Philippine National Police operational procedures' competence of non-commissioned junior police officers in the National Capital Region: Inputs to training program enrichment

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Abstract

This study engaged to determine the competence of the non- commissioned junior police officers in the administration of anti-criminality campaigns. The police activities underscore a very vital function and purpose of law enforcement – to protect, above all else, the human rights. The difference between the assessments of the three groups of respondents on the competency of the junior police officers on the POP, were also tested. The study utilized the descriptive research design. The respondents of this study are the non-commissioned police officers or those who are not graduates of the Philippine National Police Academy. This study used the purposive sampling technique. There were a total of 540 respondents in this study; 315 or 58.3% are junior officers; 131 or 24.3% senior officers, and 94 or 17.4% officer candidates who were enrolled for Leadership Courses in the National Capital Region Training Center (NCRTC) for the Academic Year 2016- 2017. These respondents are assigned in the National Capital Region Police Office (NCRPO). A researcher-made questionnaire was the main instrument in gathering the data necessary for the study which was based on the PNP Operations Manual in March 2010. Research experts validated the content of the questionnaire. The respondents- JPOs, SPOs, and OCs' assessments on the indicators are Significant. The JPOs may have been too complacent in assessing their competency on the POP, while their seniors- the SPOs and OCs, think otherwise, as having numerous items to be improved/ enhanced on. These further explain that being novice police officers (the JPOs), they need to undergo further training for skills that develop and improve their knowledge in handling cases and situations. On the other hand, the Special Procedures infer that the JPOs themselves agree to have challenges in handling the situations under the Special Procedures indicator, as validated by the SPOs and OCs.

Keywords: competence, police officer, training program, documentary analysis

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1. Introduction

This study was engaged to determine the competence of the non- commissioned junior police officers in the administration of anti-criminality campaigns. The police activities underscore a very vital function and purpose of law enforcement – to protect, above all else, human rights. The difference between the assessments of the three groups of respondents on the competency of the junior police officers on the POP, were also tested. The study utilized the descriptive research design. The respondents of this study are the non-commissioned police officers or those who are not graduates of the Philippine National Police Academy. This study used the purposive sampling technique. There were a total of 540 respondents in this study; 315 or 58.3% are junior officers; 131 or 24.3% senior officers, and 94 or 17.4% officer candidates who were enrolled for Leadership Courses in the National Capital Region Training Center (NCRTC) for the Academic Year 2016- 2017. These respondents are assigned to the National Capital Region Police Office (NCRPO).

A researcher-made questionnaire was the main instrument in gathering the data necessary for the study which was based on the PNP Operations Manual in March 2010. Research experts validated the content of the questionnaire. To answer the specific questions identified in Chapter 1 and to test the hypotheses as well as to facilitate the analyses of the data gathered through the survey questionnaire, applicable statistical tools like the Frequency (f) and Percentage (%) distributions were used to determine the percentage of the three groups of respondents. The following conclusions, based on the findings of the study, are drawn:

The NCJOs are Highly Competent as to avoiding firing a moving vehicle except when its occupants pose imminent danger of causing death or injury to the police officer or any other person, and that the use of firearm does not create a danger to the public and outweighs the likely benefits of its non-use; securing the site of confrontation, takes photographs, checks whether the situation still poses imminent danger, evacuates the wounded to the nearest hospital, ensures that all persons who died on the spot are not moved from their original position, keeps in isolation the suspects, conducts debriefing on all involved PNP operatives, and submits After-Operations Report in case of an armed confrontation. However, maintaining an official police blotter where all types of operational and undercover dispatches shall be recorded, and in using peaceful means including the use of megaphones or any other similar instruments to influence/warn the offenders/suspects to stop and/or peacefully give up.

The JPOs, in terms of Basic Procedures, are strong in terms of avoiding firing a moving vehicle except when its occupants pose imminent danger of causing death or injury to the police officer or any other person, and that the use of firearm does not create a danger to the public and outweighs the likely benefits of its non-use, and in issuing a warning before he could use force against an offender. On the other hand, the JPOs, as assessed by the SPOs, are Moderately Competent as to securing the site of confrontation, takes photographs, checks whether the situation still poses imminent danger, evacuates the wounded to the nearest hospital, ensures that all persons who died on the spot are not moved from their original position, keeps in isolation the suspects, conducts debriefing on all involved PNP operatives, and submits After-Operations Report in case of an armed confrontation, and in coordinating personally or through an official representative, with the Police Office within whose jurisdiction the operation shall be conducted.

Finally, the Officer Candidates' (OC) assessed the JPOs as Competent. It shall be noted that the OCs assessment on the JPOs competency on the POP is somewhat the same as the SPOs assessment as to JPOs strengths (e.g., avoids firing a moving vehicle…, and weaknesses (e.g., coordinates personally or through an

official representative...,).

The Non- Commissioned Junior Police Officers in terms of Basic Procedures, as assessed by the JPOs themselves, interpreted as Highly Competent. This data puts a high regard on the strength of the JPOs in terms of performing the duties of the police during custodial investigation, and performing a pat-down search if the individual has been legitimately stopped with reasonable suspicion and when the police officer has reason to believe that the individual possesses weapon/s on his person and poses a threat to the police officer's or another person's safety, among others. However, among the weaknesses of the JPOs are observing proper procedures in serving Warrant of Arrest or warrantless arrest, and protecting and preserving the Crime Scene. Meanwhile, the SPOs' rating of the JPOs is Competent, which engages the JPOs as strong in terms of performing the duties of the police during custodial investigation, which is the same as the JPOs assessment; and in upholding the policies and procedures in the admission, visitation and release of detainees.

On the other hand, the SPOs think that stopping an individual for the purpose of conducting a spot check/ accosting only when reasonable suspicion exists, as among the weak items. The JPOs are Competent in terms of the assessment on Basic Procedures of the POP. The OCs think that the JPOs strength lies in the protecting and preserving the Crime Scene, which as per the JPOs is the least of their competencies. Furthermore, the JPOs, as assessed by the OCs, are somewhat challenged in stopping an individual for the purpose of conducting a spot check/ accosting only when reasonable suspicion exists, the same as the assessment of the SPOs.

The Assessments on the POP Competency of the Non- Commissioned Junior Police Officers in terms of Special Procedures points to the rating of Highly Competent in terms of this aspect. This means that the JPOs believe that they are strong in terms of following general, specific, operational tasks, and guidelines of Civil Disturbance Management, and responding to bomb, bomb threat and bomb incident emergency response and adheres to procedures and guidelines, among others. Somewhat a challenge for the JPOs, as assessed by themselves, include reporting and investigating properly child abuse cases, and establishing authority, composition, guidelines, and procedures in the conduct of Checkpoints.

The SPOs' assessment on this aspect is interpreted as Competent. This means that the JPOs are strong in the implementing orders on demolitions, injunctions, and other similar orders, and providing police assistance in the implementation of final decisions or orders of the courts in civil cases, of quasi-judicial bodies and of administrative bodies on controversies within their jurisdiction. The SPOs too, agrees with the JPOs that they are somewhat weak in terms of reporting and investigating properly child abuse cases, and in responding to bomb, bomb threat and bomb incident emergency response and adheres to procedures and guidelines.

The OCs' verbal interpretation of Competent. This implies that the OCs assesses the JPOs as strong in terms of implementing orders on demolitions, injunctions, and other similar orders, and establishing authority, composition, guidelines, and procedures in the conduct of Checkpoints, which were deemed by the JPOs as among their weak points. However, the OCs agree with the JPOs as weak as to reporting and investigating properly child abuse cases. The Assessments on the POP Competency of the Non- Commissioned Junior Police Officers in terms of Miscellaneous Procedures' is interpreted as Competent, as assessed by the JPO themselves. This indicates that the JPOs strength lies in their competency in adopting the PACER procedures in responding to Kidnapping Cases, and adhering to Training Manual on the Investigation of Crimes Involving Women and Children. However, the JPOs themselves think that they find challenges in following Airport Security Operational Procedures.

Adhering to Training Manual on the Investigation of Crimes Involving Women and Children, and supporting CIDG investigation manual, are among the strengths of the JPOs, as assessed by the SPOs. The SPOs also think that the JPOs are somewhat weak in terms of following Airport Security Operational Procedures, agreeing to the assessment of the JPO- respondents. Nevertheless, these strengths and weaknesses are rated low or Moderately Competent, by the SPOs and needs to be reinforced in this aspect. This information is agreed to by the OCs as garnering a rating of Moderately Competent. This points to the indicators that are strong like in adhering to Training Manual on the Investigation of Crimes Involving Women and Children and implementing the PNP CL

SOCO Manual. However, low as to following PSPG manual, and in coordinating Inter – Agency Protocol for Explosives Related Incidents Investigation.

The respondents- JPOs, SPOs, and OCs' assessments on the indicators are Significant. The JPOs may have been too complacent in assessing their competency on the POP, while their seniors- the SPOs and OCs, think otherwise, as having numerous items to be improved/ enhanced on. These further explain that being novice police officers (the JPOs), they need to undergo further training for skills that develop and improve their knowledge in handling cases and situations. On the other hand, the Special Procedures infer that the JPOs themselves agree to have challenges in handling the situations under the Special Procedures indicator, as validated by the SPOs and OCs.

1.1 Sub-division

Establishing public safety is among the local government's fundamental obligations to its citizens. The safety of one's person and security of one's property are widely viewed as basic human rights and are essential to the community's overall quality of life. The police officer, dubbed as authorities to safeguard these basic human rights should therefore be competent enough to handle community and citizen-related problems. Police departments in every country around the world establish specific operational procedures that hopes to be able to equip all police officers with the appropriate mechanics and procedures that will enable them to cope and respond efficiently and effectively to crimes everyone has become familiar with and the new wave of dramatic crisis situations related to terrorism, cyber-crimes and economic downturns. Further, an effective Operations Manual or procedures should be able to clearly lay down all fundamental duties, functions and basic procedures to guide police officers. In this manner, clear command and individual responsibilities will be set and the public will be assured of accountability in delivery of public safety services (Purisima, 2013).

When every citizenry is not, and does not feel, reasonably safe, other critical local government functions such as economic development, government finance, public education, stable housing, and basic local government services become that much more difficult to provide. In short, a community's reputation for public safety heavily influences its appeal as a place to raise a family or open a business. The culture of a police department reflects what the department believes in as an organization. These beliefs are reflected in the department's recruiting and selection practices, policies and procedures, training and development, and ultimately, in the actions of its officers in law enforcement situations. Clearly, all police departments have a culture. The key question is whether that culture has been carefully developed or simply allowed to develop without benefit of thought or guidance. There are police agencies, for example, where police use of force is viewed as abnormal. Thus, when it is used, the event receives a great deal of administrative attention. Such a response reflects the culture of that department: the use of force is viewed and responded to as an atypical occurrence (Logan, 2014).

In Contrast, such a department with one which does not view the use of force as abnormal. In the latter case, there may be inadequate or poorly understood policies providing officers with guidelines regarding the use of force. There probably is no administrative procedure for investigating incidents where force is used. And, most importantly, the culture of the department is such that officers come to view the use of force as an acceptable way of resolving conflict (Geller, 2012). It is clear that the culture of a police department, to a large degree, determines the organization's effectiveness. That culture determines the way officers view not only their role, but also the people they serve. The key concern is the nature of that culture and whether it reflects a system of beliefs conducive to the nonviolent resolution of conflict (Botes et al., 2012).

Finally, an essential role of the police chief is to ensure that the values of the department are well articulated throughout the organization. To accomplish this, the chief as leader must ensure that there is a system to facilitate effective communication of the values. This includes recognizing and using the organization's informal structure. This is important because, in addition to the formal structure, values are transmitted through its informal process

as well as its myths, legends, metaphors, and the chief's own personality (Goldstein, 2005). Each police department should develop a set of policing values that reflects its own community. Fortunately, there is a general set of policing values that can serve as a framework for any department or police units to build upon to meet local needs and administer anti- criminality campaigns

1.2 Third level division

The Philippine National Police (PNP), in light of the presidential guidance, through the Department of the Interior and Local Government (DILG) and the National Police Commission (NAPOLCOM), brings mission-critical aspects of a police organization in terms of policies, institutional arrangements, processes and resources for the performance of the policeman's main functions. Anent to this, the Country's police force wrote the PNP Operational Procedures (versions 2010 and 2013) with the end goal of providing guidelines for the effective implementation of the laws that safeguard the rights of every citizen in the Philippines. This study therefore, engages to determine the competence of the non- commissioned junior officers in the administration of anti-criminality campaigns. The police activities underscore a very vital function and purpose of law enforcement – to protect, above all else, human rights. The collaboration between the DILG, NAPOLCOM, and the PNP on protection of life is a human right. Safety and security from all forms of danger is a human right. The protection of full enjoyment of all rights is, in itself, a human right.

The National Capital Region Police Office (NCRPO), which is also under the auspices of the PNP, is mandated to implement the guidelines, among all other functions, as set forth by PNP Operational Procedures (POP). The Police Units in the National Capital Region (NCR) shall also implement and administer the functions and regular activities as set for the Police Department. Policing agencies, such as the NCRPO, are unlikely to be successful in creating partnerships to address violent extremism until they establish trusting relationships with the communities they serve. This is especially true with respect to protecting the communities, which have experienced significant trauma brought about by political and social upheavals, and have deep concerns about preventing crimes in the Country. These goals by the NCRPO are in partnership with the National Capital Region Training Center (NCRTC), an arm of the Philippine Public Safety College (PPSC) of the PNP, which caters to education and training needs of the police force in the NCRPO.

It is in this premise that the researcher, as a member of the PNP, hopes to measure the competencies of the junior police officers in the NCRPO in the administration of the anti- criminality campaigns in the eyes of the non- commissioned junior police themselves, the senior officers, and the officer candidates in bringing the Police Operations that encompass a wide range of activities, particularly patrol and traffic operations, implementation of special laws, command and control, civil disturbance, disaster management, terrorism, deployment of troops, internal security operations and community-oriented policing, with due regard to human rights. Measuring these competencies are essential to performing effective police duties in the community.

2. Citations

It is imperative that this study define the word "Police" and "Policing". "Policing" is a set of process with a specific social function, while "Police" refers to the particular kind of institution carrying out the process. When talking about the word "Policing", people will relate it with social control, "a function of maintaining social control in society" (Chan et al., 2014), "the efforts to provide security through surveillance and the threat of sanctioning" (Spitzer, 2007) and "the set of activities directed at preserving the security of a particular social order" (Reiner, 2007).

Various definitions show that the core agendum of "Policing" is to maintain social control, however, this definition is too vague that it has limited value for further investigation. When applying the concept of "Policing", it involves a wide range of tasks for the police to carry out their policing duties. These tasks are considered as the "microscopic definitions of policing". The list of tasks should include all activities that could

contribute to the maintenance of social order, for example, not exhaustive, crime fighting, crime prevention, traffic management, public order event management, and media liaison (Wong, 2012).

Competence is a set of skills that address the human aspects of modern policing. The service pledge of a police officer is to 'Serve with Pride and Care' (Lovell, 2007). Striving to meet mounting public expectations, most police agencies have embarked on the journey to become a service-oriented organization since the 1990s (Martin, 2000). However, officers gradually found that conflicts with the public were rising during their ordinary everyday duties, when they requested members of the public to produce identity or driving documents, and during interaction with crime victims and witnesses (Glen et al., 2003). Traffic officers encountered particular difficulties as their duties of issuing fixed penalty tickets and prosecuting drivers for traffic law violations tended to result in conflict and complaints. The consequences of such conflict and complaints were stress and frustration in officers as well as grave concerns among senior police management over achieving the organizational aspiration to serve the community by providing a quality service (Lu Dale, 2007).

Loader et al. (2003) engages that police management realized that police professionalism had evolved to require not only the qualities of bravery, physical strength and command abilities in law and order situations but also expertise in interpersonal interactions to secure citizen compliance and restore order in emotionally charged situations. The pressing issue for the Force to ponder was: after promoting a service culture and equipping officers with service delivery skills, how could the next level of professional competency be inculcated in order to meet the changing needs of a dynamic society.

In the Philippines, Versoza (2010) emphasizes that the PNP Operational Procedures (POP) Manual should be able to equip all police officers with the appropriate mechanics and procedures that will enable them to cope and respond efficiently and effectively to crimes everyone has become familiar with and the new wave of dramatic crisis situations related to terrorism, cybercrimes and economic downturns. Further, an effective Operations Manual should be able to clearly lay down all fundamental duties, functions and basic procedures to guide police officers. In this manner, clear command and individual responsibilities will be set and the public will be assured of accountability in delivery of public safety services. Thus, it has become vital for the Philippine National Police (PNP) to instill a new level of PNP Operational Procedures (POP) in its manual in 2010, and further revised in 2013.

Purisima (2013), the then PNP Police Director General emphasized that the police force has been facing a great challenge- to abide by the law that they enforce. Simple as it may seem, the challenge is more often easier said than done. With the growing security demands of a rapidly changing society, the task of the Philippine National Police (PNP) becomes even more difficult. While the Manual was revisited only on March 2010, new laws, issuances and incidents have occurred, which prompted the immediate update and revision of the Manual (Monteaguado, 2013). The PNP leadership deemed it urgent to review and revise the existing PNP Police Operational Procedures to ensure that each provision is clear to all police personnel as well as followed to the letter. Also, the PNP Thrust CODE-P was conceptualized, which seeks to enhance the Competence of every policeman, redefine and reform the Organization, instill Discipline, realize Excellence and institute Professionalism at all levels of the organizations (Purisima, 2013).

Republic Act 6975 "Department of the Interior and Local Government Act of 1990" Sec. 24. Powers and Functions. – the PNP shall have the following powers and functions: (a) Enforce all laws and ordinances relative to the protection of lives and properties; (b) Maintain peace and order and take all necessary steps to ensure public safety; (c) Investigate and prevent crimes, effect the arrest of criminal offenders, bring offenders to justice and assist in their prosecution; (d) Exercise the general powers to make arrest, search and seizure in accordance with the Constitution and pertinent laws; (e) Detain an arrested person for a period not beyond what is prescribed by law, informing the person so detained of all his rights under the Constitution; (f) Issue licenses for the possession of firearms and explosives in accordance with law; (g) Supervise and control the training and operations of security agencies and issue licenses to operate security agencies, and to security guards and private

detectives, for the practice of their professions; and (h) Perform such other duties and exercise all other functions as may be provided by law (POP, 2013).

2.1 General Procedures

The role of police from both a theoretical and practical perspective has been the subject of much interest since the earliest organized police forces were created in the United States. Because the police are agents of the government in a nation founded upon very closely held principles of liberty, their role and authority have, perhaps not surprisingly, faced a healthy level of scrutiny which has evolved over time. Like the law itself, police officers play a significant role in regulating social behavior, maintaining limits on individual freedom and working to solve disputes. More controversial is the debate regarding the role of police in protecting the interests of those in power and the use of physical force to accomplish legal objectives. Policing as an institution certainly did not place itself in this tenuous position voluntarily, but nonetheless finds itself there through a confluence of various historical, political, social and cultural factors. Given this unalterable fact, the issue thus becomes one of operating within existing and emerging constraints (Thompson, 2012).

Wallace (2011) in his article entitled 'Introduction of a Community Involvement Component in Policing in Trinidad and Tobago: Reality or Rhetoric?', the aim of all modern states is to ensure that its borders are safe and secure from foreign intervention and that its citizens are protected from crime, fear of crime and deviance. With this in mind, the state coercive powers are legally vested in local law enforcement agencies, namely the Police. They are tasked with the onerous responsibility of maintaining law and order and the preservation of peace. The Police are therefore situated at the gateway of the Criminal Justice System and their task is a conundrum of complexities, because crime is complex".

Police officers who have the orientation of balancing the enforcement activities and good police work with humane caring for the community and values formation and trusting relationships as means to solve security problems and control crimes. In this way, the public, whom they swore to serve and protect, will see them as trustworthy police officers committed to their job (Scrivner, 2006). The responsibility of every police officer is to serve the public and protect life and property. No police operation shall be conducted in order to serve or protect the illegal activity of a particular person, group or criminal syndicate. All PNP personnel shall respect the human rights and dignity of the suspect/s during police operations (Rule 1, POP, 2013).

As an officer expected to put on the highest of esteem, a police officer is unless otherwise directed, members of the department, while on duty, will wear the uniforms and equipment issued by the department and prescribed by the Chief of Police. Uniforms will be worn in their entirety and in their intended fashion, and will be kept clean, well-brushed and pressed. The badge and nameplate are to be displayed on the outermost garment being worn by the uniformed officer. Non-uniformed personnel will affix the badge to their jacket pocket or lapel, or to their belt while at a crime scene or police operation. Buttons and other metal accessories will be clean and bright. Uniform coats must be buttoned or zippered at all times when on duty. Unauthorized objects such as sunglasses, cigarette holders, and the like may not be attached to any part of the uniform. Officers will be well groomed and present a professional appearance to maintain the public's trust and respect. Both the self-esteem generated in the individual and the respect commanded from the public they serve promote the excellent reputation of the department (Anne Arundel County Maryland, 2017).

In the Philippines, a police officer shall always wear the agency prescribed uniform which is appropriate for the kind of police operation to be undertaken. When wearing the police uniform, a police officer shall, at all times, appear presentable, smart and well-groomed. While on actual patrol duties, he shall refrain from eating along the sidewalks, smoking and reading newspapers (Rule 2, POP, 2013). Every police officer on patrol, whether on board a vehicle or on foot patrol, must always carry with him a police notebook, a pen and the Miranda Warning Card. The notebook, which is approximately pocket-sized, will be used to inscribe important events that transpire during his tour of duty (Rule 2.3, POP, 2013). Every police officer shall carry in his

prescribed rig a non-lethal weapon (pepper spray, baton or stun gun), which shall be primarily used in a non-armed confrontation with an uncooperative and unruly offender during the arrest (Rule 2.4, POP, 2013).

Over the years, police patrols have been conducted by various means to include everything from foot patrols to the use of aircraft. Of course these means are neither present nor practical in all community settings. While it is indeed useful to know the various means by which police patrols are conducted in a given community (e.g., foot, bicycle, horseback, motorized patrol), what is more important to understand is the philosophy under which they operate. Specifically, the traditional philosophy of preventive patrol, generally attributed to the early writings of O.W. Wilson, suggested that officers should conduct high-visibility random patrols, respond directly and rapidly to citizen requests for service, resolve the problem / issue at hand, and promptly return to service in order to await the next call for assistance (Naito et al., 2014).

In the world of police work, at least one thing is certain – the police cannot prevent all crimes in all places at all times. From this certainty emerges the practical need for follow up investigations typically conducted by detectives or in some instances the responding officers themselves. Another equally certain truth about criminal investigations in particular is that the popular media significantly distorts the realities of detective work through several television shows that tend to depict such cases as high drama events that always result in the successful resolution and prosecution of offenders (Jones, 2014).

Quite to the contrary, the vast majority of crime often goes unsolved and does not involve large-scale and time-consuming investigations. In fact, many "garden variety" criminal offenses may never even be investigated at all due to the sheer volume of cases that are reported relative to the much smaller number of detectives who are available to investigate such occurrences. Thus, the glamorized depictions of the day-to-day work that detectives do and the methods / resources at their disposal are grossly misrepresented by the popular media. Keeping in mind that most police departments in the United States have 50 or fewer officers, many such agencies lack even the most basic investigative resources let alone the support of crime scene units and the latest forensic methods and techniques (Logan, 2014).

Policing is supervising or enforcing rules or laws. Policing is done by a police force or police service which is an organized civil force for maintaining order, preventing and detecting crime, and enforcing the laws. A police organization is a service intensive organization with a significant proportion of its employees working in direct contact with its customers, the general public (Waddington & Wright, 2010). PNP (Philippine National Police) members shall perform their duties with dedication, thoroughness, efficiency, enthusiasm, determination, and manifest concern for public welfare, and shall refrain from engaging in any activity which shall conflict with their duties as public servants. PNP members and their immediate family members shall be encouraged to actively get involved in religious, social and civic activities to enhance the image of the organization without affecting their official duties (PNP Ethical Doctrine, 2010).

Accountability is a vital element of American policing. Both individual officers and law enforcement agencies should be held to account for their actions. Effective accountability procedures are essential if the police are to achieve their goals of lawfulness and legitimacy, as defined by The National Academy of Sciences. Lawfulness refers to compliance with the formal requirements of the law, including statutes and court decisions. Legitimacy refers to the perception that police conduct is both lawful and consistent with public expectations (National Research Council, 2004). Lawfulness and legitimacy, in turn, are essential if the police are to achieve their goals of reducing crime and disorder, enhancing the quality of neighborhood life, and serving community needs. A lack of legitimacy inhibits the development of working partnerships that are an essential ingredient in community policing and problem-oriented policing (Scott, 2010). Contrary to the popular view that effective crime control and respect for constitutional principles are competing values in policing (Packer, 2008), experts today increasingly recognize that lawful conduct and accountability are essential for crime-fighting (Bayley, 2012)

It is a fundamental principal of a democratic society that the police should be held to account for their

actions. Accountability includes both what the police do and how they perform. Agency-level accountability involves the performance of law enforcement agencies with respect to controlling crime and disorder and providing services to the public (National Institute of Justice, 2009). Individual-level accountability involves the conduct of police officers with respect to lawful, respectful, and equal treatment of citizens. The first accountability procedure to be considered involves the direction and control officer use of police authority through formal agency policies. This approach, generically known as administrative rulemaking, is a basic feature of modern police management, if not all public and private sector organizations. Administrative rulemaking consists of three elements: specifying approved and forbidden actions in written policies; requiring officers to file written reports on specific actions; requiring administrative review of officer reports (Walker, 2013).

The discussion that follows examines a few selected aspects of police discretion that are covered by administrative rulemaking. They are selected in part because they are particularly relevant to this discussion. A comprehensive review would include all critical incidents where the exercise of police authority poses some potential danger to the life, liberty, or safety of citizens. Administrative rulemaking first developed with regard to the use of deadly force. Over the last three decades it has extended to the use of non-lethal force, vehicle pursuits, domestic violence incidents, the deployment of canines, and other actions. Administrative rulemaking in policing is most highly developed in the area of police use of deadly force. Departmental policies on this subject are arguably the most detailed of any area of police conduct. Despite some variations, a rough national consensus currently exists on the best policy, specifically that the use of deadly force should be limited to the defense of the life of the officer or other citizens. At the same time, the literature on the effectiveness of deadly force policies is arguably larger than any other area of police conduct (Geller & Scott, 2012).

One of the most important aspects of securing the crime scene is to preserve the scene with minimal contamination and disturbance of physical evidence. The initial response to an incident should be expeditious and methodical. The safety and physical well-being of officers and other individuals, in and around the crime scene, are the initial responding officer(s)' first priority. After controlling any dangerous situations or persons, the initial responding officer(s)' next responsibility is to ensure that medical attention is provided to injured persons while minimizing contamination of the scene (Wilson et al., 2010). Controlling, identifying and removing persons at the crime scene, and limiting the number of persons who enter the crime scene and the movement of such persons is an important function of the initial responding officer(s) in protecting the crime scene. Defining and controlling boundaries provide a means for protecting and securing the crime scene(s). The number of crime scenes and their boundaries are determined by their location(s) and the type of crime. Boundaries are established beyond the initial scope of the crime scene(s) with the understanding that the boundaries can be reduced in size if necessary but cannot be as easily expanded (Teddlie et al., 2003).

Briefing the investigator(s) taking charge assists in controlling the crime scene, helps establish further investigative responsibilities and assists with the managing of resources. All activities conducted and observations made at the crime scene must be documented as soon as possible after the event to preserve information. Setting up a location where crime scene investigation activities can be coordinated, media meetings can be held, and team meetings can occur is very valuable (Smith, 2009). This command post provides a central location for crime scene investigation activities and assessment of resources. The activities also relate to ensuring that other key investigative participants are told of the investigation and included in activities as needed. The timely interviewing of witnesses is crucial to the solution of a crime. Witnesses to crimes must be identified, secured, questioned at the scene, if applicable, and processed according to departmental regulations (Poster, 2006).

The use of a firearm is justified if the offender poses imminent danger of causing death or injury to the police officer or other persons. The use of firearms is also justified under the doctrines of self-defense, defense of a relative, and defense of a stranger. However, one who resorts to self-defense must face a real threat to his life, and the peril sought to be avoided must be actual, imminent and real. Unlawful aggression should be present for

self-defense to be considered as a justifying circumstance. A moving vehicle shall not be fired upon except when its occupants pose imminent danger of causing death or injury to the police officer or any other person, and that the use of firearms does not create a danger to the public and outweighs the likely benefits of its non-use. In firing at a moving vehicle, the following parameters should be considered: a. The intent of the suspect/s to harm the police officer or other persons; b. The capability of the suspect/s to harm with certainty the police officer or other persons; and c. Accessibility or the proximity of the suspect/s from the police officer and other persons (Rule 8, POP, 2013).

2.2 Basic Procedures

The literature on the impact of formal policies on the exercise of police authority is extremely limited and leaves many questions unanswered. A small number of studies do meet the standards of evidence-based policy making and find that written policies that restrict the exercise of police officer discretion are effective in reducing undesirable outcomes. These studies are limited to the use of deadly force and vehicle pursuits. Some limited evidence from other studies, meanwhile, suggest that more intensive supervision reduces officer use of force. In most areas of police use of authority, however, the impact of formal policies has not been investigated.

It is an established principle in policing that first-line supervisors –sergeants– play a critical role in directing and controlling the behavior of officers in police-citizen interactions. Additionally, sergeants play a critical role in all of the other accountability mechanisms discussed in this paper. Sergeants review incident reports related to the exercise of police authority (Geller & Scott, 2012), prepare official performance evaluations (Oettmeier & Wycoff, 2010), and deliver the "interventions" in early intervention systems (Walker, 2013). Despite their importance in policing, however, sergeants have been seriously neglected in police research. The report of the National Academy of Sciences (2014), for example, is virtually silent on the subject. There is minimal research, at best, on what sergeants do and how they interact with officers under their command. Engel (2005) identified four different styles of supervision.

The issues involving the impact of first-line supervision include both individual-level and organizational-level factors. Individual-level factors involve the attitudes and supervisory styles of individual sergeants (Engel, 2005). Organizational-level factors include the ratio of sergeants to officers (generally referred to as the "span of control"). Many departments have official policies requiring a ratio of, for example, one sergeant for every eight officers. Some investigations have found that misconduct problems have occurred where departments failed to meet their own span of control standard (Bobb, 2012). Other organizational factors include the formal role of the sergeant with respect to completing use of force reports. There is little research on the impact of supervisors on officer conduct. Terrill (2011) found that close supervision was associated with lower levels of use of force by officers. A study in New York City found that close supervision resulted in lower levels of officer misconduct (Davis & Mateu-Gelabert, 2009).

Little is known about the factors that shape supervisory styles. It is not known whether they are entirely the result of individual preferences or influenced in varying degrees by organizational factors such as leadership, training, organizational culture, or other factors. The police should take action to protect citizens from harm, arrest those who commit crimes and prevent the incident from spreading to unaffected areas. Uniformed police are often the first responder, responsible at the early stages of an incident with protecting and preserving life, property, evidence and the environment. This unit focuses on matters related to the first responder to a major incident both when on- and off-duty. These first responders might also include emergency response providers, emergency management, public health, clinical care and public works personnel as well as other skilled support personnel who provide immediate support services during prevention, response and recovery operations. It may deal with how to approach emotionally disturbed or violent people (Vienna, 2011).

Police are the most visible manifestation of government authority responsible for public security, with front-line personnel – such as the patrol service, traffic, community or protection police service – in day-today

contact with citizens. The skill with which they perform their duties will determine the public perception –positive or negative – of the national police service. Their on-the-job decision-making and actions should reflect sound judgment guided by the values and ethics already discussed. This section explores how ethical and value-based decision-making should look in practice in different, and often sensitive, settings, such as in working with juveniles, victims or in cases of civil disturbance. Uniformed police must master an array of baseline skills in order to perform their duties. These include the use of equipment, communication and self-management skills and the proper use of firearms (Good Practices in Basic Police Training – Curricula Aspects, 2009).

In the pioneering study on the subject, Fyfe (2009) found that a new policy restricting the use of deadly force in the New York City Police Department was effective in reducing the overall number of firearms discharges. Additionally, the new policy did not result in any unanticipated adverse consequences such as officer deaths or injuries or an increase in the crime rate. Finally, Fyfe's data indicated only minimal attempts by officers to evade the requirements of the policy. Fyfe later played an important role in the Supreme Court case of Tennessee v. Garner (2005), and that decision spurred the adoption of restrictive shooting policies by agencies across the country (Geller & Scott, 2012).

The role and responsibilities of the first officer to arrive at a crime scene are to ensure officer safety and the safety of others present, ensure medical aid for injury, preserve and control the crime scene, notify the supervisor, identify and secure witnesses and victims; and document observations. It is the duty of the first responder to the crime scene (on many occasions this will be the uniformed police) to take all necessary steps to make certain that the scene is kept as undisturbed as possible. If there is too much movement at the scene by too many people, vital evidence is likely to be moved or destroyed. Since preserving life will take precedence over all other objectives, securing a crime scene can be very complicated. From securing the crime scene to collecting and preserving the evidence, trainees will learn the proper procedures and approved methods for locating, recovering and documenting evidence (OSCE Reference Guide to Criminal Procedure, 2006)

One of their duties is to provide the information and procedures necessary to mark or package and tag items of evidence in a manner that will suffice for identification in court. They cover the special treatment, storage and transmission of evidence found at a crime scene, in addition to explaining the "chain of custody" and the proper completion of agency forms to insure the admissibility of crime scene evidence in a court of law. Requirements for handling specific materials such as soil, liquids, firearms, minute items, clothing and restricted substances are given.

In addition to their duties, uniformed police should prevent the loss of life. Since traffic accidents are one of the primary causes of loss of life, traffic management and traffic accident prevention are common functions of the police. The uniformed police must be active in traffic education and safety to help prevent traffic accidents, especially those involving young people. It is their right and obligation, when permitted by law, to conduct basic technical spot-checks on vehicles that show basic visible problems. They need to know the proper procedures for managing traffic and an accident scene. The uniformed police should understand legislation relating to traffic-related problems and the actions required at the scene of a traffic accident. Saving lives and preventing the loss of life are key functions of the uniformed police (Vienna, 2011).

Spot Check/Accosting is the brief stopping of an individual, whether on foot or in a vehicle, based on reasonable suspicion/probable cause, for the purpose of determining the individual's identity or resolving the officer's suspicion concerning criminal activity. When accosting a suspicious person or any individual in requesting for identification, avoid taking the wallet or bag in which the cards/documents are placed. It is a norm that police officers conduct foot patrols mainly in pairs or groups. This is monitored as the police officers are frequently rotated to avoid being choosy regarding workmates on patrol as well as to encourage teamwork and tolerance. This is very crucial as it helps when they have to arrest a suspect and if they are not in a good work relationship, then the other officer may leave his or her workmate wrestling with the suspect alone and not offer

any form of assistance to apprehend the suspect.

The police force, established on 22 February 1907, by Proclamation Number 4 of 1907, is responsible for preventing and detecting crime, presenting peace, apprehending offenders and bringing them before justice, to execute court summons, subpoenas and lawful orders, to enforce all laws of the state and to collate information affecting the internal state of Swaziland. In 1907, Swaziland was under the British colonial rule. As a high commission territory, she gained her independence on 6 September 1968. There is a great deal of debate among scholars regarding any definition of "what the police do, and how they do it". Sir Robert Peel, founder of the British system of policing, succinctly stated that "the basic mission for which the police exist is to reduce crime and disorder" (Sutor, 2016).

Bain (2012) states that the citizen expects police officers to have the wisdom of Solomon, the courage of David, the strength of Sampson, the patience of Job, the leadership of Moses, the kindness of the Good Samaritan, the strategic training of Alexander, the faith of Daniel, the diplomacy of Lincoln, the tolerance of the Carpenter of Nazareth, and, finally, an intimate knowledge of every branch of natural, biological, and social sciences. If a police officer had all these, he/she might be a good police officer. These are attributes which form the characteristics of a good professional police officer biblically. Robbins (2011) states that the relationship between the organization and its staff is governed by what motivates them to work, and the fulfillment they derive from it. Job satisfaction can only be enhanced if goals or needs of individuals are met. The value of work relationships in an organization involves attaining the performance levels necessary to achieve organizational goals. It is important to maintain a good interpersonal relationship with workmates and to create trust. The RSPS advocates that police officers maintain a good work relationship amongst themselves. This is instilled during the police basic recruit training.

It is almost impossible to have collaborating evidence in court between two or more police officers if they do not maintain a good interpersonal relationship. Also, this helps in a situation when one of the officers is indisposed, as the other officer will carry on with the case as he or she was present when it occurred. According to Oshagbemi (2013), research indicates that individuals who perceive that they have better interpersonal relationships with co-workers report higher levels of job satisfaction. Greenberg and Baron (2013) note that trust is a person's degree of confidence in the words and actions of another. A police officer must be trustworthy as he or she undertakes different tasks like conducting speed traps, arresting criminals or any offender, and even seizing exhibits. If he or she decides to take bribes or receive kickbacks, then his or her interpersonal relationship will be questionable and trust will be lost.

Giller (2012) argues that the word "management" comes from Latin and means "hand" and is typified by the word "control". Management is the process of efficiently achieving organizational objectives with and through people (Decenzo and Robbins (2015). Moreover, the definition given by Torrington, Hall and Taylor (2015) for the two terms mentioned hereunder implies that the two terms can be used interchangeably: Personnel management is most realistically seen as a series of activities enabling working men/women and their employer organizations to reach agreements about the nature and objectives of the employment relationship between them and to fulfill those agreements; and human resource management is a series of activities which first enable working people and the organization which uses their skills, to agree about the objectives and nature of their working relationship and, secondly, to ensure that the agreement is fulfilled. Jon (2010) states that improving police management necessitates a logical structure that connects police activities to intermediate objectives and to end outcomes. This provides the basis for systematic evaluation of effectiveness, efficiency and quality by creating a more rational structure with the aim of developing the technical core of policing.

Organizing are the activities or functions involved in creating and maintaining organizational units called institutions (Cloete, 1993, p. 112). Botes, Brynard, Fourie and Roux (1992) are of the view that, as soon as people work together in a specific group relationship, it becomes necessary to establish some form of organizational relationship. Steps need to be taken to formalize, systematize and balance the relations between

individuals, and those official actions necessary to prescribe these formal relations are called organizing. Organizing has important components.

A police station in Swaziland normally consists of the station administration department, general duty department, traffic department, criminal investigation department, intelligence department and shifts. They are under the leadership of the station commander who is assisted by the station officer and then the heads of departments. The station commander cannot perform all the activities but is responsible for organizing and controlling as some activities are delegated or centralized to the heads of departments. Activities and the personnel of public institutions across the spectrum of the public sector must be coordinated to ensure that it does not overlap and that all the institutions work together to achieve the objective set by legislation. This is done through channels of communication which must be in an orderly fashion with guidelines to effective communication. Control must be exercised and steps should be taken to ensure that the subordinates, who have been given delegated powers or instructions, act within those powers or instructions and meet customary norms or principles. An efficient well-run department reduces frustration and increases job satisfaction. Similarly, high job satisfaction generally requires feelings of competence, responsibility and pride (Mumford, Hickey, & Matthies 2006).

2.3 Special Procedures

Allegations of officer misconduct may come from either internal or external sources. Internal allegations involve reports by supervisors or other department employees. External allegations involve formal or informal complaints by citizens. All internally generated allegations are investigated by the Internal Affairs Unit (IAU) or Professional Standards Units (PSU). A number of cities and counties have established external citizen oversight agencies with original jurisdiction for investigating citizen complaints (Walker, 2011). While many of the issues related to internal and external misconduct investigations overlap, it is necessary to discuss them separately. The nature and quality of police internal investigations of citizen complaints have been a major part of the police-community relations problem. Civil rights groups have attacked police departments units for failing to investigate citizen complaints thoroughly or fairly. These allegations have been documented by external investigating commissions (National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders, 2008).

There are no studies evaluating police internal misconduct investigations that meet the standards of social science research. That is to say, there are no studies indicating that one approach to the structure and management of internal affairs units is more effective than alternative forms in reducing citizen complaints, use of force, or other unacceptable conduct. There are no studies indicating that certain investigative procedures (i.e., procedures for interviewing complainants, officers, or witnesses; policies for evaluating conflicting testimony; standards for determining whether a complaint should be sustained, etc.). The current CALEA Accreditation Standards include only a minimal list of required procedures for investigating complaints (Commission on Accreditation for Law Enforcement Agencies, 2006). These requirements, however, are far less detailed than those adopted by some citizen oversight agencies (Walker, 2005).

Meaningful evaluation of internal misconduct investigations is severely limited by a lack of discussion of the evaluation criteria. Misconduct investigations, whether internal or external, have multiple goals. These include providing thorough and fair investigations, deterring future misconduct, providing satisfaction to citizen complainants and to subject officers, improving public attitudes toward the police, and enhancing the professionalism of the department. While there is concern about the percentage of citizen complaints sustained in favor of the complainant (the "sustain rate"), there has been little informed discussion of what a reasonable standard should be (Walker, 2005). Hudson (2012) attempted to compare the internal affairs unit of the Philadelphia Police Department with the (long since abolished) Police Advisory Board, but concluded that they could not be compared because of very different mandates which resulted in their handling different kinds of cases. Hudson's study, moreover, is more than thirty years old and uses data that are more than forty years old.

There is a significant body of descriptive literature on external citizen oversight agencies and procedures. Several articles and books have developed classification schemes for external agencies identifying different roles, structures, and procedures (Perez, 2014). Not all citizen oversight agencies have authority to independently investigate citizen complaints. Many simply involve the review of completed investigations by IA units, with authority to recommend a different disposition or that the case be reinvestigated. No external citizen oversight agency has the power to impose discipline of officers against whom complaints are sustained.

There are no studies evaluating the effectiveness of external citizen oversight agencies. As is the case with internal misconduct investigations (see above), there are no studies attempting to assess whether a particular organizational structure or procedure is more effective than another. Nor are there any studies attempting to assess whether the investigation of officer misconduct by external oversight agencies is a more effective investigation by internal units. And also as is the case with internal misconduct investigations, there is only very limited discussion of the multiple goals of external misconduct investigations (Brereton, 2010). As already noted with respect to internal complaint investigations, there is only very limited discussion of the multiple goals of external citizen oversight agencies: thorough and fair investigation of complaints, deterrence of officer misconduct, providing a satisfactory experience for both complainants and officers, recommending alternative department policies and procedures, improving police-community relations (Walker, 2005).

2.4 Miscellaneous Procedures

The involvement of PNP personnel during strikes, lockouts and labor disputes in general shall be limited to the maintenance of peace and order, enforcement of laws, and implementation of legal orders of the duly constituted authorities. The PNP shall only render assistance to labor disputes upon written request addressed to the Regional Director/ District Director concerned. In case of actual violence, the police can respond without the written request. Insofar as practicable, no PNP personnel shall be allowed to render police assistance in connection with a strike or lockout if there is question or complaint as regards his relationship by affinity or consanguinity to any official/leader of the parties in the controversy or if he has financial or pecuniary interest therein. PNP personnel detailed as peace-keeping force in strike or lockout areas shall be in prescribed uniform at all times. They shall exercise maximum tolerance and when called for by the situation or when all other peaceful and non-violent means have been exhausted, police officers may employ such means as may be necessary and reasonable to prevent or repel an aggression. The matter of determining whether a strike, picket or lockout is legal or not should be left to the Department of Labor and Employment (DOLE) and its appropriate agencies. PNP personnel should not interfere in a strike, picket or lockout, except as herein provided. No personal escort shall be provided to any of the parties to the controversy unless upon written request from DOLE. Whenever escorts are to be provided, the other party shall be informed accordingly. All escorts shall be in prescribed uniform at all times.

During the pendency of a strike/lockout, the police personnel concerned are prohibited from socializing with any of the parties involved in the controversy. Liaison shall be established and maintained with the representatives of DOLE, management and the union in the strike/lockout area for the purpose of maintaining peace and order, as well as to maintain a continuing peaceful dialogue between the parties to the strike/ lockout. The peace-keeping detail shall not be stationed in the picket line (or confrontation line) but should be stationed in such a manner that their presence may deter the commission of criminal acts or any untoward incident from either side. The members of the peacekeeping detail shall stay outside a 50-meter radius from the picket line. In cases where in the 50-meter radius includes a public thoroughfare, they may station themselves in such public thoroughfare for the purpose of ensuring the free flow of traffic (POP, 2010).

The pertinent provisions of the Public Assembly Act of 1985 (Batas Pambansa Bilang 880), the Labor Code of the Philippines, as amended and other applicable laws, shall be observed during rallies, strikes, demonstrations or other public assemblies. Law enforcement agents shall, at all times: Exercise maximum tolerance. In case of unlawful aggression, only reasonable force may be employed to prevent or repel it. The

employment of tear gas and water cannons shall be made under the control and supervision of the Ground Commander. No arrest of any leader, organizer, or participant shall be made during the public assembly, unless he/she violates any pertinent law as evidence warrants. Service of Lawful Orders or Writ The service of Department of Labor and Employment (DOLE), court, or other lawful orders or writs is the primary concern of the DOLE representative, sheriff, and representative of the government agency issuing the order, respectively. The role of the PNP is only supportive. Only when specifically stated and requested in the order or writ shall the PNP enforce such orders or writs. Prohibited Labor Activities No personnel of the PNP shall: Bring in, introduce or escort in any manner, any individual who seeks to replace strikers in entering or leaving the premises or a strike area; or Work in replacement of the strikers.

The PNP adheres to the Code of Conduct for Law Enforcement Officials adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations which requires law enforcement officials to respect and protect human dignity, maintain and uphold the human rights of all persons, and limit the use of force to situations where it is strictly necessary and to the extent required for the performance of their duty. Public assemblies held in freedom parks or on private property do not need a permit for the activity. Public assembly with permit or one held in a freedom park or private property shall not be dispersed as long as it remains peaceful and no incidence of violence occurs. The PNP shall provide police assistance only when requested by the leaders or organizers for maintenance of peace and order or to ensure the safety of those participating in the public assemblies held in freedom parks or on private property. A public assembly held in a public place must have a permit from the mayor of the city or municipality exercising jurisdiction over the place where it will be held. A public assembly held with or without a permit may be peacefully dispersed. A public assembly with a permit may be dispersed if the same is being held in violation of the terms and conditions imposed in the permit. In both cases, before conducting any dispersal operation, the PNP shall notify the concerned organizers and leaders of the public assembly.

The following are the police responses during the planning stage, initial and peaceful stage, confrontational stage, violent stage and post operation stage: During Planning Stage (1) Initiate dialogue with the leaders/organizers to ensure the peaceful holding of a public assembly, including among others, the detail of police escorts. (2)   Prepare appropriate security and CDM contingency plans. During Initial and Peaceful Stage (1) With Permit or Held in Freedom Parks/ Private Properties (The PNP shall not interfere with the holding of a public assembly. However, to adequately ensure public safety, a CDM contingent, under the control and supervision of a PCO, shall be stationed at least one hundred (100) meters away from the area where the public assembly is being held.

Monitor the activities at the public assembly area and respond to any request for police assistance. (2) Without Permit or Permit has been revoked as soon as it becomes apparent that an assembly is being held in a public place, the Ground Commander shall immediately conduct an inquiry whether the assembly is covered with a permit or not. If a permit could not be shown, verification should immediately be done with the Office of the Mayor having jurisdiction over the place where the public assembly is being held. Should the Office of the Mayor confirm that a permit has not been issued, the leaders/organizers shall be informed of the fact that they are violating the law and will be asked to disperse peacefully. The PNP shall exhaust all peaceful remedies to persuade the demonstrators to disperse. This may include the involvement of Local Chief Executives / community leaders when available to intervene in the situation so that dispersal operations could be avoided. Should negotiation fail and the demonstrators refuse to disperse voluntarily and peacefully, thereby causing public inconvenience, CDM contingents may commence dispersal operations.

During Breach of Peace/Confrontational Stage (With or without permit) No public assembly with a permit shall be dispersed. However, when a public assembly becomes violent, the CDM contingents may disperse such public assembly in the following manner: At the first sign of impending violence, the Ground Commander shall call the attention of the leaders/ organizers of the public assembly and ask the latter to prevent any possible disturbance. CDM contingents shall hold the line to prevent demonstrators from proceeding to other areas where the holding of a public assembly is prohibited.

If actual violence reaches a point where rocks or other harmful objects from the participants are thrown at the CDM contingents or the nonparticipants, or at any property causing damage to it, the Ground Commander shall audibly warn the participants that if the disturbance persists, the public assembly will be dispersed; If the violence or disturbance does not stop, the Ground Commander shall audibly issue a warning to the participants of the public assembly, and after allowing a reasonable period of time to lapse, shall immediately order it to disperse. With the use of CDM formations, the rank of demonstrators shall be disbanded, contained, and isolated from each other, and should be prevented from regrouping. Water cannons and riot sticks maybe used to repel aggression and to disperse demonstrators and reserve CDM contingents may be employed when situation requires. No arrest of any leader, organizer or participant shall be made unless he violates a law, statute, or ordinance during the assembly.

General Guidelines of the PNP units tasked to maintain peace and order shall not interfere with the holding of public assembly. To ensure public safety, a Civil Disturbance Management (CDM) contingent under the command of a Police Commissioned Officer (PCO) with the rank of Police Senior Inspector or higher shall be detailed and stationed at least 100 meters away from the place where the public assembly is being held. In the absence of any permit from the LGU concerned, the PCO in command should exert effort in persuading the demonstrators to disperse peacefully and vacate the public place. In lightning rallies or demonstrations, the Ground Commander shall exhaust efforts through dialogue with the leaders/organizers for voluntary dispersal. In case of failure, orderly dispersal to include apprehension of those responsible is resorted to. Specific Guidelines When assistance is requested by the leaders/organizers; it shall be imperative for the CDM contingent to perform their duties while observing the rights of demonstrators.

Further, the members of the CDM contingent dealing with the demonstrators shall be in prescribed uniform. The CDM contingent shall not carry any kind of fi rearms but may be equipped with baton or riot sticks, crash helmets with visor, gas masks, boots or ankle-high shoes with shin guards. Tear gas, smoke grenades, water cannons, or any similar anti-riot device shall not be used unless the public assembly is attended by actual violence or serious threats of violence, or deliberate destruction of property. Maximum tolerance shall always be observed. The organization and membership of CDM contingents, as well as their deployment and employment, shall be in accordance with existing PNP rules and regulations. In situations requiring the use of baton/ truncheons should only target a fleshy part of the body such as arms, torso, legs, and thighs. Hitting protesters with the baton or truncheon on the head, face, neck, shoulders, blades, elbows, fingers, groins, knees, and ankles must be avoided since strikes to these parts may cause serious to permanent injuries, or even death. Protesters that are arrested must be properly restrained/handcuffed using scientific control methods; and thereafter, brought safely to the police station for processing.

Arrested protesters must not be kicked, punched, or dragged by hair or feet. Whenever appropriate, deploy properly trained and equipped female CDM personnel as front-liners. Role of the PNP in the Enforcement of a Demolition and/ or Ejectment Orders Police assistance in the enforcement or implementation of a demolition or ejectment order shall be granted only upon a written request of the Sheriff or equivalent officer in quasi-judicial and administrative bodies accompanied by a valid order issued by a competent court, quasi-judicial or administrative body and, when required, with written permission from the Local Housing Board in accordance with EO 708 amending EO 152 and DILG Memo Circular No. 2008-143.

Seek to exploit the issue of missing children for their own unethical gains. Administrative criminology comprises two kindred perspectives – routine activity theory and rational choice theory– and is sometimes referred to as opportunity theory or environmental criminology. A more recent development, crime science, has similar concerns. Although administrative criminologists acknowledge that criminality (i.e. offending behavior) does not appear 'out of the blue', but will be linked to various causal factors, their approach to the study of crime in effect makes these causal factors irrelevant. It is thus an approach that can be placed within the classical tradition in criminology (Bain, 2009).

In Baron (2010), there is, however, a key difference between the two: while administrative criminology concentrates on the situational prevention of crime, classical criminology was fundamentally concerned with creating a more efficient and effective criminal justice system in order to deter the individual from offending. Bayley (2012) emphasized that there are similarities too between control theory (also part of the classical tradition and administrative criminology, though the key difference here is that while the former links the notion of control to criminal motivations, the latter ignores such motivations, and seeks to control already motivated individuals through situational crime prevention.

As Young (who first used the term 'administrative criminology') puts it, it became 'the major paradigm in establishment approaches to crime' (Young, 2014). According to Clarke (1995, then updated by Cornish and Clarke 2003) there are a number of interrelated ways in which this can be achieved (and based on a summary provided by Crawford, 2007). Hakim and Rengert (2001) outline five different ways in which this can occur: 1. Spatial displacement – the crime takes place, but in an alternative, less protected location; 2. Temporal displacement – the crime takes place, but at a different time of day; 3. Tactical displacement – the crime takes place, but the methods employed to commit it are modified; 4. Target displacement – the crime takes place in that location, but the crime target shifts; 5. Type of crime displacement – a crime takes place in that location, but the nature of the crime alters.

Some (e.g. Barr and Pease, 2009) have argued (controversially) that crime displacement may be beneficial if it leads to a more equal distribution of victimization rates. In addition, it has been argued that, with regard to certain sorts of crime, displacing their location from residential to non-residential areas can be beneficial for a neighborhood. Matthews (2002), for instance, describes how this occurred following a clampdown on street prostitution in an area of London (with the added bonus that it also led to a reduction in other types of offence previously linked to the prostitution in that area). Cultural criminologists are highly critical of the above models of crime prevention, arguing that they fail to take into account the fact that many crimes are motivated by a desire for thrill, excitement and protest, rather than instrumental gain.

Criticisms of the theoretical underpinnings of rational choice theory have focused their attention on the central argument that offenders employ cost–benefit judgments as rational decision-makers within the context of opportunity. Rock (2007) sums this up as 'the convenient fiction of economic man': Economic man in his (or her) criminal guise does not have a past, complex motives, rich social life, or, indeed, a recognizable social identity (a 'disposition' is how Ron Clarke would put it) … He or she needs no such complexity, because what weighs … is the piecemeal theoretical analysis of discrete instances of disembodied offending behavior conducted by people making decisions around the issues of risk, effort, and reward (Rock, 2007).

Thus it is argued, rational choice theory ignores much that is (or should be) of interest to the criminologist: the links between criminal motivations and prior social and cultural experiences; social identities and understandings of self; and the social structural contexts within which criminal motivations are shaped. With rational choice theory, there is no interest in the development of criminal motivations or dispositions, they are simply assumed to exist. Furthermore, critics argue that understandings of crime and criminality are severely handicapped because of a lack of interest in conducting qualitative, ethnographic research. The focus is on the criminal event and the immediate, situationally-based decision-making processes leading to an individual choosing to offend. Thus critics have emphasized the point that although individuals make decisions, in this case to offend, they do so (and to paraphrase Marx) under circumstances that are not of their own choosing. These circumstances will include issues associated with social class, ethnicity and gender, peer group pressure, relative deprivation, drug and alcohol dependency, and so on.

Mullins (2006), in a study based in St Louis in the United States, for instance, analyses serious male violence within the context of specific understandings of masculinity conceptualized in terms of its existence as both a structural feature of society (and as manifested within the culture of lower-class streetlife in particular) and a perceptual preoccupation. It then becomes a concern embedded in situational experiences, for example,

when someone believes that they are being disrespected.

Similarly, and also in the United States, Wright and Decker (2004) explain how the street culture characterizing certain socially deprived and disorganized neighborhoods helps shape the offending behavior of the young men concerned. The problem with rational choice theory, say its critics, is that it fails to address these sorts of background factors, factors that explain why the motivation and decision to offend are not randomly distributed, as if any individual is as likely as another to commit burglary, rape, street robbery or serious violent crime. The notion of rational choice has also attracted the attention of critics. While rational choice theorists accept that offenders do not always act in perfectly rational ways when weighing up whether or not to offend, their ideas, especially when translated into practical measures aimed at preventing crime, are based upon an assumption that offenders do make rational decisions. This raises a fundamental issue regarding precisely what is meant by 'rational', and takes us back to the economists' concept of 'economic man' who, as an ideal type, will act in a perfectly rational manner (while 'flawed' economic man will act in a partly, or even wholly, non-rational manner). Rational choice theorists though seem to be saying that regardless of whether an action is perfectly rational, partly rational, or wholly non-rational, it is always rational from the perspective of the offender (and reflects social background and immediate circumstance).

This raises two issues. First, it ignores the possibility that an individual may engage in offending behavior in spite of perceiving the behavior to be irrational (say, because of a high risk of apprehension). In this situation, measures aimed at deterring crime will hardly be effective. Second, within rational choice theory there is an implicit assumption that while potential offenders will make choices that are rational for them, these choices are not always 'really' rational, which suggests that an objective yardstick – devised by rational choice theorists – exists against which rationality can ultimately be judged. It is this that informs crime prevention measures aimed at making offending irrational. However, if offenders are only acting rationally from their perspective, then crime prevention measures informed by some 'outside', and apparently objective, perspective regarding what is rational become highly problematic from the point of view of functioning as a deterrent. Critics have also made the point that there is an absence of any engagement with deeper analytical debates relating to the conceptual language of criminology. One outcome of this is that current state definitions and understandings of 'crime' and the 'crime problem' are simply taken as given.

Routine activity theory is principally associated with the American criminologist Marcus Felson (Cohen and Felson, 2000). As with administrative criminology in general, the theory ignores the etiology of criminal behavior as normally understood, and concentrates instead on crime events and their sources within the 'routine activity' constituting everyday social life. The assumption is that there will always be individuals in society who, for whatever reasons, are in varying degrees motivated to commit crime. Whether or not these motivated individuals go ahead and engage in criminal behavior, it is argued, depends on opportunities and a rational assessment of the attendant risks and rewards. The focus is on predatory crime and the aim is to devise pragmatic policies based on increasing the risks and reducing the rewards of crime, in order to prevent such crime occurring. Thus routine activity theory has much in common with rational choice theory, the major distinction being that the former steps back and analyses crime events on a societal level, while the latter is interested in crime events that are specific and situational.

An interesting and crucial dimension to the theory is that the bulk of crime is conceptualized as mundane and ordinary, not spectacular and novel. From this perspective, crime occurs as a result of the opportunities arising from the routines of ordinary, everyday life: work, school, family life, leisure activities, and so on. However, crime is not seen as occurring in a random fashion; rather, it results from the opportunities provided by the convergence of three key factors: a motivated offender, a suitable target and the lack of a capable guardian (e.g. an adult in charge of a child, or the presence of a security system). Routine activity theorists have used this model as a basis for analyzing variations in crime rates over time (the primary focus has been on the United States, though the theory makes claims for universal application).

According to the model, increases in crime rates since the mid-twentieth century did not occur because of more motivated offenders, in the sense that the 'pool' of individuals with criminal dispositions increased. Rather, these increases resulted from the greater opportunities to commit crime provided by changes in people's routine activities within the context of a more affluent society. Thus greater affluence increased the range of portable and expensive consumer goods available to a potential offender, while at the same time an increase in working families meant that more houses were left unattended during the day, as well as during the evening because of increasing participation in leisure activities.

Furthermore, individuals became more vulnerable because they tended to make a greater number of trips alone. As a consequence, there was a significant increase in the number of suitable targets, coupled with a significant decrease in the number of suitable guardians. The growth in criminal opportunities, therefore, created a situation where committing crime was accompanied by fewer risks and greater rewards, hence the increases in crime rates. From the perspective of routine activity theory, this led to an increase in the number of motivated offenders (thus analytically combining the three elements: motivated offender, suitable targets and lack of capable guardians) though, and importantly, 'motivated offender' has a very specific meaning in this context. As stated above, there is no suggestion that the 'pool' of criminally disposed individuals increased; rather, there were more 'motivated offenders' only in the sense that the expansion of (low risk/high reward) criminal opportunities encouraged and 'triggered' a decision to commit crime among more individuals. However, given that such individuals have 'tried their hand' at crime, and the range of possibilities in terms of subsequent social experiences; for instance, peer group pressure, it could very well follow that they do swell the 'pool' of motivated offenders as normally understood.

More recently, Felson (2000) has added the lack of an 'intimate handler' to his original three elements, while at the time addressing four additional types of crime that he labels 'exploitative' (e.g. rape, street robber y); 'mutualistic' (prostitution, drug dealing); 'competitive' (fighting); and 'individualistic' (drug use). An intimate handler is someone close to, and respected by, a potential offender, who is in a position to restrain the latter's behavior. Some time ago, Garofalo (2007) echoed some of the ideas found in routine activity theory, though he preferred the term 'lifestyle'. Drawing on the results of surveys of victimization, Garofalo argues that the uneven distribution of victimization is associated with different lifestyles (in effect, routine activities); some people are more at risk than others. Social class is an important factor here, for example, those who have to rely on late night public transport because they cannot afford to use taxis are significantly more likely to face the threat of violent assault.

Again, as with rational choice theory, routine activity theory has been criticized for ignoring broader social, economic and cultural factors in shaping criminal motivations. Therefore, say critics, a major weakness in the theory is that it fails to take such things as unemployment, inequality, urban decline, racism and the deregulation of financial markets (relevant to corporate crime) into consideration. All of these factors have important implications in terms of 1) explaining why some, but certainly not all, individuals decide to exploit the criminal opportunities that are made available and 2) developing analyses that acknowledge the possibility that the 'pool' of motivated offenders may increase or decrease over given time periods. Furthermore, and again echoing criticisms of rational choice theory, attention has been drawn to routine activity theory's lack of interest in white collar and corporate crime.

However, Alvesalo et al. (2006) utilize the basic tenets of routine activity theory and argue that situational crime prevention can be usefully applied to corporate crime specifically. Indeed, in their view, it does not necessarily follow that situational crime prevention with respect to this type of crime, as opposed to conventional crime, will deflect the development of more radical interventions directed at social and economic factors. Rather, they argue that situational crime prevention in this context will have the benefit of making monitoring and control processes more public, encourage local populations to become involved, and strengthen the links among various social movements oriented towards issues of justice and equality.

Finally, and unsurprisingly, cultural criminologists are as critical of routine activity theory as they are of rational choice theory, and again it is the absence of any reference to the visceral and emotional, as opposed to a purely instrumental, dimension to crime that is highlighted. The critique is well put by Young: Cultural criminology reveals almost exactly the opposite of Felson's world of mundane crime stressing the sensual nature of crime, the adrenaline rushes of edgework– voluntary illicit risk-taking and the dialectic of fear and pleasure. The existential motivational structure they explore inverts the very basis of routine activities, opportunities and control theory. Here the motivation to commit crime is not mundane but the revolt against the mundane– rules transgressed because they are there, risk is a challenge not a deterrent. (Young 2007).

Described by proponents as a 'new discipline', crime science gained formal recognition in 2001, with the establishment of the Jill Dando Institute of Crime Science at University College, London. Jill Dando, a television broadcaster, was murdered in London in 1999 and the Institute was founded in her memory. Crime science rejects many of the traditional, especially theoretical, concerns of criminology and is instead explicitly committed to the employment of 'scientific' methods in order to prevent crime and detect offenders. Focusing on offences rather than offenders, the work seeks to develop practical solutions to problems of crime and disorder, guided by 'hard', 'objective', quantitative data and scientific processes. It is multidisciplinary in character, with contributions coming from, for instance, geography, forensic science, economics, engineering and certain cognate areas in criminology, such as administrative criminology.

Thus crime science research involves such things as the mapping of crime hot spots, 'designing out' crime, scenes of crime evidence, crime management and policing practices, and improving the technology employed by the security industry. It is a hybrid approach to 'doing criminology', where the classical tradition found in administrative criminology is underpinned by a strong commitment to the employment of positivist methodologies and frames of reference. Many academic criminologists are, for various reasons, highly critical of crime science and what it purports to offer (to a larger extent criticisms replicate those aimed at rational choice theory and routine activity theory). Some critics question whether crime science can be properly described as criminology. Interestingly, for many people outside of the discipline, crime science conforms exactly with their perception of what 'criminology' is. Techniques designed to generate objective, quantifiable, comparative data, and survey methods are of little use to cultural criminology; their illusions of precise objectivity mask an inherent and imposed imprecision, and inability (and an unwillingness) to explore particular meanings of legal authority, situated symbolism, and interpersonal style in the lived experiences of everyday criminality (Ferrell & Sanders, 2005).

There is another, implicitly political, dimension to this, and one that draws attention to the relationship between competing claims to, on the one hand (scientific), knowledge and, on the other, governance. As Hope says in a review of one recent crime science text: Practical demands come to dominate scientific discourse, placing in the hands of those that make them opportunities to choose within the scientific marketplace; and different purveyors of useful knowledge emerge to compete among each other to supply diagnoses and solutions to the practical problems posed by political managers. (Hope 2006). Hope begins the review with a comment attributed to Travis Hirschi: 'There are two kinds of theory– theory, and grant-theory'. And, in a recent and highly critical discussion of crime science, Walters argues: Such work is more suited to the commercial world of corporate research than to academic institutions. Yet the income-generation policies of contemporary university managers and politicians will ensure that the menial and the mundane prevails over the creative and the critical (Walters 2007).

3. Police Training Programs

Police Training Programs are established to become a center of excellence in police training and development' and its mission 'to develop police officers with the professional ability and integrity to better serve the community'. Behind this mission statement is the conviction that an ethical workforce and service orientation to policing are as important as professional knowledge, skills or ability of its personnel. In line with its vision

and mission, the goals of the College are to: (a) develop the best qualities of the officers; (b) professionalize police training; (c) facilitate self-study and workplace learning; (d) advance knowledge through research and sharing; and (e) disseminate knowledge to benefit Hong Kong, the Mainland and the international community (Terrill, 2005).

In Ross (2002), the mission and goals of most police forces is to have the objective of better preparing officer for more challenging tasks. They are also aligned with the agency's Strategic Directions. The training and development is set within a professional, organizational and societal context. It takes into consideration a number of dynamic driving factors: volatility of the external environment (the increasing complexity of policing and the policing landscape), Training developments (such as the imminent retirement of officers recruited in the 1980s), and customer and government expectations (rising demands for a responsive and responsible police service).

The police training institutes promote lifelong learning within the police force, which has correspondingly sparked aspirations for professional qualifications amongst its officers. Another factor that has a bearing on developing the professional qualities of officers is the growing interdependency between the police organizations and local/international community in providing effective solutions to police problems. For example, police forces engage in multi-agency cooperation with on-governmental organizations. In the international policing arena, collaboration as such holds the key to successful policing as crime and public order events have become increasingly internationalized (Pelfrey et al., 2007).

Training and development is firmly rooted in some broadly based learning principles, which guide the planning and implementation of its training policies, strategies and programs. The overriding training philosophy of the police force is that 'effective training and development can foster a continuous learning culture and realize the potential of its officers to meet the needs of the agency (Loftin et al., 2003). Roxas (2014), the then Chairman of the National Police Commission were instrumental in developing the Philippine National Police Standard Training Package for Field Training Program (FTP) with the goal of providing a detailed day-to-day guide to ensure that wherever the FTP is being conducted, the trainees/ recruits are provided with quality and standardized training. This endeavor is a manifestation of the PNP's commitment towards the attainment of a credible and effective police force. It is through training that the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of every personnel are being molded.

The PNP has the Field Training Officer's Guide on Investigation Phase is a compilation of lessons and topics to be presented and taught by the FTO to the Police Trainees (PTs) as they pass through the second phase of the Public Safety Basic Recruit Course under the Field Training Program. This guide comprises selected penal laws being enforced by the PNP and selected rules on criminal procedures as well as the procedures to be undertaken by the new police officers in the conduct of police investigation. Apart from the main topics, this guide is also complemented with the knowledge on how to accomplish the blotter properly and the introduction of Incident Report Form in the evolving world of policing. Likewise, report writing, making of affidavit of arrest, actual experience through observation in different court hearings and fusion of Barangay Justice System was added to complete this package on basic investigation (Purisima, 2014).

On the other hand, PTs will be exposed to different scenarios through simulation exercises, table top exercises and even actual experiences in the field in order to reinforce their knowledge and develop their skills. Through this way, we will produce better PTs who are more effective, credible and capable police officers in the field of investigation (Monteaguado, 2014).

4. Synthesis of Reviewed Literature and Studies

The following articles, journal, theses and dissertations proved useful as the same were similar or opposite but relevant to the current study. Bain's (2012) study provided a concrete definition of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of every police officer. Similarly, according to Bain, citizen expects police officers to have the wisdom of Solomon, the courage of David, the strength of Samson, the patience of Job, the leadership of Moses, the

kindness of the Good Samaritan, the strategic training of Alexander, the faith of Daniel, the diplomacy of Lincoln, the tolerance of the Carpenter of Nazareth, and finally, an intimate knowledge of every branch of natural, biological, and social sciences. If a police officer had all these, he/she might be a good police officer. These are attributes which form the characteristics of a good professional police officer biblically.

The job of the police officer in terms of General Procedures are also enumerated in this study. Likewise, Vienna (2011) engages policing as taking action to protect citizens from harm, arrest those who commit crimes and prevent the incident from spreading to unaffected area. Further, Geller and Scott (2012) emphasized that it is an established principle in policing that first-line supervisors play a critical role in directing and controlling the behavior of officers in police-citizen interactions. The Basic Procedures in this study delineated the role and responsibilities of the first officer to arrive at a crime scene. This is similar to the discussion of OSCE Reference Guide to Criminal Procedure (2016). Vienna (2011) also described the duties of the (junior) police officer, that is to provide the information and procedures necessary to mark or package and tag items of evidence in a manner that will suffice for identification in court.

The Special Procedures is emphasized in the PNP Operational Procedures (2010) that the involvement of PNP personnel during strikes, lockouts and labor disputes in general shall be limited to the maintenance of peace and order, enforcement of laws, and implementation of legal orders of the duly constituted authorities. Similarly, the tasked mention in Miscellaneous Procedures include but not limited to the one emphasized by the DILG Memorandum 29 that the extent of Police Assistance of the Special Task Group Commander tasked to render police assistance shall have the discretion to employ sufficient number of PNP uniformed personnel after taking into consideration the scope of the resistance to be encountered, if there is any, and the general peace and order condition in the area. Unless a higher ranking Officer is necessary and more PNP personnel are required, the police team that will render police assistance should be led by a Police Commissioned Officer (PCO) with the rank of Police Senior Inspector.

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