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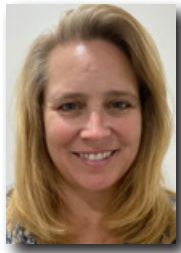
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Protecting Life and Safety – A Job for Everyone

By Catherine L. Feinman



First responder agencies send paid and volunteer members to people in need. When a house is on fire, firefighters rush to the scene to “put the wet stuff on the red stuff.” When someone is injured, ambulances deliver basic and advanced life support to save lives, mend wounds on the scene, and sometimes “load and go” for more critical needs. When a violent crime occurs, police officers serve and protect the community and apprehend the suspect. Despite the numerous agencies tasked with responding during times of need, the needs sometimes surpass the available capabilities of these agencies. Everyone has a job to do to prevent, mitigate, and respond to emergencies and disasters.

All disasters are local, but no two disasters are similar. Therefore, it is critical for response agencies to continually review lessons learned and best practices and consider emerging technologies and new approaches to recurring scenarios. For example, it is essential to understand the operational differences between rural, urban, and [suburban](#) environments through lessons learned in firefighting. In law enforcement, researching practices such as [elaborated social identity modeling](#) can help officers make better decisions and mitigate potential threats in crowd scenarios. In emergency management, changing the perception that emergency managers are [project managers](#) opens the door to finding best practices that may have previously been overlooked.

Education and training for all stakeholders, not just those designated as first responders, will make communities more resilient when response resources are limited. By empowering citizens with basic life and safety resources, agencies and organizations will better leverage volunteers (affiliated and spontaneous) during critical times. In addition, when response agencies are delayed, bystanders would know what to do until they arrive (e.g., [bleeding control](#)).

This May edition of the Domestic Preparedness Journal provides valuable information for emergency response organizations to consider when fortifying their efforts and engaging other community stakeholders. As the National Stop the Bleed® Month ends, it is a good reminder that each community member can help respond to an emergency or disaster. Many people are willing to help but just need the education, training, and guidance that emergency preparedness and response entities can offer.

Catherine L. Feinman, M.A., joined Domestic Preparedness in January 2010. She has more than 30 years of publishing experience and currently serves as editor of the Domestic Preparedness Journal, www.DomesticPreparedness.com, and the DPJ Weekly Brief, and works with writers and other contributors to build and create new content that is relevant to the emergency preparedness, response, and recovery communities. She received a bachelor’s degree in international business from University of Maryland, College Park, and a master’s degree in emergency and disaster management from American Military University.

Project Management Approach in Emergency Management

By Adam Tager



Emergency managers are project managers. While the intersection between the two professions is not often explicitly highlighted, navigating the phases of emergency management largely follows the project management framework. Therefore, a deeper understanding of project management best practices can only serve to enhance the ability to help communities and execute no-fail missions.

According to the Project Management Institute ([PMI](#)), a leading professional organization for project managers, a project is defined as “a temporary effort to create value through a unique product, service or result,” while project management is “the use of specific knowledge, skills, tools and techniques to deliver something of value to people.” Using these definitions, projects in emergency management can include a wide range of actions such as the development of an incident action plan (IAP) (see [Figure 1](#)), the creation of a response framework, the establishment of a technical team, or the design and execution of a training exercise. For this article, the example of designing and conducting a training exercise is used as a consistent theme throughout.

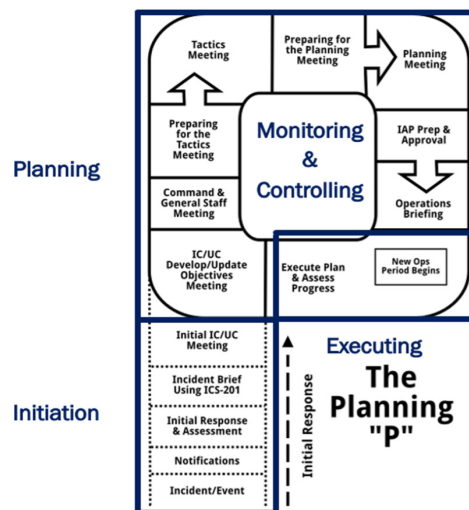


Fig. 1. The PM Process and Development of an IAP as visualized through the “Planning P” (Source: [FEMA IS 300](#): Incident Action Planning Process with overlay by Tager, 2022).

Although it uses different terms, the Homeland Security Exercise and Evaluation Program (HSEEP) utilizes a standard project management methodology that breaks the process down into five phases. Specifically, the phases of project management overlap with the phases of HSEEP, just using different terminology (see Figure 2). The phases of project management include initiating (strategy planning), planning (design and development), executing (conduct), monitoring and controlling (throughout all phases), and closing (evaluation).

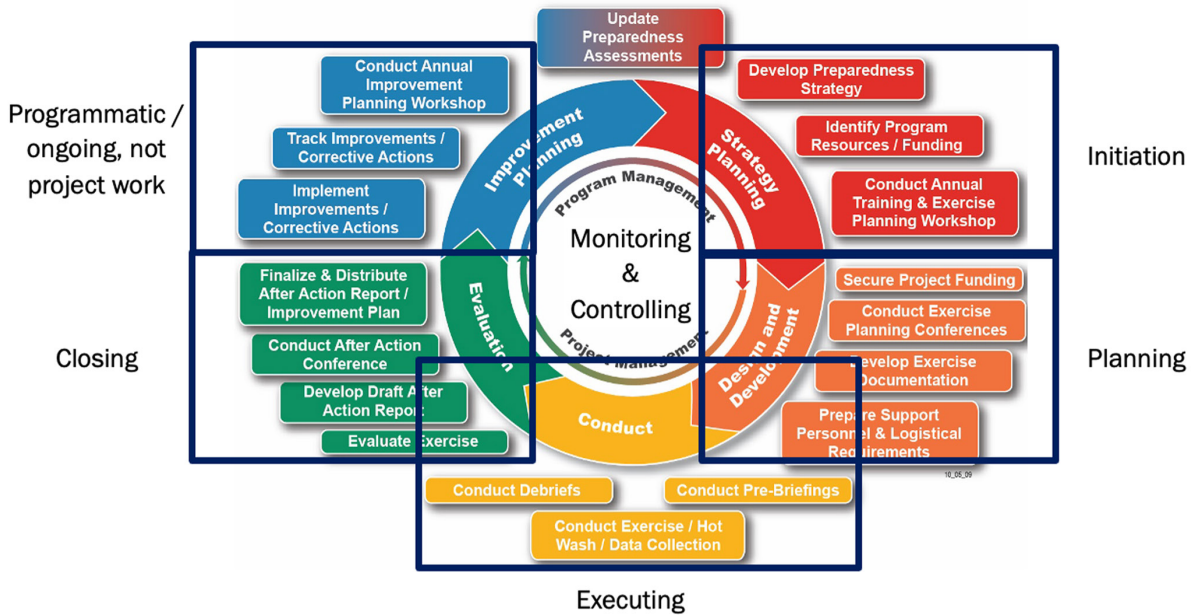


Fig. 2. The PM process as visualized through the HSEEP cycle (Source: [Oregon Office of Emergency Management](https://www.oregon.gov/DEI/EM/Pages/default.aspx) with overlay provided by Tager, 2022).

Initiating

The initiating action is self-evident during response operations when the incident starts with a defined event – sometimes referred to as boom, landfall, or T-0. However, during all other phases of emergency management, initiating a project is an intentional action. In the public sector, initiation can be precipitated by a number of factors, including legal requirements or organizational needs, and is typically championed by a senior elected or career official. This official becomes the project sponsor and can help provide top cover to acquire resources when necessary and/or undertake other actions to help ensure project success. The sponsor may be ultimately responsible for project outcomes but is typically not at the working level and should not be the same as the project manager, if possible.

Therefore, it is incumbent upon the project manager to understand the purpose of project initiation and the expectations of the project sponsor for the project to be viewed as successful. This information can be put into a project charter that serves as a foundational document creating a shared understanding of high-level project purpose and outcomes. However, unless the project is very large in scope, it is possible to combine the project charter document with the more comprehensive project plan. This may also be applicable in emergency management when time plays a crucial factor.

In the example of HSEEP, the sponsor will likely communicate the policy that should be exercised, the scenario that should be used, and/or the type of exercise, while the program manager carries out the tactical execution of that goal. Although not a perfect comparison, in the example of the ubiquitous “Planning P,” initiation is typically the tail that involves initial assessments and briefings (see Figure 1).

Planning

After the project is initiated, the planning process begins. During the planning process, several key questions should be answered:

- What has to be done? (Type of exercise, scenario, policy to validate, etc.)
- When will it be done? (Deadlines, timelines, etc.)
- What is needed to do it? (Materials, contract support, facilities, vehicles, etc.)
- How much will it cost? (Budget)
- Who needs to be informed? (Stakeholders and information needs)

The answers to these questions become the foundation of a project management plan (PMP) – a comprehensive, tactical-level document that guides the project through completion. The initial PMP can expand or contract to meet the project scope and needs, but typically includes sections or appendices discussing known assumptions, initial schedule and budget, known and anticipated risks, stakeholders and communications plan, and change management procedures.

The PMP should also outline the project approach or the method for how the work is going to be completed. There are a wide variety of project approaches that suit different project types and project management preferences, but four of the most common are described here.

- *Predictive (or Waterfall) Approach:* This type of project approach flows from one phase to the other, implying that one phase finishes before the next begins. This end-to-beginning relationship between phases gives it a waterfall appearance. Predictive is one of the most common approaches and works best when the scope of the project is well-defined and relatively stable. Any changes part way through the project, such as changing the scenario in the exercise, can be very expensive and time-consuming. The waterfall approach is common for exercise development but may not be the best option.
- *Incremental Approach:* This approach allows for multiple deliverables to be developed simultaneously, with the final deliverable being complete once they are all integrated. This can reduce the development time, but it requires a lot of communication and integration to make sure everything works together in the end. The incremental approach may be well suited for exercise development, as it allows more flexibility for working groups to meet in tandem, negotiations for location occurring as materials are being developed, etc.
- *Iterative Approach:* This approach adds features and functionality through multiple development cycles throughout the project lifecycle. This may be effective for an exercise series but likely not for a single exercise.
- *Agile Approach:* This approach, which is popular in software development, is gaining prominence. It is dynamic and allows stakeholders to prioritize their

requirements frequently to direct work and adapt them as the project progresses. Although typically not appropriate for exercise design, an agile-like approach may be used when prioritizing, planning, and executing different objectives across multiple operational periods during response operations.

The information in the initial PMP will be baselines or best educated guesses. The budget, timeline, assumptions, stakeholders, and other factors can, and typically do, change through the project life due to new information. It is expected that these will continue to be refined during project execution through a process called [progressive elaboration](#). Due to this, it is essential to have a clear change management plan set in the initial PMP and for all changes to be documented in a changelog.

Another aspect to consider during planning is the project stakeholders. Knowing the stakeholders allows the project manager to determine who needs to be informed of what, when, how, and by whom. Keeping this information in a stakeholder register in the form of a Responsibility Assignment Matrix ([RAM](#)) can be a good reference and including it in the project plan allows those stakeholders to concur on the information they are receiving. An example RAM for a training exercise is shown in Figure 3.

Stakeholders	Info Needs	Medium	Frequency	Owner
Senior Officials	Project Status	Written report	Monthly	Project Manager
Project Sponsor	Project Updates	Meeting	Weekly	Project Manager
Project Manager	Status	Meetings	Daily	Project Team
Working Group Members	Status	Phone call	Weekly	Project Manager
Core Planning Team	Project Updates	Meeting	Daily	Project Manager

Fig. 3. Example of a Responsibility Assignment Matrix (RAM) (Source: Tager, 2022).

Finally, all projects have opportunities and risks, so it is important to identify and plan for them. Response plans typically include the set actions that can be taken when a threat or opportunity is encountered (see Figure 4). The actions can also be used to help decide how to respond to an unanticipated risk or opportunity discovered during project execution.

Individual Project Threats	Individual Project Opportunities	Overall Project Risk
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Escalate • Avoid • Transfer • Mitigate • Accept 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Escalate • Exploit • Share • Enhance • Accept 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Avoid • Exploit • Transfer/Share • Mitigate/Enhance • Accept

Fig. 4. Potential responses to threats and opportunities based on information from PMI's (2017) guide to the Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK guide) (Source: Tager, 2022).

Executing

When planning is complete, the project moves into the execution phase. The execution of training exercises is typically more abridged than the execution of other large projects, as exercise conduct does not typically extend more than a few days or a week. However, regardless of the timeframe for project execution or exercise conduct, a big part of project execution is ensuring quality, ensuring progress, and managing change. As the project progresses, in addition to managing change, it is necessary to analyze project progress and status, identify variances, and communicate that to relevant stakeholders as identified on the RAM. For example, if exercise play goes in a different direction than anticipated, it is important to recognize this deviance and react, typically by steering players back to the desired path or utilizing different injects during exercise play.

Monitoring and Controlling

Throughout all phases of the project, it is important to be constantly monitoring project progress and controlling actions. For example, it should be noted if planning steps are taking too long, and the project manager should control for that by altering the schedule or activities. Similarly, during the execution phase or conduct of an exercise, consider updating the materials if there are many questions in the pre-brief, ensure that the scenario injects are appropriate for the extent of play, review progress against the expected timeline, etc. While monitoring and controlling are designated as an independent project phase by PMI, they should be ongoing throughout all other project phases as well.

Closing

The closing process often gets skipped, especially on a long or complicated project or when there are more projects in the backlog that require attention. However, it is important to close a project properly, which includes communicating the final results to stakeholders, archiving materials, and documenting lessons learned to help ensure the success of future projects. To guide closing activities, consider the following questions:

- Did you satisfy all the success criteria documented in the project charter?
- Did you deliver the scope of work?
- Did you deliver on time?
- Did you deliver on budget?
- Is your customer satisfied with project results?
- Do team members want to work together again?
- Do team members want to work on another project with you?
- How will you know when you have achieved success?
- How will you communicate the results?

Suburban Fire Operations: Five Lessons Learned

By Randall W. Hanifen



Some may believe that no two fire departments are the same, but many commonalities exist within fire departments that span geographical areas: urban, suburban, and rural. Urban fire departments cover large cities. Suburban fire departments often cover the areas where many of the city's workers reside, as well as businesses that prefer not to reside in large cities. Rural fire departments often cover exceptionally large areas with low population numbers.

Urban fire departments often have many engine and truck companies, as well as staffed emergency medical services (EMS). Some large cities may have a divide between fire and EMS from a time when they were separate city departments or when EMS was provided as a private service. The rural fire departments are often volunteer departments that cover a large expanse of farmland and other rural areas that do not have the needed tax base to afford paid personnel.

However, suburban fire departments can range from a few paid personnel to completely paid departments. Many have EMS, but some have not yet transitioned into EMS. In some cases, the need for consolidating these services is the only way to afford paid personnel in areas that cover a variety of structures from all single-family residential buildings to mid- and high-rise buildings. For a suburban fire department, the following list is not all-encompassing or identical for all departments, but many of the factors are generalizable to the suburban fire department.

Lesson 1: A Department Is Either Progressing Forward or Falling Behind

Most suburban fire departments start in rural areas and, as people move out of the city, the suburban area grows to encompass it. The growth starts with residential neighborhoods to house those who have moved out of the city or the next inner ring of suburbs. Next, commercial areas expand to provide new residents with shopping areas in the same place where they live. Often the governments recognize that the tax dollars provided by the commercial properties allow amenities for the community and continue to invite both commercial properties and even some light industrial facilities and warehouses. The increase in commerce and warehousing can be a good match for a suburban community, as the land in the urban area is often landlocked and building large warehouses in urban areas is not possible. Lastly, as the price of land begins to climb, [developers](#) often choose to place apartment buildings and taller buildings on the diminishing amount of land.

This continual progress in the land use and building types creates a need for the fire department to continually match their services and standards of cover to the ever-changing community risk assessment. Delivering service with two-person fire companies cannot keep up with the needs of a community that has large commercial, apartment, or high-rise buildings. As the tax base grows with the placement of new buildings, fire department administrators must convince the citizens and elected officials that this is not the same community as it was five years ago, and more resources will be required to provide the same level of service and protection. Presenting critical [task analysis](#) and [standards of cover](#), as



well as benchmarking data are critical to ensure that those making funding decisions have the data to prove the need rather than just stating “we are busy or we are understaffed.” Of course, these are subjective measures for political leadership and no one in an organized department will ever be too slow and overstaffed.

Lesson 2: Standards Are the Goal, but Creativity May Be Needed

The [NFPA 1710](#) standard is the gold standard for the United States Fire Service when dealing with standards of cover and staffing. NFPA 1710 not only covers all time segments that are involved in fire and EMS responses but also covers staffing on fire apparatus. Studies conducted by the National Institute of Standards and Technology ([NIST](#)) have demonstrated the need for not only the number of firefighters necessary at different types of fire scenes but also the crew size of each company. NFPA 1710 recommends four-person engine and ladder companies unless in a high-risk area, in which case the numbers increase.

The amount of tax dollars per square mile is significantly less in the suburbs than in the urban areas, which often sets the pay scales. The most significant way to prevent taxes from being prohibitively high in the suburbs is to have either fewer units in service or fewer personnel to staff each unit, as personnel costs in staffed departments account for [up to 85%](#) of the overall budget. Often the suburban departments have an integrated EMS service in the fire department that can either allow for cross-staffing units to increase the number of people leaving on each fire apparatus or matching crews as they arrive on scene.

Although less than optimal, having an Initial Rapid Intervention Team ([IRIC](#)) that arrives in an ambulance and is onsite for the first arriving fire company to provide safety to the firefighters is better than no crew or waiting for another fire company to drive across town to allow safe entry. The drawback is that, unless the ambulance does not

make any calls, there is a statistical probability that the ambulance will be unavailable when a fire is dispatched. These are all considerations that need to be evaluated as administrators try to create the best system possible within the allowable budget.

Lesson 3: Collaboration of Area Departments Is Critical for Success

The second part of NFPA 1710 is the number of personnel in total that is needed at a fire event. For a single-family residential fire of average size (typically 2,000 sq.ft.), the recommendation is a minimum of 16 personnel or 17 if an aerial is used. However, this calculation in NFPA section 5.2.2.1.1 fails to mention the need for an incident safety officer separate from the incident commander and does not provide EMS services if one of the firefighters is hurt during the event. Also, no mention of rehab is present. Combining the requirements in the section above with other NFPA standard requirements, such as [NFPA 1500](#) series, and with the knowledge that additional fire companies may be needed for tasks outside those listed or to start rotation of crews on the initial alarm, the more accurate calculation is 25-26 personnel.

Unless the suburban fire department is seven or more stations, it is unlikely that an organization can provide these numbers. As such, administrators from neighboring organizations must ensure that they are working together. This starts with understanding each other's capabilities, on-duty staffing numbers and configurations, and typical operating procedures. Moving forward, neighboring organizations can train together, develop policies together, and purchase compatible equipment.

From small fire companies covering large areas of rural land to large fire departments covering highly populated urban cities, suburban fire departments are tasked with a mixture of both. One firefighter who has spent his career in a suburban fire department shares the five key lessons he has learned throughout his career.

For example, West Chester (OH) Fire Department is surrounded on all four sides by different dispatch centers, three counties, and even different hose threads. To overcome these issues, they have started with their dispatch center to connect Active 911 accounts and purchased Tellus, which can connect the computer-aided dispatches (CADs). Next, they worked together to create model policies. While each organization can tweak the policies, there is a base of understanding for the operational policies. Lastly, they identified common equipment and adaptors needed by each organization to overcome some of the barriers.

Lesson 4: Personnel Hiring and Development Are Critical for Success

Many urban departments have been in existence for more than 100 years, suburban departments often have not been around for nearly as long and, if so, they often started as volunteer departments. Consideration when hiring personnel should not be focused on hiring to fill the current vacancy but rather on hiring the future fire chief, assistant chief, battalion chief, or captain. Since the fire service typically does not hire from the outside – except for at the entry level – a person hired today is the future leader of the organization.

Failure to use this mentality will cause problems in 5 to 10 years because the values and skills of the person will not be able to transition to the management and leadership positions within the department. Valuable time and resources are wasted when there is a need to stop, go to the outside, and then get the outsider up to speed on the culture and inner workings of the department. This can be done, but it takes time and is not a guaranteed fit.

If this must be done a few times, there forms a belief inside the organization that no one can promote. With the more commonly employed lateral transfer due to low applicant numbers, personnel with 10 years of experience and thousands of dollars in training are leaving their departments. Ultimately, the community is the one that loses in this situation. Hire with the future in mind and start an officer development program early. Otherwise, incapable officers will be promoted, or current talent will walk out the door due to no internal promotions.

Lesson 5: Culture Is Key but Difficult to Establish or Change

Because of the continual need to hire as well as the disappearance of many who were in the department as a volunteer organization, the culture may be easier to modify, but even more difficult to establish. Whether it is a new chief and officers or new firefighters due to expansion, most suburban departments will undergo many cultural shifts. The longer the culture was in place, the harder the change will be.

For example, the West Chester Fire Department hired career personnel to transition to a staffed department on a 24-hour basis. Because the hazards had not translated to fires and some of the leaders had not been exposed to other organizations or areas of the county, a culture was created that said only limited amounts of equipment needed to be sent to events. Because the buildings were new and equipped with sprinklers, there was a high probability that the sprinklers would extinguish the fire, and mopping up would be the primary task for the personnel.

Personnel encountered a few large-scale fires but, because of the infrequency, they only increased the response numbers some while maintaining the culture of “It’s likely not on fire.” As the operations chief of that department, I knew we must change this culture, and this could only occur through data. There were two keys to creating change:

- The first was to involve members of the department at all levels. No matter how great an idea looks in an office, it may not translate well to the streets.
- The second is to make decisions based on data. As mentioned, moving from 16-17 personnel for every type of building to 25-26 personnel on the first alarm single-family residential and 51 on a high-rise fire first alarm was a significant change. This drastic change could only occur through proof of data as to why the change is needed.

Conclusion

The suburban department can be a very rewarding department to work for. Change can occur almost daily, but failure to keep the lessons presented in mind can make the transition not proceed as desired. Some of the initiatives that can aid an organization in ensuring that they are meeting today's demands and tomorrow's needs include:

1. Working as a region. No fire department including the New York City Fire Department (FDNY) is excluded from mutual aid. Knowing that you will use mutual aid means you should talk to the other agencies leaders before the event. Having common terminology, command practices, and common policies can ensure that the mutual and automatic aid work seamlessly. While no two agencies will have the exact same policies, a common understanding is key.
2. Succession management will become highly important as an organization grows and the leaders change. By developing tomorrow's leaders today, we can ensure that the promotion isn't the day the person has to start all of over. The International Association of Fire Chiefs produced a Succession Management Document and the findings of the over 700 surveyed related to being prepared for the promotion involved experience in completing the daily tasks of the new position. Acting officer programs and mentoring programs can help with these transitions, as well as setting training and education minimums needed for the promoted position. None of us are here forever, practice Level 5 Leadership, and ensure that your replacement is better than you.
3. Strategic Planning will allow you to receive buy in and show a path forward to all involved in the organization's success. Whether this is the newest person to the most senior elected official, you will need buy in for the change. Often those involved in the area can see the change in the community, but may not be good at seeing the need for change in the fire department. By having a systematic plan that allows expansion of personnel, facilities, and equipment, all tied to standards will inform all of the stakeholders of the needs and path forward. Because they had a hand in creating the plan, there is less chance of derailing the plan.

While there is no exact plan to grow a suburban fire department, utilizing the strategic plan to ensure that personnel, facilities, equipment, and most importantly policies and procedures are in place will allow measurable results in growth of the organization to ensure the community receives the service they deserve.

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Stop the Bleed Training for Immediate Responders

By Andy Altizer



The [Stop the Bleed Coalition](#) points out that the average time for a person to bleed out is between three to five minutes. [Jack Sava](#), MD, director of the Gold Surgery team at MedStar Washington Hospital Center is quoted saying that “An adult can die in less than five minutes from a bleeding wound in a critical area.” With the average time it takes an ambulance to arrive, it is more important than ever for people to know how to uncontrolled bleed (see Fig. 1).

Responding Immediately

Imagine a family hiking trip in a remote area of the Appalachian Mountains, when one of the children takes a nasty fall down a small ravine, resulting in a compound femur fracture where the bone knicks the femoral artery and causes substantial blood loss. With the remote location and limited phone coverage, first responders would likely take nearly an hour to arrive. The child’s life depends on the family members’ actions.

A [2015 report](#) points out that there are different levels of responders:

- *Immediate responders* – Individuals at the scene who can immediately control bleeding with their hands and available equipment
- *Professional first responders* – Prehospital responders at the scene with the appropriate equipment and training
- *Trauma professionals* – Hospital health care professionals with the equipment and skills to provide definitive care

The immediate responder (e.g., family members on a hiking trip) can provide lifesaving first aid during an emergency, especially when first responders are not nearby or are overwhelmed by multiple casualties. For example, as taught in Texas A&M Engineering Extension Services’ (TEEX) [Civilian Response to Active Shooter Events](#) course, it takes an average of three minutes for police to arrive in an active shooter situation. The first arriving officers have the crucial initial priority of neutralizing the shooter (“stop the killing”), and the follow-up officers or Rescue Task Force typically begin first aid (“stop the dying”). Depending on the severity and location of the injury, a person can bleed out in three to five minutes.

Another example would be a motor vehicle incident involving someone severely bleeding. Instead of arriving within a few minutes, Emergency Medical Services (EMS) and other first responders may be significantly delayed due to the traffic caused by the incident. These two examples illustrate the importance of immediate responders’ ability to stop the bleeding until first responders arrive on the scene or until the person arrives at the emergency room.



University of Georgia's Emergency Preparedness Office regularly teaches Stop the Bleed to faculty, staff, and students (Source: University of Georgia, March 2019).

Although the term immediate responders might be new to some, there has been an increase in this type of response. Examples include events/venue staff, coaches, athletic trainers, security officers, and Community Emergency Response Team (CERT) members. Cardiopulmonary resuscitation and automated external defibrillator (CPR/AED), basic first aid, search and rescue, locating lost children, etc. are typical training topics for immediate responders. Added to this list of training opportunities should be administering lifesaving STOP THE BLEED® (STB) measures (direct pressure, wound packing, tourniquet application). In addition to the immediate responders mentioned above, other groups that would benefit from STB training include:

- Bus drivers and other transportation officials
- Landscapers
- Facility workers – plumbers, construction, building services (housekeeping)
- Executive assistants
- Over the road truckers
- Martial arts dojo instructors and students
- Faith-based staff – ordained, support staff, and volunteers
- Special events workers
- Parents
- Building managers/fire wardens/volunteer crisis coordinators
- Summer camp counselors

- Lifeguards
- Security officers
- Afterschool staff
- Teachers/professors
- Civic organizations
- Scouts
- Parking lot attendants
- Teaching assistants/lab workers/principal investigators
- University students – Such training may also help them in their future careers and add to their resumes. Infusing training topics like STB is also a great addition to students’ academic curriculum, for example:
 - Criminal Justice majors
 - Education majors
 - Student nurses
 - Reserve Officers’ Training Corps ([ROTC](#)) cadets



Some STB classes go beyond the three basic concepts of direct pressure, wound packing, and tourniquets, and include how to use Chest Seals (*Source: Altizer, February 2019*).



Cobb County (Georgia) shows Kennesaw Student nurses how to pack a wound as part of the national Stop the Bleed program (Source: Altizer, February 2019).

This non-exhaustive list provides suggestions to encourage others to think about possible immediate responders within specific organizations. By getting STB training, the people within an organization would be more prepared to respond to an incident immediately.

Stopping the Bleed

According to the American College of Surgeons [STB program](#), bleeding is “the most common cause of preventable death after injury.” As such, it is important to know how to stop the bleeding and not to rely on first responders who may take too much time to reach critically bleeding victims. Learning to control bleeding is a skill easily learned and should be considered by various people and professions.

The number and type of immediate responders trained in STB are essential for community preparedness. Missionaries, little league coaches, umpires/officials, poll workers, etc. Get creative. The class is also a great way to build collaboration with others. As [FEMA](#) illustrates: “Life-threatening emergencies can happen fast, and emergency responders aren’t always nearby. You Are the Help Until Help Arrives.”

Andy Altizer is the Director of Emergency Management at Kennesaw State University, which works closely with Cobb Fire Rescue to provide an active Stop the Bleed training program on campus. He is also a Stop the Bleed Ambassador promoting the program and training to save lives.

Crowd Behavior & Elaborated Social Identity Modeling

By Robert Leverone



The issue of civil unrest has presented law enforcement across the United States with the significant challenge of restoring order while maintaining the constitutional rights of those who wish to exercise their freedom of speech. As a result, the way law enforcement has approached the issue of crowd control has undergone an evolution in the United States over the past several decades. From a philosophy of escalated force, where police incrementally increase their level of forceful coercion to disperse a crowd, to negotiated management, where law enforcement establishes a dialogue with group leaders, police have sought ways to [better deal with crowds](#). Understanding what motivates crowd behavior has become an important aspect of how law enforcement responds to crowd events. To build this understanding, law enforcement has begun to embrace research on the psychology of crowd behavior.

There is a growing body of research concluding that it is essential for law enforcement decision-makers to understand the behavioral aspects of crowds. Theories abound on why individuals and crowds behave the way they do. From Gustave LeBon's [Group Mind Theory](#) to Ralph Turner and Lewis Killian's [Emergent Norm Theory](#), library shelves and the internet offer abundant research explaining human behavior. One such theory – [Elaborated Social Identity Modeling](#) (ESIM), by Stephen Reicher, John Drury, and Clifford Stott – is presented as a valuable tool for law enforcement in gauging possible crowd behavior. Although not necessarily a precise predictor of behavior, Stott's report to [Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary](#) (HMIC) indicates ESIM provides potentially valuable insights into how a crowd may behave.

Foundation of Elaborated Social Identity Modeling

ESIM has its basis in Henri Tajfel's [Social Identity Theory](#) (SIT), a theory focusing on how individuals view themselves and the world around them vis-à-vis their membership in a social group. By doing so, individuals establish a social identity that, according to [Tajfel](#), is the part of a person's self-concept stemming from their membership in the social group to which they attribute value and emotional significance. [Dr. Saul McLeod](#) of the University of Manchester stated that social identity is attained via a three-step process of categorization, identification, and perceiving others behave.

Categorization involves individuals' self-perceptions and how they categorize themselves. For example, people may categorize themselves as members of a particular community, race, aggrieved group, anarchist, or parent. Indeed, people may categorize themselves as anything they perceive themselves to be. One may also place themselves in multiple categories, as posited by David Brannan, Kristin Darken, and Anders Strindberg in their book, [A Practitioner's Way Forward](#). Furthermore, Stott's report to the HMIC stated that categorization would lead to individuals acting in ways deemed appropriate as defined by those who categorize themselves in the same way.

The second step in SIT is for the subject to identify with like-minded individuals who categorize themselves similarly. This leads to bonding among individuals who begin to view themselves as members of an in-group. According to Anders Strindberg's report to the Swedish Defense Research Agency entitled, [Social Identity Theory and the Study of Terrorism and Violent Extremism](#), this in-group will now engage in thinking and behavior seen as normative within the collective through a process known as normative conformity. For example, in an unruly crowd event, normative behavior might manifest itself in behavior deemed normal to the in-group but aberrant by others, thereby necessitating a police response.

The final step in SIT is for the in-group to compare themselves and others, especially those who display dissimilar ways of thinking and behavior. Those people are looked upon by the in-group as an out-group. In Tajfel's book, [Social Identity and Intergroup Relations](#), Miles Hewstone and J.M.F. Jaspars see this in-group/out-group dyadic as setting the stage for potential confrontation because each in-group may discriminate against out-groups.

By way of example, imagine a fictional character named Michael. Michael is from the lower socioeconomic scale and is aggrieved by government and industry policies that maintain a subsistence wage for workers. He feels the pinch of rising inflation and believes abolishing government and private industry through anarchy will lead to fairer treatment of workers, thereby rectifying his problem. He then categorizes himself as an anarchist and seeks to identify with others of similar thought. He finds others who self-identify as anarchists. They bond by way of philosophical and physical attributes: they think the same, dress the same, and are willing to commit acts of violence to advance their agenda. They are now the in-group, looking at others of dissimilar characteristics as out-groups. Should the out-group be indicative of government or private industry, they are looked upon by the in-group with derision and as a target for violence. A government entity, such as law enforcement, may be targeted by anarchists with rocks, bottles, or other means. High-end retailers may be seen as representing the excesses of capitalism so despised by anarchists, thus becoming the target of looting or arson.

The fictional anarchist, Michael, has engaged in the three-step process of categorization, identification, and comparison. By understanding Michael's transformation, law enforcement can understand the motivations behind Michael's actions and predict, with some modicum of certainty, how he and his group will behave.

Applying Elaborated Social Identity Modeling

Every group is as unique as the individuals who comprise it, just as every crowd is as unique as the groups it contains. According to Stott's previously mentioned report, viewing a crowd as a monolithic entity, with no regard for the uniqueness of the groups it contains, would be a serious error for law enforcement officials charged with policing such a crowd. To treat the entirety of the crowd forcefully, based upon the violent reputations or actions of a few, may be looked upon by peaceful crowd members as an illegitimate law enforcement action.

[Research](#) conducted for the Swedish National Police Board determined that such illegitimate action could spur non-compliance with law enforcement directives. Elaborated



Social Identity Modeling calls for officials to adjust their approach by identifying and treating disruptive and peaceful groups within crowds differently. Writing at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas, Logan P. Kennedy stated that disruptive groups should be dealt with in a more focused manner, such as via [strategic incapacitation](#), where more forceful measures are focused on transgressors.

Since social identities within groups and crowds can be changeable – as recognized in research conducted by [Christopher Barney](#) – illegitimate police behavior can lead to a convergence of categorizations by groups. Through this convergence, groups may collectively consider themselves the in-group and law enforcement an out-group. One example of this occurred in Britain during the St. Paul’s riot of 1980. Research by [Reicher](#) determined that particular event saw people of varying social identities coalesce into one due to perceived improper police actions.

According to Brannan et al.’s book, ESIM explains that the in-group/out-group dynamic is driven by how one group perceives the actions of another. When one group acts in a certain way – say, police indiscriminately fire rubber projectiles into a non-violent crowd engaged in civil disobedience – that may yield a response by the crowd. That response may be of similar kinetic character because police actions were perceived as unnecessary and therefore illegitimate. The crowd’s reaction would then drive the law enforcement response. This cycle of action/reaction would continue until one side retains dominance.

According to Barney, the action/reaction cycle can also occur between docile groups and police if police actions are deemed heavy-handed. One example of this occurred in London in 2021, where [police confronted a crowd](#) of women who were in violation of COVID mask mandates while mourning the death of a young woman. Aggressive police actions were perceived as unnecessarily forceful and were met with resistance. ESIM looks at the context in terms of the actions of one group in relation to the actions of

another. Each time the cycle of action/reaction plays out, the context changes, forcing each group to reevaluate their actions in accordance with their identity – as happened in the 2021 London incident.

To prevent a violent cycle of action/reaction, law enforcement officers must temper their responses by realizing there may be peaceful groups in the crowd who see a heavy-handed, one-size-fits-all approach as illegitimate. According to Stott, law enforcement should identify and isolate those bent on disruption from those with peaceable intent and temper any use of force accordingly. The aforementioned [research](#) conducted by the Swedish National Police Board concluded that treating peaceful groups fairly by facilitating their constitutional rights can lead to greater cooperation and less violence.

Key Lesson for Better Decision Making

ESIM draws upon the concept of self-identity found in SIT and uses it to help distinguish disruptive elements from peaceful ones in a crowd. Understanding how the process of categorization, identification, and comparison shapes a person’s identity and, therefore, their behavior is essential to understanding the idiosyncrasies of the in-group/out-group dynamic, which can cause intergroup conflict. Law enforcement officials who appreciate these nuances in a crowd are better suited to make informed decisions when planning for and responding to crowd events. Better decision-making leads to more effective planning and response, which reduces the potential for civil unrest.

Robert Leverone retired as a lieutenant from the Massachusetts State Police after thirty-one years of service. He was commander of the Special Emergency Response Team, an arm of the agency tasked with crowd control. He holds a Bachelor of Science in Business Administration from Northeastern University, a Master of Science in Criminal Justice from Westfield State University, and a Master of Arts degree in Homeland Security Studies from the Naval Postgraduate School, where he wrote his thesis entitled, [Crowds As Complex Adaptive Systems: Strategic Implications for Law Enforcement](#). He is the owner and president of [Crowd Operations Dynamix Inc.](#), specializing in training and consulting law enforcement and private industry in crowd management and control issues

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