack of shared clarity amongst stakeholders about what is expected of it in relation to the breadth of the challenge” (Quote from evidence of the Association of Chief Police Officers to the Select Committee on Home Affairs, 2007-08).

In order to understand the reform agenda and the calls for a return to core policing, one needs to consider some of the underlying rationale advanced to support those views. As discussed previously, two of the main concerns are the increasing costs of policing at a time when reported crime is down, and the belief that there is

unsustainability of the current policing models. Christmas suggests that the traditional model of policing, as well as the criminal justice system broadly, have become unsustainable:

Another cornerstone of Canadian justice is the belief, also of European origin, in professionalized police services with authority and responsibility for keeping the peace. Peel's principles of police authority and powers have remained an important part of Canada's social fabric (Kelling 1999). Traditions of using police as regulatory agents, coupled with imprisonment as a deterrent to crime, have resulted in Canada's justice system developing a culture that is not only reactive rather than preventative but very expensive to maintain (2013, p. 11).

As part of the traditional police response, for the most part, the police have consistently maintained a 'we'll respond if no one else will,' philosophy, (Caputo & McIntyre, 2015; SECU, 2014; Police Modernization, AMO, 2015). Based on the submissions to the *2015 Summit on Economics of Policing and Community Safety*, (Public Safety Canada), one of their findings was that the police were not in a position to say no to a request for service. In other words, the police must respond. Caputo and Vallée's findings were that the police "felt a tremendous obligation and sense of duty to respond if the public needed them" (2010, p. 88). Another similar finding in the Queensland study was that police try to be "all things to all people", partially due to police culture and because they are often the only government department in small communities (Sustaining the Unsustainable, 2013, pg. 239). As noted, the expectations of the police, and indeed the public, are that the police will respond to a wide variety of calls for service, and, while more prevalent in small and remote communities where there are fewer government or other services, these expectations remain fairly widely held. This aspect of police culture is certainly a significant factor in the evolution to the current state of police service delivery. To that end, policing in Canada closely models policing in

most western developed countries, especially those with an English common law foundation.

Several Canadian studies on core policing and the external factors influencing policing reported many of the same general findings. The Parliamentary Standing Committee on Public Safety and National Security (SECU) (2014) examined what they described as the broad issue of the economics of policing. The SECU study occurred at a time of increasing interest in police functions and was partially in response to the concerns of different levels of government in Canada about the increasing costs of policing, and the growing calls for improved efficiencies and effectiveness of policing services. The parliamentary committee's mandate was to review the issues of the economics of policing and to recommend changes to improve police effectiveness and efficiency. They summarised part of their findings concerning core policing as follows:

Throughout this study, witnesses highlighted the difficulties stemming from the current policing framework, including the absence of a clear definition of the roles and responsibilities of each level of government in policing. A key aspect of this efficiency and effectiveness reform is the management of public expectations about when, where, and how police services are delivered. Witnesses stressed the importance of properly defining core policing functions. Whereas police forces have proudly responded to each and every call for service by dispatching an officer to attend, this can no longer continue (SECU, 2014, p. 29).

The question of the sustainability of the current policing models was among the focuses of other Canadian studies as well:

Generally, the RAB [Research Advisory Board] members talked about sustainability as the police making a continuing contribution to community safety in a cost effective way, in particular with respect to core policing services, and in order to fulfill the needs and expectations of the community (Caputo & McIntyre, 2015, p. 266).

Leuprecht argued that increasing policing costs were at least partially driven by police doing non-core law enforcement duties.

The real question is why police who are making upwards of \$100,000 a year are performing so many tasks that are not really core policing duties and that other jurisdictions are delivering as or more effectively, efficiently, and productively through alternative service delivery in the form of both civilianization and outsourcing (2014, p. 2).

Canadian society would be better served by debating “what kind” of police service rather than “how much” (2014, p. 2).

The Ontario Association of Police Service Boards, in their summary paper, *The Rising Costs of Policing* (2012) and the SECU (2014) inquiry drew similar conclusions; namely that one of the main cost drivers of increased policing costs was police compensation. The SECU (2014) report devoted a section to address the question of redefining core policing; however, they did not provide a definition of core policing or elaborate on what they viewed as fundamental policing responsibilities. The committee spoke of a need to look at tiered-policing models as one solution, and they identified several promising policing initiatives for improving the efficiency and effectiveness of policing found throughout the world. Tiered-policing includes, in addition to sworn police officers, Special Constables for specific duties, such as traffic control and Community-Safety Officers, civilianisation of specialised functions not requiring a police/peace officer status, and may include private security (McKenna, 2014; SECU, 2014). SECU (2014) identified specific integrated, cross-sector or multi-agency programs as best or promising practises, such as Community Mobilisation, Prince Albert; Calgary Police Service Crime Prevention and Reduction Continuum, and the START program, Selkirk, Manitoba.

SECU’s (2014) recommendations flowed from the evidence before the committee that policing costs had been increasing at an alarming rate, that police were increasingly being asked to take on tasks that were non-crime related and could perhaps be done by those who were not sworn police officers, and to address the idea the police services

could be more cost-effective by reducing the number of sworn police and allowing sworn police officers to not be consumed with non-core police functions. The main substance of their findings and recommendations were that to gain efficiency and effectiveness in policing, alternate service delivery models were needed.

Several studies mainly focused in Ontario (*Building a new public safety model in Ontario, 2015; The Rising Costs of Policing in Ontario, 2012; Drummond Report, 2012; Economics of Policing*, Public Safety Canada, 2015) have called for reforms of policing models or functions. Consistent with Leuprecht's (2014) views, these studies have identified one of the main drivers for reforms as the increased costs of policing, which grew at a greater rate than other public sectors, especially the costs of police compensation, coupled with the 'scope creep' of policing. There was general agreement that other cost drivers include the increasing complexity of policing, legislation changes and court decisions, increasing public expectations, and demands for more accountability of the police.

Yet, all would agree that police services across the country are facing unprecedented challenges. As public expectations continue to rise and calls for service increase, police costs are spiraling to the point where the current policing model is no longer sustainable. (SECU, 2014, p. 1).

One of the many challenges is that the fundamentals of public expectations of police have remained unchanged. That is, the public holds the expectation that the police will respond to a wide range of crime and non-crime calls for service. However, there is a general recognition that public demands for service have remained constant or actually increased, and reductions in other government services have resulted in the public relying more on the police. The last point is especially true in rural and remote areas; however, it

is still prevalent in urban areas (ICURS, 2014; SECU, 2014; Ontario Association of Police Service Boards, 2012).

In sum, increasing costs of policing and the related perceived unsustainability of current models, in the setting of changes in the nature of crime and external pressures on policing, have led to many recommendations for reform of current policing models and consideration for alternative service delivery models. To move forward with examining such recommendations, there is a need not only to consider the different contexts of policing and to have an awareness of how policing has changed, but to understand that the policing culture of responding to all calls if needed and the policing environment has become ever more complex. Though not specifically identified as such in the literature, some of the functions of police do suggest that core policing should be considered within a broader range of the services provided by police; that is, policing includes many roles that fall outside of core policing, but are nevertheless important roles of a police service. This distinction has not been generally made, though the Québec policing requirements, as an example, certainly contain roles detailing the both core policing and the broader policing services to be provided. These police service responsibilities are found elsewhere as well, such as those from Queensland and Ontario.

The Effects of the Context and Changing Complexity of Policing

The substantial increase in the complexity of policing is a key issue to consider in the debate about core policing. One of the principal observations is that policing does not exist in isolation, but is subject to a range of external influences that substantially effect police service delivery. Examples of the external factors over which the police have little

control are the exponential growth in technology, globalisation, increased demands for more accountability, changing public policy, increased and recurring contact with individuals with significant social issues, and reductions in some government services (SECU, 2014; ICURS, 2010, 2014; Council for Canadian Academies, 2014; HMIC, 2014; Minister for Police and Community Safety, 2013). The pace of these changes in policing have accelerated during the past half-century, and the rapid changes, with their cumulative effects, have had a significant impact on policing, as they have had on other public sectors. The police have had to adapt to the changes and demands, often relying on existing resources, which further increases pressures on policing (SECU, 2014; McKenna, 2014; ICURS, 2010). These changes have affected policing in different ways dependent on context, and, as a result, core policing might be defined differently based on the context of policing. An integral part of the studies of the complexity of policing, and its effect on core-policing functions, is the need to understand the different contexts under which policing functions (ICURS, 2010).

The Canadian policing landscape is characterized by the vastness of our country, its cultural diversity and its jurisdictional framework. This reality is at the core of many of the challenges inherent to the delivery of efficient and effective police services (SECU, 2014, p. 2).

One recent study conducted by the University of the Fraser Valley in B.C. showed that the work of police officers has changed significantly over the last 10 years, post charter and subsequent to any legislative and regulatory changes in the 1980s and 1990s, with breaking and entering at 58% more processing time, driving under the influence at 250% more processing time, and a relatively simple domestic assault at 950% more processing time (SECU, 2014, p. 19).

Another section of the SECU (2014) inquiry was devoted to the “cost drivers and challenges unique to small, rural and Northern communities, including Aboriginal policing” (SECU, 2014, p. 21). While this aspect of the differences and challenges for

policing in those communities is not being explored in this major paper, it is certainly noteworthy. The context of policing in those environments would require extensive study; however, suffice to say, the context and challenges of looking at police service delivery in Aboriginal communities, rural, and remote locations is critical to the discussion about reforming policing, and more so given that these areas are often overlooked in research.

Several research studies and reviews addressed the broad question of the economics of policing and some of the drivers affecting policing (ICURS, 2014; SECU, 2014; Leuprecht, 2014, 2015; Association of Municipalities Ontario, 2015). The ICURS study (2014) and the SECU report (2014), in particular, drew similar conclusions identifying a number of dynamics affecting contemporary policing in Canada, and also examined the contextual differences in policing, especially between the rural and remote areas, and the medium and large municipalities. ICURS also pointed to increased demands for accountability, increases and changes in public expectations, and technological changes as effecting policing in recent decades. The authors opined that there has always been a continual evolution of policing – shifting in response to many, primarily external forces, and including a wide-range of activities. “The earliest days of policing saw police officers performing a wide variety of roles – many of which would now be described as social services work – rather than what most would think of as police work in the modern sense” (Complexity of Policing, ICURS, 2010, p. 1).

The qualitative component of the ICURS *Economics of Policing* (2014) research consisted of a series of focus groups wherein sworn police officers and support staff from RCMP detachments and municipal police services of varying sizes and geographical

locations were interviewed about the changes they experienced during their service in police work, and contrasted those with current demands on policing. The following were the general and most significant findings from the focus groups:

1. the crime rate has only a limited relationship to policing work volume;
2. police work has continued to expand in complexity since the original “30 Year Study”,⁵ and;
3. more and increasingly complex tasks and responsibilities being demanded of police increased the costs of these services (ICURS, 2014, p. 13).

The participants described a “highly dynamic environment during the preceding decade” (ICURS, 2014, p. 23), with public expectations and demands increasing, in conjunction with changes in technology, including the need for increased data collection. Further, there were consistent views that investigations were more complex, resource intensive, and time-consuming, and that members wanted more time for crime prevention activities, as crime prevention efforts often were put aside to deal with complaints and follow-up duties. Police members also reported an increased burden of less serious calls for service. The researchers found a range of police response models, from police jurisdictions with a ‘No call too small’ approach to models where police did not respond to all complaints, but used a prioritization model, whereby police prioritize calls based on importance, urgency, or solvability, that is, considering whether there are suspects, vehicle descriptions, or other possible avenues of investigation. The different local response models seemed to be driven, at least in part by public expectations in a particular jurisdiction. There were variations in how events were recorded as well, and the

⁵ Malm et al., *A 30 Year Analysis of Police Service Delivery and Costing*. University of the Fraser Valley and the Institute for Canadian Urban Research Studies, Simon Fraser University, 2005.

researchers noted it would be hard to empirically assess these aspects of police response models or to directly compare different jurisdictions.

Part of the quantitative research in the ICURS (2014) study examined the proportion of calls for police service that were crime versus non-crime in nature. The review of the PRIME BC data for the RCMP units in British Columbia found that approximately 30% of all PRIME events were reported in the Uniform Crime Reports (UCR), while the remaining events were not, that is: police recorded events which were not crime related, but still require some action on the police. This is consistent with the percentages reported by many police agencies in Canada and other literature (Millie & Bullock, 2013; Andresen, 2016; Public Safety Canada, 2015). As UCR police reported events represent only a portion of police activities, other data concerning police activities must be considered when investigating the police role. It is necessary to consider the full range of police services provided when examining questions of complexity of policing, the current police role, and the future role of policing. Without considering this full range of police services, beyond what might be considered core policing, the result of such an examination would be incomplete and therefore of limited value in developing alternatives.

While few would suggest the *Charter of Rights and Freedoms* and many of the other legislative and policy changes were not positive developments in Canada, these pieces of legislation resulted in substantial changes to day-to-day police work. While providing more tools and authorities to police, there were frequently unanticipated corresponding increases to police procedures, some quite onerous. For example, the

Stinchcombe decision⁶ is often cited Canadian case law that resulted in a very significant onus being put on police. The Supreme Court ruling was that an accused was entitled to full disclosure of relevant investigative materials by the prosecution. There were subsequent court interpretations that expanded on this ruling requiring additional requirements for disclosure. The majority of the responsibility for collecting and preparing the material fell to police, not the prosecution, and the police took on these tasks with no new resources.

In Canada, the judicial system has become increasingly complex and demanding (SECU, 2014; ICURS, 2010; Council for Canadian Academies, 2014), and one might argue that Canada no longer have a criminal justice system, but a criminal legal system more grounded in process, procedure, and case law, and, that those complexities are not conducive to nimble policing (SECU, 2014; Council of Canadian Academies, 2014; ICURS, 2014). Police are unable to circumvent investigative processes or procedures for the sake of expediency to not compromise prosecutions that can have the added effect of undermining public confidence. Examples include being adherence to Charter rights with respect to arrest, search and seizure, or, ensuring they do not have ‘tunnel vision,’ which might limit the scope of an investigation. Similarly, the *Core Business* (HMIC, 2014) study found that in an environment of increasing demands for police to reform, the expectations have not changed from key institutions, such as the courts, and, in fact, many decisions are made that result in unforeseen, often significant consequences for the police, such as the Stinchcombe decision mentioned previously, and the Feeney and

⁶ R v Stinchcombe, SCC, [1991] 3 SCR 326.

Jordan decisions⁷. R v. Feeney is a Supreme Court of Canada decision that found a warrantless arrest in a residence was unconstitutional and, as a consequence of the decision, a search warrant is required to enter a residence to effect an arrest, placing additional requirements on police. R v Jordan requires trials to proceed within a specified period or the charges will be dismissed for unreasonable delay. This decision resulted in significant pressures being placed on police to promptly prepare investigations to support prosecution. In these cases, there was no consideration for the effect that this would have on police operations and resourcing.

Canadian courts are primarily concerned with ensuring *Charter* rights and legal procedures are respected, not with whether there may be additional costs in time or expenditures for police, prosecution, and other institutions. Frequently, the burden for many of the additional processes or tasks required to comply with changes have fallen on the police (ICURS, 2014; SECU, 2014; Young, et al, 2010; Association of Municipalities of Ontario, 2015). As a result, there are increased tasks required of the police, often with no new resources, and, therefore, in conjunction with their non-crime calls for service, there are additional pressures on police response. The previous example of the Stinchcombe decision illustrates this very well.

Many of the activities police routinely engage in are non-crime related, such as responding to calls involving persons with mental illness at risk to themselves, missing persons, sudden death investigations, and response to disasters. A provisional report

⁷ R v Feeney, [1997] 2 S.C.R. 13, and R v Jordan, [2016] SCC 27.

referenced in HMIC (2014) found that approximately two-thirds of calls for service were non-crime related, while ICURS (2014) reported that approximately 70% of police calls for service were not reported to Statistics Canada as crimes. The HMIC (2014) study provided a detailed analysis of the types and extent of police time involved in the non-crime calls, and the report made specific mention of calls for service involving persons with mental illness, and assistance on ambulance calls where persons are injured, as consuming significant police time.

The research, *The Nature of General Police Work* (1996), from Queensland, Australia, also considered what activities police were occupied with. The researchers found that much of police work or police activities were non-crime related activities. An examination of one specific jurisdiction demonstrated that the majority of calls for service were categorized as disturbances, described as “unruly or rowdy behaviour, neighbourhood disputes, offensive language and complaint of loud or excessive noise.” Many of these matters involved ‘public order’ problems, rather than criminal offences (Criminal Justice Commission Research Paper Series, Queensland, 1996, p. 4). Many of the remaining calls for service were also non-crime related, such as investigations of motor vehicle collisions, general assistance to the public, and responding to family disputes. This study found police devoted very little time to prevention or proactive duties. The researchers observed, as many other studies have concluded, that many, both within policing and outside police organizations, see the primary responsibility of police to investigate crime, yet this represents fewer than half the police time recorded and calls for service by type (HMIC, 2014; AMO, 2015; Leuprecht, 2015; OAPSB, 2012).

Ruddell, in describing the origins of policing in western Canada, found “governments of the day recognized that only a fraction of their duties were enforcement-related, and the Mounted Police also had responsibilities for social service roles as few alternatives existed in the countryside” (2017, p. 55). Ruddell (2017) further wrote in describing the duties of the North-West Mounted Police (NWMP) in the Yukon that:

... members of the NWMP in the Klondike acted as jailers, justices of the peace, Indian agents, postal workers, land agents, mining recorders, coroners, returning officers during elections, as well as serving as customs agents and bank guards (p. 57), and,

‘Some of those non-enforcement duties are still done today – especially in some rural areas where no alternatives exist’ (2017, p. 57-58).

The Expert Panel, *Policing Canada in the 21st Century* (2014), did not touch on the role of police beyond a high-level discussion about the need to rethink the role of the police within the broader safety and security web. They concluded that, “crime is changing in several important ways not always reflected in crime statistics or effectively addressed through traditional policing practices. Society is also changing and, with it, the demands and expectations it places on police” (Council for Canadian Academies, 2014, p. 14). The expert panel did recommend, “moving beyond the generalist model of policing” (Council for Canadian Academies, 2014, p. 9), meaning there was a benefit to finding an appropriate mix of sworn police to civilian and specialist personnel. In an effort to define the role of frontline policing, the panel refer to the model in England and Wales found in HMIC (2011), “In an alternative and more informative approach to categorizing the workforce, reporting in England and Wales distinguishes front-line police work from middle and back of front line police roles: The police front line comprises those who are in everyday contact with the public and who directly intervene to keep people safe and enforce the law” (Council for Canadian Academies, 2014, p. 94). This is essentially the

same argument put forward for tiered-policing and revamping of models of policing discussed in the previous section.

One specific and relevant recent study is ‘*What do police do and where do they do it?*’ (Andresen et al., 2016). This paper looked at a small municipal police department in suburban British Columbia by analysing PRIME BC data to look at police activities over several years. The paper described the context of policing costs comparatively, the influences of the evolving complexity of policing, the mix of police activities, and what the police do and where they do it. The study disaggregated police activities into the following categories; violent crime, property crime, other crime, public safety and welfare, traffic, by-law enforcement, drugs and alcohol, and miscellaneous. The researchers identified a ‘public safety and welfare’ category of calls for service as encompassing the bulk of the non-crime related police activities. Andresen et al. (2016) found that 50% of recorded police events fell within this category, while the crime events reported to Statistics Canada ranged between 20% to 30% annually, which was consistent with the findings of other research (Caputo & McIntyre, 2015; SECU, 2014; ICURS, 2014; Criminal Justice Commission Research Paper Series, 1996).

Few pieces of research have really identified or at least highlighted that the reduction in reported crimes is mainly in the property and other *Criminal Code* categories; incidents that the police often devote little or no time to. The drop in reported crimes, therefore, has had little effect on how busy the police are. It is also important to remember the complexity of crimes and the complexity of investigations have contributed significantly to making policing ever more challenging. As crimes become more complex, police often adjust by reducing their responses to less serious crimes, non-

injury motor-vehicle collisions, and alarms. As one would expect, police focus on the more serious crimes, those crimes with some likelihood of being solved, and the important non-crime related activities that only the police can do.

The increased and ever increasing complexity of policing is a key consideration in any discussion about police mandate, especially when discussing reform and policies to improve efficiencies and effectiveness. The myriad of external factors, such as case law, demands for more accountability, and changes in technology, often over which the police have little or no control, influence to a very large extent what the police do and how they do it.

Methodology

At the outset of the research for this major paper, there were thought to be differences in the mix of police event types based on community size, geographic location and remoteness, and the general services available in those communities. Some studies identified differing challenges for police in these various locations (ICURS, 2014; Young, 2010; SECU, 2014). For instance, based on Statistics Canada crime reports, one might expect there to be more violent crimes in smaller rural and remote jurisdictions compared to larger municipal areas. Identifying these differences, if any, was part of the examination of the nature of the police events and calls for service overall. This analysis allowed for an examination of the scope of current police work, to compare the ratios of crime versus non-crime calls for service, to make some assessments of how this relates to ‘core’ policing duties, and what might be the policy considerations and implications for contemporary policing and policing in the future.

For the purposes of examining what activities the police are actually engaged in, the following data sets were analysed:

- 1) PRIME BC police records event data for a sampling of RCMP detachments in British Columbia between 2013 to 2015 inclusive; and
- 2) Computer-Aided Dispatch (CAD) data for a sampling of RCMP detachments in British Columbia for 2015.⁸

The detachment level data was used to capture the actual activities of general duty, uniformed police officers who respond to and investigate routine matters not requiring special expertise. PRIME event data for municipal police departments, specialised units, and the federal enforcement units was not available and, therefore, not considered in these analyses. The RCMP data selected for analysis provided a good cross section of policing jurisdictions based on detachment size and geography and over a sufficient time frame to do the analysis. The dataset did not contain sufficient detail to allow for differentiation of preventative or proactive measures undertaken by police, as opposed to reported and response activities of the general duty police officer. In effect, the data was simply the basic police event data and CAD calls for service data for detachments.

In terms of the advantages in using this type of data, RCMP and all police departments in British Columbia use one records management system, PRIME BC, and use the same event scoring codes, which serve both to satisfy reporting for the UCR2 Survey and as a record keeping function for all other events, as well. The RCMP follow the same set of policies and business practises with respect to recording of event

⁸ De-identified police data obtained through a Memorandum of Understanding between “E” Division RCMP (British Columbia) and the Institute for Canadian Urban Research Studies (ICURS), Simon Fraser University. No personal information was available to the researcher. Access to the data for the purposes of this research project was approved by Dr. Patricia Brantingham, Director, ICURS.

information, and the RCMP use additional event and statistical event codes that are consistent throughout the province. Similarly, CAD Priority Levels and Code definitions are standard throughout British Columbia. The initial CAD coding was used in the analysis, which is determined by call-takers who, based in the information provided, set the priority of the call relying on standardised policies and procedures. In terms of limitations, though there are standard codes, there remain some different interpretations and practises with respect to scoring rules. Some localized practises are evident where there might be some inconsistencies between detachment. For example, one detachment may use *Disturb Peace* significantly more frequently than another detachment because a local practise may have developed to code certain routine events under a particular classification when the event does not fit neatly into a specific event description. The series descriptions in PRIME for the events reported through the UCR2 Survey to Statistics Canada align with the Statistics Canada “*Data Elements and Violation Coding Structure for the Uniform Crime Reporting Survey 2*” and can be found in Appendix C.

The analyses in this major paper considered the context of police activity and, for the purposes of examining what the police are doing, the analyses considered what police activities were core policing duties. To better understand the context of policing, the PRIME BC data and CAD data were analysed under four categories of police jurisdictions or jurisdictional groupings in British Columbia developed for this major paper. The groupings were: large municipal, medium municipal, medium rural (with a built up rural population), and rural/remote jurisdictions. These groupings were developed to provide a good cross-section of jurisdiction types, and the individual detachments within each group were selected to provide a good sample of detachment

type within that grouping. The large municipal detachments have a variety of other services available, similar to what would be found in most larger municipalities in Canada, such as dedicated Bylaw Enforcement Departments, essential government services, such as Social Services, and full-range medical facilities, including mental health facilities. Three of a possible six large municipal detachments were selected for the sample. The Medium-Municipal detachments are outside the built up large metropolitan area, serve as a regional hub for other government services, yet are similar and allow for ‘bundling’ for comparison purposes with the other detachments within that grouping. There were 22 detachments identified as Medium-Municipal detachments in the province. The Medium-Rural detachments differ in that they also have a significant built up rural area nearby and which serve, to a certain extent, as a smaller ‘metro area’. These areas have essential government services, though not the extended full-range of services found in large municipalities. In total, 46 detachments were designated for the Medium-Rural group. Both the Medium Municipal and the Medium Rural detachments have some specialised police services though not the full range of these services. The Remote-Rural detachments were selected as these detachments have only the basic government services, and do not have the full range of specialised police services readily available. In total, 56 detachments were identified as Rural-Remote.

The following is a description of each detachment’s jurisdiction within the jurisdictional groupings.

Large Municipal

LM – 1

- Large city in a large metropolitan area of lower mainland British Columbia, bordered by other large municipalities.

- Population Served: Urban population 323,000.
- Community Services: Full range of services.

LM – 2

- Large city in a large metropolitan area of lower mainland British Columbia, bordered by other large municipalities.
- Population Served: Urban population of approximately 525,000.
- Community Services: Full range of services.

Medium Municipal

MM – 1

- Medium large city. A regional hub in the Northern central part of the province. In addition to policing the city, the detachment polices a number of smaller communities and one First Nations reserve.
- Population Served: City of 74,000, and total population served including the surrounding area is 87,000.
- Community Services: Full range of services as it serves as a regional centre.

MM – 2

- This is a regional detachment serving two medium sized cities, a number of smaller communities, and two First Nations reserves.
- Population Served: The population of the two cities are 24,000 and 15,000, respectively. The population of the surrounding area policed is 22,300. The population of the two First Nations communities total 800.
- Services: Medium-high level of services.

Medium Rural

MR – 1

- This is a hub detachment consisting of one large office providing central services to three community/satellite offices in three larger towns. There are a number of First Nations bands serviced by the various offices. The detachment area includes two major highways and number of recreational areas.

- Population Served: The main office polices a city of 84,000. The total population in surrounding area 66,000, with the population of the First Nation bands being 2,600.
- Community Services: Medium to medium-high range of services

MR – 2

- This detachment is situated in a small regional hub city. The detachment serves a small city and a built up area comprise of a number of smaller communities.
- Population Served: City of 7,800 and the surrounding area with additional population of 8,000.
- Community Services: Medium level of services.

MR – 3

- The detachment is situated in a small regional hub in the central part of the province. The detachment provides police service to a medium-small city, and to smaller towns and villages, as well as rural areas, and one First Nation reserve.
- Population Served: Main community, medium-small city of 12,000 with total population including the surrounding area of 18,000. This is a smaller regional hub.
- Community Services: Medium level of services.

Rural Remote

RR – 1

- The detachment is situated in an isolated remote location and polices a number of small communities including one town, some villages, three First Nations communities, and a sparsely populated rural area.
- Population Served: The main community population is 1,800, and total population served is 5,000, of which 1,250 are First Nations communities
- Community Services: There are few services. Nearest major centre is two hours in normal conditions.

RR – 2

- This detachment is isolated and remote. The detachment is situated in a village and also provides policing services to one First Nation reserve. The

community is approximately six hours drive, under normal conditions, to a medium sized city that serves as a regional hub.

- Population Served: Village and surrounding area population 1,500, as well as at a First Nation reserve of 700.
- Community Services: Remote, with few services.

RR – 3

- The detachment is situated on a First Nation reserve. It is a coastal community, very remote, and isolated. Jurisdiction has a large geographic area, sparsely populated. Many services must be provided by boat access.
- Population Served: 1,400.
- Community Services: There are few services.

PRIME BC - Event Data

The PRIME Event data for the years 2013, 2014, and 2015 was analyzed by UCR event category, whether they were actual offences, unfounded, some type of assistance, and by other non-crime type events. The PRIME reporting of events served two purposes. Any founded criminal offences are recorded and submitted to Statistics Canada and all events are recorded and classified for police record management purposes; that is maintaining a historical record of police recorded events (PRIME event files are maintained for varying lengths of time dependent on file retention requirements and policies). The three years of data selected contain all events recorded as no files had, to that point, been deleted or purged from the system.

For the analysis of the recorded events, the PRIME Event Codes were used to identify the primary nature of the event. The RCMP Occurrence Code Table (UCR and Survey Codes) is broken down by series as follows:

1000 series: Criminal Code Crimes against persons

2000 series: Criminal Code Offences against property
3000 series: Other Criminal Code violations
4000 series: Controlled Drugs and Substances Act violations
6000 series: Other Federal statute violations
7000 series: Provincial Statistics codes
8000 series: RCMP Statistics codes (all non-crime events), and
9000 series: Traffic violations
Note: 5000 series is reserved and not used in PRIME coding.

Appendix C provides a more detailed listing of UCR2 codes by category aligned with the reportable series code descriptions above. Under Series 9000, Statistics Canada collects only the Criminal Code traffic offences, not provincial statute or bylaw offences.

Statistics Canada reporting rules provide that only founded criminal offences are included in police reported crimes. In cases where there are multiple offences arising from the same incident, only the most serious is reported. Primary event codes may be supplemented by either additional offense codes or by the various RCMP Survey Codes to capture other police activities associated to a particular incident. Many events in PRIME have more than one UCR code associated with that event, indicating that the event had many elements or offences requiring police attention. However, Statistics Canada only reports the most serious offence. Given this, Statistics Canada police reported crimes underreport the actual number of offences in Canada. Also, Statistics Canada does not recognize police activities for those incidents that are unfounded or unsubstantiated.

PRIME events data also captures self-generated incidents, such as impaired driving, drug seizures, and investigations detected during patrol. In addition, police routinely deal with a multitude of non-crime activities. The non-crime events, those in which there is no criminal offense recognised by Statistics Canada, along with the unfounded and

unsubstantiated events, are considered in these analyses as the police have taken some action. Again, this is necessary as it is the actual police activities that the police engage in that is part of the focus of analysis in this major paper.

The RCMP in British Columbia use a unique event scoring practice in which certain events that are not reportable to Statistics Canada are captured identified by a Z-code prefix. Again, these are various police activities that can consume a considerable amount of police effort and, therefore, are considered in these analyses. As an example, imagine a person apprehended for his or her own safety under the *Mental Health Act*. There has been no actual offence committed. There are certain offences in the *Mental Health Act*; however, apprehension in such a circumstance is not. The coding of the PRIME file in RCMP jurisdictions would be scored using a Z-Code prefix. The PRIME BC events data used in this analysis comprised 1,802,359 event code records (Table 1).

Table 1 – PRIME Event Files (2013 - 2015) by Jurisdictional Grouping

Jurisdiction Grouping	PRIME Event Codes – 2013 - 2015
Large Municipal - LM-1 & LM - 2	916,430
Medium Municipal - MM-1, MM-2 & MM - 3	492,942
Medium Rural – MR-1, MR – 2, MR- 3 & MR – 4	371,708
Remote/Rural - RR-1, RR – 2 & RR - 3	21,279
Total PRIME Events	1,802,359

Computer-Aided Dispatch – CAD Calls for Service

The analyses of CAD calls provide a different perspective of police activities, as these generally indicate what events the police actually respond to and spend some time and resources on. A number of PRIME event files are recorded for information only and there is no police effort expended. Examples might be minor thefts or frauds where the value of the goods stolen or fraudulently obtained is not of high value and there are no

suspects or investigative avenues to pursue. As noted previously, some larger police jurisdictions have implemented on-line reporting of these crimes. CAD data, therefore, provides some insight into what events police attend and take some action on. More in-depth analysis of the PRIME and CAD data would be required for better reconciliation of which events police actually attended, and that depth of analysis is not possible with the level of detail available in the data for this major paper.

Examination of the CAD data revealed some concerns about missing data. For instance, the times recorded on the CAD file do not accurately reflect the actual efforts of all police on scene, and, once the CAD file is converted to a PRIME file, the follow-up times for investigation, paper-work, and other requirements to complete an investigation are not recorded. Given this, no analysis was conducted on the time or effort expended on any particular event. Regardless, the analysis does provide insight into what events the police responded to and took some action, and sets the context for considering what current police functions or duties might be devolved to other agencies, stop doing entirely, or should be retained by police. CAD does not identify multiple crimes from the initial CAD call. Multiple crimes or different activities police must perform flowing from one event are not recorded in CAD; however, this information would, in most cases, be captured more accurately in the PRIME event file. For example, drugs found subsequent to an arrest or other more serious offences would be recorded in the PRIME General Occurrence file.

For the purposes of this major paper, only the initial CAD call code was used, as this was the information available to police at first response. In RCMP jurisdictions, the vast majority of CAD calls for service result in a PRIME event file being created. Some

Priority 4, the lowest response priority for a CAD call, are not always attended to, especially in large urban detachments where the higher priority calls consume much of the investigators time, but may be dealt with without attendance (ICURS, 2010; ICURS, 2014).

The CAD Event Code is determined by the call taker after obtaining relevant information using a standard set of questions to categorize the event. There is a system default for the Priority of the particular Event Type; however, the call taker can override the Priority setting based on the information provided. There is discretion provided the call taker, but there is an attempt to limit the subjectivity of the call by using standardised procedures. Provincial CAD Priority Level Descriptions and CAD Code descriptions are found in Appendix D.

One year of CAD calls for service (n = 374,123) were analyzed for the ten RCMP detachments in the sample group. The detachments sampled were then placed in their respective jurisdictional grouping for comparison purposes. A sample size of one year of CAD calls was deemed sufficient given the sample size. As would be expected, the large municipal detachments received a large number of calls for service and the number of calls per detachment ranged to a small number of calls in the Rural/remote grouping, primarily reflecting the population and make up of the communities served and the size of the detachment resources. The CAD calls were analyzed by the type of call (CAD Code), the Priority assigned to the calls, and the nature of the calls. The nature of the calls for service is important because not all calls require similar effort and expenditure of resources, and there are differing levels of complexity of the investigation. The hypothesis is there would be differences in the nature of the calls for service between

jurisdictional groupings reflecting the context of the work in the various detachments in the sample.

Table 2 provides the number of CAD calls for service by jurisdiction and by jurisdictional grouping. The number of calls for service in the one year period varied greatly considering the population within each jurisdiction.

Table 2 – CAD Calls for Service (2015) by Jurisdiction and Jurisdictional Grouping

Jurisdiction	CAD Calls for Service – (CFS) 2015	Jurisdictional Groupings
Large Municipal – LM-1	60,148	Large Municipal
Large Municipal – LM-2	184,865	Large Municipal
Medium Municipal – MM-1	40,171	Medium Municipal
Medium Municipal – MM-2	16,891	Medium Municipal
Medium Rural – MR-1	51,516	Medium Rural
Medium Rural – MR-2	4434	Medium Rural
Medium Rural – MR-3	11,349	Medium Rural
Remote/Rural – RR-1	3,298	Rural Remote
Rural/Remote – RR-2	601	Rural Remote
Rural/Remote – RR-3	850	Rural Remote
Total CAD CFS	374,123	374,123

The most frequent events and calls for service by detachment in the CAD call data was sorted and aggregated by jurisdictional group.

It was anticipated a majority of the PRIME event files and a majority of the CAD calls for service were non-crime related and that there would be differences in the mix of events and calls for service based on the context of the jurisdiction. This information is considered important in understanding what the police currently do and this understanding must be a precursor to any discussion of policing functions or changes to policing functions or models.

Analyses

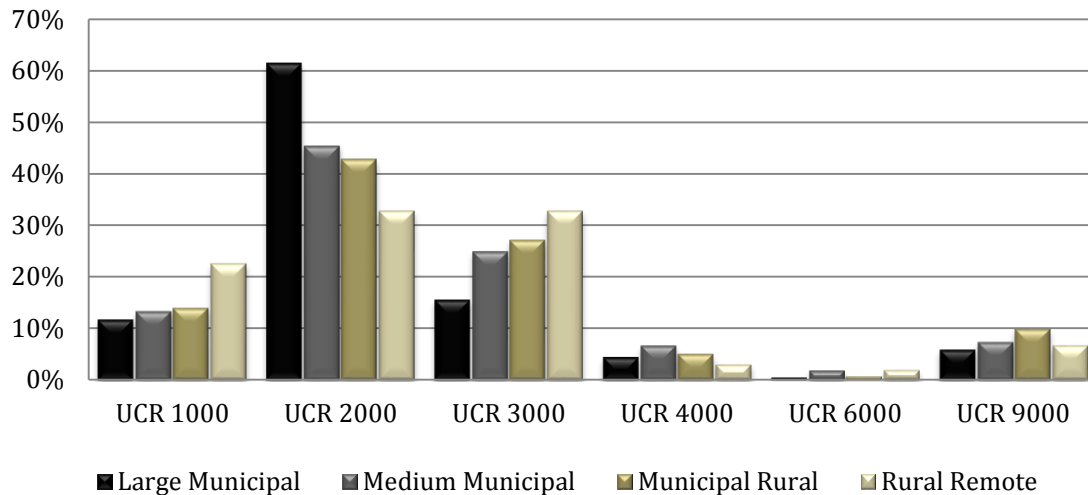
PRIME Events

Figure 1 presents the percentages of all crime events recorded, including those additional crimes not reported to Statistics Canada. This data excludes provincial and bylaw offences and the RCMP Statistical Codes for other police activities not captured by UCR data. Figure 1 represents the mix of crime events dealt with by jurisdictional grouping. Of interest is the higher percentage of violent crimes (Series 1000) in the Rural/Remote jurisdictions (22% of all crime events recorded) compared to, on average, 13% for the other jurisdictional groupings. The 2000 series (Criminal Code – Property) dominated the other three jurisdictional grouping; Large Municipal (61%), Medium Municipal (45%), Medium Rural (43%), and Rural/Remote (33%).

The Criminal Code Property and Criminal Code Other offences represent approximately three-quarters of the reported crime in the Large Municipal, Medium Municipal, and Municipal Rural jurisdictions, and approximately 70% of the Rural/Remote jurisdictions. Moreover, Criminal Code Traffic offences represented a similar percentage of reported crimes in all jurisdictional groupings. Noteworthy is that many traffic offences are self-generated or the result of proactive policing activities, not necessarily the result of responding to a complaint from the public, though as will be seen in the analysis of CAD calls, Traffic complaints are among the most frequently dispatched calls.

On a percentage basis, the 4000, 6000, and 9000 series are fairly consistent across all jurisdictional groupings. The significant differences are evident in violent crime (1000) in the Rural/Remote, and the Criminal Code – Property (2000) crimes in the large municipal detachments.

Figure 1: Comparative Chart of PRIME Events by UCR Series Code



The data presented in Figure 1 supports the hypothesis that there is a different mix of crime events reported to police based on the geography, remoteness, and other factors. Another important observation of the greater percentage of violent crimes found in the rural/remote areas is that violent crime investigation generally takes more time and resources to investigate, and the incidents are not as readily concluded with minimal action, as is the case with other reported crimes. Further, the support services available to the rural and remote jurisdictions are more limited than in larger jurisdictions (ICURS, 2010, 2014). For example, Forensic Identification Sections and plain-clothes detectives are often regional resources that attend only the most serious crimes. Therefore, the general duty uniformed police officer in those smaller or more remote locations often will fill those roles increasing the complexity and demands for the individual police officer in

dealing with some incidents. The findings from Figure 1 will be further considered at the end of the Analysis section when looking at all the results from all the analyses.

The data presented in Figure 2 indicates that the majority of PRIME events are non-crime and not reported to Statistics Canada. The 8000 series in each jurisdictional grouping dominate the events. This series contains many common occurrences, such as Prisoners Held, Intoxicated Persons, Motor Vehicle Collisions, *Mental Health Act* apprehensions, provincial driving offences, court document service, and missing persons. Some of the 8000 series incidents recorded are supplemental codes to other incidents that are higher precedent in the same event. As an example, Vehicles Impounded is frequently associated to impaired driving investigations or roadside suspensions. Such Statistical Codes serve to track other police activity in PRIME as part of the police records management system. There are certain PRIME event files created for information purposes, such as minor crimes reported for insurance purposes, or other minor events to which police do not respond.

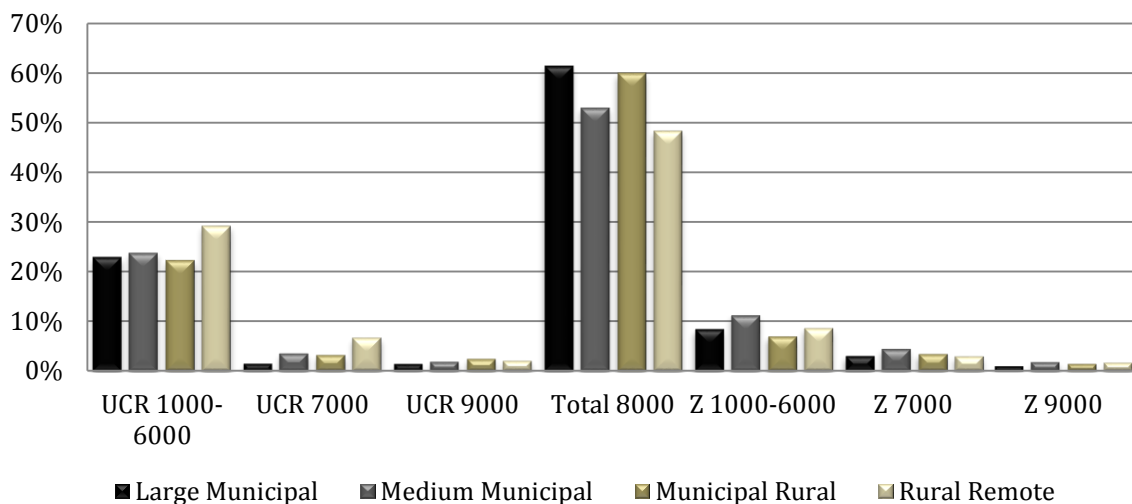
The events found in Figure 2 represent a full range of the types of complaints and crime reported to police, the majority of which result in some police action. If these complaints to police, with their associated incidental events and activities, reflect the public's expectations of police, these mixes of PRIME events are informative in determining what might be considered core policing and illustrate what activities fall within the broader services provided by police.

Of note, one cannot presume that the crime calls are necessarily of higher priority or importance than the non-crime events. As noted in the literature review, there are many non-crime related calls that are urgent and/or of high importance, such as missing

persons, especially missing children, missing elderly with medical conditions, or missing persons under suspicious circumstances. Similarly, investigations of very serious motor vehicle collisions or sudden deaths are frequently lengthy and resource consuming investigations.

Finally, the less serious property crimes and other Criminal Code events often receive the least police attention; however, an ICURS (2014) finding from the focus groups of police personnel was that smaller detachments tended to not only record more of the less serious reported incidents, but responded and conducted follow-up investigation more frequently than police officers in larger jurisdictions. This may be a reflection of differing expectations of the public in smaller communities. As mentioned above, the data presented in Figure 2 demonstrates that the mix of calls is generally consistent across all groupings and illustrates the significant percentage of non-crime events.

Figure 2: Comparative Chart of All Recorded Police Events on PRIME



Computer Aided Dispatch (CAD) Calls for Service

The CAD data set was described in the Project Methodology *Computer-Aided Dispatch – CAD Calls for Service* section previously. To aid in interpreting the CAD Priority levels data, the following are the standard event priority definitions as approved by the British Columbia Provincial CAD Committee:

Priority 1 – Urgent Response Incidents that involve life threatening circumstances and situations that produce or is likely to produce serious bodily injury and/or death to any person.

Priority 2 - Immediate Response Incidents in progress that present the potential for injury or property damage/loss or requires immediate response due to the state of the victim or seriousness of the call.

Priority 3 - Routine Response Non- urgent routine service related calls that do not require an officer immediately but need investigation, mediation or intervention.

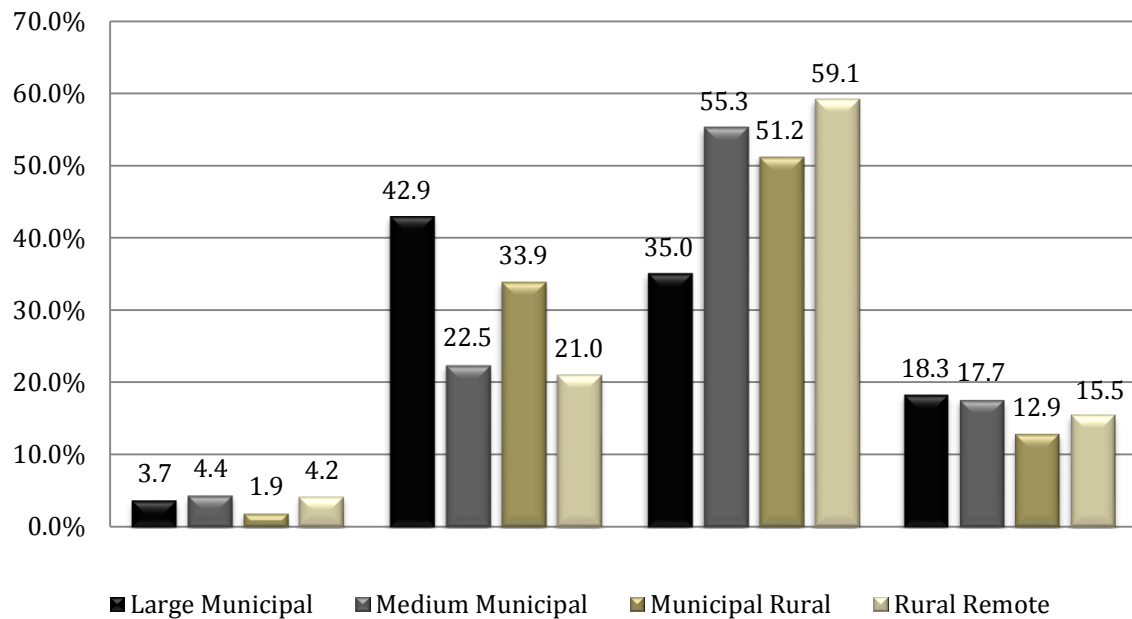
Priority 4 - Routine Response Where the call does not require a quick response from an officer or the call is handled over the telephone (agency dependent).

As demonstrated in Figure 3, though within a range of 1.9% to 4.4%, there is some consistency in the overall percentage of the total Priority 1 calls for service across jurisdictional groupings. Conversely, there is considerable variability between Priorities 2 and 3 calls for service between the jurisdictional groupings. The Priority 4 calls for service demonstrate the most consistency across jurisdictional groupings. Some of the variability can be accounted for because of local dispatch practises, such as differences based on the information provided the dispatcher and dispatcher discretion following their assessment of the nature of the complaint. For example, in the Municipal Rural grouping, Suicide calls show up as both Priority 1 and Priority 2 calls for service and Abandoned 911 calls in the Large Municipal grouping are either Priority 2 or Priority 3.

Further, Figure 3 contains the results of an analysis of the Priority levels assigned to CAD calls for service. Priority 2 calls for service ranged from 21.2% in the Rural Remote

jurisdictions to 52.2% in Large Municipal jurisdictions, while the Priority 3 calls for service ranged from 43.8% in the Large Municipal jurisdictions to 77.8% in the Rural Remote. While the differences might be partially explained by localised practises, what is important is that the nature of the calls were deemed sufficiently important to be assigned Priority 2 response 31.7% of the time. Though the amount of time or police effort was not considered in this analysis, as a point of observation, the time-consumption does not necessarily relate to the priority level assigned to the initial call. Some higher priority calls, such as Abandoned 911 calls, might be resolved very quickly, while an assault, missing person, or a Break and Enter investigation may require a great many resources involved over an extended period of time.

Figure 3 – Initial CAD Call Priority Percentages by Jurisdictional Grouping



In Table 3, the Top 10 CAD calls for service in each jurisdictional grouping were considered. There was considerable consistency found among the Top 10 CAD calls for

service by grouping in the Priority 1 category and, as might be expected, calls for service in Priority 1 include calls for Domestic Disputes in Progress, Suicide, Weapon, Injury Motor Vehicle Collisions, Robberies, Assaults in Progress. In the MM, MR, and RR groupings, Missing Child was included as a Priority 1 calls for service. Seven CAD calls for service codes are found in each jurisdictional grouping, with a total of 12 different codes in the Top 10 of Priority 1. In the Priority 2 calls for service across jurisdictions, there were five codes found in each jurisdictional grouping, and an additional three of the Top 10 Priority 2 calls for service were found in three of the jurisdictional groupings. Again, there was a great deal of consistency across jurisdictional groupings. Reflecting the nature of the information provided and the determined urgency of response, Domestic Disputes also appear in Priority 2 calls for service. Priority 4 calls for service are also fairly consistent and contain nothing remarkable as those incidents generally are reported after the fact and are, at that point, not urgent. Crimes in progress, especially those involving violence and incidents involving injury or potential injury, such as Suicide, Injury motor vehicle collisions, and Missing Child, are assigned higher priority.

Some of the calls for service appearing in Table 3 can be very time consuming, though they are frequently not of the highest priority. Generally, the examination of the priority levels assigned the calls for service was, in and of itself, not informative of what might be considered core policing. Nevertheless, there are some interesting observations with respect to the calls and the priority assigned. The findings of the consistency in the Top 10 CAD Priority 1 and Priority 2 calls for service are informative when considering what might be considered core policing when factoring in the findings of all the analyses considered together, which is presented below.

Table 3- Top CAD Calls for Service by Priority and Jurisdictional Grouping

PRIORITY 1

Large Municipal	Medium Municipal	Municipal Rural	Rural Remote
DOMI	DOMI	DOMI	DOMI
SUICID	SUICID	SUICID	SUICID
WEAPON	WEAPON	WEAPON	WEAPON
MVIINJ	SHOTS	SHOTS	SHOTS
SHOTS	MVIINJ	MVIINJ	MVIINJ
ASLTI	ALARMH	ALARMH	DISTB
MISSIP	DISTB	DISTB	MARINE
ALARMH	ASLTI	ASLTI	ALARMH
ROBBI	SCREAM	ROBBI	ASLTI
SCREAM	MISSIC	MISSIC	MISSIC

PRIORITY 2

Large Municipal	Medium Municipal	Municipal Rural	Rural Remote
AB911	AB911	TRAFF	ASSPFA
ALARM	ALARM	ALARM	AB911
DISTB	ASSPFA	AB911	ALARM
ASSPFA	DISTB	ASSPFA	TRAFF
CHECK	TRAFF	DISTB	DISTB
SUSPP	IMPAIR	MVI	FIGHT
TRAFF	MVI	IMPAIR	IMPAIR
SUSPC	DOMI	DOMI	ASLTSX
MVI	SUSPC	SUSPC	DOMI
UNWANT	FIGHT	SUICID	ASLT

PRIORITY 3

Large Municipal	Medium Municipal	Municipal Rural	Rural Remote
AB911	TRAFF	TRAFF	SIP
ALARM	ASSGP	THEFT	TRAFF
TRAFF	SIP	ASSGP	ASSGP
ASSGP	ASSOA	ASSOA	ASSOA
BYLAW	SUSPC	SUSPC	DISTB
BNE	DISTB	SIP	UNWANT
ASSOA	THEFT	SUSPP	ASLT

THEFT	SUSPP	MISCH	OCC
SUSPC	UNWANT	UNWANT	THREAT
SUSPV	THREAT	DISTB	SUSPC

PRIORITY 4

Large Municipal	Medium Municipal	Municipal Rural	Rural Remote
THEFT	PROP	PROP	BREACH
PROP	THEFT	THEFT	DRUGS
MISCH	DRUGS	TRAFFS	THEFT
DRUGS	MISCH	DRUGS	MISCH
FRAUD	BREACH	ALARM	PROP
BREACH	WARRAN	MISCH	LIQUOR
BNE	TRAFFS	BREACH	TRAFFS
TRAFFS	BYLAW	WARRAN	BYLAW
THEFTV	FRAUD	FRAUD	BNE
ASSGP	BNE	BYLAW	FRAUD

Table 4 was created from the one year of CAD data for the detachments in the sample group, expanding on Table 3 by including the percentages of the overall CAD calls by the jurisdictional group. The Top 20 CAD calls for each jurisdictional grouping represent approximately three-quarters of all CAD calls for each of those jurisdictions. There are certain commonalities and differences in the CAD Calls found in each jurisdictional grouping. Abandoned 911 calls, while found in all groupings, represent a large overall percentage of calls for service for the large municipal jurisdictions, and a substantial number of calls for service for all jurisdictional groupings. There are a number of non-crime related calls, such as the variety of Assistance calls in each jurisdictional grouping. Mischief, property offences, and thefts are all within the top 20 CAD calls, which is not surprising given that these offences, though decreasing in recent years, are among to most common in most jurisdictions in Canada – Property Crime Total being 61% of all Criminal Code - excluding Traffic (www.statscan.gc.ca/daily-

[quotidien/170724/t001b-eng.htm](#). Accessed September 16, 2017). Based on CAD data only, some of the data cannot be broken down as reportable crime versus a non-crime event without access to the narrative of the CAD call or related PRIME file, which was not available. Some examples are Disturbance, Suspicious persons, Unwanted Persons, or Alarms. The CAD data used for this analysis included only the initial Code assigned the call.

Moreover, assaults represent 4% of the calls for service for rural/remote, and only figure in the Top 20 in the Municipal Rural category at 2%. This is consistent with the higher rate of violent crimes found in the PRIME event data for the rural/remote grouping. Calls coded as Assistance capture a wide range of possible events, though without access to records narrative or the related PRIME file, they cannot be further categorized; however, these calls for service are not reported as crime events. Breaches are also interesting as ICURS (2014) focus groups identified changes to bail reform, as one example of a change that placed more responsibility on police to do curfew checks without receiving new resources to deal with the increased demands on service. This category includes breaches of restraining orders and breaches of release conditions from domestic violence incidents. The public policy decision of handling domestic violence situations as full investigations that require referral to Crown Prosecutors for charge approval, and placing any suspects on conditional release with stringent conditions increased the workload on police as the conditional releases require additional investigative steps, and frequently result in breaches of conditions that require further police investigation. As a responsibility or duty, policy makers certainly might consider

the full range of activities associated with a domestic violence investigation a core role of police.

It is known anecdotally that the majority of Bylaw calls dealt with by police are for excessive noise complaints (ICURS, 2014). These calls fall into the nuisance or disorder categories, which can be considered maintenance of public safety and order. It is anticipated that Rural Remote jurisdictions likely receive more varied bylaw complaints due to the lack of separate bylaw enforcement officials, though this assumption cannot be verified with the data available. A reflection of public expectations is that Traffic CAD calls are the top in three of the four jurisdictional groupings, and fourth in the large municipal grouping. Traffic calls for service are differentiated from motor vehicle collisions. Detail of those calls was not available to fully understand the range of traffic complaints.

It had been anticipated that some inferences could be drawn from the mix of calls for service with respect to differences between the rural/remote setting and the medium and the large municipal jurisdictions, especially when considered in conjunction with the PRIME data analysis. Based on the analysis of the top CAD calls for service there were no significant differences found, and these data do not support the view that any differences are due to the differing levels of government and other support services available in the communities (SECU, 2014; Ruddell, 2017; ICURS, 2010).

Table 4 – Top 20 CAD Calls for Service by Jurisdictional Grouping

Top 20 CAD Calls for Service by Jurisdictional Grouping							
Large Municipal		Medium Municipal		Municipal Rural		Rural/Remote	
Top 20 CAD Calls	% Top 20 CAD Calls	Top 20 CAD Calls	% Top 20 CAD Calls	Top 20 CAD Calls	% Top 20 CAD Calls	Top 20 CAD Calls	% Top 20 CAD Calls
AB911	16	TRAFF	12	TRAFF	14	TRAFF	13
THEFT	10	ASSGP	9	THEFT	10	SIP	12
ALARM	8	THEFT	7	ASSGP	8	ASSGP	10
TRAFF	6	DISTB	7	ALARM	6	DISTB	9
DISTB	6	PROP	6	PROP	6	ASSOA	6
ASSPFA	5	SIP	6	DISTB	6	BREACH	5
SUSPP	5	AB911	5	ASSPFA	5	ASSPFA	5
SUSPC	5	SUSPC	5	MVI	5	ALARM	4
PROP	5	ALARM	5	AB911	5	UNWANT	4
CHECK	5	ASSOA	5	SUSPC	5	AB911	4
ASSGP	4	ASSPFA	4	SIP	4	ASLT	4
UNWANT	3	MISCH	4	ASSOA	4	DOMI	3
MVI	3	DRUGS	4	SUSPP	4	THEFT	3
MISCH	3	SUSPP	4	MISCH	4	MISCH	3
DRUGS	3	MVI	3	UNWANT	3	DRUGS	3
SUSPV	3	DOMI	3	DRUGS	3	OCC	3
BNE	3	UNWANT	3	BYLAW	2	THREAT	3
BYLAW	3	BREACH	3	THREAT	2	MVI	2
FRAUD	3	CHECK	3	BNE	2	CHECK	2
ASSOA	3	THREAT	3	ASLT	2	SUSPC	2
72.89%		72.54%		71.83%		77.66%	

Note: the percentages shown are from the total of all CAD Calls for Service.

A final piece of analysis was conducted wherein CAD calls for service were coded as either core or non-core policing calls for service and then analysed to determine whether such analyses would be informative as to what calls for service could be considered core functions and those that were considered non-core policing functions.

The analysis was subjective, based largely on personal experience⁹, whereby values were assigned to each CAD code and was also applied to the prioritised list of CAD calls by jurisdictional grouping using the same criteria and coding.

In Table 5, utilising the list of CAD Codes (see Appendix D), a ‘1’ was assigned to those calls that were deemed to be core policing functions, and a ‘0’ was assigned to those that were deemed not to be core functions. Though difficult to assign a classification based solely on the CAD Code description, for the purposes of this analysis, a forced classification was assigned even though imperfect. In Table 6 the top 10 CAD calls for service in each priority level and for each jurisdictional grouping were assigned the same coding scheme. Certain Priority 3 and Priority 4 CAD calls in Table 6 were not assigned a ‘1’ or ‘0’ code as they were too general in nature. As an example, Assistance to Other Agencies (ASSOA) calls for service could be roles that require a police response, such as keeping the peace while a bailiff executes a court order, or could be a minor, non-urgent situation. Other call codes were not assigned a ‘1’ or ‘0’ as they were final CAD classifications, such as Alarm False and Alarm Diversion, as only the initial CAD Codes were used for these analyses.

For the coding process, there was an assumption that if the police were dispatched there had been an assessment of the nature of the call and, based on that assessment, there was a determination that there was a police role for that particular call for service. There was heavy reliance on this assumption in classifying the particular code a core policing. The determination made by the call taker as to whether police action is required may also consider context, including the availability of other services in the jurisdiction. Some of

⁹ The author of this major paper served 35 years in the RCMP primarily dealing with general duty police roles at various levels from Constable to executive levels.

the CAD Codes are deemed to be for records management purposes and are not suitable to classify, such as Motor Vehicle Incident/Collision (MVI) Involving a Police Vehicle, Alarm False, and Youth.

The coding assignments for each the list of CAD Codes (see Table 5) and the Coded CAD Calls for Service by priority and jurisdictional grouping (see Table 6) are to be read together as these analyses complement one another to better understand whether the types of CAD calls represent core or non core responsibilities. There are a number of CAD calls that, in most situations, might not be non-core policing responsibilities, though it is important to note in some circumstances there is a police role, such as Assist Police/Fire/Ambulance.

Most of the Priority 3 and 4 calls are crimes and incidents discovered after the fact, not in progress incidents, and may not require a uniformed response or certainly not an immediate response. Some of those calls require police action, but may be referred to a specialised unit, for example Frauds, or the initial response and crime scene processing may be completed by non-sworn police personnel, such as civilianised Forensic Investigation Services attending thefts or break and enters. At some point in the investigation of those lesser priority complaints, especially criminal incidents, there may well be a role for sworn police officers, such as conducting some components of the investigation, effecting arrests, and executing search. Still, in many cases, the initial investigation can be handled effectively by non-sworn personnel.

The general list of CAD calls include some calls for service that range from complaints that might more clearly fall within a definition of core policing, e.g.; domestic assault in progress, shots fired, robbery, and assaults in progress. Others do not

necessarily fall into the category of non-core responsibilities and rely on the circumstances of the particular call, such as Traffic, or Bylaw. If assigned Priority 1 or 2, the assumption is the circumstances required some immediate police action. Traffic calls may involve hazardous circumstances, such as careless or dangerous driving in progress, which would be assigned a Priority 1 or 2, as opposed to a minor traffic incident, being more of a nuisance in nature that might reasonably be assigned a Priority 3 or 4.

Table 5 – Coded Core vs Non-Core Computer-Aided Dispatch (CAD) – Codes

AB911	Abandoned 911 Calls	1
ABANDV	Abandoned Vehicle	0
ABDUC	Abduction	1
AIREM	Air Emergency	1
ALARM	Alarm	1
ALARMA	Alarm Airport Check Point	1
ALARMD	Alarm Dvers	
ALARMF	Alarm False	
ALARMH	Alarm Hold Up	1
ALARMS	Alarm Silent/Panic	1
ANIMAL	Animal	0
ANNOY	Annoying Circumstance	1
ARREST	Arrest	1
ARSON	Arson	1
ASLT	Assault	1
ALSTI	Assault in Progress	1
ALSTSX	Assault Sexual	1
ASSGP	Assist General Public	1/0
ASSMHA	Assist Mental Health Act	0
ASSOA	Assist Other Agency	1
ASSPFA	Assist/Police/Fire/Ambulance	0
BAIT	BAIT Car Activated	1
BOMB	Bomb Threat	1
BORDR	Border Runner	1
BREACH	Breach	0
BNE	Break and Enter	1/0
BNEI	Break and Enter In Progress	1
BYLAW	Bylaw	1/0
CHECK	Check Well-Being	0
COUNT	Counterfeit Currency	0
DEMON	Demonstration/Protest	1
DISTB	Disturbance	1
DNA	DNA Collection	0
DOMI	Domestic In Progress	1
DOMRPT	Domestic Report	0
DRUGS	Drugs	1

EXPLOS	Explosives	1
EXTORT	Extortion	1
FIGHT	Fight	1
FIREAR	Firearms (For Pickup/Transport)	0
FOUNDP	Found Person	0
FRAUD	Fraud	1
HARASS	Harassment	1
HAZARD	Hazardous Situation	1
HOMEIN	Home Invasion	1
HOSTAG	Hostage	1
IMPAIR	Impaired	1
INDEC	Indecent Act	1
INDUST	Industrial Accident	0
INSEC	Insecure Premises or Vehicle	0
INTELL	Intelligence Information	0
JUMPER	Jumper	1
KPEACE	Keep the Peace	1
LIQUOR	Liquor Act/Licensed Premises Check	0
MAND	Man Down (Person Down)	1/0
MARINE	Marine Incident	
MISCH	Mischief	0
MISCHI	Mischief in Progress	1
MISSIC	Missing Child	1
MISSIP	Missing Person	1
MVI	Motor Vehicle Incident (Collision)	0
MVIHR	MVI Hit and Run	1/0
MVIINJ	MVI Injury	1
MVIPOL	MVI Involving Police Vehicle	
NOK	Next of Kin Notifications	0
1033	Officer in Trouble	1
OCC	Other Criminal Code	1
OVERD	Overdose	1/0
PANHA	Panhandler	0
PARK	Parking	0
911	Police – Any Call	1
PROP	Property	1/0
PROST	Prostitution	0
PROWL	Prowler	1
PURSUE	Pursuit	1
RECVEH	Recovered Vehicle	0
ROBB	Robbery	1
ROBBI	Robbery In Progress	1
SCREAM	Screaming Heard	1
SHOPL	Shoplifter	0
SHOTS	Shots Fired/Heard	1
SIP	Subject Intoxicated in Public Place	0
SPAT	Special Attention/Detail/Event	
STALK	Stalking	1
SUDDEN	Sudden Death	1
SUICID	Suicidal Person	1
SUSPC	Suspicious Circumstances	1
SUSPP	Suspicious Person	1
SUSV	Suspicious Vehicle	1

THEFT	Theft	0
THEFTI	Theft in Progress	1
THEFTV	Theft of Vehicle	1/0
THREAT	Threats	1
TRAFF	Traffic Incident	1/0
TRAFFS	Traffic Suspension/24 HR/12 HR/Prohibition Notice	1
TRANS	Transit Incident	0
UNWANT	Unwanted Person	1
WARRAN	Warrant	1
WEAPON	Weapon	1
YOUTH	Youth	

Table 6 - Coded CAD Calls for Service, by Priority and jurisdictional grouping:

Priority 1

Large Municipal		Medium Municipal		Municipal Rural		Rural Remote	
DOMI	1	DOMI	1	DOMI	1	DOMI	1
SUICID	1	SUICID	1	SUICID	1	SUICID	1
WEAPON	1	WEAPON	1	WEAPON	1	WEAPON	1
MVIINJ	1	SHOTS	1	SHOTS	1	SHOTS	1
SHOTS	1	MVIINJ	1	MVIINJ	1	MVIINJ	1
ASLTI	1	ALARMH	1	ALARMH	1	DISTB	1
MISSIP	1	DISTB	1	DISTB	1	MARINE	1
ALARMH	1	ASLTI	1	ASLTI	1	ALARMH	1
ROBBI	1	SCREAM	1	ROBBI	1	ASLTI	1
SCREAM	1	MISSIC	1	MISSIC	1	MISSIC	1

Priority 2

Large Municipal		Medium Municipal		Municipal Rural		Rural Remote	
AB911	1	AB911	1	TRAFF	1	ASSPFA	
ALARM	1	ALARM	1	ALARM	1	AB911	1
DISTB	1	ASSPFA		AB911	1	ALARM	1
ASSPFA		DISTB	1	ASSPFA		TRAFF	1
CHECK	0	TRAFF	1	DISTB	1	DISTB	1
SUSPP		IMPAIR	1	MVI	1	FIGHT	1
TRAFF	1	MVI	1	IMPAIR	1	IMPAIR	1
SUSPC		DOMI	1	DOMI	1	ASLTSX	1
MVI	1	SUSPC	1	SUSPC	1	DOMI	1
UNWANT	1	FIGHT	1	SUICID	1	ASLT	1

Priority 3

Large Municipal		Medium Municipal		Municipal Rural		Rural Remote	
AB911	1	TRAFF		TRAFF		SIP	1
ALARM		ASSGP		THEFT	0	TRAFF	
TRAFF		SIP	1	ASSGP		ASSGP	
ASSGP		ASSOA		ASSOA		ASSOA	
BYLAW		SUSPC	1	SUSPC	1	DISTB	1
BNE	0	DISTB	1	SIP	1	UNWANT	1
ASSOA		THEFT	0	SUSPP	1	ASLT	1
THEFT	0	SUSPP	1	MISCH	0	OCC	
SUSPC	1	UNWANT	1	UNWANT	1	THREAT	1
SUSPV	1	THREAT	1	DISTB	1	SUSPC	

Priority 4

Large Municipal		Medium Municipal		Municipal Rural		Rural Remote	
THEFT		PROP	0	PROP		BREACH	1/0
PROP	0	THEFT		THEFT		DRUGS	
MISCH		DRUGS		TRAFFS	1	THEFT	
DRUGS		MISCH		DRUGS		MISCH	
FRAUD		BREACH	1/0	ALARM		PROP	0
BREACH	1/0	WARRAN		MISCH	0	LIQUOR	
BNE		TRAFFS	1	BREACH	1/0	TRAFFS	1
TRAFFS	1	BYLAW		WARRAN		BYLAW	
THEFTV		FRAUD		FRAUD		BNE	
ASSGP	0	BNE		BYLAW		FRAUD	

In considering the results of the analyses of both the PRIME data and the CAD Calls for Service data, regardless of context, there are generally not substantial differences noted by jurisdiction in the overall nature of the types of events and the calls that police are dealing with, or at least any differences are not important in looking at the question of core policing. Any differences lie primarily in the numbers or percentages of certain types of events and calls for service, while the general nature of the types of

events is essentially similar across jurisdictions. The analyses of the PRIME data and the CAD data complement one another in that the PRIME events data show the full range of the events reported to police, while the CAD data shows what the police actually are dispatched to. As noted previously, it was not possible to look at the actual allocation of police time and efforts as the data was incomplete, regardless, the analyses are important in understanding the types and numbers of calls responded to in the current policing environment in British Columbia.

There are some substantial differences in the events recorded in PRIME by jurisdictional grouping; however, the differences are not considered important when considering the question of core policing. The non-crime events recorded in PRIME (Series 8000 and the Z-coded events) represent approximately 70% of the events across the jurisdictional groupings. Considered most important is the difference in reported violent crime, Series 1000, in the rural/remote jurisdictions. As argued previously, the difference is not important until one considers police resourcing or the structure of the policing service in a particular area.

In the examination of the Top 20 CAD calls for service, the most serious incidents are not as prevalent, with the percentage of PRIME calls involving Crimes Against Persons being relatively low overall. Given this, these call types do not factor high in the overall percentages of PRIME events. The most substantial percentage of the Top 20 calls for service are Priority 3 and Priority 4, the aggregate percentages being: LM = 53.3%, MM = 73%, MR = 64.1%, and RR = 74.6%. Though the more serious incidents are fewer, many require a greater expenditure of police resources, such as violent crimes, including domestic violence calls. These are the crimes where police devote more energy

because of the very seriousness of the incident. While it is reasonable to expect police would prioritise their work demands, it is not just the seriousness of a particular crime call, but the priority of a particular call that will most influence the prioritisation. A non-core policing call could very well take precedent over a serious crime related call that is not as urgent to respond to. To better understand the full nature of calls for service, an analysis of the prioritisation of calls becomes important, that is the examination of a sampling of what constitute Priorities, 1, 2, 3, and 4; however, such analysis is not within the scope of this major paper.

Looking at the nature of the Priority 1 calls, the majority of those calls are such that immediate police response is required and, in many cases, require responses from other agencies as well, such as injury motor vehicle collisions. Reported incidents, such as Domestic disputes/assaults in progress (DOMI), Weapons, Shots fired/heard, Assaults in progress (ASLTI), or Robberies in progress (ROBBI) require responses by sworn and fully trained police.

With respect to Priority 2 CAD calls, there is a similar argument, that the majority of these calls for service would require some more immediate police response by sworn police officers. Abandoned 911 (AB911) calls, traffic incidents, suspected Impaired driving complaints and some disturbances, based on the Priority assigned, are also among the calls for service requiring an immediate police response.

In examining the Priority 3 calls for service, there are many suspicious activities complaints, assistance type of calls, and the majority of reported crimes that are were discovered later, that is not in progress, such as break and enters, thefts, mischiefs. There are some potentially volatile calls that, while not deemed a high priority in the first

instance, necessitate some person in authority to mitigate or deescalate the situation. The majority of the Unwanted Persons complaints, as an example, are Priority 3, but certainly can be emotionally charged situations.

The routine after the fact reported crimes do not necessarily require a sworn officer to attend in the first instance, though that has been and is currently the common practise where police respond to less serious matters. Breaches, thefts, break and enters, mischiefs, frauds, found in Priority 4 could well be handled in the first instance by non-sworn police personnel who would gather evidence and where appropriate pass the investigation to investigators, who may or may not need to be sworn police officers. As an example, non-sworn police could carry out many fraud investigations, though there are certain tasks within an investigation that are Criminal Code requirements for peace officers, such as applying for and executing search warrants, and affecting arrests. In these cases, the availability of non-sworn officers and other support services becomes a factor. In the majority of situations in the rural/remote environment, there are limited options to replace a sworn officer attending.

Considering the data presented above, it is clear that the types of calls and complaints made to police, to a certain extent, reflect the public expectations of their police. For instance, complaints about Traffic incidents figure high in the Top 20 CAD calls in all jurisdictions, as do Assistance calls of all natures, suspicious persons and activities, disturbances, and relatively minor crimes, such as thefts and mischiefs. This is consistent with the finding of the Queensland study (Criminal Justice Commission Research Paper Series, Queensland, 1996) and HMIC (2014). While the public report serious crime, they are also concerned with general disorder and well-being in the

community, and look to the police for general assistance, which is evident in the types of complaints made to police.

The hypothesis that there was an increased level of reported violent crimes in the rural/remote areas was borne out in the finding of the PRIME data analysis. Because such incidents required more police time and effort to investigate and deal with, they disproportionately affect policing in those areas. The example of violent crimes in different jurisdictional groupings goes to how resources are deployed or how a police service is structured to deal with differences, for example, the higher percentage of violent incidents and fewer services in the rural/remote jurisdictions. It is in the structuring of the police service that context matters most. When considering the context of the environment on a police service, even though this is a legitimate consideration, one must be cautious not to be too distracted from the question of what constitutes core policing. Certainly the context of a particular policing environment is a concern. Rural and remote areas do not have the same level of support services or other agencies, such as dedicated bylaw enforcement officers to rely upon to handle the minor calls for service found in Priority 3 and 4 calls for service. There may be a number of distinct social issues that contribute to higher violent crime rates in the rural/remote jurisdictions, which, given the importance of dealing effectively with violent crimes, is worthy of more in depth research. It is likely that research into that issue would contribute to any discussion of the police role and how to structure police services within the broader context of public services to the public.

Moreover, based on other studies, the mix of police reported events and police calls for service found in this research is not unusual. It is likely that the mix of calls for

service has not changed that much over time, especially in the rural/remote jurisdictions. Given the unique circumstances and dynamics in different jurisdictions, it is also clear that the police are not always in a position where they can say no to responding to certain calls for service, and the data used in this major paper tends to support this notion.

No one model or structure of a police service will work in all contexts, so an effective policing service must be tailored to the local environment. As such, what constitutes core policing may look a little different by jurisdiction. Though the data and analyses were unable to support the notion that the lack of other services in the rural and remote and smaller jurisdictions affects police calls for service, this was reported anecdotally as a key factor (SECU, 2014; EOP, 2014; Young, 2010). While volume and the nature of calls for service dictate how a police service should be structured, other important issues must also be considered, such as political and local concerns and priorities and the public's willingness to pay for certain levels of police service.

In one respect, we cannot say that contemporary policing has strayed from core policing because many of the non-crime calls for service have always existed (SECU, 2014; Ruddell, 2017). An analysis of a sampling of the full range of police calls and activities over the past century or more would be necessary to fully explore this question. The analysis in this major paper is, nevertheless, useful to further the discussion of whether fully trained sworn police officers should devote their energies to priority and high-risk calls exclusively and devolve their other responsibilities to non-sworn police personnel or to other agencies.

In the absence of a generally accepted definition of core policing, the analysis looking at the coding of CAD Calls for Service aids in thinking about what core policing

might be. Based on the findings in this major paper, it is argued that Priority 1 and 2 CAD calls for service are core policing responsibilities. Though an imperfect analysis, this exercise is informative in beginning to identify core policing responsibilities from within the full range of actual calls for service. The nature of the incidents found in the Priority 1 and Priority 2 calls for service suggest that an immediate response is required by police, specifically by an armed and sworn police officer in most situations. For example, responding to complaints of domestic violence, weapons incidents, robberies, priority traffic incidents, abandoned 911 calls, and suicide threats should be considered core duties requiring sworn police, particularly for first response. There are certainly outliers, such as sudden death investigations that are suspicious in nature, some missing persons cases that are suspicious or involve vulnerable persons, or certain mental health calls for service that fall within core responsibilities of police, again which by their very nature require immediate and full investigations.

Considering the previous assertions that core policing is a component within the broader range of services provided by a police service, one way of thinking about core policing would be that sworn police would be responsible for those core policing roles and other non-core roles would fall to non-sworn specialised support personnel. Such a model falls in general agreement with some of the recommendations for the categorisation of core policing duties as high-risk incidents requiring sworn and armed police response (Leuprecht, 2014; Council of Canadian Academies, 2014; Ontario Association of Police Boards, 2012).

The PRIME data presented in this major paper supports other research and studies concerning the mix of police calls for service, wherein approximately 70% of events

handled by police fall into a variety of non-crime duties and that there are some contextual differences between jurisdictional groupings. Further, reported violent crime is higher in the rural/remote jurisdictional grouping; however the general nature of the other types of events is not dissimilar. The differences do become important when structuring and resourcing of the local police service.

Finally, it is argued that the highest priority calls for service should constitute the bulk of core policing responsibilities. Though the percentages of the Priority 1 and Priority 2 calls range considerably in the overall percentages of total calls for service among the groupings, there is considerable consistency in the types or nature of calls across the four groupings. The remaining calls for service complement the findings of other literature reviewed in this study on the mix of police events and calls for service.

Discussion

A number of researchers have argued that the nature of policing has changed (Malm et al., 2005; Caputo & McIntyre, 2015; ICURS, 2010, 2014; SECU, 2014; Andresen, 2016); however, at a basic level, the broad public expectations of policing have not really changed. The public continue to call police with many of the same general types of complaints as they have historically, such as reporting crime, reporting suspicious activities, reporting unruly activities, and calling police for assistance in non-crime matters. At a time when the reported crime has declined significantly during the past two decades, the numbers of calls for service have remained relatively constant (Association of Municipalities of Ontario, 2015; ICURS, 2014). What has changed is the mix of calls for service and the complexity and seriousness of police work (ICURS, 2014;

Canadian Council of Academies 2014; SECU, 2014). By way of example, police have always responded to mental health calls for service, though police throughout Canada are experiencing an increase in the their number of mental health calls for service and the complexity in responding to these types of calls. Another example is how police in many jurisdictions in British Columbia have started carrying and administering Naloxone in response to the very significant increases in opioid drug overdose cases (Vancouver Police Department, Report to Vancouver Police Board, April 20, 2017; New Westminster Police website, <http://www.nwpolice.org/blog/2017/01/31/new-westminster-police-department-adopts-naloxone-fight-opioid-crisis/>; Surrey Detachment, RCMP, <http://surrey.rcmpgrc.gc.ca/ViewPage.action?siteNodeId=2214&languageId=1&contentId=49317>). Accessed December 6, 2017). Few would argue that these are not roles for police as first responders. Police have always had a responsibility to ensure safety and security of vulnerable individuals, and there is not a genuine suggestion that this responsibility should change because it is not crime related.

The review of literature on core policing, some of its contextual factors, and the analyses of police data serve to inform the question of what is expected by the public of their police and, by extension, what is core policing. The analyses of PRIME events and CAD calls for service are instructive as the data shows the types and numbers of calls the police receive from the public and, therefore, reflect, from a certain perspective, the expectations of the public. The legislation, regulations, and principles statements of police responsibilities, for the most part, contain broader statements of the police role and are also not too prescriptive, which allows for the contextualization of services. The ‘no call to small model’ is likely not sustainable in most police jurisdictions and likely not

effective beyond reducing the public's fear of crime. There are certainly many other dynamics that need to be considered, such as the availability of other resources in the area, what the police have traditionally responded to and dealt with, and the shifts and changes in society. The 'no call too small' model results in police devoting time to activities that do not necessarily contribute to a safer community, but satisfy a political or public expectation that police will have a higher level of visibility and be available for a wider variety of calls for service. The small calls might detract from the broader police objective of providing for safe and secure communities, as police can become overwhelmed with minor issues. Some police officers have expressed frustration with the no call too small model due to the inordinate amount of time devoted to minor, non-crime calls which take away from available time to conduct proactive prevention or proactive enforcement (EOP, 2014). Such a model serves to highlight the influence of a police service taking on a local flavour. The concerns expressed by police boards and municipalities about escalating police costs bring focus to the higher percentage of non-crime calls, what is core policing, and to the current mix of calls for service.

Perhaps most importantly, the mix of reported incidents, both crime and non-crime, reinforces the notion that police services have a greater role than simply law enforcement. One could argue that the incidents police respond to all contribute, to varying degrees, to the maintenance of peace and the overall safety and security of a community. Devolving certain types of calls or responsibilities from police requires some thought as to which agency or agencies are best positioned to deal with those issues, especially in suggesting that there may be a shift or further shift to responsabilisation in which the individual or community must take more responsibility.

As noted previously, while police still respond to less serious complaints, the public in larger centres have become accustomed to not reporting minor incidents as the expectation is police are too busy or will take no action (ICURS, 2014; Ruddell, 2017). Only about 31% of crime is reported to police, with the more serious crimes being more likely to be reported (Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, 2014). The most frequent reasons cited by victims for not reporting to police were that they felt the incident was not important enough or too minor and they felt the police could not do anything (Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, 2014). Adjusting to the increased demands, police have devolved themselves from certain activities that they used to respond to as routine. In many large jurisdictions, police no longer respond to minor motor vehicle collisions or business alarms (RCMP Prince George, Reporting Vehicle Collisions; Edmonton Police Service, Traffic Collisions; Sonitrol Western Canada). Other changes include the use of Internet reporting of minor crimes where there are no suspects, where certain monetary thresholds have not been exceeded, or where there is no expectation a police officer will attend or take any action. Conversations with Vancouver Police Department (Acting/Sgt. J. Abbott, personal communication, July 13, 2017) and Edmonton Police Services (Deputy Chief B.S. Simpson, personal communication, July 18, 2017) indicated varied successes with on-line reporting. In the case of Edmonton Police Service, Simpson advised that the average time for calls for service was 104 minutes and, in 2016, there were 1,300 fewer calls dispatched, which resulted in more time available for proactive policing. Abbott and Simpson both indicated anecdotally that, while there were other factors, some of the decline in dispatched calls was the result of on-line reporting, and that on-line reporting has been beneficial in freeing up responders to deal with other calls

and to engage in more proactive policing. There were no formal evaluations of on-line reporting found in a search of other Canadian police agencies.

Based on a number of quotes from participants collected during their research, Caputo and McIntyre concluded that “the public police routinely deal with the consequences of poverty, homelessness, addictions and mental health. Communities have come to expect the police to shoulder the responsibility for many non-criminal code related issues in addition to their law enforcement obligations” (2015, p. 268). One of the challenges and recurring views heard in recent years is that police should not be engaged in ‘social’ calls for service. Some of these views come from the police themselves based, in part, on police culture and police held-beliefs as to what is ‘real police work’ versus non-crime related activities:

Some members of the Service appear to believe that there should be a separation between police work, on the one hand, and social work and the provision of mental healthcare, on the other. They resist the fact that the job of a police officer inherently involves a social work aspect and a mental healthcare aspect as part of the “service” component of the TPS’s role in society. Related to this view is a perception by some officers that the work of units like the Mobile Crisis Intervention Team (MCIT) is less important, and does not involve true policing. This is by no means a universally held view, but it does seem to be an undercurrent within the TPS culture (Iacobucci, 2014, p. 123).

In some of the representations to the committees on policing, many police officers voiced the view that police should not be responding to ‘social’ calls for service because they are not properly trained to deal with many of these issues, it is the responsibility of other agencies, and that they are not crime related events. The inference is that police should only deal with the investigation and prevention of crime. This argument from those police representations suggests the role of the sworn officer is to deal with core policing duties.

Nonetheless, an examination of the evolution of policing in Canada and other commonwealth countries includes duties that are much more than law enforcement (Minister for Police and Community Safety, 2013; HMIC, 2013; Millie & Bullock 2013; SECU, 2014; Ruddell, 2017). In their report, *Policing in the 21st Century* (2014), an expert panel examined the broad role of the police and the need for changes to police roles and practises. The panel recommended that the role of policing must change in response to changing demands, the context of policing, and the need to be more efficient and effective, while working more closely in the safety and security web that encompasses all actors and agencies contributing to public safety. They further recommended clarifying the role of police and identified the need for changes in police practises. Specifically, they stated, “both the demands on police and the context in which they work have changed considerably since police were initially institutionalized to provide public security in Canada”(Policing in the 21st Century, 2014, p. xi).

The expert panel further commented that, “While the diffusion of successful models can be encouraged, it must be recognized that no one specific model is universally applicable, given the diversity of local crime contexts and of community-based safety and security efforts” (2014, p. xiv). This is an important point when one looks at the varying contexts of police service delivery throughout Canada. The panel correctly highlighted that most research in Canada focused on urban policing. The significance of this observation is the recognition that the context of policing differs by community or area in Canada, and any reform must consider these different environments in which the police function. Reform must first involve some comprehensive evaluation or research into all

different and unique contexts of the needs and demands for policing services, whether urban, rural, or remote.

The numbers of civilian personnel to sworn police have increased steadily over the past decades from 18% of total police resources in 1962 to 29% in 2016 (*Police Resources in Canada*, 2016). This is partially driven by the need for more support services to deal with the increased complexity of policing investigations and to free up sworn police officers to respond to calls for service and investigation. One of the common recommendations of the various studies is the need for police to civilianize to a greater extent to free up sworn officers to concentrate their efforts on those activities where their training and specialised skills are required (McKenna, 2014; SECU, 2014; Association of Municipalities Ontario, 2015; Leuprecht, 2014).

Another common theme in the research literature is that police work should be primarily focused on law enforcement. One might expect that when asked, the public would say ‘enforcing laws’ should be the main function of their police; however, if one considers how the public might answer the question of ‘in what circumstances would they call the police or in which kind of circumstances would they expect their police to take some action?’, it is likely that the range and scope of police duties would expand greatly to include many non-crime related duties that have become expectations of police. Public expectations are certainly a component of a police service reflecting the contextual differences of a jurisdiction and become a consideration for what core policing is. By extension, this includes a discussion on what police services are provided in that community. Core policing and the policing services tailored for one area may well differ

from neighbouring jurisdictions. This view is consistent with the findings in Policing in the 21st Century (2014) and SECU (2014).

The examples and findings discussed above demonstrate some of the difficulties and challenges in addressing current models of policing. It seems clear that, over time, police have moved further from what experts and police leaders consider to be ‘core policing’, but this is occurring in the context of a lack of agreement about what exactly is meant by core policing. The analyses of the police data in this major paper are consistent with and supports the conclusions found in SECU (2014), Andresen (2017), and others that a majority of police calls for service are non-crime related. In addition, the analyses, though partially subjective with respect to the coding of core versus non-core calls for service, form a basis for what might be considered core policing.

Recommendations

This research started with the question of whether police calls for service and activities have strayed from the original intention of the police function and away from ‘core’ policing activities. With no clear definition or even accepted understanding of what core policing is, one could argue that public expectations, based in legislative and regulatory requirements and reflecting public expectations, should be the main determinate of the police role. Perhaps somewhat by default, policing has evolved with changes in societies; however, one constant has been the strong sense of responsibility on the part of the police to respond to public needs no matter the nature of the situation.

The research literature outlines the need for change in the current models of policing. Policing models are not rigid, being continually affected by the external

environment and the fundamentals of policing. Moreover, there does not seem to be any support in the literature that the public's expectations of the fundamentals of policing have changed. An argument of this major paper is that the principles of policing have not changed and that those historic principles must be considered in what constitutes core policing and the structure of local police services.

Core policing does not mean minimal policing. In a Canadian context, the police have always had a clear mandate to deal with a range of societal issues. Crime prevention, crime investigation, and maintaining public order are the foundations for the legitimacy of public policing. Still, there are other key elements to the policing function, such as ensuring community safety and well-being and the protection of vulnerable persons. Given this, the Expert Panel, Council for Canadian Academies encouraged the creation of a definition of core policing:

The Committee encourages governments responsible for the administration of policing to work together to seek consensus in defining the core policing duties in Canada, and consider what services currently executed by police forces could be better done by other governmental and non-governmental organizations. (SECU, Recommendation 5, 2014, p. 29).

Based on the literature, and the findings of the analyses in the research for this major paper, the author argues against a universal, restrictive definition of core policing, and proposes a new inclusive definition of core policing that serves to initiate discussion about expectations of the police role, responsibilities, and functions as it considers the history and evolution of policing in Canada and the historic role of the peace officer. This is a deliberate effort to expand the definition of core policing in the context of policing services beyond the prevention and investigation of crimes. It considers environmental contexts, such as geography, population density, and distribution, and the availability of

other services and stakeholders that allows for a certain amount of localised setting of policing levels within legislative and regulatory requirements. This definition contemplates flexibility on the part of police services to achieve the overall objectives of community safety and well-being.

Core policing is part of the public policing service whose primary objective is to contribute to the safety and well-being of individuals and community, through a variety of activities or responses, often inter-related or serving multiple objectives, and, where applicable in partnership with other services and agencies, which reflect both broad and localised public expectations. This encompasses a broad range of services. Policing Services are influenced by the context and environment in which the service is provided. Core policing includes prevention and investigation of crimes, maintaining public peace and order, emergency response, and striving to contribute to social and individual well-being. Core policing is not minimal policing, but a component of the range of services provided by police agencies (Bent, 2018).

By way of comparison, the Manitoba Summary of Core Health Services (www.gov.mb.ca/health/rha/docs/core.pdf) is a comprehensive document summarising all aspects of public health care in Manitoba. The document goes well beyond a concise definition of health care. It is relevant here because there are similarities in that both health care and policing are public services. While creating a comprehensive document for core policing services would require detailed consultation involving the public, governance bodies, community partners, the police, and other key stakeholders, such a document would be very useful as a foundational piece for developing reforms to policing.

The findings and recommendations of this study are not to suggest that current models of policing should maintain the status quo. On the contrary, policing must evolve with societal changes. Aside from an examination of the core functions of policing and a validation of those functions, there are things the police can do from an organisational or

re-organisation standpoint with meaningful input from government leaders, academic researchers, key stakeholders, and the public. There have been many recommendations that police agencies consider alternate service delivery models, such as civilianisation of support functions, tiered-policing models, and community mobilisation models. Certainly, there were recommendations for significant reform of policing (Leuprecht 2014; Association of Municipalities of Ontario, 2015; Ontario Association of Police Service Boards, 2012). Such reforms must start from an informed position, something that is just now starting to be a reality through research (SECU, 2014; ICURS, 2014; Public Safety Canada, 2015).

Some possible solutions are public policy changes, legislative and regulatory changes, increased use of tier-policing, and an expansion or broader implementation of cross-sector collaborative community mobilisation efforts. The concerns raised in recent years about the mission creep and the increased costs of policing often point to the need or desire from some to focus the police function on crime-related activities and high-risk situations, and to move away from what some have described as social issues policing. Importantly, such suggestions lead to the question, as identified and asked by SECU (2014), ‘if police stop responding to some calls, then who will fill the gap?’

Legislative changes could be more prescriptive with respect to basic requirements for a police service. There would need to be significant input from governing bodies and the public, and also consideration of the differing environmental contexts for development of local services. While a description or articulation of minimum levels of policing is valuable, there are certain benefits to deliberately leaving the description of duties and responsibilities broad, so as to allow for tailoring at a local level and to address

public expectations. The Québec example is worthy of consideration as it contains detailed descriptions of the minimum level of service that must be provided by police agencies; however, this must be subordinated to overarching principles of the police role in society. According to McKenna (2014), tiered-policing might include more civilianisation of certain duties, increased use of Community Safety Officers and Special Constables, private security, and volunteers. McKenna does not propose devolving some of the current police functions, but offers recommendations to enhance sworn officers to deal with demand for services. Still, tiered-policing only addresses part of the issues with current policing models and their associated costs.

There are some promising examples of collaborative, cross-sector initiatives aimed at crime reduction. Examples are the OACP Mobilisation and Engagement model of community-based policing, the Crime Reduction model in British Columbia, and the Community Mobilisation - HUB Model originating in Prince Albert, Saskatchewan. These models all include an arrangement among key stakeholders to provide resources and to share information to better deal with prolific offenders or prolific users of services. In each of these examples, the police remain key partners in dealing with not only the immediate issue, but with a focus on addressing underlying causes collaboratively with other services. That is, the police with appropriate partners contribute to overall community safety and well-being, which many argue is one of the prime objectives of the public police and, as such, a core policing function. It is clear in these models that the police are seen as having a role to play in addressing social issues, though not necessarily taking a leading role.

While there have been many recommendations to reduce the numbers of sworn police officers, one aspect of police allocation or time not considered in much of the research is that of unallocated or unfettered time for the police to problem solve with the community or to effectively use proactive time. The concept of including unallocated time in police resourcing models is relatively new and, while there is little literature on this subject, it is worthy of consideration in the discussion of core policing duties. Potential research to inform this discussion could focus on developing additional empirical evidence to support the need for proactive, unallocated time for police. Police are increasingly asking for a resource model that would allow a certain percentage of unfettered time for police to problem solve with the community, yet there seems to be little empirical evidence to support the benefits of unfettered, proactive time for police. Moreover, good evaluations of cross-sector collaborative initiatives are important to determine the long-term contribution of proactive time to reducing crime and dealing effectively with recurring social issues.

A University of the Fraser Valley Study (2011) evaluated police officer time by conducting a ride along with general duty police officers in a large municipality in British Columbia. Based on their findings, police officer's shifts were consumed with a variety of duties, though they found that general duty police officer had very little time available for proactive or problem-solving activities. While it is difficult and ill advised to draw any conclusions from the sampling of one detachment, this study suggests that the general duty response in a large municipal detachment is still rooted in a reactive model and has not changed significantly. The findings of that study are supported by the interviews of police officers from a wide variety of jurisdictions in the ICURS (2014)

study. Further study of other jurisdictions would be necessary to draw any conclusion on the effect of police resourcing levels.

There is a wide range of research that is needed to further inform discussions of core policing. Part of this major paper's original hypothesis was that the mix of crimes and calls for service can differ depending on the context of the jurisdiction in which the service is provided, therefore, part of the analysis of this major paper looked at whether core policing needs also differed by geography, remoteness, and expectations. The analysis of both PRIME events and the CAD calls for service tended to not support the view that context matters with respect to core policing, though better conclusions would result from a more nuanced analysis that was beyond the scope of this major paper. As highlighted previously, where the context and any differences in the nature of crime and non-crime events does matter is in how policing services are structured in particular jurisdictions.

It is also necessary to examine what is required to advance the discussion and develop a better understanding of police activities. The Expert Panel, Council for Canadian Academies (2014) identified the need for better call for service data to fully understand what the police really do. It is important to keep in mind that police record management systems were not all developed with planning or strategic analysis in mind. Regardless, sufficient data currently exists in police records management systems to conduct more detailed analyses.

This discussion about future research leads to a consideration of a new theory of policing. Such a theory might suggest policing in Canada has always been broader than law enforcement or crime response and has always included a social element to police

work. The theory would include a definition or distinguish the core policing responsibilities in describing the broader services provided by police. This is reflected in the types of incidents that the public call the police for. While tiered-policing and more civilianisation may reduce policing costs and allow sworn police officers to devote more time so as to be more proactive in crime prevention and reduction, it is unlikely that the public expectations of the police will change to any great degree.

The original premise of this major paper was to address the questions of what core policing is and to assess the degree to which the police may have strayed from these principles. Without an agreed upon or acceptable definition of core policing, this question cannot be adequately answered. It is a reasonable conclusion that policing has become more complex and the nature of policing as continued to evolve; however, even in times of resource constraints, policing has continued to respond to the increasing proportion of calls for service that represent non-crime or social types of calls.

Regardless of the lack of a clear understanding of core policing, it is proposed that the analyses of the Priorities of CAD calls do aid in defining, or at least identifying, core policing. The Priority 1 and Priority 2 calls for service are those very calls that should be considered core policing. The findings of this major paper support the anecdotal evidence presented in the research literature that there have been increasing demands for service on the non-crime calls for service and that the majority of calls for service that the police respond to and deal with are non-crime calls for service, regardless of the type of jurisdiction. Found in the Priority 3 and Priority 4 CAD calls are many crime reports, though, based on the priority of those calls, they are not urgent, reported after the fact, and are not of any immediate threat to the public. If we consider that contemporary

policing is very similar to the range of activities and functions that police have historically engaged in, police likely have not strayed too far from the broader mandate of public expectations. Given this, what is required is a rethinking of the structure of policing services to differentiate the roles that absolutely need sworn police (core policing) and those that can either be served by non-sworn personnel, responded to by other agencies, or through more responsabilisation of the public.

Conclusion

The purpose of this major paper was to identify some of the issues and concerns with the sustainability of current Canadian policing models and to emphasize the need for a common understanding of what the police routinely do. This understanding is crucial to better inform the discussion around the need to reform and define core policing, and to understand what the public wants and expects from their police service. The analyses of the PRIME events and the CAD calls for service data provide evidence of the range and variety of call types in differing contexts that police devote some energy and time to. There was sufficient variety of policing contexts that this analysis will serve to help inform the public, policy, and decision makers with respect to a starting point for any consideration for reform of policing.

Policing is an essential component of a well-functioning society. It falls to the police to maintain peace, order, security and safety for the common good. While the desire for these objectives may be universal, pursuing them is not a simple task (In Search of Security, 2006, p. xiii).

An informed discussion must also prioritize responsibilities that are genuinely core to policing over those deemed discretionary, consider how to deliver in alternative ways those responsibilities that emerge from this debate as discretionary, and make efforts to manage demand and expectations. The essence of the argument is to shift from increasing the numbers of uniforms to increasing how police complement the community through a

more visible presence as a result of civilianized and/or outsourced noncore duties (Leuprecht, 2014, p. 6).

The focus on containing costs by returning to core policing services would seem to be a fairly commonly held view of the public, some academics, and some in government. With the number of studies, reviews, commissions, and academic research recommending a return to or a redefining of core policing responsibilities, there is often mention of core policing or core policing responsibilities, yet there has not emerged a clear definition or understanding of what, in a formal sense, this really means.

Caputo and McIntyre (2015) indicated that one of the key findings of their Research Advisory Board (RAB) was the recognition that it is very difficult for police to stop doing some of the things they currently do, especially if public safety is involved or the activity has become an expectation of the public. Further, Caputo and McIntyre reported that the RAB “were more concerned, however, about enhancing the capacity in policing to think critically about role and value in order to enhance the tendency to gravitate toward the more relevant and the more valuable roles” (2015, p. 267). Further, they expressed that “they were also more concerned about enhancing the capacity in policing to handle broad societal changes on the political, economic and technological fronts in an anticipatory and proactive way” (2015, p. 267). These comments are particularly relevant to the questions examined in this major paper. Finally, there is the question of what options there are with respect to collaborative efforts and with respect to having some of the current police roles being taken over by other agencies.

The RAB (Caputo & McIntyre, 2015) suggested that contemporary policing is not sustainable and what is required is different thinking on the part of police leaders. Historically, police resources were increased based on population growth and crime

trends. What has been absent in the submissions for additional resources are more analyses about changes to legislation and its implications for policing. In addition, a fulsome analysis of contemporary complexities that are challenging the effectiveness and efficiency of policing is required.

An underlying sense in many of the findings and recommendations in the research literature is that it is the police leaders who should figure this out or find solutions to the challenges. While the police can make some changes, there are many issues and expectations external to police decision making that make such a suggestion impractical. The police cannot act in isolation of public and government input, and that requires, at least, a basic understanding of the scope of what police are currently doing. While police are a key stakeholder, it is governments who also need to be a key stakeholder or have shared leadership.

It is unreasonable to expect that core police duties are or could be itemized or regulated because police fulfill a unique role or public service, and must respond to the broader duties of maintaining peace and order in communities. There is a clear need to tailor any police response to the individual community context. There have been some formalized efforts to ensure or create collaboration between police agencies and other government agencies due to the recognition that many of the issues police respond to, many of which are from recurring sources, necessitate a cross-sector response. These types of responses are considered to be more effective and more likely to be sustained when they are structured and formalized.

There have always been certain roles that the police have undertaken that do not clearly fall into what might be considered core policing. This is especially true in non-

urban areas where fewer government agencies are readily available, and the police are the only true 24-hour response. There has always been, and likely always will be, non-crime related calls for service that the police either are best suited to deal with in a first instance, or must respond to as they are the most available public service in many locations. The broad mandate of keeping the peace, investigating crime, preventing crime, and maintaining order is the cornerstone of policing, and should remain so. That is not to say there could not, or should not, be reforms to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of police services, but this must come with a recognition that policing is much more than law enforcement and crime prevention. Importantly, no one suggests this will be an easy task. An understanding of what the public, governments, and police governance bodies consider ‘core’ policing, as well as an understanding of how core policing fits within the broader services provided by police in contemporary Canadian society, is fundamental to any meaningful change. Considering the interest in recent years, an informed discussion about the future of policing in Canada is vitally important for the police to maintain legitimacy and the public’s support of police.

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Appendix A - Roles of Police

Core Functions and Duties of Police in Québec

French version

<http://www.securitepublique.gouv.qc.ca/police/police-quebec/services-police.html>

(August 16, 2016)

Quelle est la mission des corps de police?

1. Maintenir la paix, l'ordre et la sécurité publique;
2. Prévenir et réprimer le crime et les infractions aux lois et aux règlements municipaux;
3. Rechercher les auteurs des crimes et infraction.

Les six niveaux de services policiers en fonction du nombre d'habitants

(<http://www.securitepublique.gouv.qc.ca/police/police-quebec/services-police/desserte-policiere/six-niveaux-service.html>)

chapitre P-13.1, r. 6

Règlement sur les services policiers que les corps de police municipaux et la Sûreté du Québec doivent fournir selon leur niveau de compétence

Loi sur la police (chapitre P-13.1, a. 81)

Les corps de police municipaux doivent fournir un certain niveau de service selon la population qu'ils desservent ou leur localisation géographique. La Sûreté du Québec, qui joue un rôle complémentaire, fournit les services du niveau supérieur à ceux offerts par les corps de police municipaux (CPM), dont les services de niveau 6.

Les activités des corps de police sont divisées en quatre catégories : gendarmerie, enquêtes, mesures d'urgence et services de soutien. La complexité de ces activités augmente en fonction du niveau de service du corps de police. Par exemple, un corps de police de niveau 1 pourra contrôler une foule pacifique alors que ceux des niveaux 5 et 6 devront contrôler des foules avec risque élevé d'agitation, de débordement ou d'émeute. Chaque niveau de service comprend, en sus, les services énumérés aux niveaux inférieurs.

Moins de 100 000 habitants : niveau 1

100 000 à 249 999 habitants : niveau 2

250 000 à 499 999 habitants : niveau 3

500 000 à 999 999 habitants : niveau 4

1 000 000 d'habitants et plus : niveau 5
Services du niveau 6

Par ailleurs, sauf exception, toute municipalité faisant partie d'une communauté métropolitaine ou d'une région métropolitaine de recensement est desservie par un CPM de niveau 2 ou plus, selon la population.
Les corps de police doivent fournir les services policiers énumérés ci-dessous et correspondant à leur niveau :

Moins de 100 000 habitants : niveau 1

Gendarmerie
Patrouille 24 heures
Réponse à toute demande d'aide d'un citoyen, répartition et prise en charge de celle-ci dans un délai raisonnable
Sécurité routière
Application de la Loi sur les véhicules hors route et surveillance des sentiers de véhicules tout-terrain et de motoneiges
Sécurité nautique des plaisanciers circulant sur un plan d'eau
Transport de prévenus
Délit de fuite
Programmes de prévention
Protection d'une scène de crime
Capacité d'endiguement
Enquêtes
Sous réserve des obligations prévues aux autres niveaux de service, les infractions criminelles ou pénales relevant de la compétence respective des corps de police sont notamment les suivantes :

Enlèvement
Agression sexuelle
Infractions d'ordre sexuel
Pornographie juvénile lorsqu'il y a flagrant délit
Voies de fait
Accident de travail mortel, en collaboration avec la Sûreté du Québec
Vol qualifié
Taxage
Extorsion de personnes vulnérables ou en situation de dépendance face à leur entourage
Introduction par effraction
Incendie

Vol de véhicules
Production, trafic et possession de drogues illicites au niveau local ou de rue
Prostitution de rue
Fraude par chèque, carte de crédit ou carte de débit
Escroquerie, faux semblant, fausse déclaration
Vol simple et recel
Biens infractionnels
Accident de véhicule
Méfait
Infraction criminelle causant la mort ou des lésions corporelles menaçant la vie, commise lors de la conduite d'un véhicule, en collaboration avec la Sûreté du Québec
Conduite dangereuse
Capacité de conduite affaiblie
Crime relié aux gangs de rue
Objet suspect ou appel à la bombe, si négatif
Armes et découverte d'explosifs
Utilisation de monnaie contrefaite
Décès survenu dans des circonstances obscures
Décès ou lésions corporelles menaçant la vie d'un enfant de moins de trois ans en collaboration avec la Sûreté du Québec
Disparition
Fugue
Mesures d'urgence
Contrôle de foule pacifique
Assistance policière lors de sauvetage
Assistance policière lors de recherche en forêt
Assistance policière lors de sinistre
Services de soutien
Recherche d'empreintes par poudrage et photographie sur une scène de crime
Production et mise en commun du renseignement criminel tactique et opérationnel relatif à des personnes, des groupes ou des phénomènes touchant leur territoire
Contribution importante aux activités d'échange de renseignements criminels entre les corps de police et avec les organismes chargés de l'application de la loi
Gestion des sources humaines d'information
Contribution, dans les délais prévus au Guide de pratiques policières, au Système d'analyse des liens de la violence associée aux crimes (SALVAC), à la banque de données québécoise de renseignement criminel et à la banque d'empreintes digitales de la Sûreté du Québec
Détention
Garde des pièces à conviction

Liaison judiciaire
Prélèvement d'une substance corporelle aux fins d'analyse génétique
Gestion des mandats et localisation des individus
Gestion des dossiers de police
Affaires publiques
Alimentation et interrogation du Centre de renseignement policiers du Québec (CRPQ)
Affaires internes
Moniteur pour l'utilisation d'équipements et de la force
Technicien qualifié d'alcootest
Bertillonnage
Collecte de renseignements pour l'enregistrement des délinquants sexuels visés par la Loi sur l'enregistrement de renseignements sur les délinquants sexuels
Intervention dynamique à risque faible
Alimentation de la banque de données québécoise sur les armes à feu récupérées

100 000 à 249 999 habitants : niveau 2

Enquêtes
Meurtre avec arrestation imminente
Négligence criminelle ayant causé la mort
Tentative de meurtre
Accident de travail mortel
Vol qualifié dans les institutions financières et les transporteurs de biens de valeur
Incendie mortel
Incendies en série
Incendie majeur d'édifices commerciaux, industriels, institutionnels, gouvernementaux et communautaires
Fraude commerciale et immobilière
Loterie illégale
Infraction criminelle causant la mort ou des lésions corporelles menaçant la vie, commise lors de la conduite d'un véhicule
Production, trafic et possession de drogues illicites visant les fournisseurs des revendeurs locaux ou de rue
Vols de cargaison
Infraction criminelle commise par un réseau
Tenir une maison de jeu ou de pari et tricher au jeu
Infractions relatives à la monnaie
Mesures d'urgence
Contrôle de foule avec risque d'agitation
Services de soutien
Technicien en scène de crime et en identité judiciaire

Technicien en scène d'incendie
Reconstitutionniste de scène de collision
Identification de véhicules
Conception d'un portrait-robot par ordinateur
Production et mise en commun du renseignement criminel stratégique relatif à des personnes, des groupes ou des phénomènes touchant leur territoire

250 000 à 499 999 habitants : niveau 3

Enquêtes
Meurtre
Enlèvement avec risques pour la vie
Extorsion
Accident d'aéronef mortel
Produits de la criminalité
Production, trafic et possession de drogues illicites visant des fournisseurs de niveau supérieur
Gangstérisme pour les délits du niveau de service applicable
Infraction criminelle commise par des organisations criminelles opérant sur une base interrégionale, en collaboration avec la Sûreté du Québec
Pornographie juvénile
Proxénétisme
Maison de débauche
Événement impliquant un corps de police, à la demande du ministre
Méfait ou vol concernant des données informatiques
Vol, usage illégal ou possession d'explosifs sans excuse légitime
Décès ou lésions corporelles menaçant la vie d'un enfant de moins de trois ans
Mesures d'urgence
Intervention impliquant une personne barricadée et armée sans coup de feu et sans otage
Services de soutien
Filature
Extraction de banques de données informatiques
Infiltration
Analyse de déclaration pure
Équipe cynophile en matière de drogue, protection et pistage
Groupe d'intervention
Intervention à risque modéré
Assurer le retour au Québec d'un individu ayant contrevenu à une décision ou à une ordonnance de la Commission d'examen des troubles mentaux (CETM)

500 000 à 999 999 habitants : niveau 4

Enquêtes

Meurtre ou tentative de meurtre commis par des organisations criminelles opérant sur une base interrégionale, en collaboration avec la Sûreté du Québec

Mesures d'urgence

Contrôle de foule avec risque élevé d'agitation, de débordement et d'émeute en partenariat avec la Sûreté du Québec

Intervention impliquant une personne barricadée et armée avec coup de feu

Services de soutien

Surveillance électronique

Intervention à risque élevé

Groupe tactique d'intervention

1 000 000 d'habitants et plus : niveau 5

Gendarmerie

Sécurité nautique des plaisanciers circulant sur le fleuve Saint-Laurent

Enquêtes

Gestion d'événements terroristes

Importation et exportation de drogues, en collaboration avec la Sûreté du Québec

Trafic d'armes et d'explosifs

Enlèvement dont la victime est emmenée à l'extérieur du Québec

Gageure et bookmaking

Infraction criminelle commise par un réseau opérant sur une base interrégionale

Corruption de fonctionnaires judiciaires ou municipaux

Fraudes commerciales et immobilières commises par une personne ou une entité visée par la Loi sur le recyclage des produits de la criminalité et le financement des activités terroristes et ses règlements.

Mesures d'urgence

Intervention hélicoptérée

Contrôle de foule avec risque élevé d'agitation, de débordement et d'émeute

Intervention lors d'une prise d'otage ou impliquant un tireur actif

Services de soutien

Plongée sous-marine

Désamorçage et manipulation d'explosifs impliquant le recours aux techniciens d'explosifs

Infiltration des plus hautes sphères de la hiérarchie criminelle

Polygraphie et hypnose

Équipe cynophile en matière d'explosifs

Renseignement de sécurité opérationnelle
Évaluation et protection des collaborateurs de justice
Soutien aux interrogatoires vidéo
Utilisation d'agent civil d'infiltration

Services du niveau 6

Enquêtes

Coordination des enquêtes lors d'événements hors du commun
Coordination des enquêtes de meurtres et d'agressions commis par un prédateur
Coordination policière de la lutte contre le crime organisé
Crime touchant les revenus de l'État, sa sécurité ou son intégrité
Coordination des enquêtes d'incendies en série sur une base interrégionale
Infraction criminelle commise par un réseau ayant des ramifications à l'extérieur du Québec

Malversation

Transaction mobilière frauduleuse
Crime à l'intérieur des établissements de détention provinciaux et fédéraux

Cybersurveillance

Entraide judiciaire internationale

Mesure d'urgence

Coordination du rétablissement et du maintien de l'ordre lors de situations d'urgence ou de désordre social d'envergure provinciale

Services de soutien

Protection des personnalités internationales

Protection de l'Assemblée nationale

Enquête et renseignement en matière de sécurité de l'État

Atteinte à la sécurité et à l'intégrité des réseaux informatiques du gouvernement

Coordination du SALVAC

Profilage criminel

Portraitiste

Identité judiciaire spécialisée

Banque centrale d'empreintes digitales

Liaison avec Interpol

Gestion du CRPQ

Unité d'urgence permanente

Coordination et enregistrement de renseignements au Registre national des délinquants sexuels.

English Translated Version:

Level 1: Less than 100,000 inhabitants:

Policing

Round-the-clock patrol

Response to any request for help from a citizen within a reasonable time and dispatching

Road patrolling

Enforcement of the Act respecting off-highway vehicles and off-road vehicle and snowmobile trail patrol

Recreational boating safety

Transportation of accused persons

Hit and run incidents

Prevention programs

Crime scene securing

Containment

Investigations

Subject to the obligations corresponding to higher levels, the criminal or penal offences under the jurisdiction of police forces consist of the following:

Kidnapping

Sexual assault

Sexual offences

Child pornography when caught in the act

Assault

Fatal work injury, in cooperation with the Sûreté du Québec

Robbery

Taxing

Extortion of vulnerable persons or persons who depend on their family circle

Breaking and entering

Fire

Auto theft

Production, trafficking and possession of illicit drugs at local or street level

Street prostitution

Bad cheques, credit card or debit card fraud

Scams, false pretences, false statements

Theft and possession of stolen goods

Offence-related property

Vehicle accidents

Mischief

Criminal offence causing death or life-threatening bodily injuries, committed while driving a vehicle, in cooperation with the Sûreté du Québec

Reckless driving

Impaired driving

Street gang crime

Suspicious object or bomb threat, if negative

Weapons and discovery of explosives

Use of counterfeit money

Death under mysterious circumstances

Death or bodily harm threatening the life of a child under three years of age, in cooperation with the Sûreté du Québec

Disappearances

Runaways

Emergency Measures

Peaceful crowd control

Rescue operations

Forest search and rescue

Emergency response to local disaster

Support Services

Crime scene dusting and photography

Production and pooling of tactical and operational criminal intelligence relating to persons, groups or phenomena affecting their territory

Significant contribution to criminal intelligence exchanges between police forces and bodies in charge of enforcing the law

Management of human resources of intelligence

Routine contribution to the Violent Crime Linkage Analysis System (ViCLAS), the Québec criminal intelligence data bank and the Sûreté du Québec fingerprint bank

Detention

Custody of exhibits

Court liaison

Taking of a bodily substance for forensic DNA analysis

Warrant management and tracking of individuals

Police records management

Public affairs

Québec Police Intelligence Centre (QPIC) input and retrieval

Internal affairs

Technical equipment and use of force instructor

Services of a breath analysis expert

Bertillonage

Information collection for the registration of sex offenders under the Sex Offender Information Registration Act (S.C. 2004, c. 10)

Low-risk dynamic intervention

Entry of data in the Québec data bank on recovered firearms

Level 2: Between 100,000 and 249,999 inhabitants:

Investigations

Murder with imminent arrest

Criminal negligence causing death

Attempted murder

Fatal work injury

Financial institution or armoured car robbery

Fire involving fatality

Series of fires

Major fire involving commercial, industrial, institutional, government or community buildings

Commercial or real estate fraud

Illegal lottery

Criminal offence causing death or life-threatening bodily injuries, committed while driving a vehicle

Production, trafficking and possession of illicit drugs involving suppliers of local or street dealers

Freight theft

Criminal offence committed by a crime ring

Keeping a common gaming or betting house and cheating

Counterfeit money offences

Emergency Measures

Crowd control involving risk of disturbance

Support Services

Crime scene and criminal identification expert

Fire scene expert

Reconstructionist (collision investigation)

Vehicle identification

Computer-generated composite sketching

Production and pooling of strategic criminal intelligence relating to persons, groups or phenomena affecting their territory

Level 3: Between 250,000 and 499,999 inhabitants:

Investigations
Murder
Life-threatening kidnapping
Extortion
Fatal aircraft accident
Proceeds of crime
Production, trafficking and possession of illicit drugs involving high-level suppliers
Gang crime corresponding to applicable service level
Criminal offence committed by criminal organizations operating on an inter-regional basis, in cooperation with the Sûreté du Québec
Child pornography
Procuring
Common bawdy-house
Event involving a police force, upon request by the Minister
Computer data mischief or theft
Theft, illegal use or possession of explosives without lawful excuse
Death or bodily harm threatening the life of a child under 3 years of age
Emergency Measures
Intervention involving armed and barricaded suspect (no shots fired, no hostages)
Support Services
Physical surveillance
Database retrieval
Infiltration
Analysis of pure version statements
Dog team (drugs, guarding and tracking)
Special unit
Moderate-risk intervention
Return to Québec of an individual who has contravened a decision or order of the Commission d'examen des troubles mentaux

Level 4: Between 500,000 and 999,999 inhabitants:

Investigations
Murder or attempted murder committed by criminal organizations operating on an inter-regional basis, in cooperation with the Sûreté du Québec
Emergency Measures
Crowd control involving high risk of disturbance or riot in cooperation with the Sûreté du Québec
Intervention involving barricaded and armed suspect, and shots fired
Support Services

Electronic surveillance
High-risk intervention
Special weapons and tactics team

Level 5: 1,000,000 inhabitants and more:

Policing
Recreational boating safety on the St. Lawrence River
Investigations
Terrorist incident management
Importation and exportation of illicit drugs, in cooperation with the Sûreté du Québec
Weapons and explosives trafficking
Extra-provincial kidnapping
Betting and bookmaking
Criminal offence committed by a ring operating on an inter-regional basis
Judicial or municipal civil servant corruption
Commercial or real estate fraud committed by a person or an entity referred to in the Proceeds of Crime (Money Laundering) and Terrorist Financing Act (S.C. 2000, c. 17) and its regulations.
Emergency Measures
Helicopter operations
Crowd control involving high risk of disturbance or riot
Intervention involving hostages or an active shooter
Support services
Underwater diving
Defusing and handling of explosives (explosives experts)
Infiltration at top level of criminal organization
Polygraph and hypnosis
Dog team (explosives)
Operations security intelligence
Evaluation and protection of justice collaborators
Video interrogation support
Use of undercover civil agents

Level 6 services

Investigations
Coordination of investigations during unusual events
Coordination of investigations of murders and assaults by predator
Police cooperation to counter organized crime
Crime relating to State revenues, security or integrity

Coordination of investigations of series of fires at inter-regional level
Criminal offence by a ring operating in and outside Québec
Misappropriation of funds
Fraudulent securities transactions
Crime within provincial or federal detention centres
Cybersurveillance
International judicial cooperation
Emergency Measures
Coordination of recovery operations and maintenance of order during emergencies or civil disturbances of provincial scope
Support Services
Protection of international VIPs
Protection of the National Assembly
State security investigations and intelligence
Security and integrity of government computer systems
ViCLAS coordination
Criminal profiling
Composite sketching
Specialized criminal identification
Centralized fingerprint database
Interpol liaison
QPIC management
Permanent emergency service unit
Coordination and registration of information in the National Sex Offender Registry.

Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) Act - (R.S.C., 1985, c. R-10)

Following is a brief description of policing duties by the NWMP when they first arrived in western Canada:

The police performed a wide array of civic duties, from serving as postmasters to customs collectors. They rescued lost children and retrieved missing livestock. NWMP surgeons often tended to civilians. The constables enforced the law and kept the public peace in white communities and on Indigenous reserves. NWMP investigators solved crimes like robbery and murder, and were effective in breaking up rustler gangs operating along the international border. Source: thecanadianencyclopedia.ca/en/article/north-west-mounted-police/#h3_jump_5. Accessed January 19th, 2017.

Duties

18. It is the duty of members who are peace officers, subject to the orders of the Commissioner,

- (a) to perform all duties that are assigned to peace officers in relation to the preservation of the peace, the prevention of crime and of offences against the laws of Canada and the laws in force in any province in which they may be employed, and the apprehension of criminals and offenders and others who may be lawfully taken into custody;
- (b) to execute all warrants, and perform all duties and services in relation thereto, that may, under this Act or the laws of Canada or the laws in force in any province, be lawfully executed and performed by peace officers;
- (c) to perform all duties that may be lawfully performed by peace officers in relation to the escort and conveyance of convicts and other persons in custody to or from any courts, places of punishment or confinement, asylums or other places; and
- (d) to perform such other duties and functions as are prescribed by the Governor in Council or the Commissioner.

Ontario Police Services Act, R.S.O. 1990, c. P.15

Police services in municipalities

4. (1) Every municipality to which this subsection applies shall provide adequate and effective police services in accordance with its needs. 1997, c. 8, s. 3.

Core police services

(2) Adequate and effective police services must include, at a minimum, all of the following police services:

- 1. Crime prevention.
- 2. Law enforcement.
- 3. Assistance to victims of crime.
- 4. Public order maintenance.
- 5. Emergency response. 1997, c. 8, s. 3.

England and Wales

Police service's Statement of Common Purpose remains a helpful one. It is as follows:

The purpose of the police service is to uphold the law fairly and firmly; to prevent crime; to pursue and bring to justice those who break the law; to keep the Queen's peace; to protect, help and reassure the community; and to be seen to do this with integrity, common sense and sound judgment. (Roles and Responsibilities of Police, Pg xii).

Queensland Police Service, Australia

Extract from the *Police Service Administration Act ,1990*:

2.3 Functions of service.

The functions of the police service are the following:

- (a) the preservation of peace and good order—
 - (i) in all areas of the State; and
 - (ii) in all areas outside the State where the laws of the State may lawfully be applied, when occasion demands;
- (b) the protection of all communities in the State and all members thereof:
 - (i) from unlawful disruption of peace and good order that results, or is likely to result, from:
 - (A) actions of criminal offenders;
 - (B) actions or omissions of other persons;
 - (ii) from commission of offences against the law generally;
- (c) the prevention of crime;
- (d) the detection of offenders and bringing of offenders to justice;
- (e) the upholding of the law generally;
- (f) the administration, in a responsible, fair and efficient manner and subject to due process of law and directions of the commissioner, of:
 - (i) the provisions of the Criminal Code;
 - (ii) the provisions of all other Acts or laws for the time being committed to the responsibility of the service;
 - (iii) the powers, duties and discretions prescribed for officers by any Act;
- (g) the provision of the services, and the rendering of help reasonably sought, in an emergency or otherwise, as are:
 - (i) required of officers under any Act or law or the reasonable expectations of the community; or
 - (ii) reasonably sought of officers by members of the community.

2.3 Presence of police officers at fire or chemical incident

(1) On receiving information of the occurrence of an incident requiring the attendance of fire authority officers, the commissioner or the police officer in charge, at the time, of the police station nearest to the location of the incident

must immediately send as many police officers as are considered necessary to preserve order and to help at the incident.

2.4 Community responsibility preserved

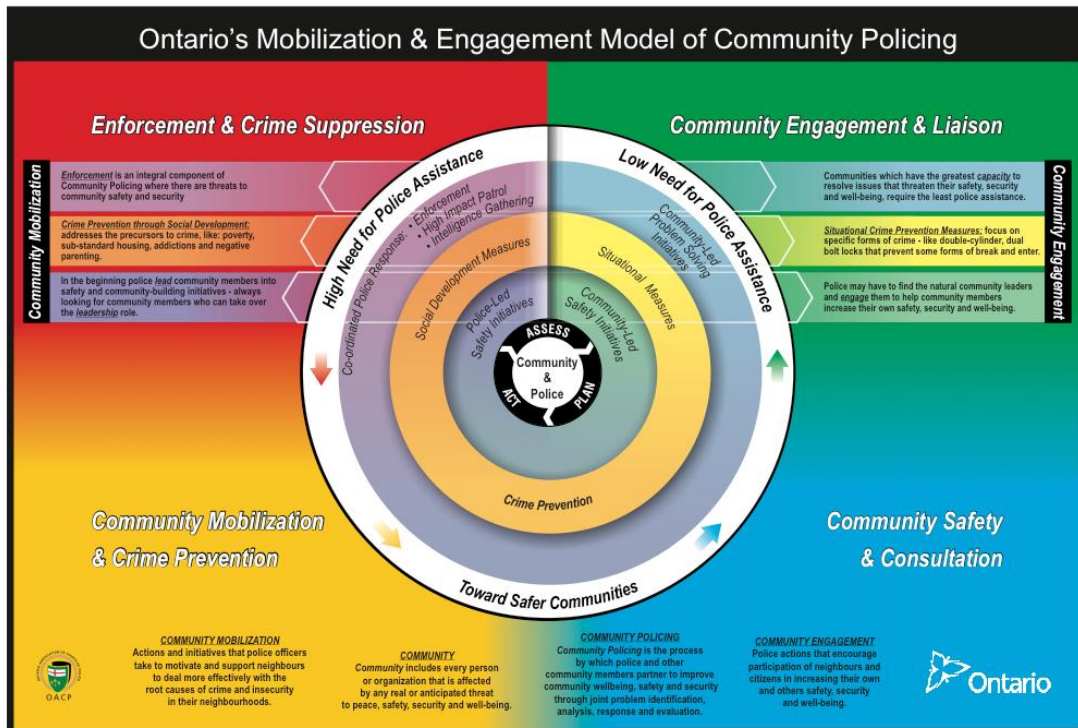
(1) The prescription of any function as one of the functions of the police service does not relieve or derogate from the responsibility and functions appropriately had by the community at large and the members thereof in relation to —

(a) the preservation of peace and good order; and

(b) the prevention, detection and punishment of breaches of the law.

(2) In performance of the functions of the police service, members of the service are to act in partnership with the community at large to the extent compatible with efficient and proper performance of those functions.

Appendix B – Ontario’s Mobilization Model of Community Policing



Appendix C

Data Elements and Violation Coding Structure for the Uniform Crime Reporting Survey 2.2 Incident-Based (Last modified 2016-07-12)

The Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) Survey was designed to measure the incidence of crime in Canadian society and its characteristics. Presented are the data elements that are captured by the survey, and the violation codes that are used in data collection.

Data Elements

Aboriginal Indicator

Apparent Age Attempted/Completed Violation Charges Laid or Recommended Clearance Date

Counter Frauds and Motor Vehicles – UCR 2.1 Counter Frauds and Motor Vehicles – UCR 2.2
CSC Status (Charged/Suspect - Chargeable) Cybercrime

Date Charges Laid or Recommended or Processed By Other Means Date of Birth

Fps Number

Fraud Type

Geocode Information

Hate Crime

Incident Clearance Status

Incident Date/Time (From and To Date and Time) Incident File Number

Level of Injury

Location of Incident

Most Serious Violation / Violations

Most Serious Violation Against The Victim (VAV)

Most Serious Weapon Present

Motor Vehicle Recovery

Organized Crime / Street Gang

Peace – Public Officer Status

Property Stolen

Relationship of CSC, (Charged/Suspect – Chargeable), To The Victim Report Date

Respondent Code

Sex

Shoplifting Flag

Soundex Code – UCR 2.1

Soundex Code – UCR 2.2

Special Survey Feature

Target Vehicle

Update Status

Vehicle Type

Weapon Causing Injury

Violation structure for the Uniform Crime Reporting Survey

CRIMES AGAINST THE PERSON

Violations Causing Death Murder 1st Degree

Murder 2nd Degree Manslaughter

Infanticide

Criminal Negligence Causing Death Other Related Offences Causing Death

Attempting The Commission Of A Capital Crime Attempted Murder

Conspire to Commit Murder

Sexual Violations

Aggravated Sexual Assault

Sexual Assault With A Weapon

Sexual Assault

Other Sexual Crimes (expired 2008-03-31)

Sexual Interference (effective 2008-04-01)

Invitation To Sexual Touching (effective 2008-04-01)

Sexual Exploitation (effective 2008-04-01)

Sexual Exploitation of a Person with a Disability (effective 2008-05-01) Incest (effective 2008-04-01)

Corrupting Children (effective 2008-04-01)

Making Sexually Explicit material available to Children (effective 2012-08-09) Parent or guardian procuring sexual activity

Householder permitting prohibited sexual activity

Luring a Child via a Computer (effective 2008-04-01)

Anal Intercourse (effective 2008-04-01)

Bestiality / Commit / Compel / Incite a Person (effective 2008-04-01) Voyeurism (effective 2008-04-01)

Nonconsensual distribution of intimate images (effective 2015-03-09)

Assaults

Aggravated Assault Level 3

Assault With Weapon or Causing Bodily Harm Level 2 Assault Level 1

Unlawfully Causing Bodily Harm

Discharge Firearm with Intent

Using Firearm/Imitation of Firearm in commission of offence (effective 2008-04-01) Pointing a Firearm (effective 2008-04-01)

Assault Against Peace Public Officer

Assault Against Peace Officer with a weapon or causing bodily harm (effective 2009-10-02)

Aggravated Assault Against Peace Officer (effective 2009-10-02)

Criminal Negligence Causing Bodily Harm
Trap Likely To or Causing Bodily Harm (effective 2008-04-01) Other Assaults

Violations Resulting In The Deprivation Of Freedom
Kidnapping / Forcible Confinement (expired 2010-01-08) Kidnapping (effective 2010-01-08)
Forcible Confinement (effective 2010-01-08)
Hostage Taking
Trafficking in Persons (effective 2005-11-01)
Abduction Under 14, Not Parent/Guardian
Abduction Under 16
Removal of Children from Canada (effective 1998-01-01) Abduction Under 14 Contravening A
Custody Order Abduction Under 14, by Parent/Guardian

Commodification of Sexual Activity
Obtaining sexual services for consideration (effective 2014-12-06)
Obtaining sexual services for consideration from person under 18 years (effective 2014-12-06)
Receive material benefit from sexual services (effective 2014-12-06)

Receive material benefit from sexual services provided by a person under 18 years (effective
2014-12-06)
Procuring (effective 2014-12-06)
Procuring - person under 18 years (effective 2014-12-06)

Advertising sexual services (effective 2014-12-06)

Other Violations Involving Violence or the Threat of Violence Robbery

Robbery to steal firearm (effective 2008-05-01)
Extortion
Intimidation of a Justice System Participant or a Journalist (effective 2008-04-01) Intimidation of
a Non-Justice System Participant (effective 2008-04-01)
Criminal Harassment (effective 1994-01-01)
Indecent/Harassing Communications (effective 2008-04-01)
Utter Threats to Person (effective 1998-01-01)
Explosives Causing Death/Bodily Harm (effective 1998-01-01)
Arson – Disregard for Human Life (effective 1999-05-01)
Other Violations against the person

CRIMES AGAINST PROPERTY

Arson
Break and Enter
Break and Enter to steal firearm (effective 2008-05-01)
Break and Enter a motor vehicle (firearm) (effective 2008-05-01)
Theft over \$5,000
Theft of a motor vehicle over \$5,000 (effective 2004-01-01) (expired 2011-04-28) Theft over
\$5,000 from a motor vehicle (effective 2004-01-01)
Shoplifting over \$5,000 (effective 2008-04-01)
Motor Vehicle Theft (effective 2011-04-29)
Theft \$5,000 or under

Theft of a motor vehicle \$5,000 and under (effective 2004-01-01) (expired 2011-04-28) Theft
\$5,000 or under from a motor vehicle (effective 2004-01-01)
Shoplifting \$5,000 or under (effective 2008-04-01)
Have Stolen Goods (expired 2011-04-28)
Trafficking in Stolen Goods over \$5,000 (effective 2011-04-29)
Possession of Stolen Goods over \$5,000 (effective 2011-04-29)
Trafficking in Stolen Goods \$5,000 and under (effective 2011-04-29)
Possession of Stolen Goods \$5,000 and under (effective 2011-04-29)
Fraud
Identity
Identity
Mischief
Mischief
Mischief
Mischief
Mischief
Mischief
Altering/Destroying/Removing a vehicle identification number (effective 2011-04-29)

OTHER CRIMINAL CODE VIOLATIONS

Prostitution
Bawdy House (expired 2014-12-05)
Living off the avails of prostitution of a person under 18 (effective 1998-01-01) (expired 2014-12-05)
Procuring (expired 2014-12-05)

Theft (effective 2010-01-08) Fraud (effective 2010-01-08)

over \$5,000 (expired 2008-03-31)
\$5,000 or under (expired 2008-03-31)
in relation to cultural property
to Religious Property Motivated by Hate (effective 2008-04-01) relating to war memorials
(effective 2014-06-19)

Obtains/Communicates with a Person Under 18 for Purpose of Sex (effective 1998-01-01)
(expired 2014-12-05)
Other Prostitution (expired 2014-12-05)
Communicating to provide sexual services for consideration (effective 2014-12-06)
Stopping or impeding traffic for the purpose of offering, providing or obtaining sexual services
for consideration (effective 2014-12-06)

Disorderly Houses, Gaming and Betting Betting House

Gaming House
Other Gaming and Betting
Common Bawdy House (effective 2014-12-06)

Offensive Weapons Explosives

Prohibited (expired 1998-12-01)
Restricted (expired 1998-12-01)
Firearm Transfers/Serial Numbers (expired 1998-12-01)
Other Offensive Weapons (expired 1998-12-01)
Using Firearms/Imitation (expired 2008-03-31)
Weapons Trafficking (effective 1998-12-01)
Weapons Possession Contrary to Order (effective 1998-12-01) Possession of Weapons (effective 1998-12-01)
Unauthorized importing/exporting of weapons (effective 1998-12-01) Pointing a Firearm (expired 2008-03-31)
Firearms Documentation/Administration (effective 1998-12-01) Unsafe Storage of Firearms (effective 1998-12-01)

Other Criminal Code
Failure to Comply with Conditions
Counterfeiting Currency
Disturb the Peace
Escape Custody
Indecent Acts
Child pornography
Making, or distribution of child pornography
Voyeurism (expired 2008-03-31)
Public Morals
Luring a Child Via a Computer (expired 2008-03-31)
Obstruct Public Peace Officer
Prisoner Unlawfully At Large
Trespass at Night
Failure to Attend Court
Breach of Probation
Threatening/Harassing Phone Calls (expired 2008-03-31)
Utter Threats Against Property or Animals (effective 2008-04-01)
Advocating Genocide (effective 2008-04-01)
Public Incitement Of Hatred (effective 2008-04-01)
Unauthorized recording of a movie/purpose of sale, rental, commercial distribution (2007-06-

22)

Offences Against Public Order (Part II CC)
Property or Services for Terrorist Activity (effective 2002-01-01)
Freezing of Property, Disclosure, Audit (effective 2002-01-01)
Participate in Activity of Terrorist Group (effective 2002-01-01)
Facilitate Terrorist Activity (effective 2002-01-01)
Instruction/Commission of Act of Terrorism (effective 2002-01-01) Harbour or Conceal Terrorist (effective 2002-01-01) (expired 2013-07-14) Hoax – Terrorism (effective 2005-01-01)
Advocating/Promoting Terrorism Offence (effective 2015-07-18)

Firearms and other offensive weapons (Part III CC)
Leaving Canada to participate in activity of terrorist group (effective 2013-07-15)
Leaving Canada to facilitate terrorist activity (effective 2013-07-15)
Leaving Canada to commit offence for terrorist group (effective 2013-07-15)
Leaving Canada to commit offence that is terrorist activity (effective 2013-07-15) Concealing

person who carried out terrorist activity that is a terrorism offence for which that person is liable to imprisonment for life (effective 2013-07-15)

Concealing person who carried out terrorist activity that is a terrorism offence for which that person is liable to any punishment other than life (effective 2013-07-15)

Concealing person who is likely to carry out terrorist activity (effective 2013-07-15) Offences Against the Administration of Law and Justice (Part IV CC)

Sexual Offences, Public Morals and Disorderly Conduct (Part V CC)

Invasion of Privacy (Part VI CC)

Disorderly Houses, Gaming and Betting (Part VII CC) (expired 2008-03-31)

Offences Against the Person and Reputation (Part VIII CC)

Offences Against the Rights of Property (Part IX CC)

Fraudulent Transactions Relating to Contracts and Trade (Part X CC)

Intimidation of Justice System Participant (expired 2008-03-31)

Wilful and Forbidden Acts in Respect of Certain Property (Part XI CC)

Offences Related to Currency (Part XII CC)

Proceeds of Crime (Part XII.2 CC) (effective 1998-01-01)

Attempts, Conspiracies, Accessories (Part XIII CC)

Instruct Offence for Criminal Organization (effective 2002-01-01)

Commit Offence for Criminal Organization (effective 2002-01-01)

Participate in Activities of Criminal Organization (effective 2002-01-01)

Recruitment of members by a criminal organization (effective 2014-09-06)

All other Criminal Code (includes Part XII.1 CC)

CONTROLLED DRUGS AND SUBSTANCES ACT (EFFECTIVE 1997-06-01)

Possession Heroin

Cocaine

Other Controlled Drugs and Substances Act

Cannabis

Methamphetamine (Crystal Meth) (effective 2008-04-01) Methylenedioxyamphetamine (Ecstasy) (effective 2008-04-01)

Trafficking Heroin

Cocaine

Other Controlled Drugs and Substances Act

Cannabis

Methamphetamine (Crystal Meth) (effective 2008-04-01) Methylenedioxyamphetamine (Ecstasy) (effective 2008-04-01)

Importation and Exportation Heroin

Cocaine

Other Controlled Drugs and Substances Act

Cannabis

Methamphetamine (Crystal Meth) (effective 2008-04-01) Methylenedioxyamphetamine (Ecstasy) (effective 2008-04-01)

Production
Heroin (effective 2008-04-01)

Cocaine (effective 2008-04-01)
Other Controlled Drugs and Substances Act (effective 2008-04-01) Cannabis

Methamphetamine (Crystal Meth) (effective 2008-04-01) Methylenedioxyamphetamine (Ecstasy)
(effective 2008-04-01)

Precursor/Equipment (crystal meth, ecstasy) (effective 2011-06-26) Proceeds of Crime (CDSA)
(expired 2002-02-01)

OTHER FEDERAL STATUTE VIOLATIONS

Bankruptcy Act Income Tax Act Canada Shipping Act Canada Health Act Customs Act
Competition Act Excise Act

Young Offenders Act (expired 2003-03-31)
Youth Criminal Justice Act (effective 2003-04-01)
Immigration & Refugee Protection Act
Human Trafficking (effective 2011-04-29)
Human Smuggling fewer than 10 persons (effective 2011-04-29) Human Smuggling 10 persons
or more (effective 2011-04-29) Firearms Act (effective 1998-12-01)
National Defence Act (effective 2002-01-01)
Other Federal Statutes

TRAFFIC VIOLATIONS

Dangerous Operation Causing Death

Causing Bodily Harm
Operation of Motor Vehicle, Vessel or Aircraft

Flight From Peace Officer (effective 2000-03-30) Causing Death

Causing Bodily-Harm Flight From Peace Officer

Impaired Operation/Related Violations Causing Death (Alcohol)

Causing Death (Drugs)
Causing Bodily Harm (Alcohol)
Causing Bodily Harm (Drugs)
Operation of Motor Vehicle, Vessel or Aircraft or over 80 mg. (Alcohol) Operation of Motor
Vehicle, Vessel or Aircraft or over 80 mg. (Drugs) Failure to Comply or Refusal (Alcohol)
Failure to Comply or Refusal (Drugs)
Failure to Provide Blood Sample (Alcohol)
Failure to Provide Blood Sample (Drugs)

Other Criminal Code Traffic Violations

Failure to Stop or Remain (unspecified) (expired 2011-04-28) Failure to Stop Causing Death (effective 2011-04-29)

Failure to Stop Causing Bodily Harm (effective 2011-04-29) Failure to Stop or Remain (effective 2011-04-29)

Driving While Prohibited

Other Criminal Code

Street Racing

Causing Death by Criminal Negligence While Street Racing (effective 2006-12-14)

Causing Bodily Harm by Criminal Negligence While Street Racing (effective 2006-12-14)

Dangerous Operation Causing Death While Street Racing (effective 2006-12-14) Dangerous

Operation Causing Bodily Harm While Street Racing (effective 2006-12-14) Dangerous

Operation of Motor Vehicle While Street Racing (effective 2006-12-14)

Source: Statistics Canada. http://www23.statcan.gc.ca/imdb-bmdi/document/3302_D15_T9_V4-eng.pdf. Accessed 2017-06-09.

Appendix D

Computer-Aided Dispatch (CAD) Priority Level Descriptions

The following are the standard event priority definitions as approved by the British Columbia Provincial CAD Committee.

Priority 1 – Urgent Response Incidents that involve life threatening circumstances and situations that produce or is likely to produce serious bodily injury and/or death to any person.

Priority 2 - Immediate Response Incidents in progress that present the potential for injury or property damage/loss or requires immediate response due to the state of the victim or seriousness of the call.

Priority 3 - Routine Response Non- urgent routine service related calls that do not require an officer immediately but need investigation, mediation or intervention.

Priority 4 - Routine Response Where the call does not require a quick response from an officer or the call is handled over the telephone (agency dependent).

Computer-Aided Dispatch (CAD) – Codes

AB911	Abandoned 911 Calls
ABANDV	Abandoned Vehicle
ABDUC	Abduction
AIREM	Air Emergency
ALARM	Alarm
ALARMA	Alarm Airport Check Point
ALARMD	Alarm Dvers
ALARMF	Alarm False
ALARMH	Alarm Hold Up
ALARMS	Alarm Silent/Panic
ANIMAL	Animal
ANNOY	Annoying Circumstance
ARREST	Arrest
ARSON	Arson
ASLT	Assault
ALSTI	Assault in Progress
ALSTSX	Assault Sexual
ASSGP	Assist General Public
ASSMHA	Assist Mental Health Act

ASSOA	Assist Other Agency
ASSPFA	Assist/Police/Fire/Ambulance
BAIT	BAIT Car Activated
BOMB	Bomb Threat
BORDR	Border Runner
BREACH	Breach
BNE	Break and Enter
BNEI	Break and Enter In Progress
BYLAW	Bylaw
CHECK	Check Well-Being
COUNT	Counterfeit Currency
DEMON	Demonstration/Protest
DISTB	Disturbance
DNA	DNA Collection
DOMI	Domestic In Progress
DOMRPT	Domestic Report
DRUGS	Drugs
EXPLOS	Explosives
EXTORT	Extortion
FIGHT	Fight
FIREAR	Firearms (For Pickup/Transport)
FOUNDP	Found Person
FRAUD	Fraud
HARASS	Harassment
HAZARD	Hazardous Situation
HOMEIN	Home Invasion
HOSTAG	Hostage
IMPAIR	Impaired
INDEC	Indecent Act
INDUST	Industrial Accident
INSEC	Insecure Premises or Vehicle
INTELL	Intelligence Information
JUMPER	Jumper
KPEACE	Keep the Peace
LIQUOR	Liquor Act/Licensed Premises Check
MAND	Man Down (Person Down)
MARINE	Marine Incident
MISCH	Mischief
MISCHI	Mischief in Progress
MISSIC	Missing Child
MISSIP	Missing Person
MVI	Motor Vehicle Incident (Collision)
MVIHR	MVI Hit and Run
MVIINJ	MVI Injury
MVIPOL	MVI Involving Police Vehicle
NOK	Next of Kin Notifications

1033	Officer in Trouble
OCC	Other Criminal Code
OVERD	Overdose
PANHA	Panhandler
PARK	Parking
911	Police – Any Call
PROP	Property
PROST	Prostitution
PROWL	Prowler
PURSUE	Pursuit
RECVEH	Recovered Vehicle
ROBB	Robbery
ROBBI	Robbery In Progress
SCREAM	Screaming Heard
SHOPL	Shoplifter
SHOTS	Shots Fired/Heard
SIP	Subject Intoxicated in Public Place/Drunk In Public Place
SPAT	Special Attention/Detail/Event
STALK	Stalking
SUDDEN	Sudden Death
SUICID	Suicidal Person
SUSPC	Suspicious Circumstances
SUSPP	Suspicious Person
SUSV	Suspicious Vehicle
THEFT	Theft
THEFTI	Theft in Progress
THEFTV	Theft of Vehicle
THREAT	Threats
TRAFF	Traffic Incident
TRAFFS	Traffic Suspension/24 HR/12 HR/Prohibition Notice
TRANS	Transit Incident
UNWANT	Unwanted Person
WARRAN	Warrant
WEAPON	Weapon
YOUTH	Youth

Appendix E – Top 10 CAD Calls for Service by Priority Level and Jurisdictional Grouping

Top 10 CAD Calls for Service by Priority Level – Large Municipal

Large Municipal Grouping						
Top 10 CAD Calls	LM -2 (Count)	LM - 2 (Percent)	LM – 1 (Count)	LM – 1 (Percent)	LM Grouping Total (Count)	LM Grouping Total (Percent)
AB911	4,037	100.0%	25,207	100.0%	29,244	100.0%
1	43	1.1%	89	0.4%	132	0.5%
2	3,912	96.9%	12,667	50.3%	16,579	56.7%
3	61	1.5%	12,263	48.7%	12,324	42.2%
4	15	0.4%	188	0.8%	203	0.7%
5	6	0.2%	0	0.0%	6	0.1%
THEFT	5,038	100.0%	12,236	100.0%	17,274	100.0%
1	0	0.0%	4	0.1%	4	0.1%
2	55	1.1%	1,091	8.9%	1,146	6.7%
3	243	4.9%	2,929	23.9%	3,172	18.4%
4	4,738	94.1%	8180	66.9%	12,918	74.8%
5	2	0.0%	0	0.00%	2	0.0%
6	0	0.00%	32	0.3%	32	0.2%
ALARM	5,332	100.0%	9,759	100.0%	15,091	100.0%
1	14	0.3%	29	0.3%	43	0.3%
2	283	5.3%	8,510	87.2%	8,793	58.3%
3	5,009	94%	1,197	12.3%	6,206	41.2%
4	22	0.4%	23	0.3%	45	0.3%
5	2	0.1%	0	0.0%	2	0.1%
9	2	0.1%	0	0.0%	2	0.1%
TRAFF	2,048	100.0%	8,594	100.0%	10,642	100.0%
1	2	0.1%	8	0.1%	10	0.1%
2	120	5.9%	4,539	52.9%	4,659	43.8%
3	1,915	93.5%	3,648	42.5%	5,563	52.3%
4	9	0.5%	381	4.5%	390	3.7%
5	2	0.1%	0	0.0%	2	0.1%
6	0	0.0%	18	0.2%	18	0.2%
DISTB	2,340	100.0%	7,854	100.0%	10,194	100.0%
1	25	1.1%	58	0.8%	83	0.8%
2	599	25.6%	7,005	89.2%	7,604	74.6%
3	1,702	72.8%	704	9.0%	2,406	23.6%
4	12	0.5%	87	1.1%	99	1.0%
5	2	0.1%	0	0.0%	2	0.1%
ASSPFA	2,378	100.0%	6,815	100.0%	9,193	100.0%
1	29	1.2%	35	0.5%	64	0.7%
2	2,208	92.9%	4,392	64.5%	6,600	71.8%
3	102	4.3%	1,576	23.2%	1,678	18.3%

4	29	1.2%	809	11.9%	838	9.1%
5	10	0.4%	0	0.0%	10	0.1%
6	0	0.0%	3	0.1%	3	0.1%
SUSPP	2,254	100.0%	6,489	100.0%	8,743	100.0%
1	14	0.6%	15	0.3%	29	0.4%
2	785	34.9%	4,883	75.3%	5,668	64.9%
3	1,444	64.1%	1,312	20.2%	2,756	31.5%
4	10	0.5%	272	4.2%	282	3.3%
5	1	0.1%	0	0.0%	1	0.1%
6	0	0.0%	7	0.1%	7	0.1%
SUSPC	2,486	100.0%	5,819	100.0%	8,305	100.0%
1	86	3.5%	61	1.1%	147	1.8%
2	1,122	45.2%	3,151	54.2%	4,273	51.5%
3	1,261	50.7%	1,813	31.2%	3,074	37.1%
4	16	0.64%	787	13.5%	803	9.7%
5	1	0.1%	0	0.0%	1	0.1%
6	0	0.0%	7	0.1%	7	0.1%
PROP	2,601	100.0%	5,555	100.0%	8,156	100.0%
2		0.0%	25	0.5%	25	0.3%
3	130	5.0%	719	13.0%	849	10.4%
4	2,468	94.9%	4,805	86.5%	7,273	89.2%
5	1	0.1%	0	0.0%	1	0.1%
6	0	0.0%	6	0.1%	6	0.1%
7	1	0.1%	0	0.0%	1	0.1%
9	1	0.1%	0	0.0%	1	0.1%
CHECK	1,219	100.0%	6,874	100.0%	8,093	100.0%
1	7	0.6%	25	0.4%	32	0.4%
2	321	26.4%	5,795	84.3%	6,116	75.6%
3	887	72.8%	985	14.4%	1,872	23.2%
4	3	0.3%	68	1.0%	71	0.9%
5	1	0.1%	0	0.0%	1	0.1%
6	0	0.0%	1	0.0%	1	0.1%

Top 10 CAD Calls for Service by Priority Level – Medium Municipal

Medium Municipal Grouping						
Top 10 CAD Calls	MM – 1 (Count)	MM – 1 (Percent)	MM – 2 (Count)	MM – 2 (Percent)	MM Grouping Total (Count)	MM Grouping Total (Percent)
TRAFF	3,267	100.0%	1,593	100.0%	4,860	100.0%
1	4	0.1%	4	0.3%	8	0.2%
2	792	24.3%	128	8.1%	920	19.0%
3	2,395	73.3%	1,446	90.8%	3,841	79.1%

4	72	2.2%	15	1.0%	87	1.8%
5	4	0.1%	0	0.0%	4	0.1%
6	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
ASSGP	2,881	100.0%	806	100.0%	3,777	100.0%
1	11	0.4%	2	0.3%	9	0.3%
2	206	7.2%	63	7.8%	548	14.5%
3	2,630	91.3%	710	88.1%	3,171	4.0%
4	32	1.1%	31	3.9%	49	1.3%
5	2	0.1%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
6	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
THEFT	2,180	100.0%	921	100.0%	3,101	100.0%
1	2	0.1%		0.0%	2	0.1%
2	86	4.0%	20	2.2%	106	3.4%
3	1,140	52.3%	268	29.1%	1,408	45.40%
4	951	43.6%	633	68.8%	1,584	51.1%
5	1	0.1%	0	0.0%	1	0.1%
6	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
DISTB	2,036	100.0%	753	100.0%	2,789	100.0%
1	52	2.6%	8	1.1%	60	2.2%
2	753	37.0%	278	37.0%	1,031	37.0%
3	1,222	60.1%	465	61.8%	1,687	60.5%
4	9	0.5%	2	0.3%	11	0.4%
5	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
PROP	1,657	100.0%	1,013	100.0%	2,670	100.0%
2	6	0.4%	0	0.0%	6	0.2%
3	241	14.6%	77	7.6%	318	11.9%
4	1,405	84.8%	935	92.3%	2,340	87.7%
5	5	0.3%	1	0.1%	6	0.2%
SIP	2,032	100.0%	324	100.0%	2,356	100.0%
1	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
2	120	5.9%	24	7.4%	144	6.1%
3	1,907	93.9%	300	92.6%	2,207	93.7%
4	4	0.0%	0	0.0%	4	0.2%
5	1	0.1%	0	0.0%	1	0.1%
7	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
AB911	1,562	100.0%	524	100.0%	2,086	100.0%
1	9	0.6%	1	0.2%	10	0.5%
2	1,507	96.5%	511	97.5%	2,018	96.8%
3	14	0.9%	7	1.4%	21	1.1%
4	30	2.0%	5	1.0%	35	1.7%
5	2	0.2%	0	0.0%	2	0.1%
SUSPC	1,443	100.0%	591	100.0%	2,034	100.0%
1	10	0.7%	0	0.0%	10	0.5%

2	240	16.7%	70	11.9%	310	15.3%
3	1,181	81.9%	513	86.8%	1,694	83.3%
4	12	0.9%	8	1.4%	20	1.0%
5	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
6	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
ALARM	1,382	100.0%	626	100.0%	2,008	100.0%
1	13	1.0%	4	0.7%	17	0.9%
2	1,144	82.8%	493	78.8%	1,637	81.5%
3	85	6.2%	126	20.2%	211	10.5%
4	139	10.1%	3	0.5%	142	7.1%
5	1	0.1%	0	0.0%	1	0.1%
9	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
ASSOA	1,236	100.0%	627	100.0%	1,863	100.0%
1	2	0.2%	0	0.0%	2	0.1%
2	37	3.0%	19	3.1%	56	3.0%
3	1,186	6.0%	565	90.1%	1,751	94.0%
4	10	0.8%	43	6.7%	53	2.9%
5	1	0.1%	0	0.0%	1	0.1%
6	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%

Top 10 CAD Calls for Service by Priority Level – Municipal Rural

Municipal Rural Grouping								
Top 10 CAD Calls	MR -1 (Count)	MR -1 (Percent)	MR -2 (Count)	MR -2 (Percent)	MR -3 (Count)	MR -3 (Percent)	MR Grouping Total (Count)	MR Grouping Total (Percent)
TRAF F	4,941	100.0%	483	100.0%	1,199	100.0%	6,623	100.0%
1	4	0.1%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	4	0.1%
2	2,462	49.9%	111	23.0%	255	21.3%	2,828	42.7%
3	2,414	48.9%	369	76.4%	939	78.3%	3,722	56.2%
4	59	1.2%	3	0.6%	2	0.2%	64	1.0%
5	1	0.1%	0	0.0%	3	0.3%	4	0.1%
6	1	0.1%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	1	0.1%
THEF T	4,007	100.0%	212	100.0%	513	100.0%	4,732	100.0%
1	1	0.1%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	1	0.1%
2	219	5.5%	5	2.4%	16	3.1%	240	5.1%
3	3,180	79.4%	67	31.6%	142	27.7%	3,389	71.6%
4	607	15.2%	140	66.1%	355	69.2%	1,102	23.3%
ASSG P	2,804	100.0%	391	100.0%	582	100.0%	3,777	100.0%
1	7	0.3%	1	0.3%	1	0.2%	9	0.3%
2	474	16.9%	25	6.4%	49	8.4%	548	14.5%
3	2,278	81.3%	363	93.0%	530	91.1%	3,171	84.0%
4	45	1.6%	2	0.5%	2	0.4%	49	1.3%

ALAR M	2,397	100.0%	179	100.0%	481	100.0%	3,057	100.0%
1	9	0.4%	2	1.1%	3	0.6%	14	0.5%
2	1,613	67.3%	166	92.8%	420	87.3%	2,199	72.0%
3	166	7.0%	9	5.1%	40	8.3%	215	7.1%
4	609	25.4%	2	1.1%	18	3.8%	629	20.6%
PROP	2,189	100.0%	230	100.0%	535	100.0%	2,954	100.0%
2	8	0.4%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	8	0.3%
3	730	33.4%	21	9.2%	36	6.8%	787	26.7%
4	1,451	66.3%	209	90.9%	499	93.3%	2,159	73.1%
DISTB	2,183	100.0%	202	100.0%	473	100.0%	2,858	100.0%
1	17	0.8%	13	6.5%	7	1.5%	37	1.3%
2	1,414	64.8%	116	57.5%	152	32.2%	1,682	58.9%
3	726	33.3%	73	36.2%	314	66.4%	1,113	39.0%
4	26	1.2%	0	0.0%	0	0.00%	26	0.9%
ASSPF A	1,770	100.0%	132	100.0%	413	100.0%	2315	100.0%
1	6	0.4%	2	1.5%	2	0.5%	10	0.5%
2	1,404	79.3%	122	92.4%	373	90.3%	1,899	82.1%
3	266	15.1%	8	6.1%	34	8.3%	308	13.3%
4	94	5.3%	0	0.0%	3	0.8%	97	4.2%
5	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	1	0.3%	1	0.1%
MVI	1,760	100.0%	181	100.0%	358	100.0%	2,299	100.0%
1	7	0.4%	1	0.6%	0	0.0%	8	0.4%
2	1,268	72.1%	75	41.5%	102	28.5%	1,445	62.9%
3	453	25.8%	105	58.0%	254	71.0%	812	35.3%
4	32	1.8%	0	0.0%	2	0.6%	34	1.5%
AB911	1,619	100.0%	232	100.0%	396	100.0%	2,247	100.0%
1	7	0.5%	3	1.3%	1	0.3%	11	0.5%
2	1,551	95.8%	210	90.5%	392	99.0%	2,153	95.9%
3	20	1.3%	17	7.4%	2	0.5%	39	1.8%
4	41	2.6%	2	0.9%	1	0.3%	44	2.0%
SUSP C	1,743	100.0%	144	100.0%	337	100.0%	2,224	100.0%
1	5	0.3%	1	0.9%	1	0.3%	7	0.3%
2	511	29.3%	28	19.5%	45	13.4%	584	26.3%
3	1,192	68.4%	113	78.5%	290	86.1%	1,595	71.8%
4	35	2.0%	2	1.4%	1	0.3%	38	1.7%

Top 10 CAD Calls for Service by Priority Level – Rural Remote

Rural/Remote Grouping								
Top 10 CAD Calls	RR - 1 (Count)	RR - 1 (Percent)	RR - 2 (Count)	RR - 2 (Percent)	RR - 3 (Count)	RR - 3 (Percent)	RR Grouping Total (Count)	RR Grouping Total (Percent)
TRAF F	367	100.0%	62	100.0%	62	100.0%	491	100.0%

1	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
2	75	20.5%	11	17.8%	18	29.1%	104	21.2%
3	292	79.6%	47	75.8%	43	69.9%	382	77.8%
4	0	0.0%	4	6.5%	1	1.6%	5	1.1%
SIP	364	100.0%	43	100.0%	39	100.0%	446	100.0%
1	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
2	13	3.6%	1	2.4%	0	0.0%	14	3.2%
3	351	96.5%	42	97.7%	38	97.5%	431	96.7%
4	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	1	2.6%	1	0.3%
ASSG P	176	100.0%	100	100.0%	84	100.0%	360	100.0%
1	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
2	9	5.1%	3	3.0%	4	4.8%	16	4.5%
3	166	94.3%	92	92.0%	80	95.3%	338	93.9%
4	1	0.6%	4	4.0%	0	0.0%	5	1.4%
5	0	0.0%	1	1.0%	0	0.0%	1	0.3%
DISTB	212	100.0%	32	100.0%	73	100.0%	317	100.0%
1	5	2.4%	0	0.0%	1	1.4%	6	1.9%
2	66	31.2%	7	21.9%	25	34.3%	98	30.9%
3	139	65.6%	24	75.0%	47	64.4%	210	66.3%
4	2	1.0%	1	3.2%	0	0.0%	3	1.0%
ASSO A	131	100.0%	67	100.0%	32	100.0%	230	100.0%
1	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
2	1	0.8%	2	3.0%	0	0.0%	3	1.3%
3	130	99.3%	65	97.0%	32	100.0%	227	98.7%
4	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
BREA CH	162	100.0%	4	100.0%	21	100.0%	187	100.0%
1	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
2	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	1	4.8%	1	0.6%
3	20	12.4%	3	75.0%	7	33.4%	30	16.1%
4	142	87.7%	1	25.0%	13	61.9%	156	83.5%
ASSPF A	121	100.0%	26	100.0%	31	100.0%	178	100.0%
1	1	0.9%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	1	0.6%
2	103	85.1%	25	96.2%	28	90.3%	156	87.7%
3	14	11.6%	1	3.9%	2	6.5%	17	9.6%
4	3	2.5%	0	0.0%	1	3.3%	4	2.3%
ALAR M	135	100.0%	1	100.0%	17	100.0%	153	100.0%
1	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
2	109	80.8%	1	100.0%	13	76.5%	123	80.4%
3	20	14.8%	0	0.0%	4	23.6%	24	15.7%
4	4	3.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	4	2.6%
5	2	1.5%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	2	1.3%
UNW ANT	80	100.0%	13	100.0%	56	100.0%	149	100.0%

1	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
2	11	13.3%	1	7.7%	3	5.4%	15	10.1%
3	69	86.3%	12	92.3%	51	91.1%	132	88.6%
4	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	1	1.8%	1	0.7%
5	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	1	1.8%	1	0.7%
AB911	116	100.0%	23	100.0%	4	100.0%	143	100.0%
1	1	0.9%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	1	0.7%
2	114	98.3%	22	95.7%	4	100.0%	140	97.9%
3	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
4	0	0.0%	1	4.4%	0	0.0%	1	0.7%
5	1	0.9%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	1	0.7%