

POLICE SOURCE BOOK 2

Bruce Swanton
Garry Hannigan



Australian Institute of Criminology

POLICE SOURCE BOOK 2

edited by
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and Trish PSAILA

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FOREWORD

The Police Source Book is a unique compendium of information about all aspects of policing in Australia. The First Edition was thus welcomed by practitioners, researchers and students, to the point where the Institute considered that it would be an appropriate utilisation of resources to authorise Mr Bruce Swanton, the principal author, to update and expand the material contained therein.

However, that edition also attracted some adverse criticism on account of the fact that it largely ignored the role of the Australian Federal Police. This approach apparently reflected the view of the principal author that policing is an 'arena traditionally and constitutionally the responsibility of the various States and Territories' and that, consequently, the creation of the A.F.P. amounted to 'major federal intrusion into police and law enforcement'.

The Australian Institute of Criminology emphatically rejects this viewpoint. Federal criminal law is an area of rapidly growing importance, and there can be no constitutional doubt that it is lawful for the Federal Government to create and establish a Police Force to enforce that law. Nor can there be any doubt that it is constitutionally proper for the legislature to vest that same Police Force with the jurisdiction of enforcing the law of the A.C.T., as a Territory in relation to which law-making power is still vested in the Commonwealth Parliament. However, neither of these mechanisms in any way precludes the vesting of federal law enforcement powers also in State police - the policing equivalent of the 'autochthonous expedient' adopted with regard to federal judicial power.

In this Second Edition, the authors have not maintained quite as uncompromising a position on the question of federal policing. Rather, it has been stressed that 'police agencies by definition (should) possess a territorial and functional base'. On that premise, they have sought to provide where it is available information about the A.C.T. component of A.F.P. policing. Inevitably, because of the nature of data collection and storage methods, it has not always been possible to provide this discrete information. But a great deal of such information has nevertheless been made accessible. In addition, the Source Book now contains a contributed chapter relating to A.F.P. operations as such.

Some readers may still find this approach contrived or unsatisfactory, though others will find it illuminating. The Institute considers it is a passable compromise in a complex situation - ensuring, on the one hand, that strongly-held opinions of experienced scholars are not denied public exposure and, on the other, that an invaluable compendium of policing information is made available to interested parties.

R.W. HARDING
Director
Australian Institute of Criminology

October 1985

PREFACE

This second edition of Police Source Book represents a considerable development on its predecessor. Even so, limited resources regrettably precluded a quantum leap to perfection.

New Zealand has been included in this issue and although an attempt has been made to include as much of that country's material as possible, coverage remains unfortunately limited.

Contributors, whether of discrete chapters or portions of items, are mostly identified by name. Material not so identified is for the most part prepared by either or both of the two senior editors. Data sources are identified where relevant and possible.

Most data presented are obtained from agency annual reports and the amount and quality of data presented here are to a great extent determined by the quality and availability of those reports. Some reports are far more helpful than others, especially those of Queensland and Victoria. Police authorities in those two states are to be congratulated in that their annual reports present not only a range of useful and meaningful data but also are employed to convey the philosophies underlying their operations.

In Part I there are numerous statistical tables. Provided they are not used for interstate comparisons they can be useful in showing trends over time. But, caution must be exercised. Too great an emphasis should not be placed on particular datum. Source documents contain their share of errors. There are breaks in series and definitions are changed from time to time, sometimes without mention. Different results are possible if data are selected at different times of the year or averaged rather than taken at a particular point in time. Care has been taken to obtain the best data available in their most meaningful (at agency level) form but, they are not guaranteed! Data quality is further impacted by the fact that resources have permitted limited accuracy checking only. Researchers in particular need to bear in mind that all data inevitably reflect a less than perfect image of reality and, bureaucratically produced data are particularly prone to grossness. It will be quickly obvious that presented data are almost invariably agency-wide. Police data collection has not yet reached the stage of sophistication in all jurisdictions where formation and functional breakdowns are easily available. Future editions of this publication will need to consider district/regional data presentations.

In addition, readers are warned that some statistics are refined over time. Thus, some tabulated data in this edition may vary from data presented in the first edition.

Police Source Book 2 contains references to many agencies possessing the term "police" in their title. Some of these agencies, while possessing some common characteristics, are essentially unlike. This variety reflects the speciousness of the concept of police. The editors take the view that police agencies

by definition possess a territorial and functional base. Thus, emphasis rests on New Zealand Police, and state and territorial police organisations in Australia. Australian Capital Territory Police is thus treated discretely even though in recent years it has become a police subset of a multifaceted law enforcement agency, the Australian Federal Police. This approach possesses the additional advantage of permitting common data presentation. There is, of course, public interest in associated law enforcement agencies, especially those bearing the word police in their title. Several were invited to contribute chapters. The Australian Federal Police, Naval Police and Military Police did so. Their valuable contributions are shown as discrete chapters at the end of Part I.

Several very small police forces are referred to in the text but are not accorded common treatment with major agencies; they are Christmas Island Police, Cocos Island Police and Norfolk Island Police. Small numbers and lack of common data indicate such discrimination.

In any publication of this type some data inevitably become redundant, sometimes even before publication. Many of the tables contained in this volume provide opportunity for annual/periodic updating by readers requiring absolutely current data. In such a manner, Police Source 2 may serve as a constant reference source.

A large number of individual police officers and others have contributed their knowledge and assistance to the production of this second edition of the Police Source Book. To them all, whether or not named in the following pages, the editors extend their gratitude. The various contributors in turn acknowledge their indebtedness as appropriate to the various chief police officers and other authorities.

The editors also acknowledge suggestions and criticisms offered by readers of the first edition. This considerably larger second edition is an attempt to satisfy many of those comments.

Anita Scandia assisted with the figures and charts. Jack Sandry and Leona Jorgensen were responsible for proof reading. Nikki Riszko and Gael Parr reviewed Part III.

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PART I

POLICE OF AUSTRALASIA

This part of the Police Source Book serves the function of compendium or almanac, presenting data without interpretation. It is recognised not all chapters are as informative as they might be and that some desirable areas of the police phenomenon remain unaddressed. However, resources are limited and contributors are not available in respect of every data category.

The original primary purpose of this part of the Police Source Book was to provide police students and interested citizens with a range of data pertaining to police which would otherwise be time consuming to gather. That aim was certainly realised in that numerous students and citizens have found needed data in this publication. But, feedback suggests a large number of working police officers and public servants at all levels of government also find the data of considerable utility. With this thought in mind quantitative data tabulations, in particular, have been rearranged and improved. Further feedback from police studies students/instructors, policy analysts, planners, etc, as to the particularities of their needs will be appreciated so as to further improve future editions. Unfortunately, sub unit data breakdowns were not possible.

CHAPTER 1

SELECTED DATA CONCERNING AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND

Australia

Geographical

Australia is a middle order developed federal polity occupying a large land mass, together with adjacent islands, in the south west Pacific region. It lies between latitudes $10^{\circ} 41'$ S and $43^{\circ} 39'$ S and, between longitudes $113^{\circ} 09'$ E and $153^{\circ} 39'$ E. The land mass is skirted by the South Pacific Ocean to the east, by the Timor and Arafura Seas to the north, the Indian Ocean to the west and, to the south by the Southern Ocean. Mainland Australia together with the island state of Tasmania totals 768,789,700 hectares. This area is some 32 times larger than the United Kingdom. The relative geographic position of Australia is shown at Figure 1.1.

The average altitude of the federation's land mass is about 283 metres ASL. Dominating land form features are the western plateau, the interior lowlands and the eastern uplands.

The climate is predominantly continental, although significant modifications occur. Rainfall is generally not high and extreme minimum temperatures are higher than for the other four continents. Discomfort due to heat is experienced over most of the land mass during summer months.

Australia consists of a federation of six states and two internal territories. One territory, ie, Northern Territory, is self governing. The names of the various states and territories comprising the federation are presented in tabular form below, see Table 1.1, complete with populations and capital cities. Several external territories are also part of the federal polity.

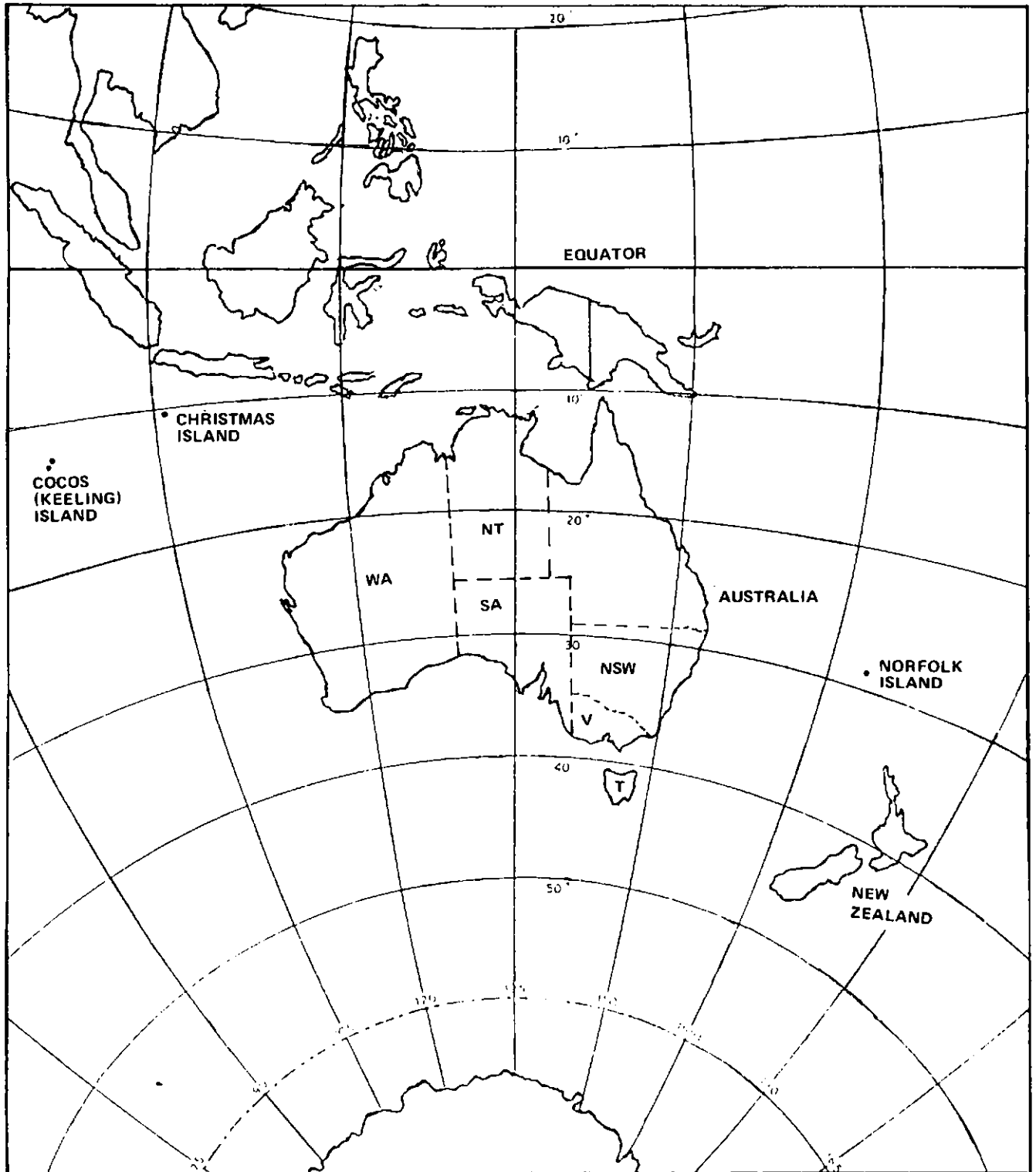
TABLE 1.1

POLITICAL UNITS, POPULATION AND CAPITAL CITIES, 1981

state/territory	polity population (millions)	capital city
New South Wales	5.23	Sydney
Victoria	3.95	Melbourne
Queensland	2.34	Brisbane
South Australia	1.32	Adelaide
Western Australia	1.30	Perth
Tasmania	0.43	Hobart
Northern Territory	0.12	Darwin
Australian Capital Territory	0.23	Canberra

Source : ABS

Figure 1:1
AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND



Australia's external territories are: (1) Norfolk Island, (2) Australian Antarctic Territory, (3) Heard and McDonald Islands, (4) Cocos (Keeling) Islands, (5) Christmas Island, and (6) Coral Sea Islands.

Legal and political

The federation of Australia is bound by the Commonwealth Of Australia Constitution Act 1900. Under the constitution political authority is shared between the six state governments and the federal government. Prior to federation each state was a self governing colony, possessing its own constitution. States still retain their constitutions, which are in some respects now subordinate to the federal constitution. The federal constitution assigns certain powers to the federal government, those matters not thereby assigned remain exclusively state concerns. Among the more important state responsibilities are those for criminal justice generally and, policing in particular. No constitutional authority exists for federal government involvement in policing, corrections or crime investigation, other than by way of state referral.

Each state has its own legislature. Government is representative at all levels, representatives being elected by eligible citizens, ie, all residents over 18 years of age.

The style of government in each component polity is ministerial largely in the Westminster style, although not all Westminster conventions are observed, eg, ministerial accountability. Executive power in each jurisdiction is exercised by a cabinet headed by premiers (in the case of the states) or a prime minister (in the case of the federal government). Administration is conducted by public servants. Elections are fought by competing political parties. The party or parties achieving electoral victory are required to form a government. The appropriate party leader acts as head of government together with a ministry of elected politicians. Ministers are responsible for each of the various government departments. The premiers and the prime minister conduct the essential business of government in concert with an inner core of ministers known as a cabinet. Cabinets operate on a basis of collective responsibility.

Periodic elections are held for all houses of the various parliaments, although this was not always so in respect of some state upper houses.

The various states and territories developed politically pre-federation as shown at Table 1.2.

TABLE 1.2

STATES & TERRITORIES : PREVIOUS CONSTITUTIONAL STATUS

state/territory	year of annexation by British govt	year of first permanent settlement	year of formation into separate colony or territory	year responsible govt granted
New South Wales	1770	1788	1786	1855
Victoria	1770	1834	1851	1855
Queensland	1770	1824	1859	1859 ^(a)
South Australia	1788	1836	1834	1856
Western Australia	1829	1829	1829	1890
Tasmania	1788	1803	1825	1855
Northern Territory			1863 ^(b)	
Australian Capital Territory			1911 ^(c)	

(a) as part of NSW in 1855; as a separate colony in 1859.

(b) previously part of NSW brought under jurisdiction of SA in 1863; transferred to federal govt in 1911.

(c) previously a part of NSW.

Source: ABS

Defence forces

Defence is exclusively a federal responsibility. State governments may request military aid but, discretion concerning acceptance or rejection of such requests rests entirely with federal cabinet. The Department of Defence is also responsible for the Natural Disasters Organisation, a body designed to supplement state/territory emergency services when particular disasters exceed the capacities of local resources to cope.

Military strengths are shown at Table 1.3.

TABLE 1.3

DEFENCE FORCE STRENGTHS, BY SERVICE, 1981

service	regular	reserve	total
Navy	17,298	1,021	18,319
Army	32,898	31,125	64,023
Air Force	22,322	519	22,841

Source: ABS

Whilst under certain circumstances military forces may provide aid to the civil power, such occurrences rarely arise. The most recent occasion was in February, 1978, when a bomb exploded outside the Hilton Hotel, Sydney. A number of

Commonwealth heads of state were staying at the hotel at that time. Army personnel were utilised to provide additional security during the remainder of their stay, ie, a CHOGRM meeting. No paramilitary forces are maintained, although the Special Air Service of the regular army is trained to perform certain tasks in relation to anti terrorist operations. Some thought has been given, within both federal and some state institutions, to the creation of paramilitary or gendarmerie type 'third force' organisations. In the short term at least, such bodies are unlikely to materialise. In the longer term, though, and given appropriate circumstances, the creation of such units is by no means an impossibility despite the constitutional problems that could attach to their creation.

The Royal Australian Navy, in the absence of a coast guard, provides a marine-based coastal patrol surveillance, which is supplemented by an aerial coastal surveillance program.

During April 1983, the federal government utilised Royal Australian Air Force aircraft on photographic missions to obtain evidence against the Tasmanian government in relation to constitutional litigation between the parties. One reason advanced for the use of airforce resources was that it was a necessary measure so as to avoid the possibility of confrontation between Tasmanian police officers and federal agents.

Population

The human population of Australia is ageing, there being a low birthrate. Internal migration, mostly from south to north, further complicates population distribution. As at mid-1981 the federation's population totalled 14.92 million. State and territory populations by gender and age groups are shown at Table 1.4. Gross populations of each state and the Northern Territory for the period 1970-1982 are shown at Table 1.5.

TABLE 1.4

POPULATION : GENDER & AGE GROUP BY STATE & TERRITORY,
30 JUNE 1981

age gp	NSW	V	Q	SA	WA	T	NT	ACT
males								
15yrs	43295	33962	20435	11723	11639	3657	1037	2038
16yrs	43607	35000	20593	11901	11674	3913	967	1966
17yrs	45703	35750	21181	12003	11763	3996	981	1932
18yrs	46539	36118	21624	12036	11885	4049	1037	2057
19yrs	47146	35587	21809	11745	11694	3986	1044	2087
20-24yrs	228709	172103	106636	58443	59220	18660	6725	9830
25-29yrs	215370	162027	98010	54341	58650	17382	7314	10318
30-34yrs	216986	160298	95721	53456	57742	16876	7074	11867
35-39yrs	178321	130928	78994	42113	45224	13524	5415	9087
40-44yrs	152140	112587	65634	35648	38536	11790	4030	7165
45-49yrs	135398	101091	56644	32911	32836	10187	2814	5451
50-54yrs	142499	106337	58075	36485	32325	10892	2487	4956
55-59yrs	134686	99063	55770	35192	28742	10331	1676	4306
60-64yrs	107600	76254	46623	28131	21599	8566	1089	2724
65-69yrs	91064	65568	39881	24419	19349	7526	705	1849
total males	1829063	1362673	807630	460547	452878	145335	44395	77633
females								
17yrs	43287	33834	20903	11586	11350	4003	945	2028
18yrs	44316	34703	21033	11785	11606	3922	1007	2016
19yrs	45495	34860	21464	11959	11595	3991	1024	2025
20-24yrs	222291	169631	101409	57249	57159	18687	6365	10243
25-29yrs	210840	160305	92763	53376	56273	17078	6569	11052
30-34yrs	210814	160354	92121	52978	54546	16503	6154	11894
35-39yrs	172110	127758	75642	41988	42133	13231	4161	8968
40-44yrs	144799	107951	61475	35547	35987	11237	2922	6899
45-49yrs	128059	96502	53505	31799	30637	9896	2032	5057
50-54yrs	137916	102842	56220	35333	30216	10364	1634	4655
55-59yrs	136714	100288	54808	35555	27609	10525	1176	4183
60-64yrs	119519	84375	50170	30868	23253	9416	864	2897
65-69yrs	105151	76063	43788	27390	21876	8353	585	2210
total females	1721311	1289466	745301	437413	414240	137206	35438	74127
persons								
17yrs	88990	69584	40284	23589	23113	10999	1926	3960
18yrs	90855	70821	42657	23821	23491	7971	2044	4073
19yrs	92641	70447	43273	23704	23244	7977	2068	4112
20-24yrs	451000	341734	208045	115692	116379	37347	13090	20073
25-29yrs	426210	322332	190773	107717	114923	34460	13883	21376
30-34yrs	427800	320652	187842	106434	112288	33379	13228	23761
35-39yrs	350431	258686	154636	84101	87357	26755	9576	18055
40-44yrs	296939	220538	127109	71195	74523	23027	6962	14064
45-49yrs	263457	197593	110149	64710	63473	20083	4846	10508
50-54yrs	280415	209179	114295	71818	62541	21256	4121	9611
55-59yrs	271400	199351	110578	70747	39267	20856	2852	8489
60-64yrs	227119	160629	96793	58999	44752	17982	1953	5621
65-69yrs	196215	141631	83669	51809	41225	15879	1290	4059
total persons	3463472	2583177	1511903	874336	843805	274971	77829	147756

Source: National Prison Census 1982

TABLE 1.5

POPULATION BY STATE/TERRITORY, 1964-1983

year	NSW	V	Q	WA	SA	T	NT	ACT
1964 ¹	4,142,121	3,137,921	1,626,525	818,121	1,051,954	366,508	52,754	84,525
1965 ¹	4,211,049	3,195,860	1,659,423	838,248	1,082,958	369,608	55,464	92,798
1966 ¹	4,267,452	3,249,843	1,687,062	864,093	1,103,740	373,309	59,352	99,992
1967 ¹	4,329,913	3,303,606	1,715,803	896,988	1,115,926	377,841	64,399	107,777
1968 ¹	4,401,212	3,356,827	1,747,724	937,800	1,132,137	383,055	70,223	116,604
1969 ¹	4,490,765	3,421,178	1,779,690	976,620	1,149,375	386,998	75,831	126,760
1970 ¹	4,573,735	3,482,031	1,812,784	1,014,052	1,170,230	390,253	82,822	137,562
1971 ²	4,725,500	3,601,400	1,851,500	1,053,800	1,200,100	398,100	85,700	151,200
1972 ²	4,795,100	3,661,300	1,898,500	1,082,000	1,214,600	400,300	92,100	159,800
1973 ²	4,841,900	3,707,700	1,952,000	1,101,000	1,228,500	403,100	97,100	173,300
1974 ²	4,894,100	3,755,700	2,008,300	1,127,600	1,241,500	406,200	102,900	186,200
1975 ²	4,932,000	3,787,400	2,051,400	1,154,900	1,265,300	410,100	92,900	199,000
1976 ²	4,959,600	3,810,400	2,092,400	1,178,300	1,274,000	412,300	98,200	207,700
1977 ²	5,003,200	3,837,500	2,132,400	1,204,800	1,286,600	413,900	102,200	211,100
1978 ²	5,049,800	3,863,700	2,177,500	1,230,900	1,297,800	416,400	107,000	215,200
1979 ²	5,103,300	3,883,200	2,223,200	1,254,100	1,301,800	418,700	111,400	218,200
1980 ²	5,165,200	3,909,800	2,275,400	1,273,500	1,308,700	423,500	115,200	220,800
1981 ²	5,237,100	3,948,600	2,345,300	1,299,100	1,319,300	427,300	122,800	227,300
1982 ³	5,307,948	3,994,122	2,419,570	1,336,911	1,328,738	429,752	129,429	231,939
1983 ³	5,354,915	4,034,632	2,473,037	1,363,239	1,340,398	432,228	134,041	236,742

Sources: 1. Demography.
 2. Yearbook Australia 1983.
 3. Australian Demographic Statistics Quarterly.

New Zealand

Geographical

New Zealand is a middle order developed country in the south west Pacific region. The administrative boundaries of New Zealand extend from 33° to 53° south latitude and from 162° east longitude to 173° west longitude. About 1,200 miles east of Australia, New Zealand is bounded to the north, east and south by the Pacific Ocean and by the Tasman sea to the west. The three main islands, North, South and Stewart Island, comprise approximately 27,099,947 hectares; similar in size to the United Kingdom. Other islands considered to be either part of New Zealand or politically associated with it, include Tokelau, Raoul and Campbell Islands. The relative geographic position of New Zealand is shown at Figure 1.1.

Less than one quarter of the land mass lies below 183 metres ASL and high mountains occupy about one tenth of the surface.

The main islands of New Zealand are a little south of the subtropical mean high pressure belt and penetrate into the hemisphere westerly airstream. Average rainfall for the country is high.

As at the end of 1982, the country's population totalled 3.23 million.

New Zealand is a unitary polity, its capital, Wellington, being situated at the southern end of the North Island.

Legal and political

At one stage in the nineteenth century New Zealand had a bicameral legislature together with six provincial unicameral legislatures, although the provinces were not sovereign in the sense that the General Assembly could legislate in areas in which the provinces had jurisdiction. Eventually, the provinces were abolished and the country's sole parliament now sits in Wellington.

The New Zealand constitution, like the British, is not a single document but a combination of statutory and common law held together by convention.

Major statutes possessing constitutional elements include:

- * Constitution Act 1852 - creation of Parliament
- * Bill of Rights 1688
- * Habeas Corpus Act 1679
- * Electoral Act 1956 - election of Parliamentarians
- * Legislative Act 1908

- * Economic Stabilisation Act 1948
- * Public Safety Conservation Act 1932
- * Letters Patent & Instructions 1917-1919

The New Zealand parliament is now unicameral, consisting of 92 elected members of the House of Representatives. Parliament's principal functions are to enact laws, supervise government administration, vote supply, provide a government and redress grievances by way of petition.

Government is principally directed by the Prime Minister and Cabinet and conventions of government are based largely on the Westminster style of government. Execution of government policies is administered by a non-political public service. Elections are conducted periodically between competing political parties. The leader of the party achieving majority is invited by the Governor-General to provide a government.

Defence forces

New Zealand maintains three permanent armed services, ie, Army, Air Force and Navy. Strengths are as shown at Table 1.6.

TABLE 1.6

DEFENCE FORCE STRENGTHS, BY SERVICE, 1982

service	regular	reserve	total
navy	2,861	1,287	4,148
army	5,676	8,314	13,990
airforce	4,271	1,390	5,661

Source: DOS

The introduction of the 200 mile EEZ in 1978 increased the utilisation of naval vessels in surveillance and regulation roles. A frigate and four patrol craft are engaged full time on fishery protection patrol. Surveillance flights are operated by the air force with Orion and Andover aircraft. The armed services also cooperate with civil authorities in case of emergencies, including the SAS Squadron.

Population

The New Zealand population is relatively young with well over 50 per cent being under 30 years of age. The country's population is shown by gender and age interval group at Table 1.7. The average population increase is 0.4 per cent pa. Total populations for the years 1970-1982 are shown at Table 1.8.

TABLE 1.7
POPULATION BY GENDER, AGE GROUP, 1981

age interval	males	females	total	% age
20 - 24	139,374	133,947	273,324	8.6
25 - 29	120,558	121,374	241,932	7.6
30 - 34	120,357	119,700	240,060	7.6
35 - 39	97,026	96,165	193,188	6.1
40 - 44	85,986	84,528	170,514	5.4
45 - 49	75,945	73,026	148,968	4.7
50 - 54	80,100	76,161	156,264	4.9
55 - 59	74,298	74,895	149,196	4.7
60 - 64	61,020	68,583	129,603	4.1
65 - 69	53,346	61,950	115,296	3.6
70 - 74	39,246	49,509	88,752	2.8
75 - 79	23,820	34,434	58,254	1.8
80 - 84	11,325	21,252	32,577	1.0
85 - 89	4,179	10,614	14,793	0.5
90 and over	1,650	4,869	6,519	0.2
totals	1,578,927	1,596,810	3,175,737	100.0%

Source: DOS

TABLE 1.8
TOTAL POPULATION AS AT 31 MARCH, 1970-1982

year	population
1964	2,590,787
1965	2,640,117
1966	2,676,919
1967	2,727,148
1968	2,756,242
1969	2,763,107
1970	2,815,987
1971	2,860,873
1972	2,906,700
1973	2,967,000
1974	3,030,600
1975	3,089,000
1976	3,124,500
1977	3,140,400
1978	3,160,200
1979	3,158,200
1980	3,161,300
1981	3,170,900
1982	3,190,100

Source: DOS

CHAPTER 2

POLICE AND ASSOCIATED ORGANISATIONS

In addition to the eight independent police organisations of Australia and New Zealand, there exist a number of peripheral bodies. Some of these police associated organisations are government funded whilst others are not, some support police operational and administrative needs whereas others reflect the needs and interests of police officers spiritually, socially or industrially.

Brief descriptions only are provided here of major police and peripheral bodies. The bulk of relevant data is, of course, distributed among the other chapters of Part I. Most of the data presented here are fairly straightforward but, a comment on police executives is in order.

Command of modern police agencies has become very much a consultative process in recent decades. Gone are the days when rank structures jumped direct from Superintendent to Commissioner. The consultative process reflects increases in scale as well as organisational and technical complexity. The intense political scrutiny to which the various police agencies are from time to time subjected has no doubt also helped to hasten the process.

In Australia, only the Northern Territory accords such senior rank to top formation commanders. Quite why the universal practice exists in the states of subordinating senior formation commanders to senior administrators is not known. Possibly, as the practice is consistent with the British police organisational tradition, it has never been seriously questioned. New Zealand Police accords the ranks of Commissioner and Deputy Commissioner top of the hierarchical range. The Deputy Commissioners and headquarters based Assistant Commissioners, together with the agency's Secretary comprise the Executive. It is interesting to note that the three senior formation commanders variously hold the ranks of Assistant Commissioner or Deputy Assistant Commissioner.

It has become common practice in recent years to refer to Commissioners of Police and their top administrators corporately as agency executives - in the sense of executive boards. Victoria Police goes further, referring informally to its top administrators as "Commissioners", thereby giving the impression they are members of a Police Board of Commissioners rather than agency employees, albeit of senior rank. Incidentally, the Police Department of New South Wales now has a Police Board comprising the Commissioner of Police plus two part time, non-police, members - one of whom is chairman. The senior public servant in each police agency is a member of his respective executive.

There is, in some police agencies, a regrettably high turnover of top administrators due to their being promoted late in their respective careers. In some departments, this difficulty is partly offset by allowing Commissioners and Deputy Commissioners to serve past the age of 60 years. In recent times, a number of competent "young" Commissioners have been appointed with beneficial effect.

The various police executives shown below were accurate at the dates shown but, due to turnover will rapidly become inaccurate. Thus, such information should be checked with the relevant agency.

Formal meetings of the various police executives vary considerably between agencies. Some meet daily, others weekly. Thus, various executive styles differ greatly, some being primarily concerned with day to day administration and management concerns, whereas others are more policy oriented. Such variations in practice is most desirable. What works well in one situation may not work so well in another and, in any case, no single practice is necessarily superior to all others.

POLICE AGENCIES

New South Wales

Address: Police Headquarters
10-14 College Street
SYDNEY NSW 2000
GPO Box 45
SYDNEY NSW 2001

Year of origin: 1862

Legislation:

- * Police Regulation Act 1899
- * Police Regulation (Superannuation) Act 1906
- * Industrial Arbitration Act 1940
- * Police Regulation (Allegations of Misconduct) Act 1978
- * Police Rules
- * Law Reform (Vicarious Liability) Act 1983

Minister: (as at Sep 85)

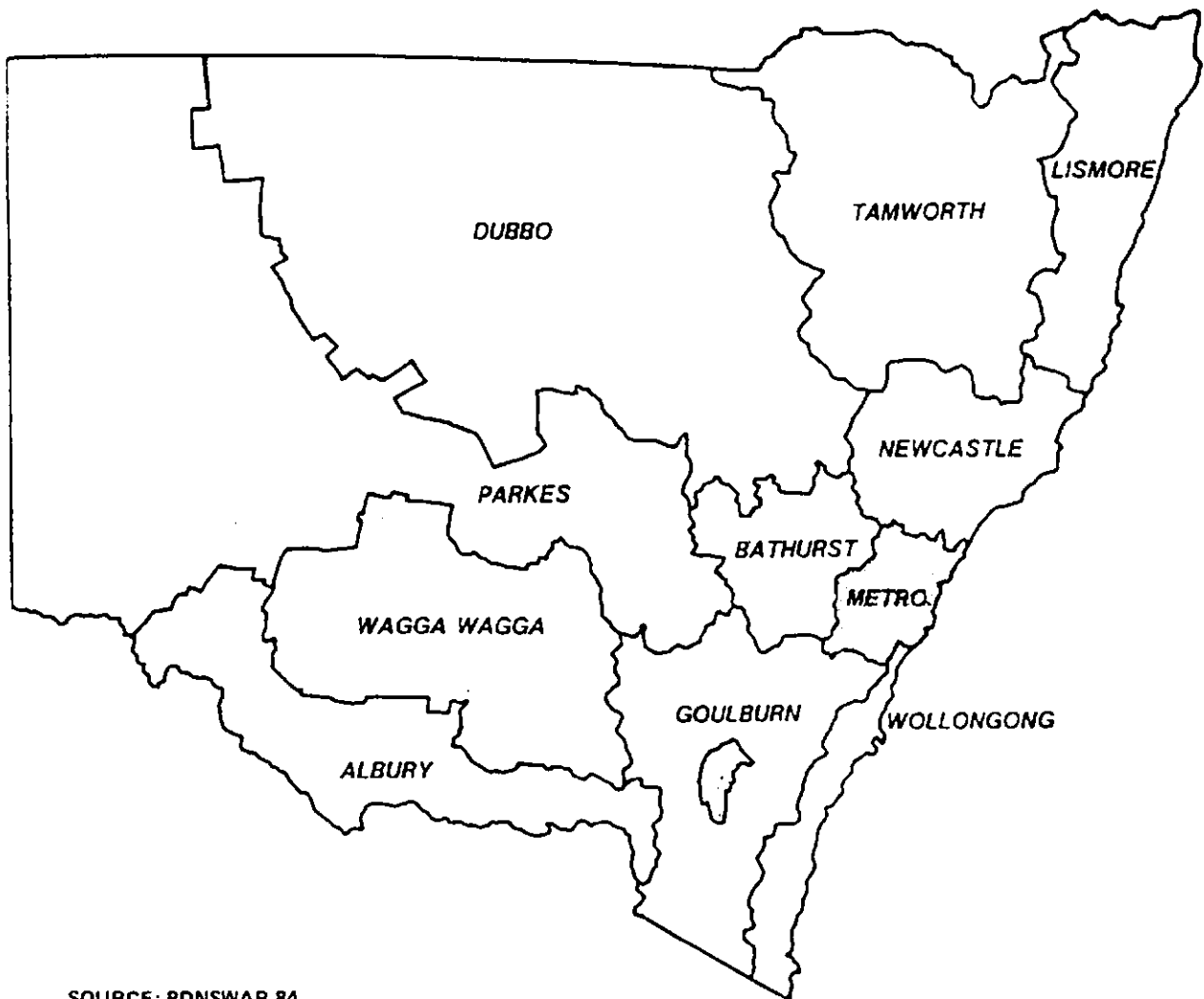
Peter ANDERSON

Executive: (As at Sep 85)

Commissioner
Deputy Commissioner (Ops)
Deputy Commissioner (Adm)

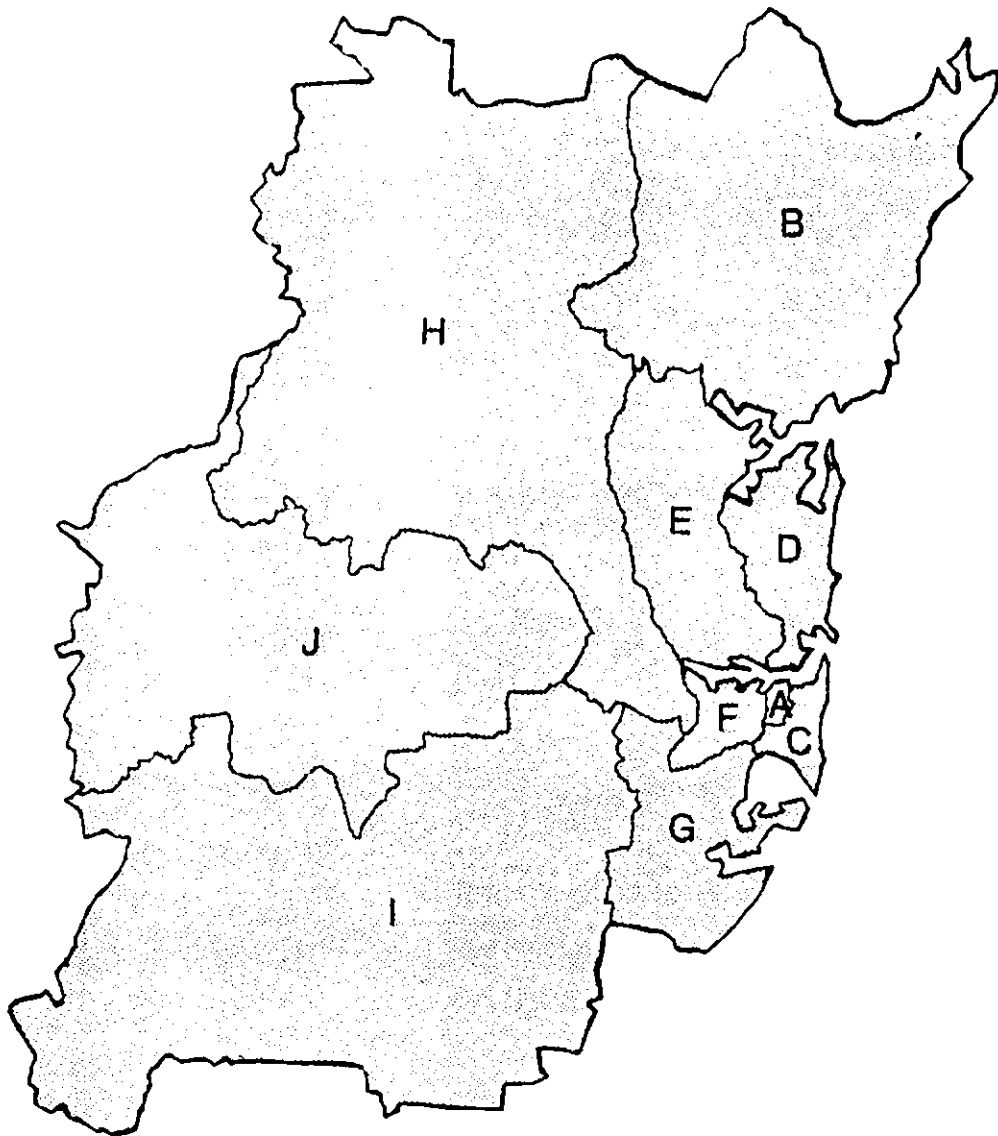
John AVERY
WB ROSS
JC PERRIN

**Figure 2:1A – NEW SOUTH WALES POLICE COUNTRY ADMINISTRATION AREAS,
SUPERINTENDENT DISTRICTS, 1984**



SOURCE: PDNSWAR 84

Figure 2:1B – NEW SOUTH WALES POLICE METROPOLITAN ADMINISTRATION AREA,
SUPERINTENDENT DISTRICTS, 1984



- A CASTLEREAGH ST
- B GOSFORD
- C MAROUBRA
- D DEE WHY
- E HORNSBY
- F ENFIELD
- G BANKSTOWN
- H PARRAMATTA
- I LIVERPOOL
- J PENRITH

SOURCE: PDNSWAR 84

Assistant Commissioner (Crime)	ER NIXON
Assistant Commissioner (Tfc)	William FLEMING
Assistant Commissioner (Gen)	EF BUNT
Assistant Commissioner (Pers)	ADM GRAHAM
Assistant Commissioner (Services)	(vacant)
Assistant Commissioner (ES)	MK GRUGGEN
Assistant Commissioner (IA)	Robert SHEPHERD
Secretary	Leo VINEBERG

As from early 1984, a Police Board has existed in New South Wales. Authorised by the Police Board Act 1983, its composition is:

Chairman (part time)	Maurice BYERS
Member	John AVERY
Member (part time)	Gordon JACKSON
Secretary	Edward LOVE
Assistant Secretary	Dennis FARDY

Current strength: (as at 29 Jun 84)

Sworn officers:	9,841
Other employees:	1,588

Territorial organisation:

New South Wales Police is divided into Districts, Divisions and Station patrols. There is also a fundamental distinction between Metropolitan and Country areas. The Sydney metropolitan area contains ten Districts, containing 33 divisions and 102 stations. District commanders carry the rank of Superintendent and Division commanders are Inspectors. Country districts are shown at Figure 2.1A. Metropolitan districts are shown at Figure 2.1B. The state's various police stations are located at:

METROPOLITAN AREA (as at 30 Jun 84)

<u>"A" DISTRICT</u>	Division	<u>"C" DISTRICT</u>	Division
Central	1	Maroubra	15
Redfern	2	Randwick	
Regent Street		Mascot	
		Mascot Airport	
		Botany	
Darlinghurst	3	Waverley	10
Kings Cross		Bondi	
Phillip Street	4	Paddington	
The Rocks		Rose Bay	
		Vaucluse	
<u>"B" DISTRICT</u>		<u>"D" DISTRICT</u>	
Gosford	30	Dee Why	14
Woy Woy		Frenchs Forest	
Terrigal		Manly	
Wyong	37	North Sydney	6
The Entrance		Mosman	
Toukley			

<u>"D" DISTRICT</u>	Division	<u>"G" DISTRICT</u>	Division
Mona Vale	29	Kogarah	12
Avalon		Rockdale	
Collaroy		Sans Souci (Water Police)	
Broken Bay (Water Police)			
		Sutherland	24
		Miranda	
		Cronulla	
		Engadine	
<u>"E" DISTRICT</u>		<u>"H" DISTRICT</u>	
Chatswood	25		
Lane Cove		Castle Hill	33
Pymble		Richmond	
		Windsor	
Eastwood	17	Wiseman's Ferry	
Ryde			
		Flemington	32
Hornsby	16	Auburn	
Berowra		Lidcombe	
Brooklyn			
Pennant Hills		Merrylands	26
		Wentworthville	
<u>"F" DISTRICT</u>			
Balmain	8	Parramatta	18
Leichhardt		Granville	
Annandale		Ermington	
		<u>"I" DISTRICT</u>	
Burwood	9		
Five Dock		Campbelltown	35
Drummoyne		Camden	
Enfield		Ingleburn	
		Picton	
Campsie	13	The Oaks	
Punchbowl			
Lakemba		Fairfield	34
Earlwood		Cabramatta	
Newtown	5	Liverpool	22
Marrickville		Green Valley	
		<u>"J" DISTRICT</u>	
Petersham	11		
Ashfield		Blacktown	27
		Mount Druitt	
<u>"G" DISTRICT</u>		Riverstone	
Bankstown	19	Seven Hills	
Bass Hill			
Revesby		Penrith	23
		St Marys	
Hurstville	31	Warragamba Dam	
Kingsgrove			
Peakhurst		Springwood	36
		Katoomba	
		Lawson	
		Blackheath	
		Mount Victoria	

Total number of Police Stations in Metropolitan Area - 102.

COUNTRY AREA
(as at 30 Jun 84)

ALBURY DISTRICT (AL)

Albury Division

Albury
Corowa
Culcairn
Henty
Holbrook
Howlong
Hume Weir
Khancoban
Mulwala
Oaklands
Rand
Tumbarumba
Walla Walla

Deniliquin Division

Balranald
Barham
Berrigan
Deniliquin
Euston
Finley
Jerilderie
Mathoura
Moama
Moulamein
Tocumwal

BATHURST DISTRICT (BX)

Bathurst Division

Bathurst
Hill End
Oberon
Rockley
Trunkey Creek
Tuena

Lithgow Division

Capertree
Kandos
Lithgow
Portland
Rylstone
Wallerwang

BATHURST DISTRICT (BX) (Cont)

Orange Division

Blayney
Carcoar
Cudal
Cumnock
Mandurama
Manildra
Millthorpe
Molong
Orange

DUBBO DISTRICT (DU)

Bourke Division

Bourke
Brewarrina
Cobar
Coolabah
Enngonia
Hermidale
Nymagee
Nyngan
Wanaaring

Dubbo Division

Dubbo
Geurie
Gilgandra
Gulargambone
Narromine
Stuart Town
Tooraweenah
Trangie
Warren
Wellington
Yeoval

Mudgee Division

Binnaway
Cassilis
Coolah
Coonabarabran
Dunedoo
Gulgong
Mendooran
Mudgee

DUBBO DISTRICT (DU) (Cont)Walgett Division

Baradine
 Burren Junction
 Carinda
 Collarenebri
 Coonamble
 Goodooga
 Gwabegar
 Lightning Ridge
 Pilliga
 Walgett

GOULBURN DISTRICT (GO)Cooma Division

Adaminaby
 Berridale
 Bombala
 Cooma
 Delegate
 Jindabyne
 Nimmitabel

Cootamundra Division

Adelong
 Batlow
 Bethungra
 Cootamundra
 Gundagai
 Harden
 Jugiong
 Stockinbingal
 Talbingo
 Tumut
 Wallendbeen

Goulburn Division

Bigga
 Collector
 Crookwell
 Goulburn
 Marulan
 Tarago
 Taralga

Queanbeyan Division

Binalong
 Boorowa
 Braidwood
 Bungendore
 Captain's Flat
 Gunning
 Michelago
 Queanbeyan
 Yass

GOULBURN DISTRICT (GO)Moss Vale Division

Berrima
 Bundanoon
 Bowral
 Mittagong
 Moss Vale
 Robertson

LISMORE DISTRICT (LI)Coffs Harbour Division

Bellingen
 Bowraville
 Coffs Harbour
 Coramba
 Dorrigo
 Macksville
 Nambucca Heads
 Sawtell
 Urunga
 Woolgoolga

Grafton Division

Copmanhurst
 Glenreagh
 Grafton
 Illuka
 Lawrence
 Maclean
 Nymboida
 Ulamarra
 Yamba

Lismore Division

Alstonville
 Ballina
 Bonalbo
 Casino
 Coraki
 Evans Head
 Lismore
 Nimbin
 Tabulam
 Wardell
 Woodburn

Tweed Heads (from 30 May 83)

Bangalow
 Brunswick Heads
 Byron Bay
 Kingscliff
 Kyogle
 Murwillumbah
 Mullumbimby
 Tweed Heads
 Urbenville
 Woodenbong

LISMORE DISTRICT (LI)West Kempsey Division

Bellbrook
Ellenborough
Gladstone
Kew
Laurieton
Port Macquarie
South West Rock
Wauchope
West Kempsey

NEWCASTLE DISTRICT (NC)Belmont Division

Belmont
Boolaroo
Catherine Hill Bay
Charlestown
Dudley
Swansea

Cessnock Division

Abermain
Branxton
Bulga
Cessnock
Kurri Kurri
Singleton
Wolombi

Maitland Division

Beresfield
Clarencetown
Dungog
East Maitland
East Gresford
Karuah
Lemon Tree Passage
Lochinvar
Maitland
Morpeth
Nelson Bay
Paterson
Raymond Terrace
Stroud

Muswellbrook Division

Aberdeen
Denman
Jerrys Plains
Merriwa
Moonan Flat
Murrurundi
Muswellbrook
Scone
Willow Tree

NEWCASTLE DISTRICT (NC)Newcastle Division

Adamstown
Carrington
Hamilton
Newcastle
Lambton
Mayfield
Stockton

Taree Division

Bulahdelah
Comboyne
Cooperook
Forster
Gloucester
Nabiac
Taree
Tea Gardens
Wingham

Wallsend Division

Cardiff
Morisset
Teralba
Toronto
Wallsend
Wangi Wangi
West Wallsend

PARKES DISTRICT (PK)Broken Hill Division

Broken Hill
Buronga
Dareton
Ivanhoe
Menindee
Pooncarie
Tibooburra
Wentworth
Wilcannia

Forbes Division

Canowindra
Caragabal
Cowra
Eugowra
Forbes
Goolagong
Greenthorpe
Grenfell
Koorawatha
Quandialla
Woodstock
Young

PARKES DISTRICT (PK)Parkes Division

Bogan Gate
 Condobolin
 Lake Cargelligo
 Parkes
 Peak Hill
 Tottenham
 Trundle
 Tullamore
 Tullibigeal

TAMWORTH DISTRICT (TM)Armidale Division

Armidale
 Bendemeer
 Deepwater
 Emmaville
 Glen Innes
 Guyra
 Nowendoc
 Tenterfield
 Uralla
 Walcha
 Walcha Road

Inverell Division

Ashford
 Barraba
 Bingara
 Bundarra
 Delungra
 Gravesend
 Inverell
 Tingha
 Warialda
 Yetman

Moree Division

Bellata
 Boggabilla
 Boggabri
 Boomi
 Garah
 Moree
 Mungindi
 Narrabri
 Pallamallawa
 Wee Waa

TAMWORTH DISTRICT (TM)Tamworth Division

Curlewis
 Gunnedah
 Kootingal
 Manilla
 Nundle
 Quirindi
 Somerton
 Tambar Springs
 Tamworth
 Werris Creek

WAGGA WAGGA DISTRICT (WW)Griffith Division

Carrathool
 Coleambally
 Darlington Point
 Goolgowi
 Griffith
 Hay
 Hillston
 Rankin Springs
 Weethalle
 Yenda

Narrandera Division

Ardlethan
 Barellan
 Barmedman
 Grong Grong
 Leeton
 Narrandera
 Tallimba
 Ungarie
 West Wyalong
 Whitton
 Yanco

Wagga Wagga Division

Ariah Park
 Coolamon
 Ganmain
 Junee
 Lockhart
 Tarcutta
 Temora
 The Rock
 Urana
 Wagga Wagga
 Yerong Creek

WOLLONGONG DISTRICT (WG)Bega Division

Batemans Bay

Bega

Bemboka

Bermagui

Bodalla

Candelo

Cobargo

Eden

Merimbula

Moruya

Narooma

Nowra Division

Berry

Huskisson

Kangaroo Valley

Milton

Nowra

Sussex Inlet

Warilla Division

Albion Park

Berkeley

Dapto

Kiama

Port Kembla

Unanderra

Warilla

Wollongong Division

Austinmer

Bulli

Corrimal

Helensburgh

Scarborough

Wollongong

Total number of Police Stations in Country Area - 364.

Functional organisation:

New South Wales Police functionally divides into operational and administrative sub departments. Each sub department is controlled by a Deputy Commissioner. Each Deputy Commissioner has two or more Assistant Commissioners reporting to him, each responsible for a functional area as shown in the executive list above. The department's functional organisation is charted at Figures 2.2 -(ops); 2.3 -(adm); and 2.4 (public service).

Victoria

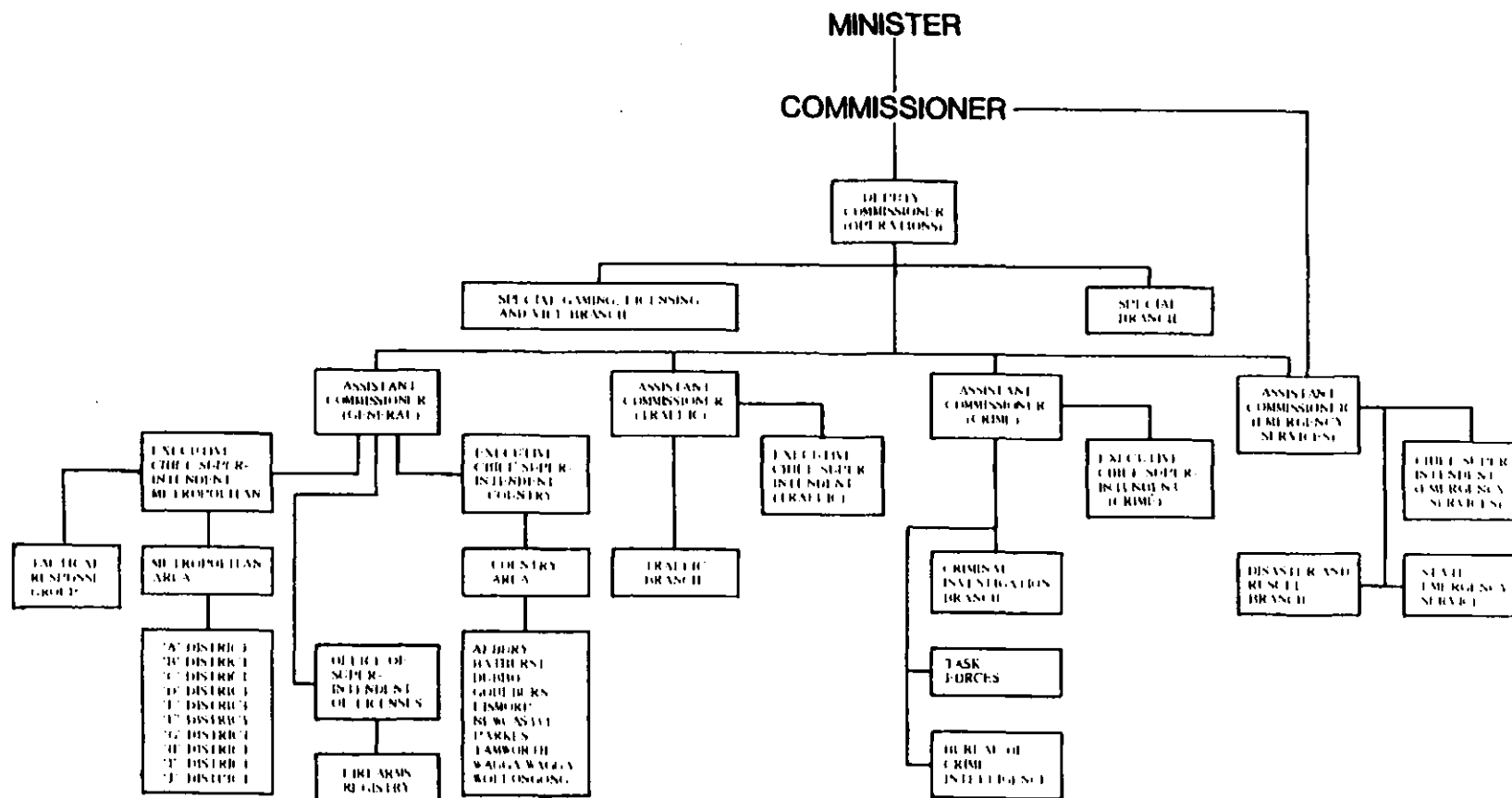
Address: Police Headquarters
380 William Street
MELBOURNE V 3000
GPO Box 2763Y
MELBOURNE V 3001

Year of origin: 1853

Legislation:

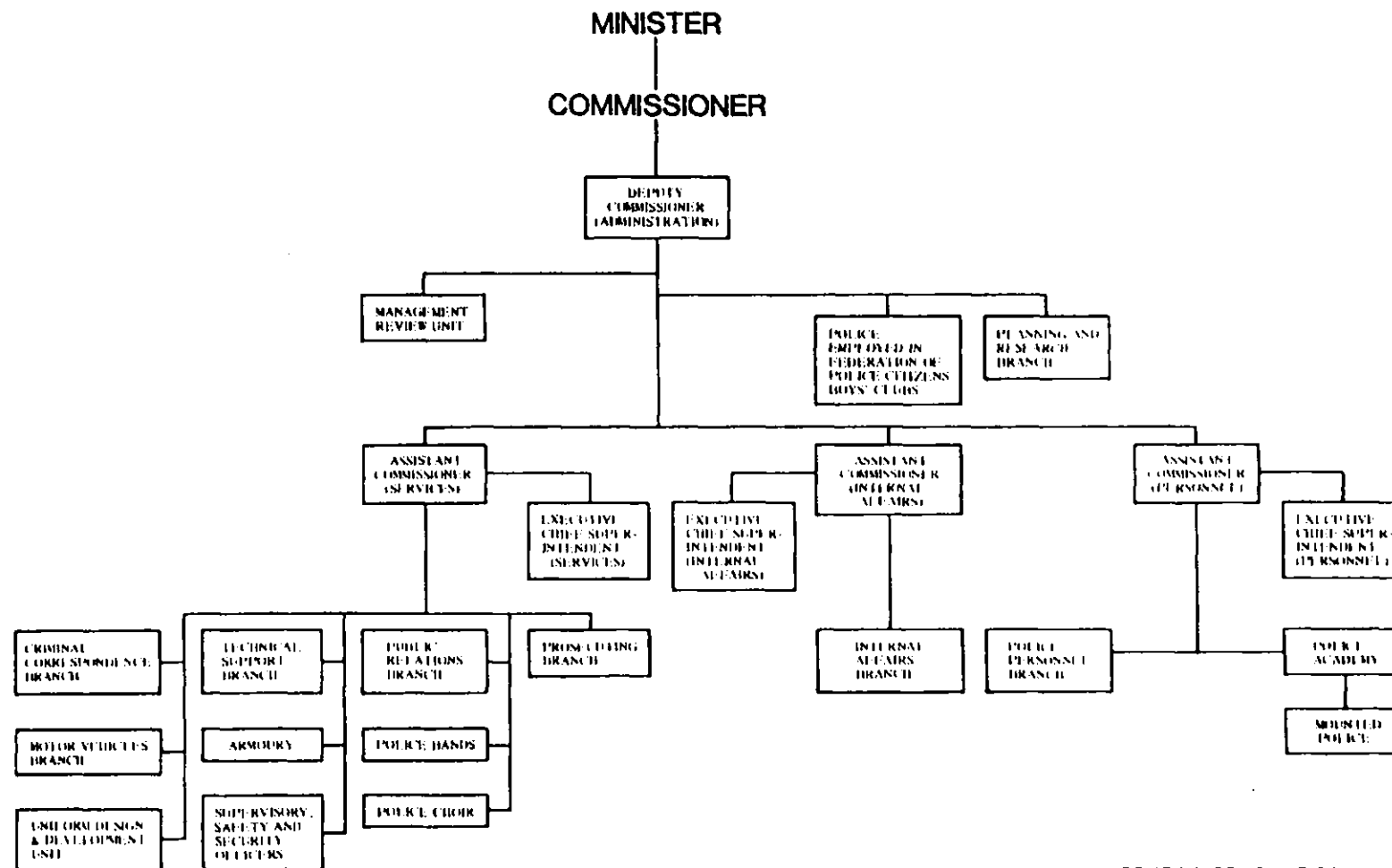
- * Police Regulation Act 1958
- * Police Regulations 1979

Figure 2:2 – NEW SOUTH WALES POLICE OPERATIONS ORGANISATION CHART (June 1984)



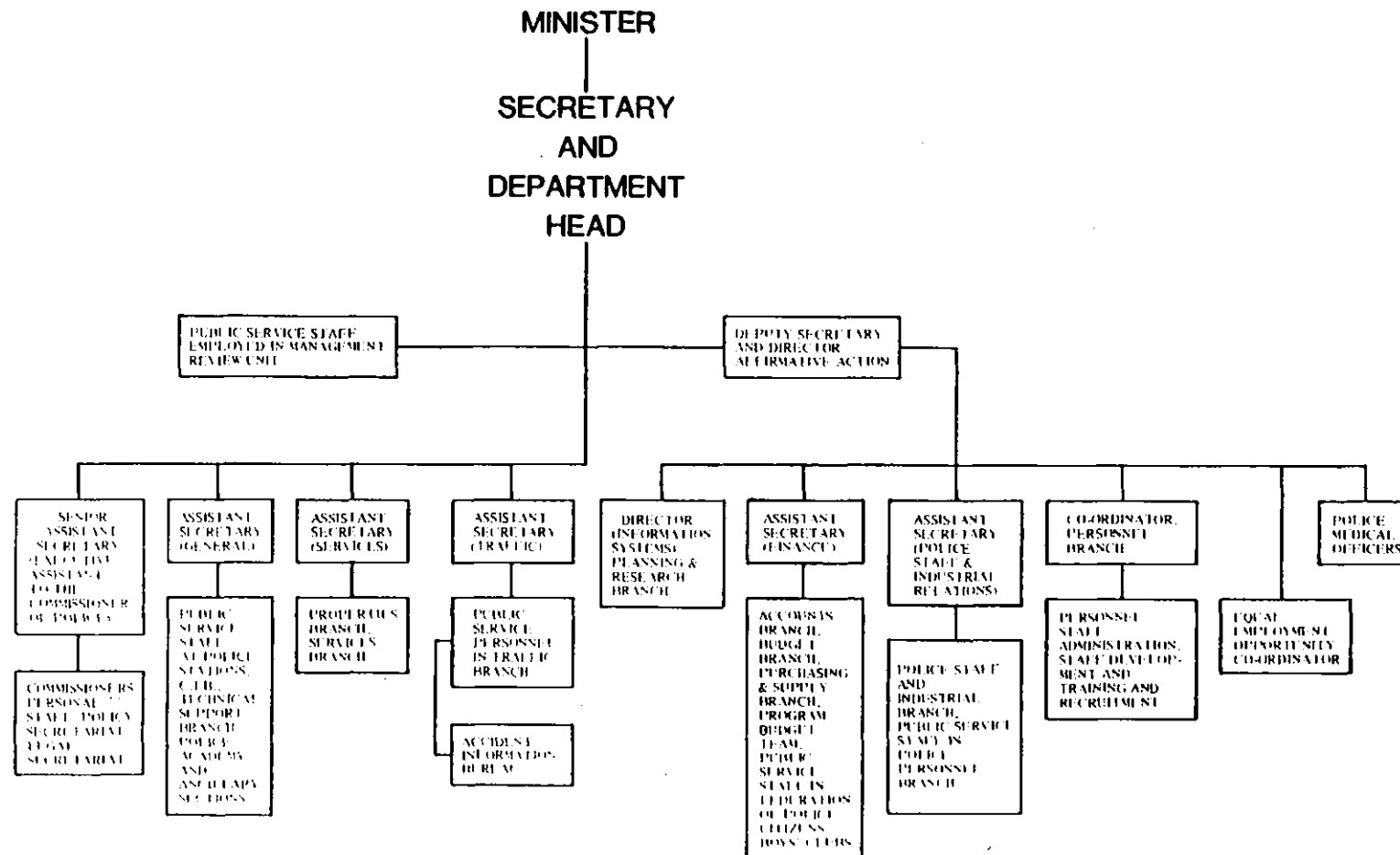
SOURCE: PDNSWAR 84

Figure 2:3 — NEW SOUTH WALES POLICE ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANISATION CHART (June 1984)



SOURCE: PDNSWAR 84

Figure 2:4 – NEW SOUTH WALES POLICE PUBLIC SERVICE ORGANISATION CHART (June 1984)



SOURCE: PDNSWAR 84

Minister: (as at Oct 85)

CRT MATHEWS

Executive: (as at Oct 85)

Chief Commissioner	SI MILLER
(CC is appointed for 4 yr periods)	
Deputy Commissioner (Ops)	Keith THOMPSON
Deputy Commissioner (Adm)	EA MUDGE
Assistant Commissioner (Crime)	Paul DELIANIS
Assistant Commissioner (Tfc)	Reg BAKER
Assistant Commissioner (Ops)	Kelvin GLARE
Assistant Commissioner (Services)	Noel NEWNHAM
Assistant Commissioner (Pers)	RC KNIGHT
Assistant Commissioner (R&D)	Ronald ANSTEE
Assistant Commissioner (BII)	William HORMAN
A/Director of Administration	Tony ALLAN

Objectives:

Victoria Police has articulated a comprehensive organisational philosophy incorporating reference to objectives and ethics. Such a measure is the first step to effectiveness measurement. The statement reads as follows:

- * The police are part of the community they serve. The police act for the community in the enforcement of the law and it is on the law and its enforcement that the liberties of the community rest. Each member of the Victoria Police carries the responsibilities and privileges attached to the office of Constable, which is one of honour and dignity. Its origin dates from antiquity and its history is bound up with the historical development of peace, order and good government in England.
- * Maintaining a high standard of peace and order in the community depends, to a great extent, upon the loyalty, zeal and efficiency of police in discharging the duties of their office.
- * The objectives of the Victoria Police are the preservation of the peace, protection of life and property, and the prevention and detection of crime.
- * These responsibilities devolve upon every member of the Police Force and in attaining these objectives we depend upon the active co-operation and support of the public.
- * As part of the community, we have a vested interest in the processes of change in society. We have a responsibility to contribute our knowledge to social debate, thereby assisting to influence society in directions conducive to the public good.

Ethics:

In the attainment of these objectives, all members of the Force are expected to follow established rules of conduct.

- * We have a basic duty to our country, our Police Force and to the community we serve.
- * We must carry out our duties with integrity and honesty and, at all times, make every effort to respect the rights of all members of the community, regardless of race, social status or religion, enforcing the law justly without fear, favour, malice or ill-will.
- * It is also incumbent on us to keep confidential any matters of which we have become aware, in our official capacity, unless revelation is necessary for the administration of justice.
- * The reputation of our profession will be judged by our conduct and performance. We should be constantly improving contemporary police practice in meeting community needs, particularly by means of our professional knowledge, self-discipline and restraint.
- * Finally, we should be aware of these ethics and should accept them as guiding principles for our personal and professional lives.

Departmental Objectives:

The specific goals of the Departments which constitute the Force are as follows:

- * Operations Department
The maintenance of a community-wide visible police presence, in order to promote a sense of safety and security in the members of the general public and to prevent offences.
- * Crime Department
To reduce crime and detect and apprehend offenders.
- * Traffic Department
To reduce the number and severity of vehicular collisions, facilitate the flow of traffic and enforce the traffic laws.
- * Services Department
To provide efficient and effective communications, mobility, equipment and accommodation to support the operational and administrative arms of the Force.
- * Personnel Department
To provide properly selected and suitably trained personnel in sufficient numbers to fulfill the requirements of all sections of the Force.
- * Research and Development Department
To co-ordinate and consolidate Force forward planning, to ensure the most efficient and cost-effective use of resources and to develop initiatives to combat major social problems requiring a police response.

- * Administration Department
To provide administrative support to the Force at all levels.

Conclusion

Pursuant to its objectives and principles, the police provide a visible, State-wide service, around the clock, offering assistance to citizens in genuine need of help, whatever the cause. The Victoria Police seek to provide an effective, professional service to the people of Victoria, in the fields of crime, traffic, public order and social welfare.

Because of the scope of our tasks in contemporary society, the organisational philosophy of the Force recognises the need to allocate priorities. This is particularly so because of the finite nature of resources. It is therefore essential that our resources are deployed in a timely and cost-effective manner.

Traditionally, indicators of police efficiency have been the levels of crime or disorder in the community, the general safety of citizens and the extent to which citizens feel secure from the criminal acts of others. Although these indicators continue to be important, more sophisticated and objective measures will be developed progressively so that comparative cost-effectiveness, within various areas of police activity, can be monitored and measured.

Current strength: (as at Mar 84)

Sworn officers:	8,387
Other employees:	1,352

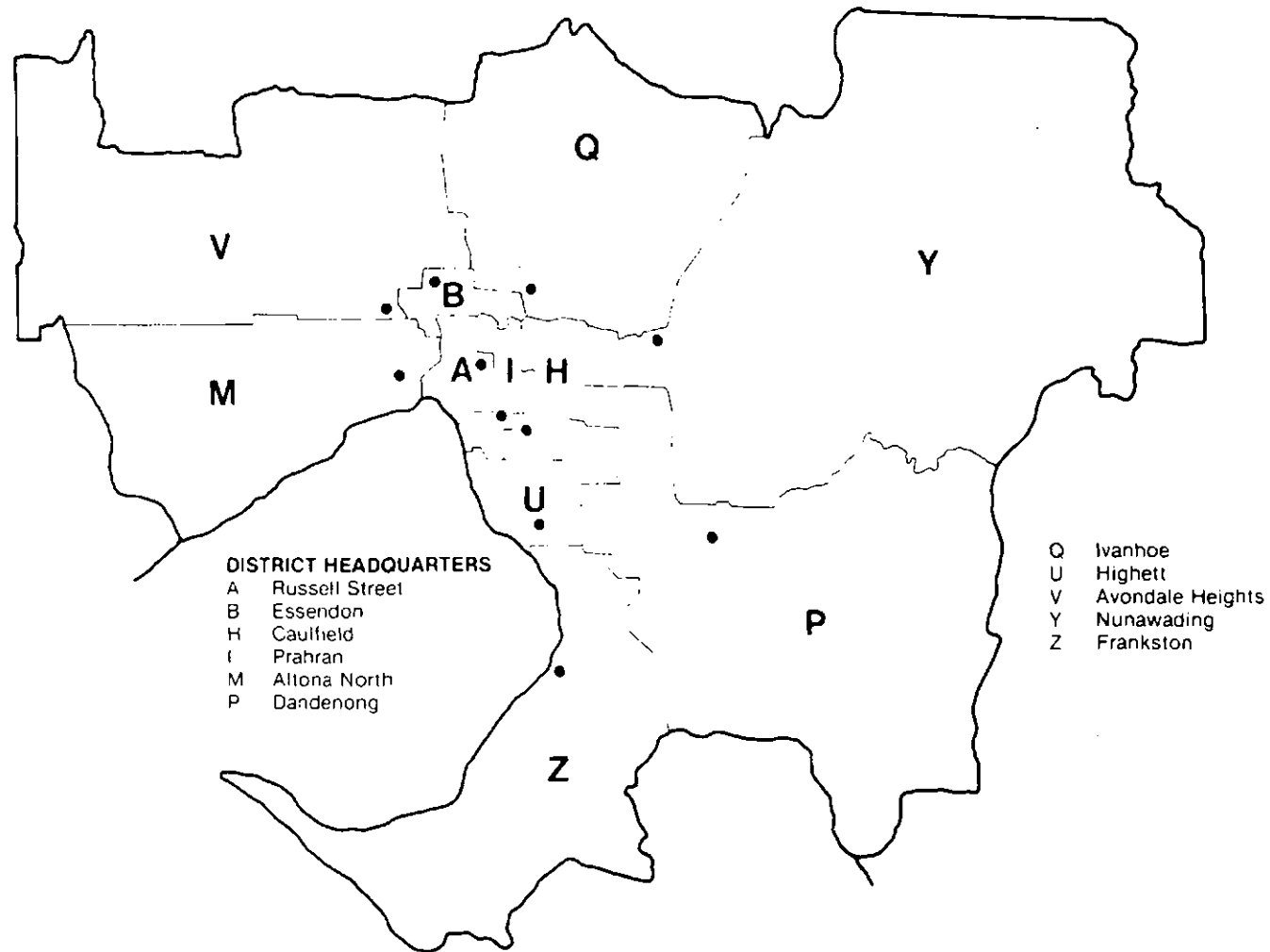
Territorial organisation:

Victoria Police as with all other state police agencies maintains a territorial distinction between metropolitan and country police districts. There are twelve country districts and eleven metropolitan districts. These districts are shown at figures 2.5 and 2.6 respectively.

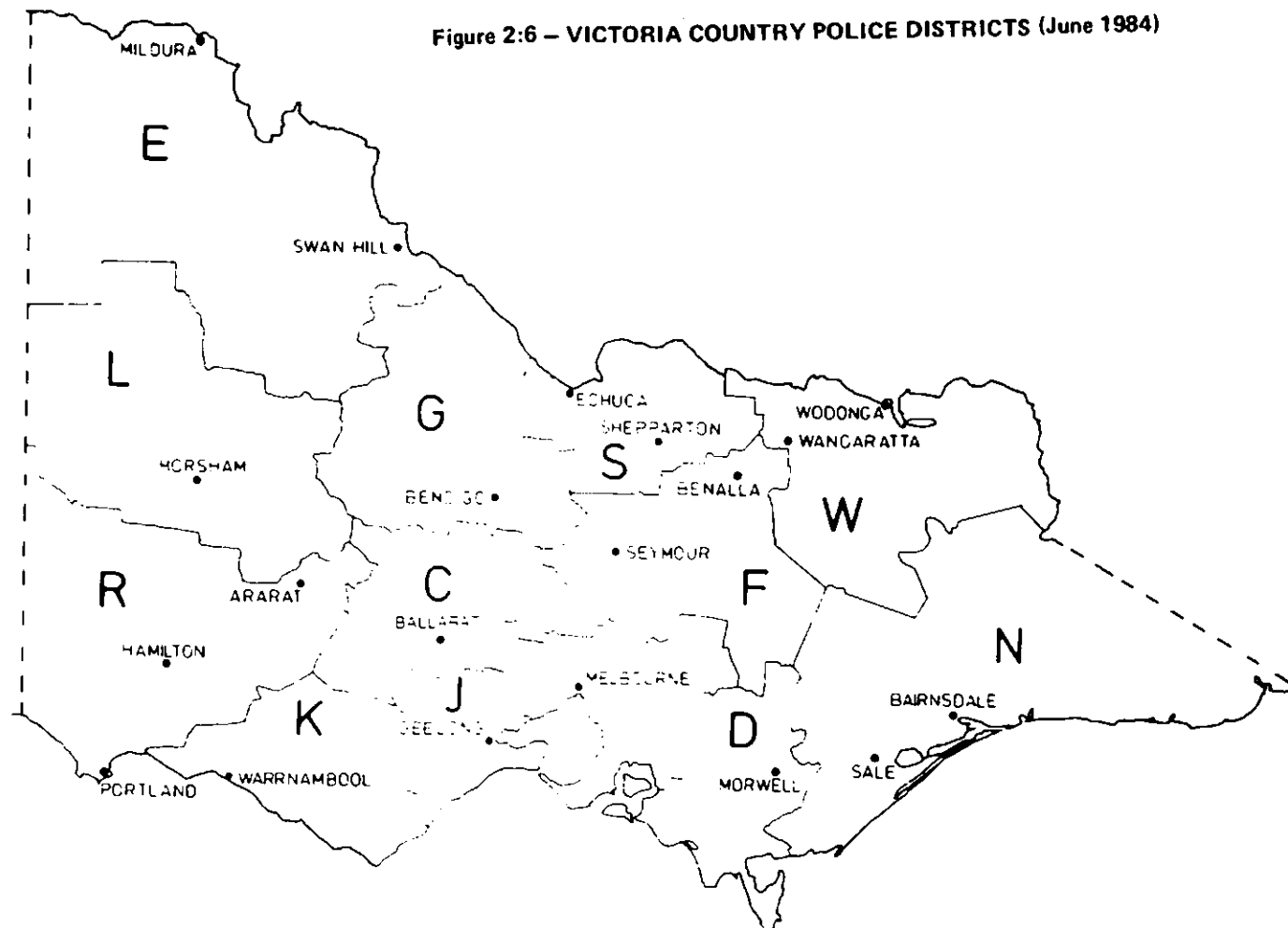
Functional organisation:

The functional organisation of Victoria Police is charted as follows: (1) Chief Commissioner's Office, figure 2.7; (2) Operations Department, figure 2.8; (3) Crime Department, figure 2.9; (4) Traffic Department, figure 2.10; (5) Services Department, figure 2.11; (6) Personnel Department, figure 2.12; (7) R & D Department, figure 2.13; and, (8) Administration Department, figure 2.14.

Figure 2:5 – VICTORIA METROPOLITAN POLICE DISTRICTS (June 1984)

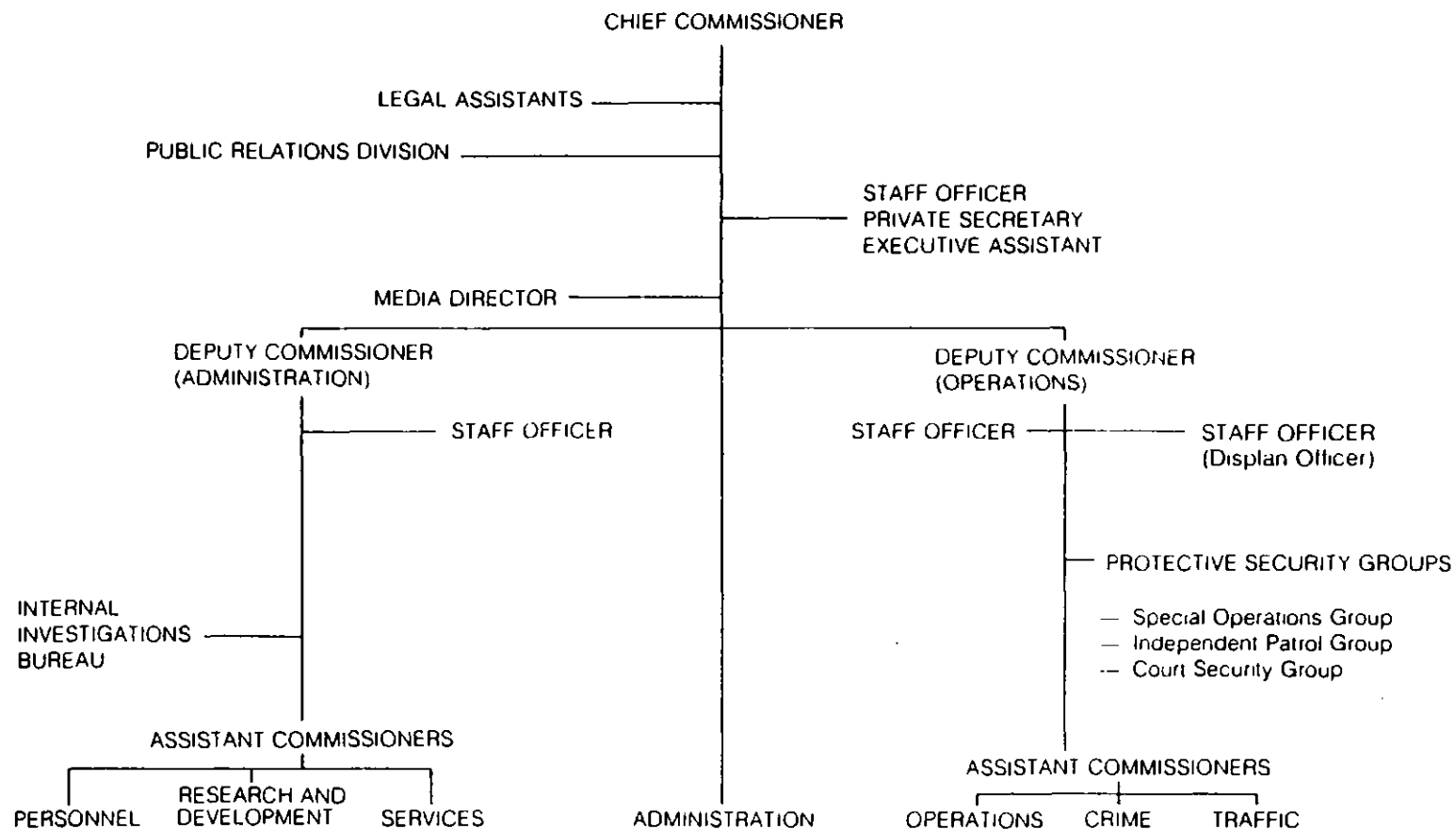


SOURCE: PDVAR 84



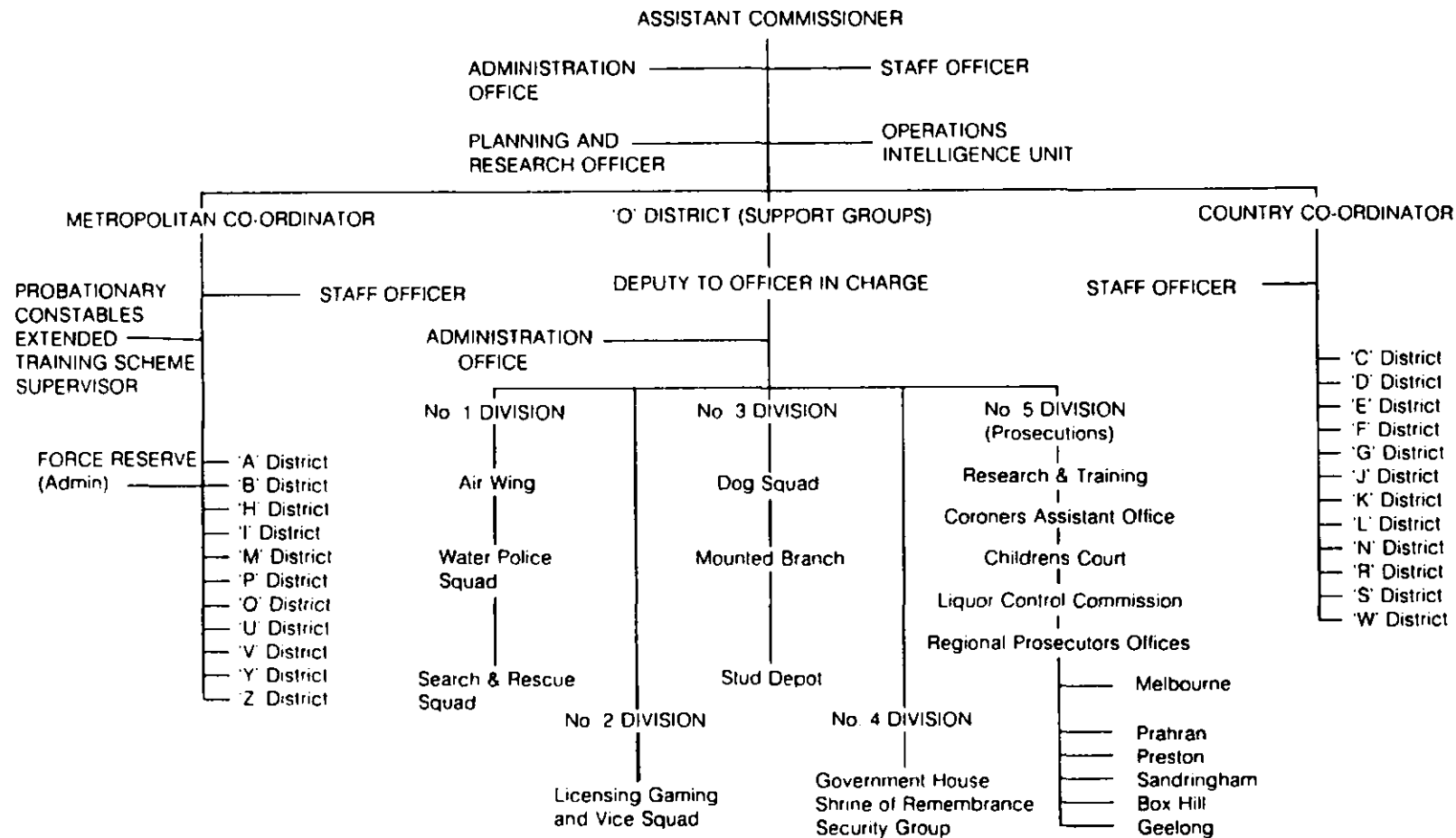
SOURCE: PDVAR 84

Figure 2:7 – VICTORIA POLICE CHIEF COMMISSIONER'S OFFICE ORGANISATION CHART (June 1984)



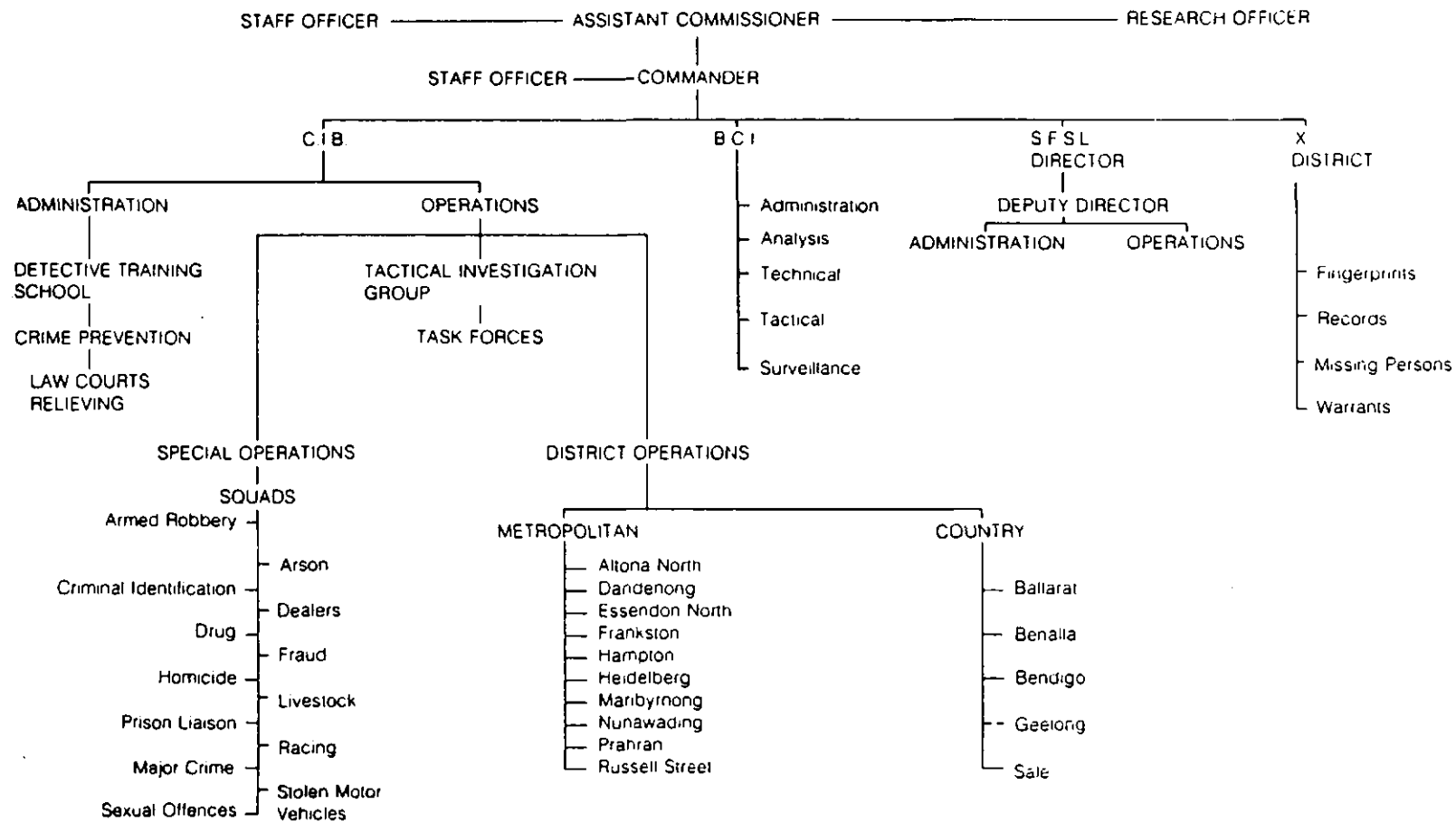
SOURCE: PDVAR 84

Figure 2:8 – VICTORIA POLICE OPERATIONS DEPARTMENT ORGANISATION CHART (June 1984)



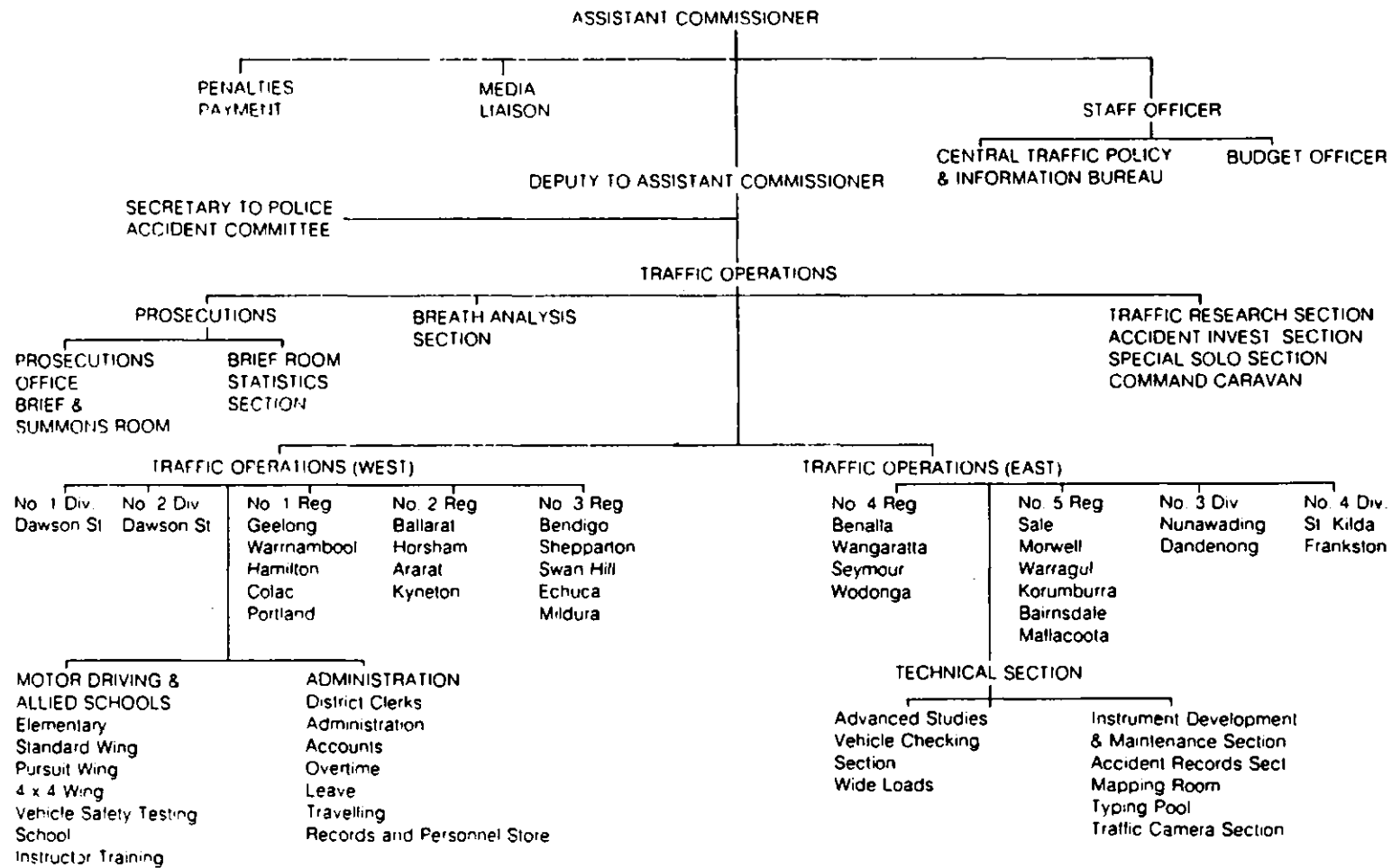
SOURCE: PDVAR 84

Figure 2:9 – VICTORIA POLICE CRIME DEPARTMENT ORGANISATION CHART (June 1984)



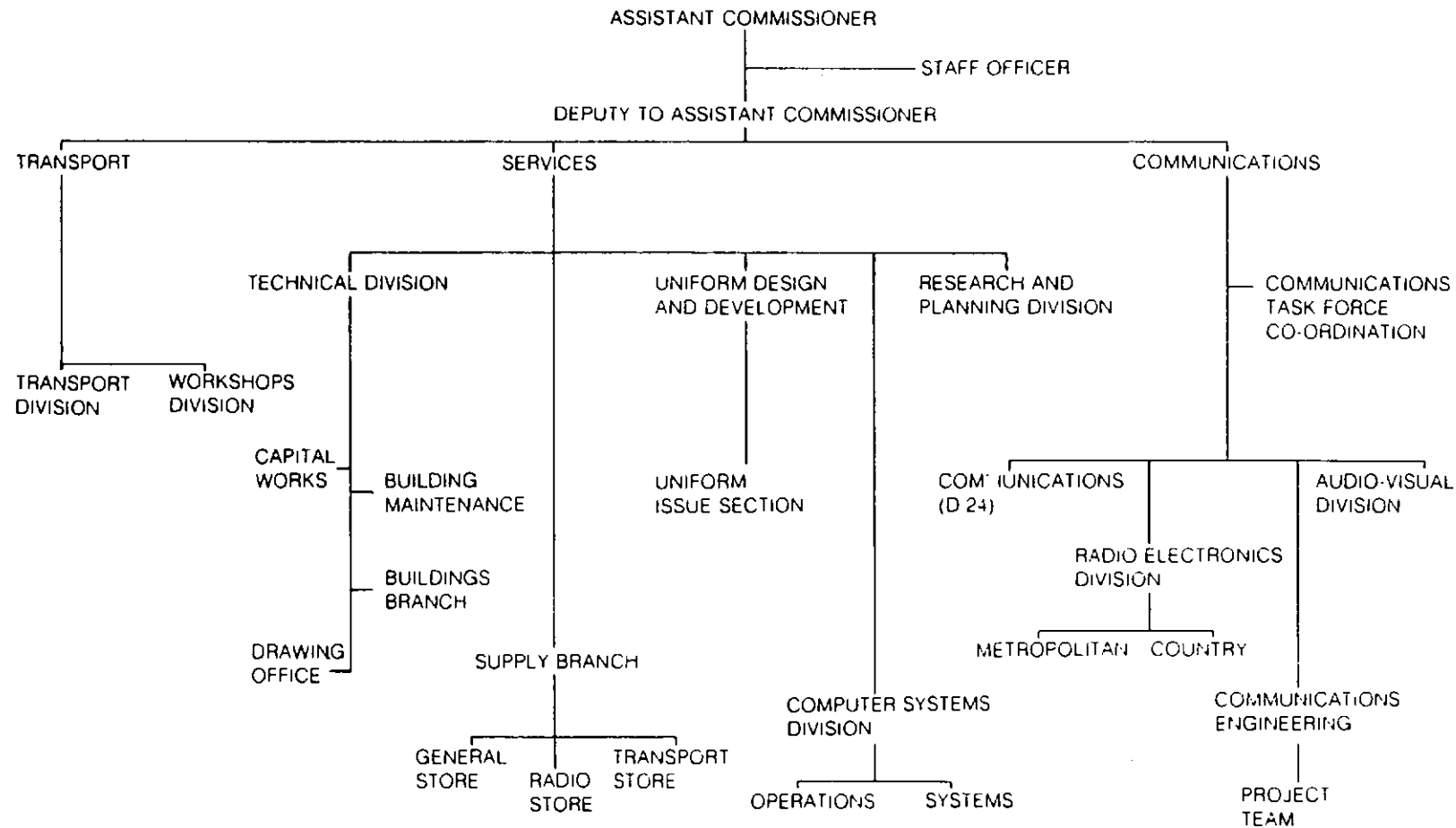
SOURCE: PDVAR 84

Figure 2:10 – VICTORIA POLICE TRAFFIC DEPARTMENT ORGANISATION CHART (June 1984)



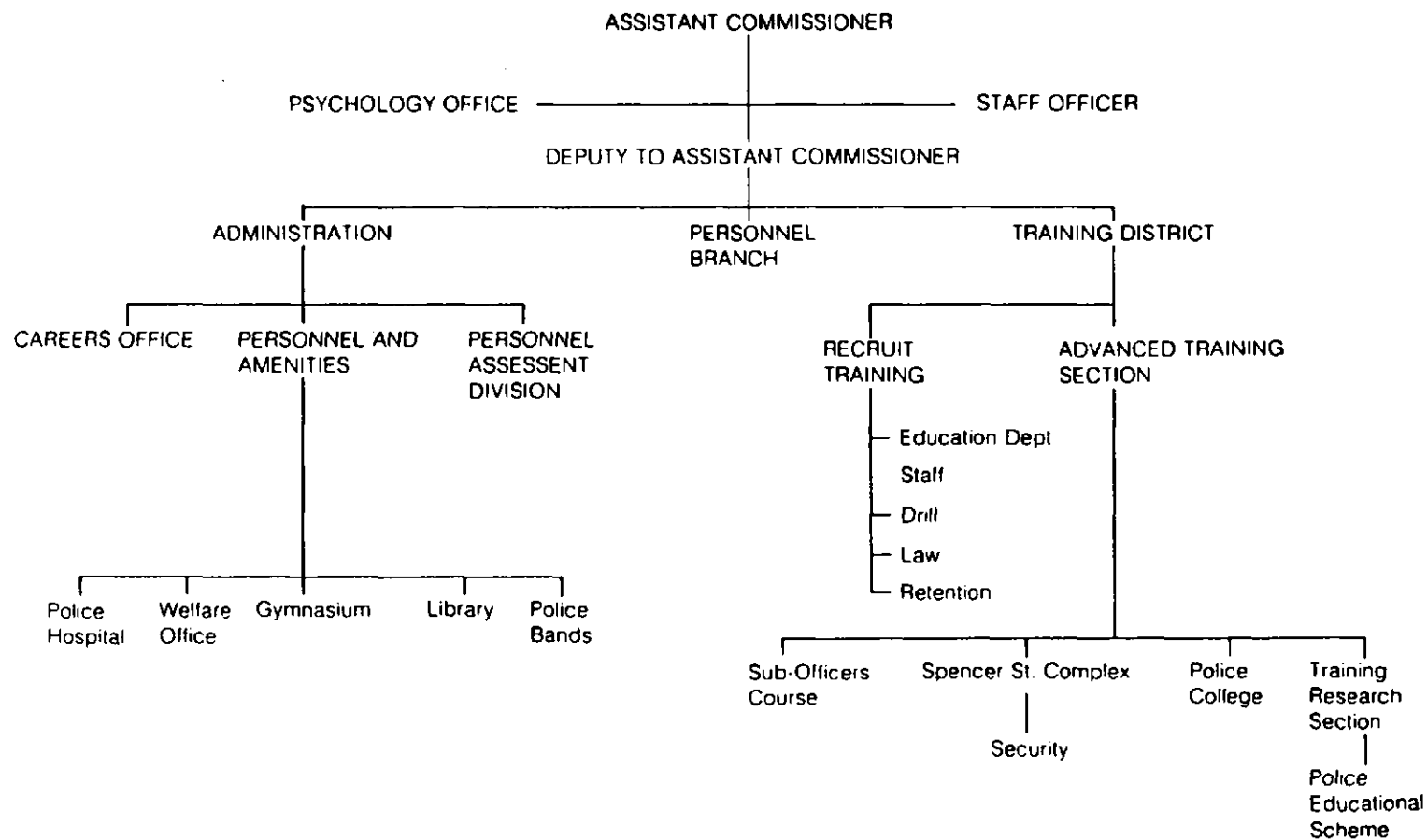
SOURCE: PDVAR 84

Figure 2:11 – VICTORIA POLICE SERVICES DEPARTMENT ORGANISATION CHART (June 1984)



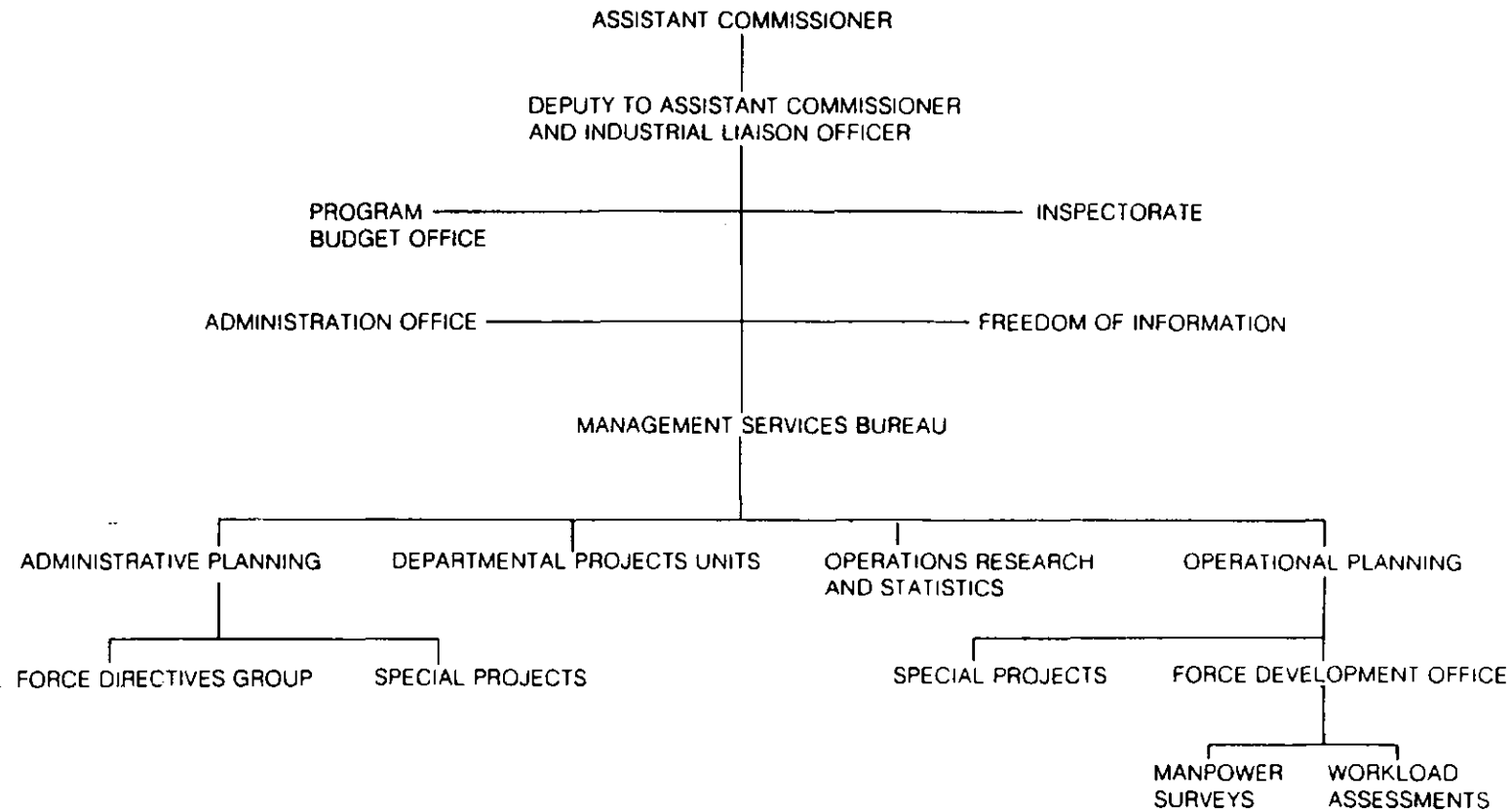
SOURCE: PDVAR 84

Figure 2:12 – VICTORIA POLICE PERSONNEL DEPARTMENT ORGANISATION CHART (June 1984)



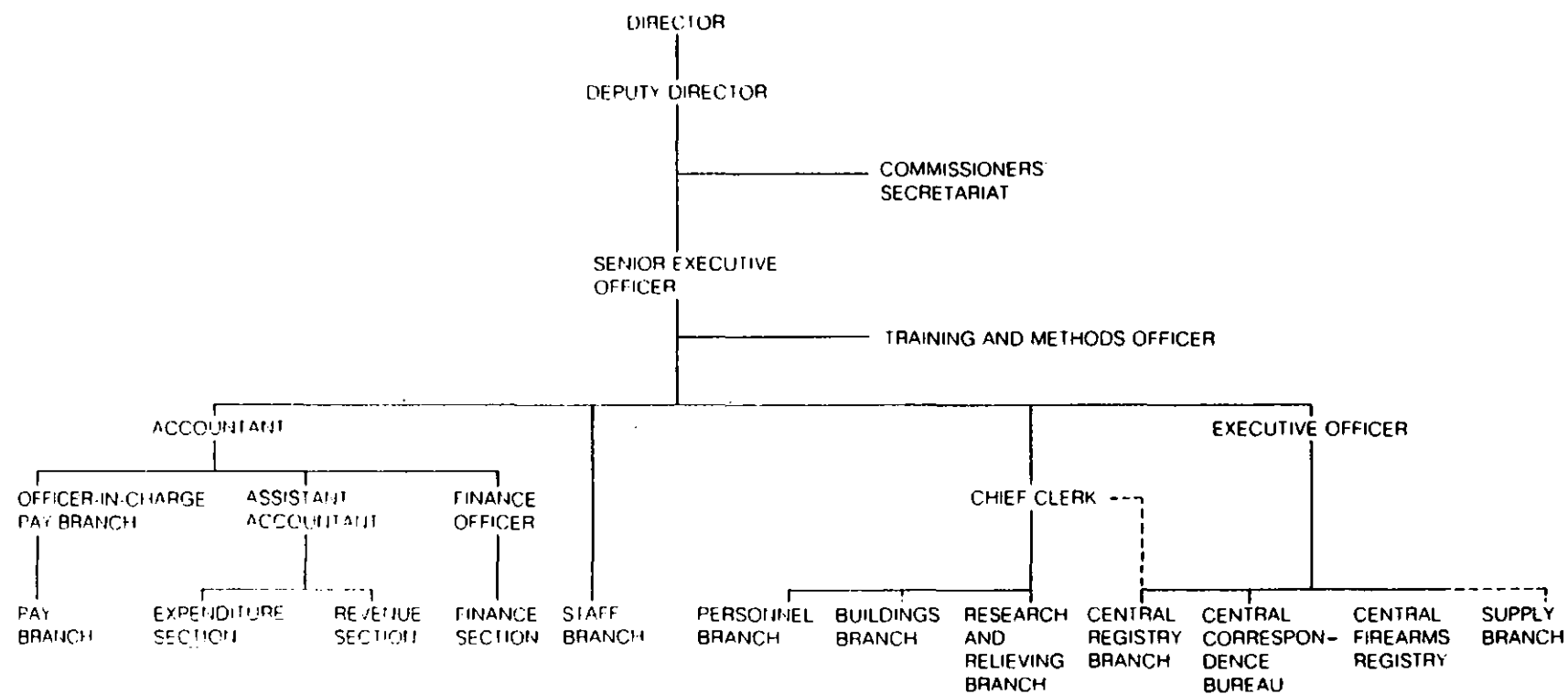
SOURCE: PDVAR 84

Figure 2:13 – VICTORIA POLICE RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT DEPARTMENT
ORGANISATION CHART (June 1984)



SOURCE: PDVAR 84

Figure 2:14 – VICTORIA POLICE ADMINISTRATION DEPARTMENT ORGANISATION CHART (June 1984)



SOURCE: PDVAR 84

Queensland

Address: Police Headquarters
 30 Makerston Street
BRISBANE Q 4000
GPO Box 1440
BRISBANE Q 4001

Year of origin: 1864

Legislation:

- * Police Acts 1937
- * Police Regulations 1937
- * Police Rules 1978
- * Police Superannuation Act 1974

Minister: (as at Aug 85)

WH GLASSON

Executive: (as at Aug 85)

Commissioner	TM LEWIS
Deputy Commissioner	JK McDONNELL
Assistant Commissioner (Ops)	RJ REDMOND
Assistant Commissioner (Crime & Services)	WJ McARTHUR
Assistant Commissioner (Trg & Legal)	DF McDONALD
Assistant Commissioner (Tfc & Gen)	WG ANDERSON
Assistant Commissioner (Pers)	Don BRAITHWAITE
Secretary	BJ GALLAGHER

Objectives:

Queensland Police has formulated specific departmental aims. These are implemented through the pursuit of annually set objectives. The aims are:

- * The purpose of the Police Department is to contribute to the well-being of persons in Queensland by protecting life and property, preserving order, preventing and detecting crime and the apprehending and bringing to justice of offenders
- * To ensure that this purpose is fulfilled, the following aims have been defined and reflect the major functions of various areas of the Department
- * To provide effective law enforcement activities so that maximum efficiency in service and safety is achieved within the prevailing constraints and using all available resources to best advantage
- * To establish, monitor and review all departmental policies and procedures to ensure the aims of the Department are achieved

- * To assess the financial needs of the Department, to utilise available funds to best advantage and initiate appropriate action to curtail or expand operations as necessary
- * To recruit suitable staff, to assist them in developing their maximum potential and to utilise this resource effectively in a way which contributes to the overall aims of the Department and ensures that industrial conditions are met
- * To assess, provide, utilise and maintain the necessary equipment and stores to allow the Department to function effectively
- * To provide, maintain and disseminate information for the law enforcement and management needs of the Department
- * To maintain an effective flow of information to, from and within the Department
- * To create and maintain within the community an awareness of the functions and contributions of the Department.

Current strength: (as at Apr 84)

Sworn officers:	4,700
Other employees:	871

Territorial organisation:

Queensland Police makes a distinction between metropolitan and country regions but, the basic territorial unit is the region. Regions are subdivided into Districts; and, Districts are composed of station patrols. There are eight regions. The various formations are shown at Figure 2.15.

Functional organisation:

Outline organisational charts of the Queensland Police Department are shown at Figures 2.16A and 2.16B.

Western Australia

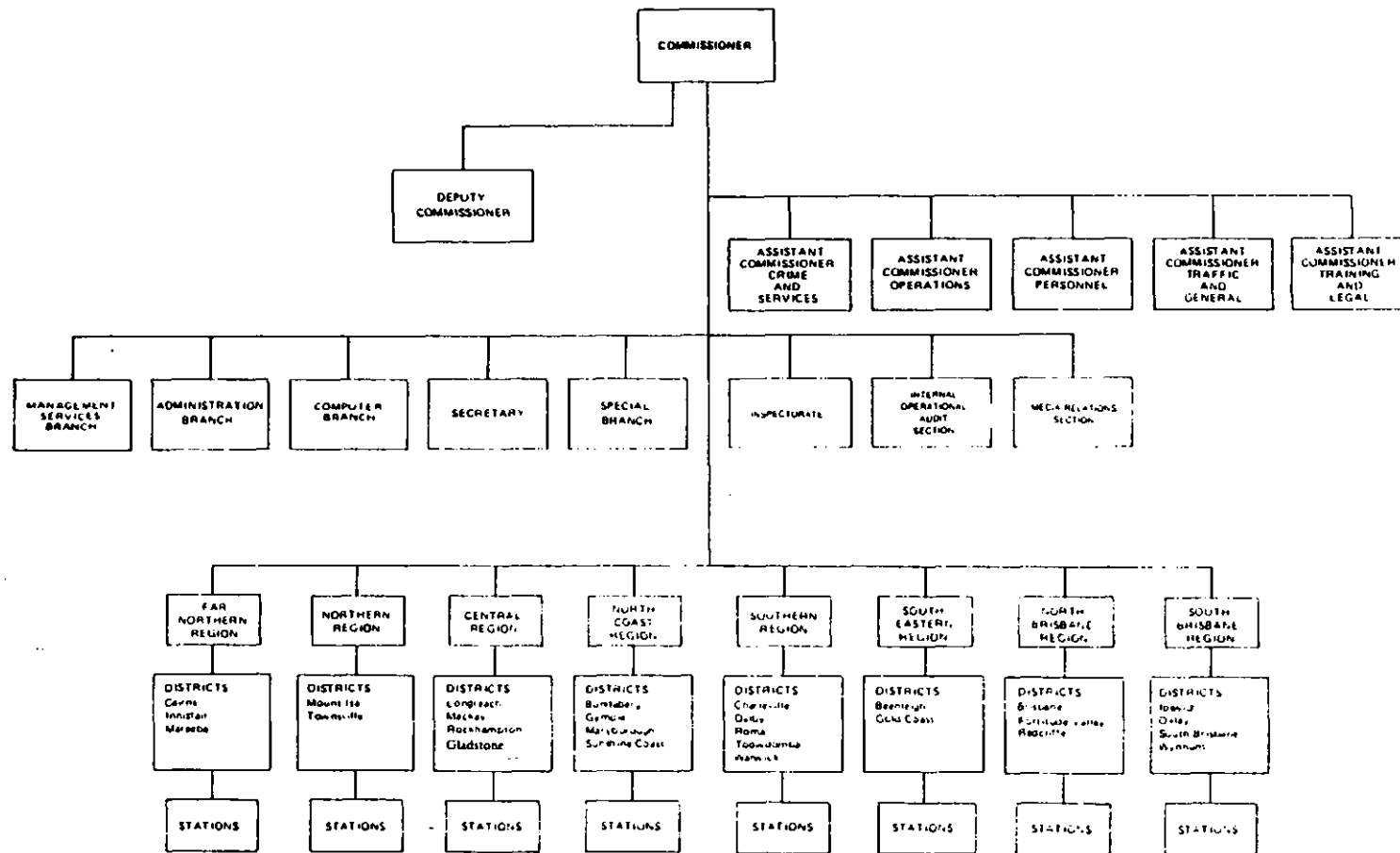
Address: Police Headquarters
2 Adelaide Terrace
EAST PERTH WA 6000

Year of origin: 1861

Legislation:

- * Police Act 1892
- * Police Regulations

Figure 2:16A – QUEENSLAND POLICE ORGANISATION CHART (June 1984)



SOURCE: PDQAR 84

* Superannuation & Family Benefits Act 1938* Industrial Arbitration Act 1912

Minister: (as at Aug 85)

JP CARR

Executive: (as at Aug 85)

Commissioner	Brian BULL
Deputy Commissioner	JR WILSON
Assistant Commissioner (Services)	Tony MOTT
Assistant Commissioner (Pers)	LJ GIBSON
Assistant Commissioner (Crime)	MJ MARSHALL
Assistant Commissioner (Tfc)	Frank PETERS
Assistant Commissioner (GD)	Ron WOODLEY
Secretary	TR LOWRY

Current strength: (as at Mar 84)

Sworn officers: 2,771

Other employees: 820

Functional organisation:

A functional chart of Western Australia Police is shown at Figure 2.17A.

Territorial organisation:

Western Australian Police is territorially organised into eleven regions. A distinction is maintained between metropolitan and country regions, which is even reflected in the department's pay scale. The Perth region is divided into divisions. Country regions and metropolitan divisions subdivide into station patrols. The regions are shown at Figure 2.17B. The state's various police stations are located at:

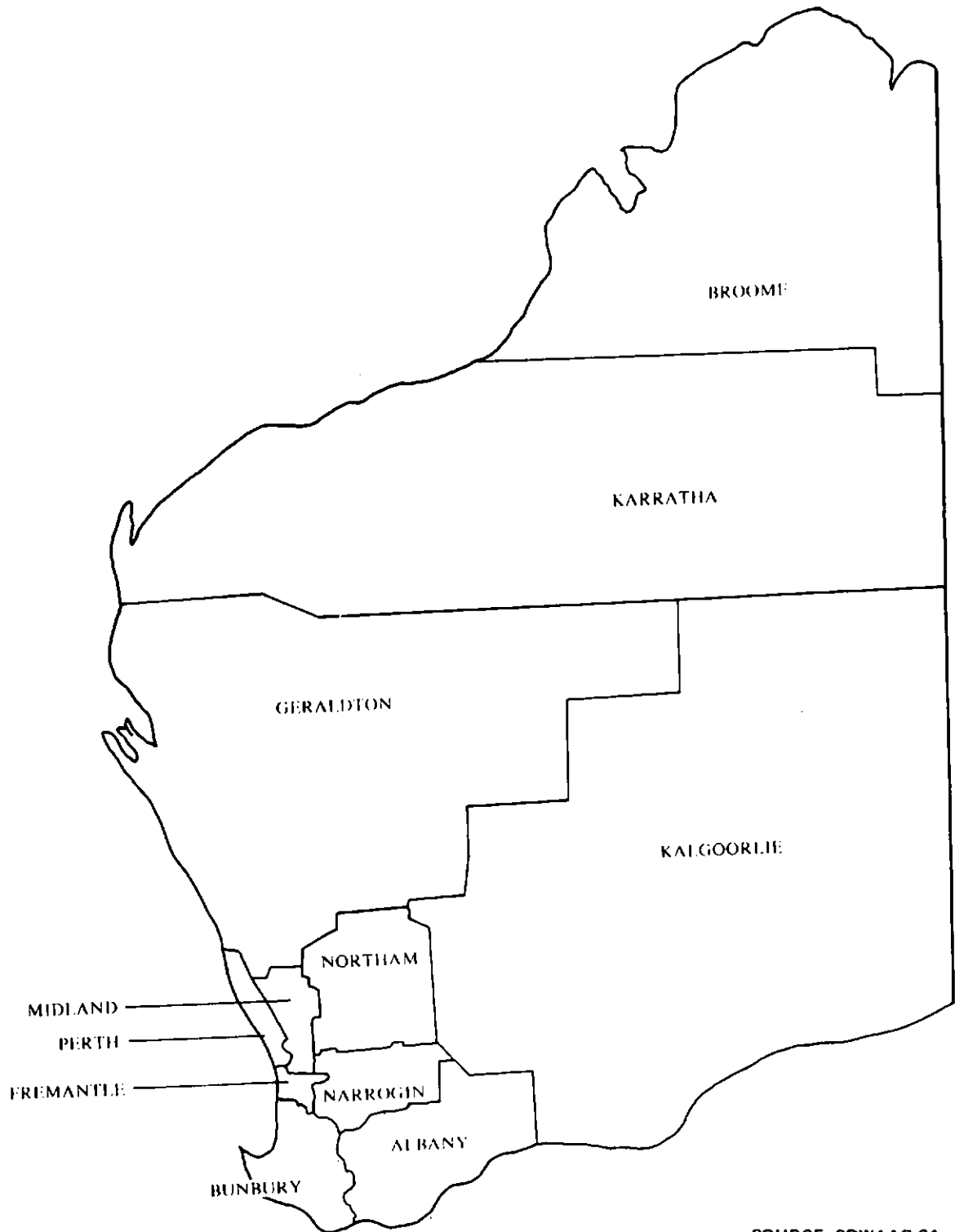
PERTH

Central Division	Cannington Division	Morley Division
East Perth (Central Station)	Armadale	Bayswater
Perth (City Police Office)	Belmont	Inglewood
	Cannington	Maylands
	Gosnells	Morley
	South Perth	North Perth
	Victoria Park	
Subiaco Division	Warwick Division	
Claremont	Innaloo	
Cottesloe	Jurien Bay	
Mt Hawthorn	Lancelin	
Nedlands	Nollamara	
Subiaco	Scarborough	
Wembley	Wanneroo	
West Perth	Warwick	

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Figure 2:17B – WESTERN AUSTRALIA POLICE TERRITORIAL ORGANISATION (June 1984)



SOURCE: PDWAAR 84

FREMANTLE

Brentwood
Cockburn
Dwellingup
Fremantle
Hilton Park
Kwinana
Mandurah

FREMANTLE (Cont)

Mundijong
Palmyra
Pinjarra
Rockingham
Rottnest
Victoria Quay

MIDLAND

Gin Gin
Kalamunda
Lockridge
Midland
Moora
Mundaring
New Norcia

COUNTRY REGIONS

ALBANY

Albany
Broomehill
Cranbrook
Denmark
Gnowangerup
Katanning
Kojonup
Mt Barker
Ongerup
Ravensthorpe
Tambellup

BROOME

Argyle
Broome
Derby
Fitzroy Crossing
Halls Creek
Koolan Island
Kununurra
Wyndham

BUNBURY

Boyup Brook
Bridgetown
Brunswick
Bunbury
Busselton
Collie
Donnybrook
Harvey
Manjimup
Margaret River
Nannup
Pemberton
Warooka
Yarloop

GERALDTON

Carnamah
Carnarvon
Cue
Dongara
Gascoyne Junction
Geraldton
Kalbarri
Meekatharra
Mingenew
Morawa
Mt Magnet
Mullewa
Northampton
Perenjori
Shark Bay
Three Springs
Wiluna
Yalgoo

KARRATHA

Dampier
Exmouth
Hearson Cove
Karratha
Newman
Onslow
Pannawonica
Paraburdoo
Roebourne
Tom Price
Wickham
Wittenoom

Port Hedland Division:

Goldsworthy
Marble Bar
Nullagine
Port Hedland
Shay Gap
South Hedland

KALGOORLIE

Boulder
Coolgardie
Esperance
Eucla
Kalgoorlie
Kambalda
Laverton
Leinster
Leonora
Menzies
Norseman
Southern Cross

NARROGIN

Beverley
Boddington
Brookton
Corrigin
Dumbleyung
Kondinin
Kulin
Lake Grace
Narembeen
Narrogin
Pingelly
Wagin
Wickepin
Williams

NORTHAM

Bencubbin
Bruce Rock
Cunderdin
Dalwallinu
Dowerin
Goomalling
Kellerberrin
Koorda
Merredin
Mukinbudin
Northam
Quairading
Toodyay
Trayning
Wongan Hills
Wundowie
Wylkatchem
York

South Australia

Address: Commissioner's Office
Tara Hall
202 Greenhill Road
EASTWOOD SA 5063
GPO Box 1539
ADELAIDE SA 5001

Year of origin: 1838

Legislation:

- * Police Regulation Act 1952
- * Police Regulations 1952
- * Police Pensions Act 1971
- * Industrial Code 1920

Minister: (as at Aug 85)

Don HOPGOOD

Executive: (as at Aug 85)

Commissioner
Deputy Commissioner
Assistant Commissioner (Pers)
Assistant Commissioner (Ops)
Assistant Commissioner (Crime)
Assistant Commissioner (Services)
Director, Adm & Finance

DA HUNT
RE KILLMIER
PM HURLEY
MHH STANFORD
KPE HARVEY
CG WILSON
Desmond HUGHES

Mission: Commissioner Hunt introduced a strategic plan outlining the department's short-mid term mission in March 1984. The measure attracted considerable media and public support. The strategic plan concept is also being applied to discrete policy areas affecting the Forces.

Current strength:

Sworn officers: 3,279
Other employees: 552

Territorial organisation:

South Australia Police is based on a comprehensive system of regions, some of which are metropolitan and others, country. There are also functional regions, eg, Region K-CIB. Regions break down into sectors. Police stations have their respective patrols but a sophisticated mobile patrol system overlays the metropolitan area.

The agency's territorial organisation is depicted at Figures 2.18A and 2.18B.

Functional organisation:

South Australia Police department's functional organisation (including aspects of territorial organisation) are depicted at Figures: (1) HQ Organisation - Figure 2.19A together with general organisation - Figure 2.19B; (2) Operations Command - Figure 2.20; (3) Personnel Command - Figure 2.21; (4) Crime Command - Figure 2.22; Services Command - Figure 2.23; and Administration and Finance Command - Figure 2.24. Police stations and offices are located throughout the state as follows:

Adelaide	B1	Elliston	H4	Loxton	G4
Andamooka	H3	Eudunda	G2	Lucindale	G3
Ardrossan	G5	Fort Largs	C1	Maitland	G5
Balaklava	G2	Freeling	G2	Mallala	G2
Barmera	G4	Gawler	D1	Mannahill	H2
Beachport	G3	Gladstone	H2	Mannum	G1
Berri	G4	Glenelg	C2	Maree	H3
Blackwood	B3	Goolwa	C3	McLaren Vale	C3
Blanchetown	G4	Gumeracha	B3	Meningie	G1
Booleroo Ctre	H2	Hallett	H2	Millicent	G3
Bordertown	G1	Hamley Bridge	G2	Minlaton	G5
Brinkworth	G5	Hawker	H3	Minnipa	H4
Burnside	B2	Henley Beach	C1	Moonta	G5
Burra	H2	Hindmarsh	C1	Morgan	G4
Ceduna	H4	Holden Hill	D2	Mount Barker	B3
Christies Bch	C3	Iron Knob	H5	Mount Gambier	G3
Clare	G2	Jamestown	H2	Mount Pleasant	G2
Clarendon	B3	Kadina	G5	Murray Bridge	G1
Cleve	H5	Kalangadoo	G3	Naracoorte	G3
Cockburn	H2	Kapunda	G2	Narrung	G1
Col Lt Gardens	B2	Karoonda	G1	North Adelaide	B1
Cooper Pedy	H3	Keith	G1	Norwood	B2
Coonalpyn	G1	Kilkenny North	C1	Nurioopta	G2
Cowell	H5	Kimba	H5	Oodnadatta	H3
Crystal Brook	H2	Kingscote	C3	Orroroo	H2
Cummins	H4	Kingston	G3	Para Hills	D1
Darlington	C2	Lameroo	G4	Penola	G3
Echunga	B3	Leigh Creek	H3	Penong	H4
Edithburgh	G5	Lobethal	B3	Peterborough	H2
Elizabeth	D1	Lock	H4	Pinnaroo	G4

Figure 2:18A – SOUTH AUSTRALIA POLICE, B, C and D REGIONAL BOUNDARIES (June 1984)

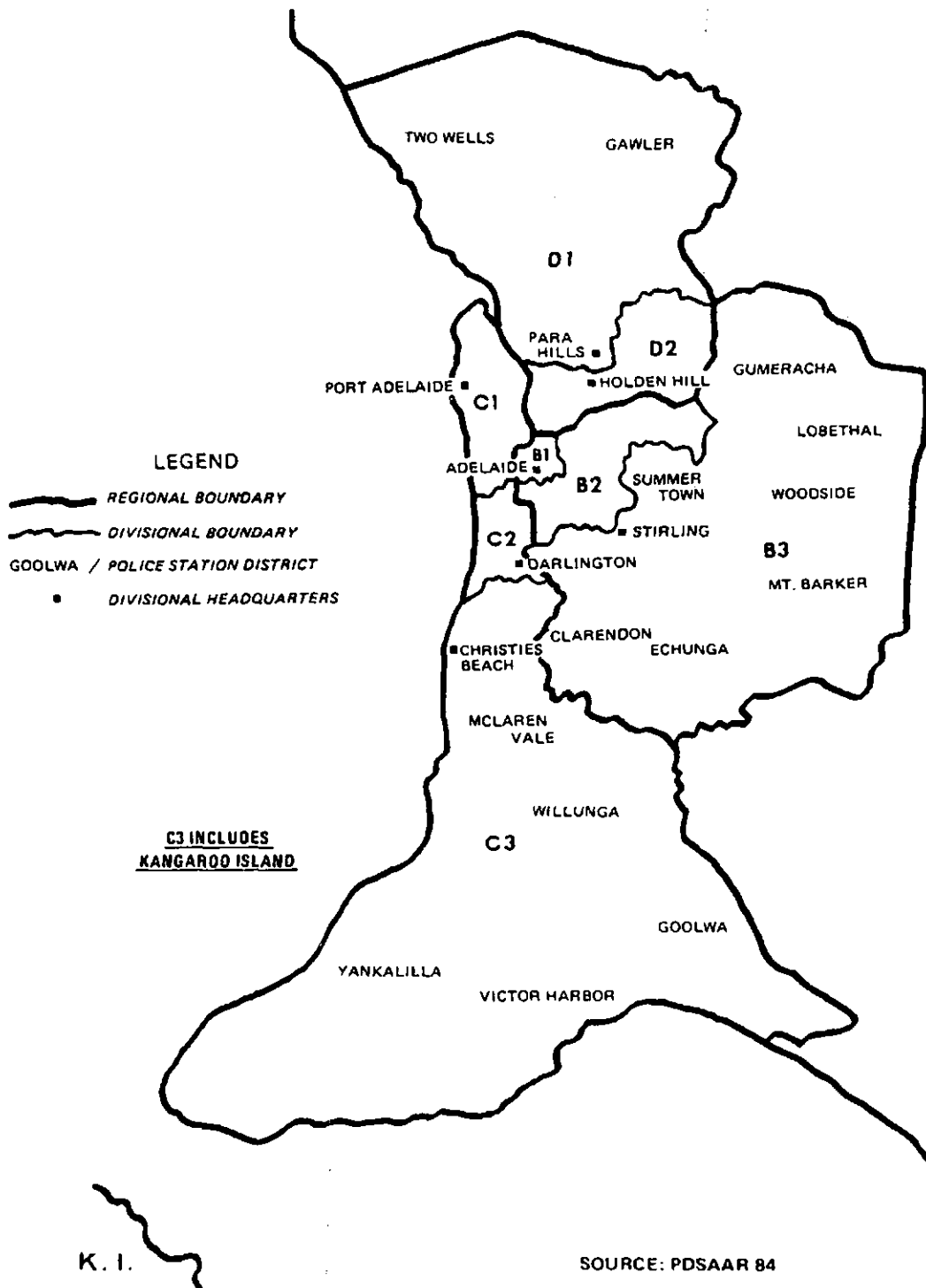
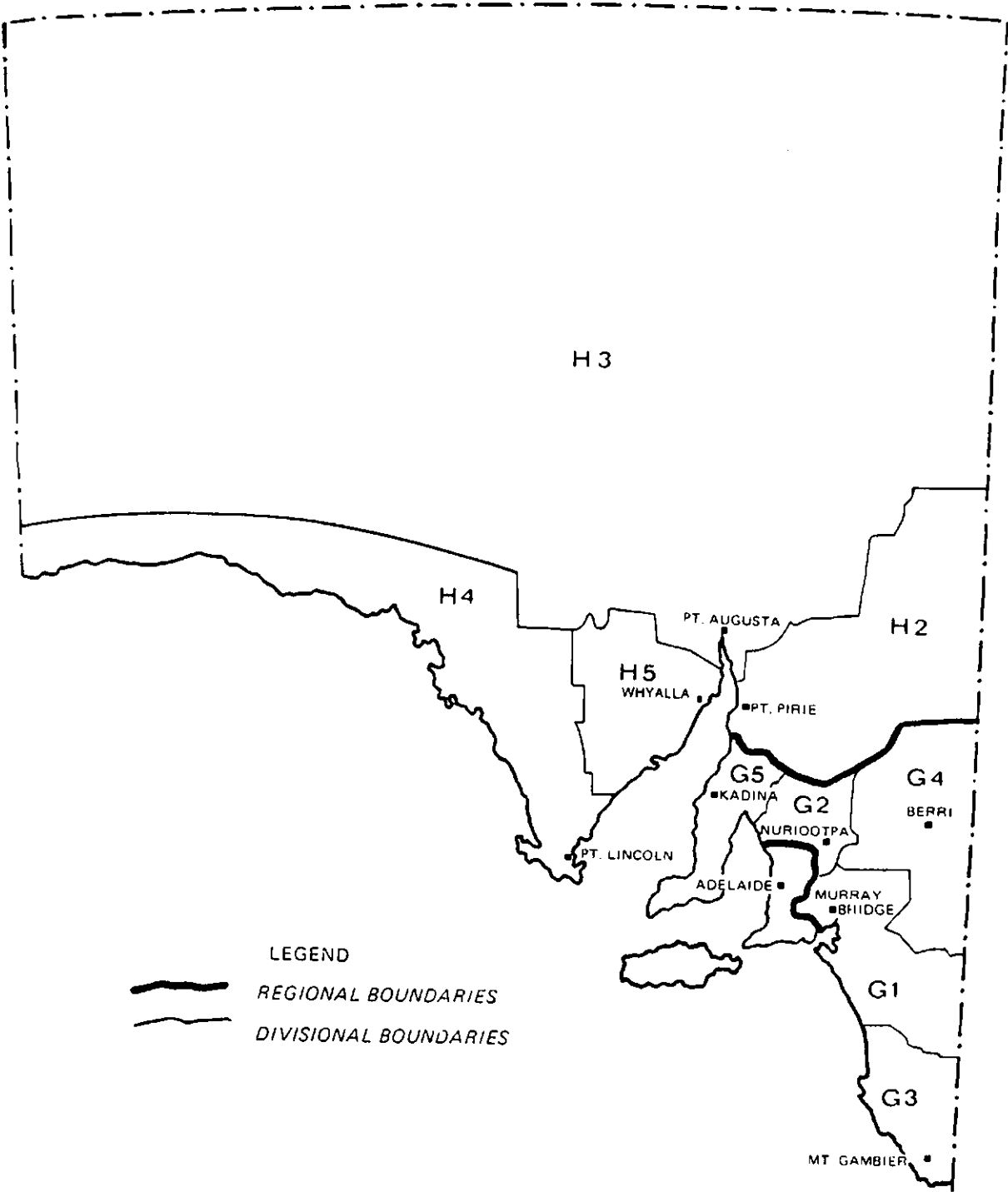
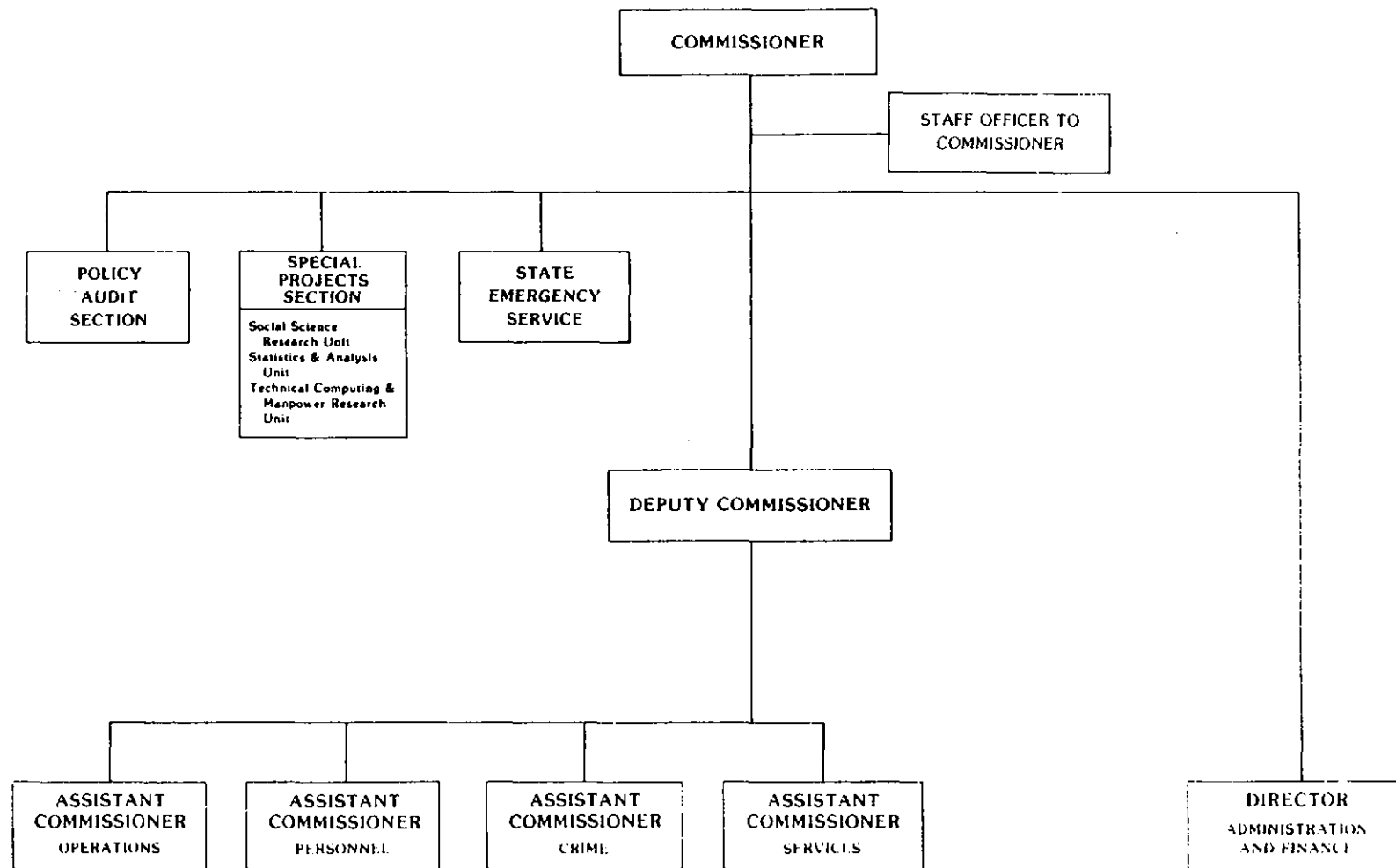


Figure 2:18B – SOUTH AUSTRALIA POLICE, G and H REGIONAL BOUNDARIES (June 1984)



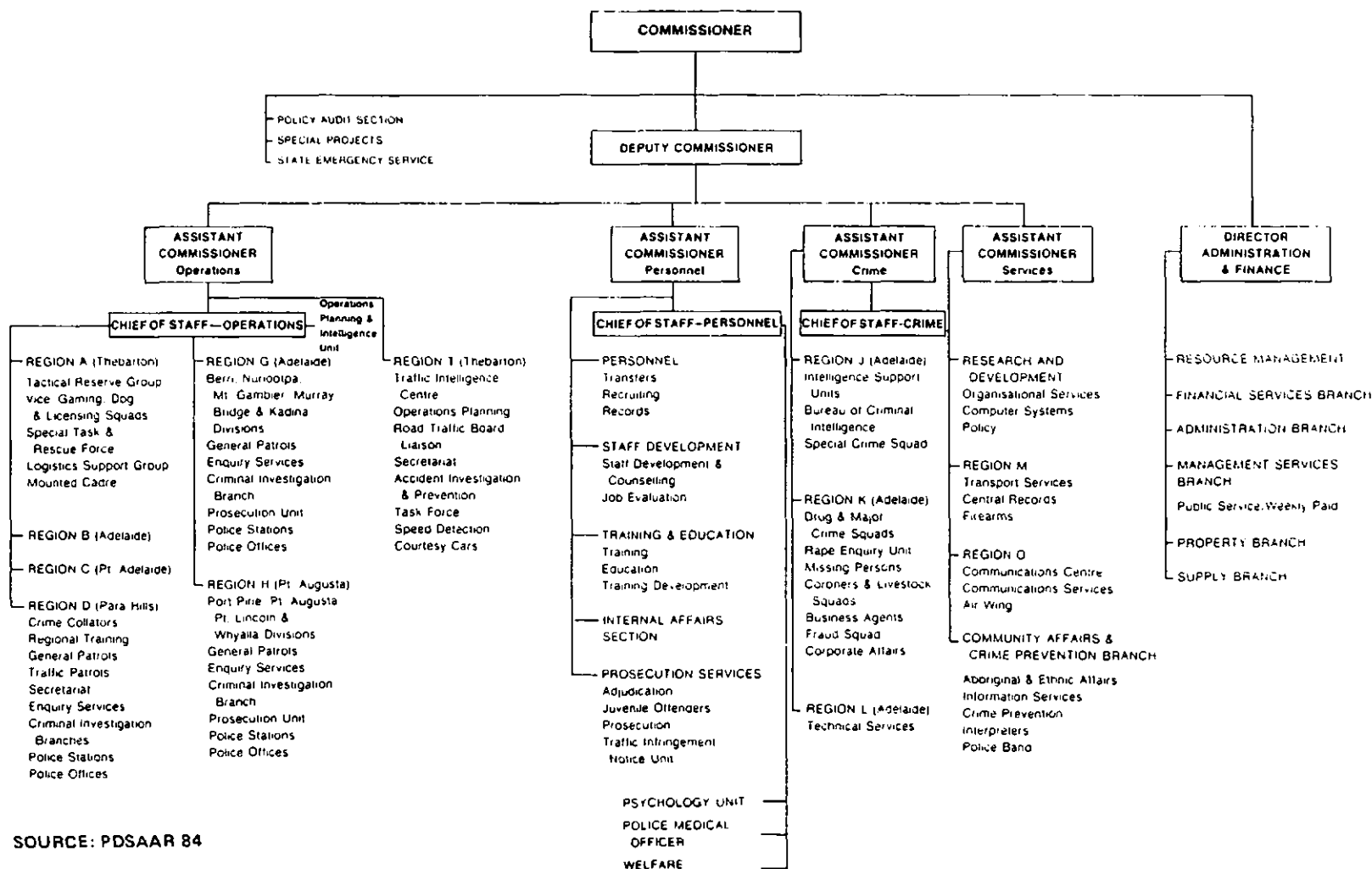
SOURCE: PDSAAR 84

Figure 2:19A – SOUTH AUSTRALIA POLICE PRIMARY ORGANISATION (June 1984)



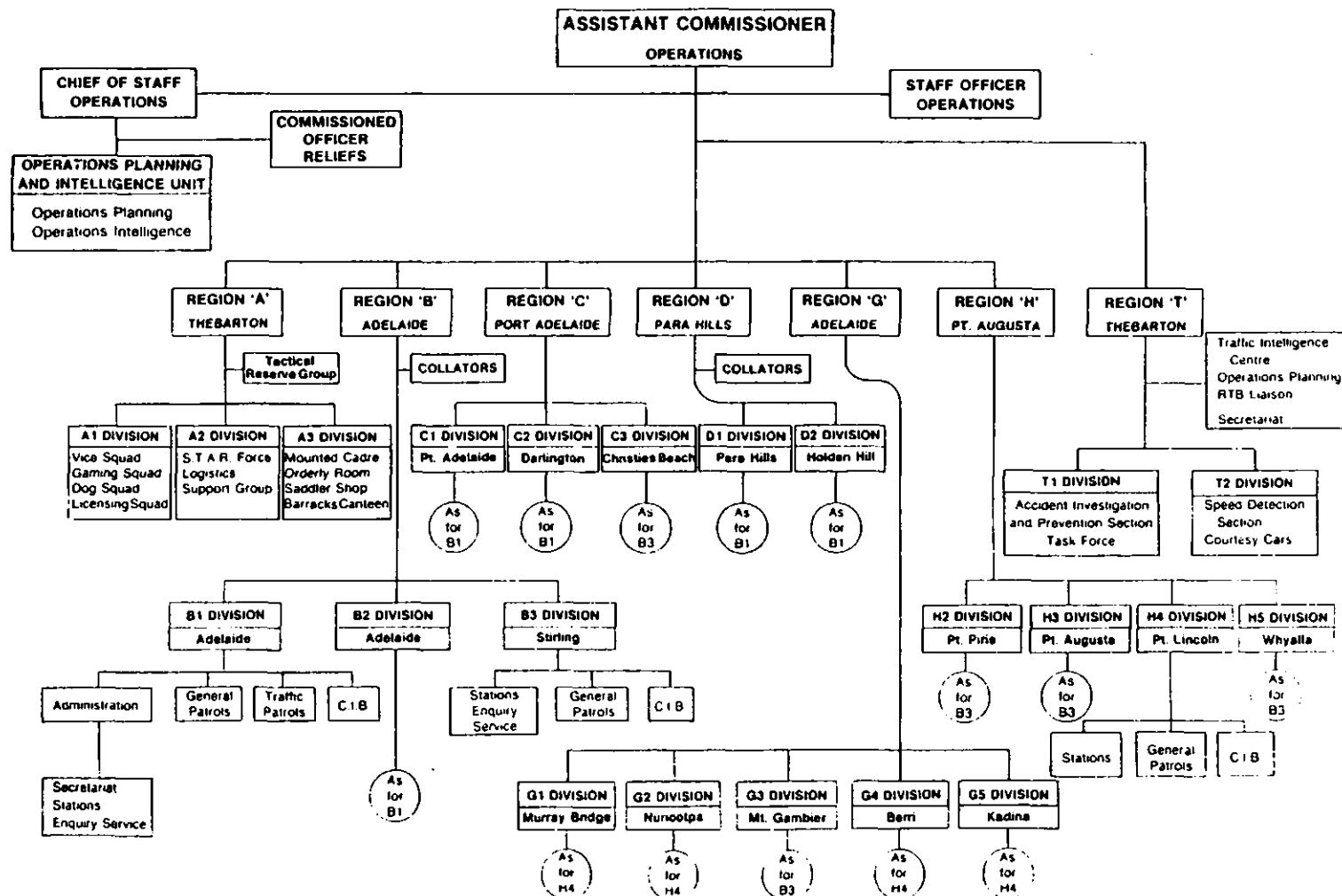
SOURCE: PDSAAR 84

Figure 2:19B – SOUTH AUSTRALIA POLICE ORGANISATION CHART (June 1984)



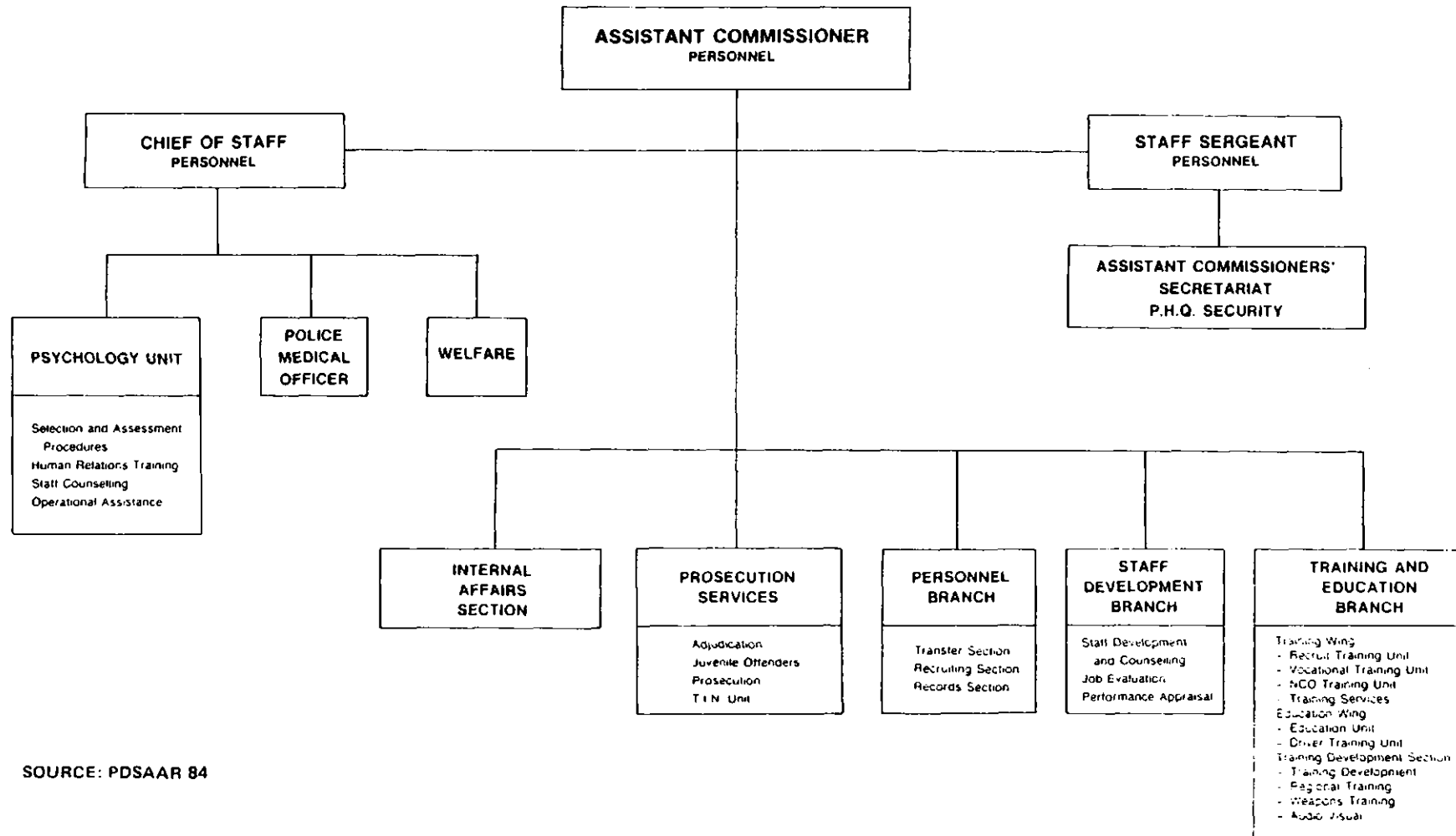
SOURCE: PDSAAR 84

Figure 2:20 – SOUTH AUSTRALIA POLICE OPERATIONS COMMAND (June 1984)



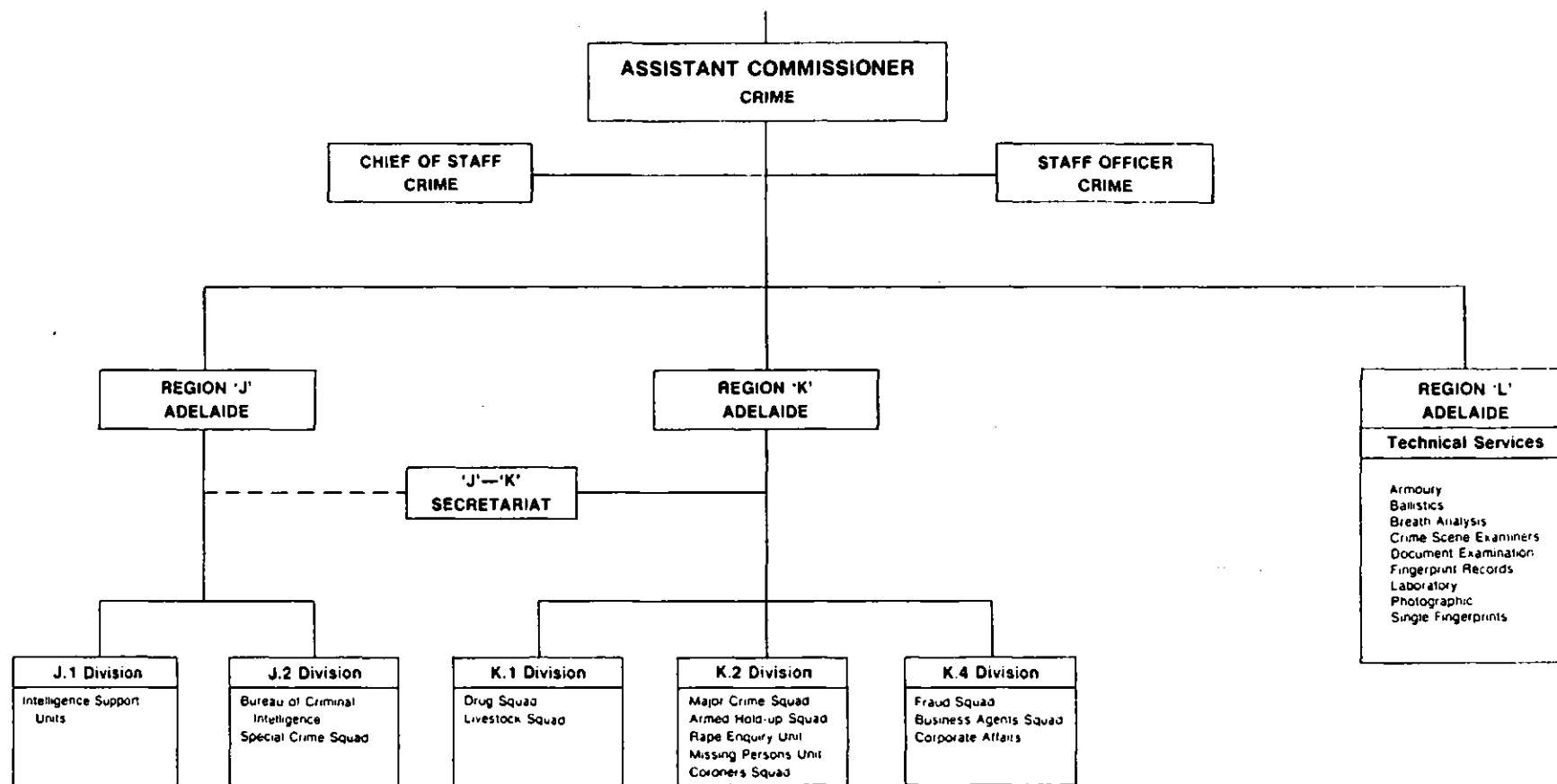
SOURCE: PDSAAR 84

Figure 2:21 — SOUTH AUSTRALIA POLICE PERSONNEL ORGANISATION CHART (June 1984)



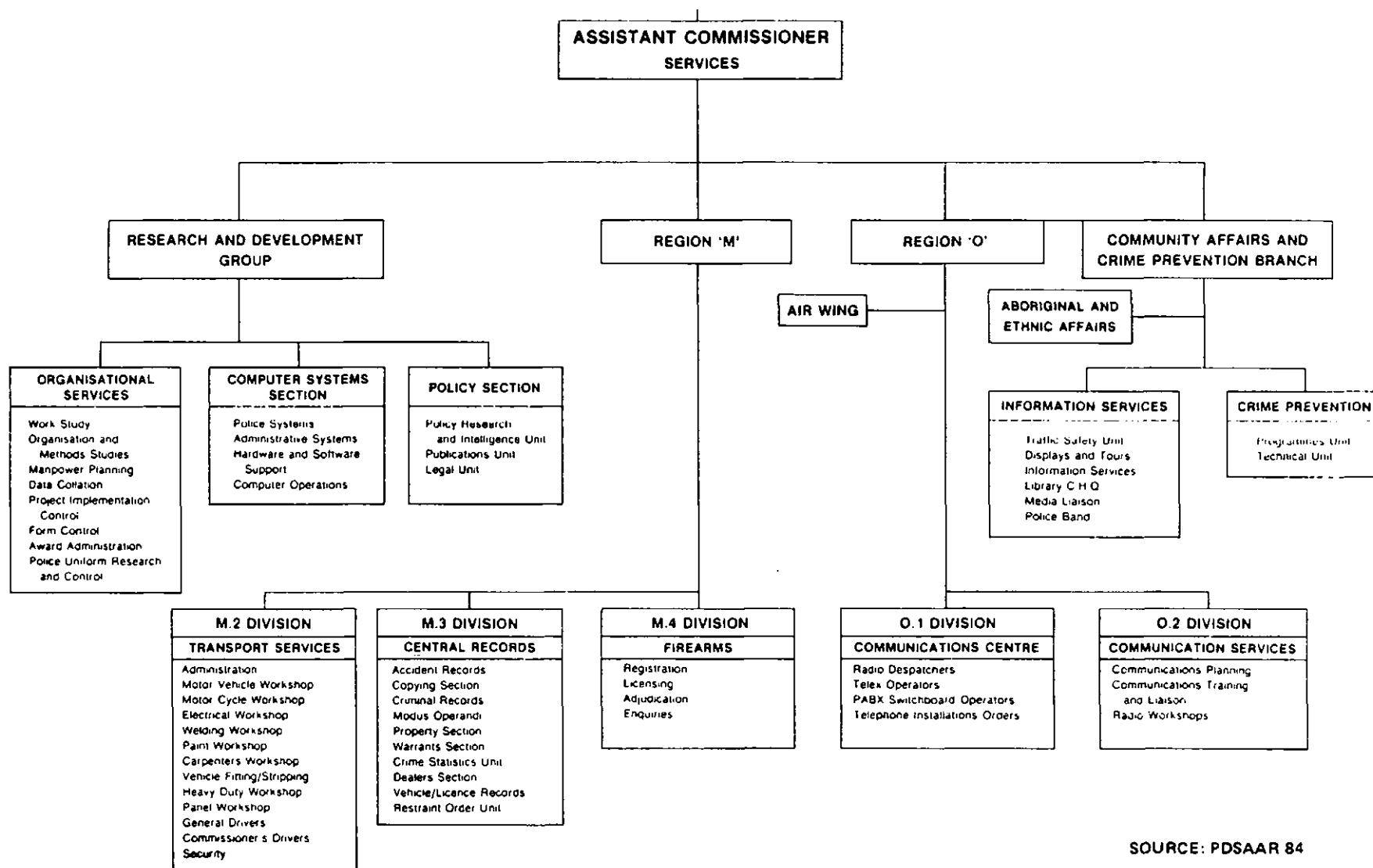
SOURCE: PDSAAR 84

Figure 2:22 – SOUTH AUSTRALIA POLICE CRIME COMMAND (June 1984)



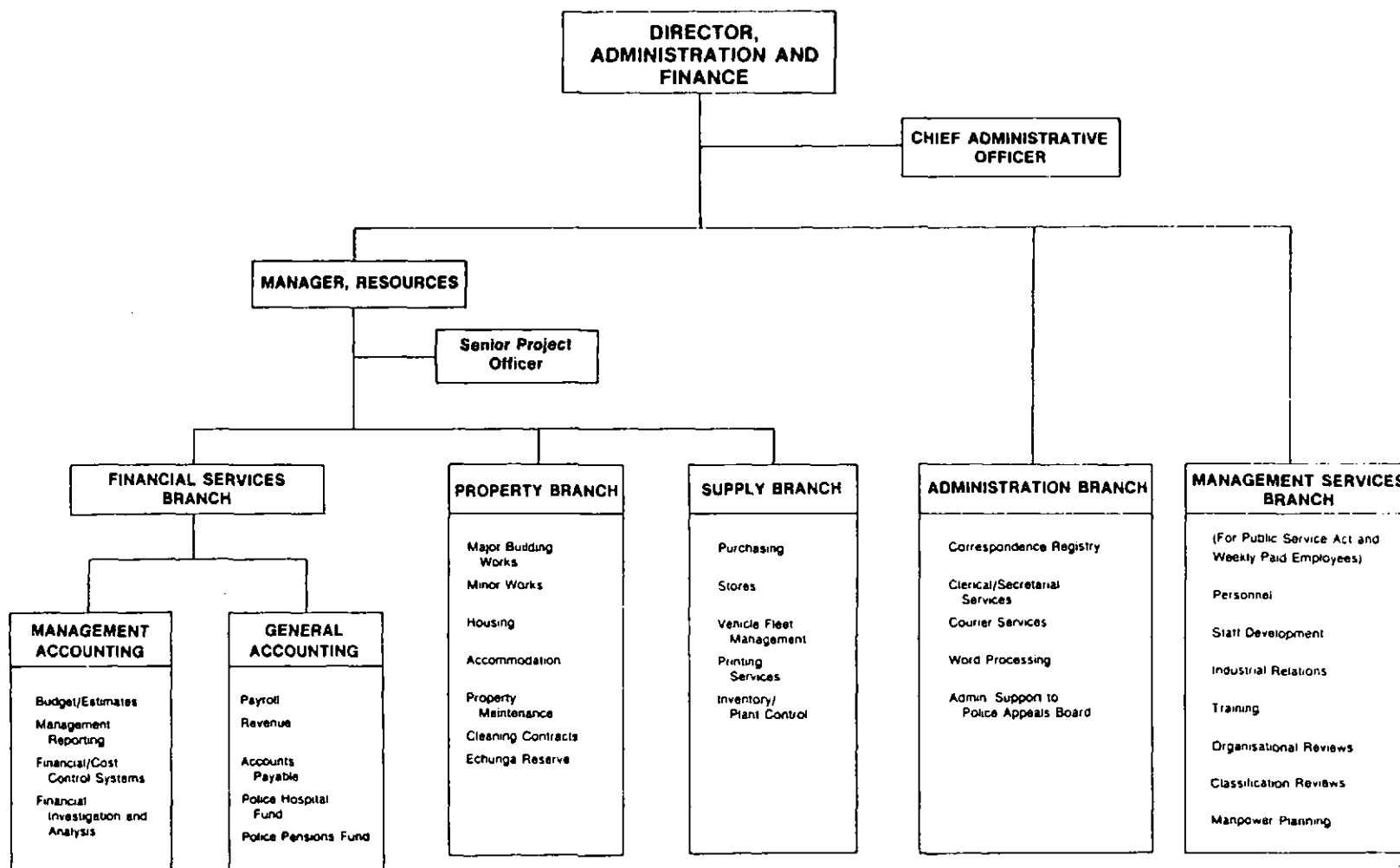
SOURCE: PDSAAR 84

Figure 2:23 – SOUTH AUSTRALIA POLICE SERVICES ORGANISATION CHART (June 1984)



SOURCE: PDSAAR 84

Figure 2:24 – SOUTH AUSTRALIA POLICE ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE COMMAND (June 1984)



SOURCE: PDSAAR 84

Plympton	C2	Salisbury	D1	Unley	B2
Poochera	H4	Semaphore	C1	Victor Harbor	C3
Port Adelaide	C1	Snowtown	G5	Waikerie	G4
Port Augusta	H3	Spalding	H2	Wallaroo	G5
Port Broughton	G5	Stansbury	G5	Whyalla	H5
Port Germein	H2	Stirling	B3	Williamstown	G2
Port Lincoln	H4	Strathalbyn	G1	Willunga	C3
Port MacDonnell	G3	Streaky Bay	H4	Wirrabara	H2
Port Pirie	H2	Summertown	B3	Wirrulla	H4
Port Victoria	G5	Swan Reach	G4	Woodside	B3
Port Wakefield	G5	Tailem Bend	G1	Woomera	H3
Prospect	D2	Tarcoola	H3	Wudinna	H4
Quorn	H3	Tea Tree Plaza	D2	Yankalilla	C3
Renmark	G4	Thebarton	B1	Yorketown	G5
Riverton	G2	Tumby Bay	H4	Yunta	H2
Robe	G3	Two Wells	D1		

Tasmania

Address: Commissioner's Office
80 Elizabeth Street
HOBART T 7000
GPO Box 308C
HOBART T 7001

Year of origin: 1899

Legislation:

- * Police Regulation Act 1898
- * Police Regulations 1974
- * State Superannuation Act 1963
- * Retirement Benefit Act 1970

Minister: (as at Aug 85)

FR GROOM

Executive: (as at Aug 85)

Commissioner	MJ ROBINSON
Deputy Commissioner	KH VINEY
Assistant Commissioner (Ops)	AP CANNING
Assistant Commissioner (Log)	AB SWINTON
Secretary	KC PETERSON

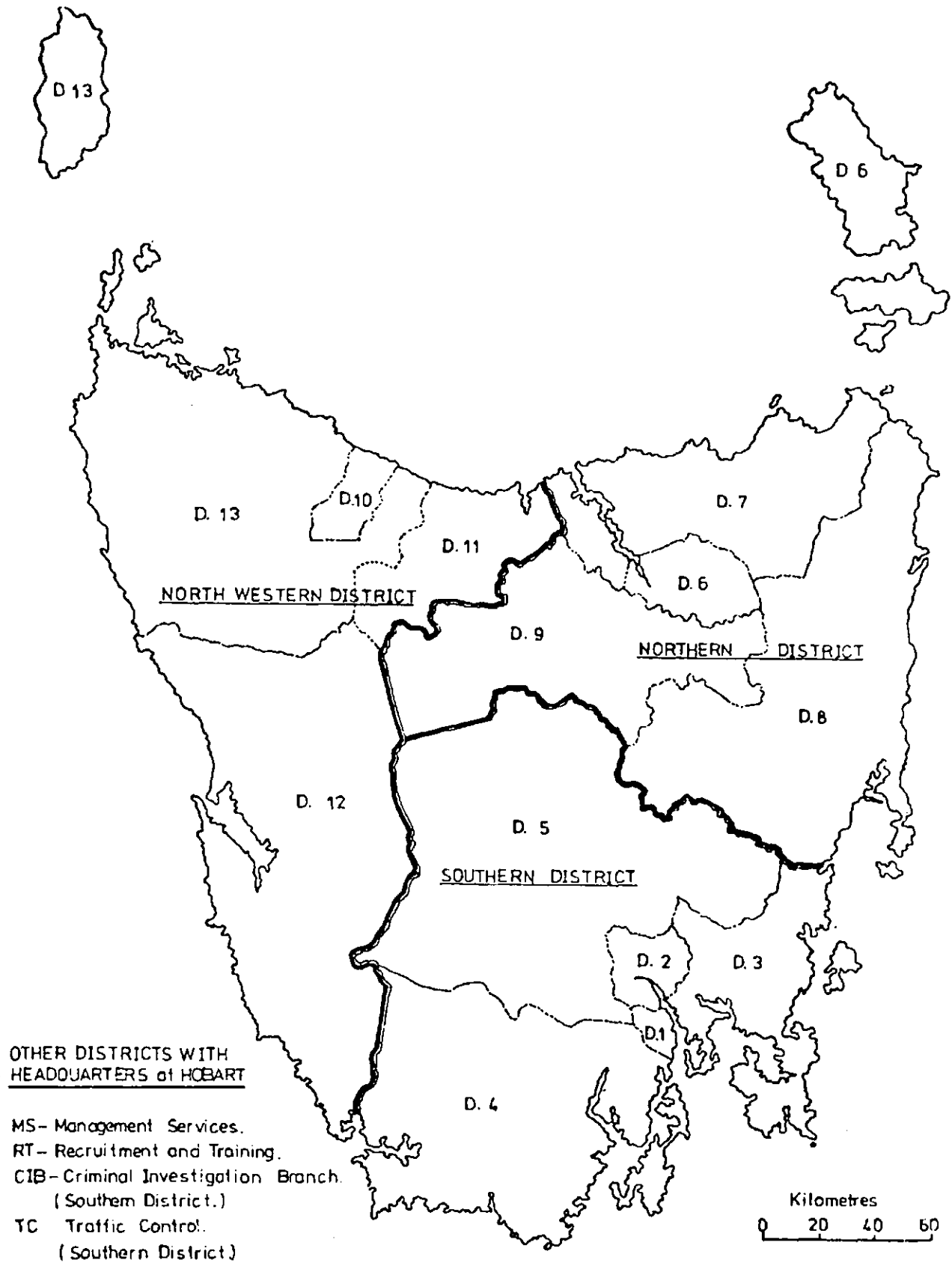
Current strength: (as at Mar 84)

Sworn officers:	984
Other employees:	304

Territorial organisation:

Tasmania Police is territorially based on a system of Districts. These are: Southern District, Northern District and North Western District. This organisation is charted at Figure 2.25.

Figure 2:25 — TASMANIA POLICE DISTRICTS (as at June 1983)



Functional organisation:

Functional organisation in Tasmania Police includes a number of functional Districts, including Management Services District, Recruitment and Training District. Other functional areas include Traffic Control Branch, Criminal Investigation Branch, Gaming Branch and Drug Bureau. This organisation is charted at Figure 2.26.

Northern Territory

Address: Police Headquarters
Berrimah Police Complex
WINELLIE NT 5789
PO Box 39764
WINELLIE NT 5789

Year of origin: 1911

Legislation:

- * Police Administration Act 1974
- * Police Regulations

Minister: (as at Aug 85)

Ian TUXWORTH

Executive: (as at Aug 85)

Commissioner

Ronald McAULAY

Deputy Commissioner

RI TEXTOR

(Neil PLUMB

Assistant Commissioner

(AA GRANT

(WL GOEDGEBUURE

Director of Accounting & Supply

Current strength: (as at May 84)

Sworn officers: 608

Other employees: 214

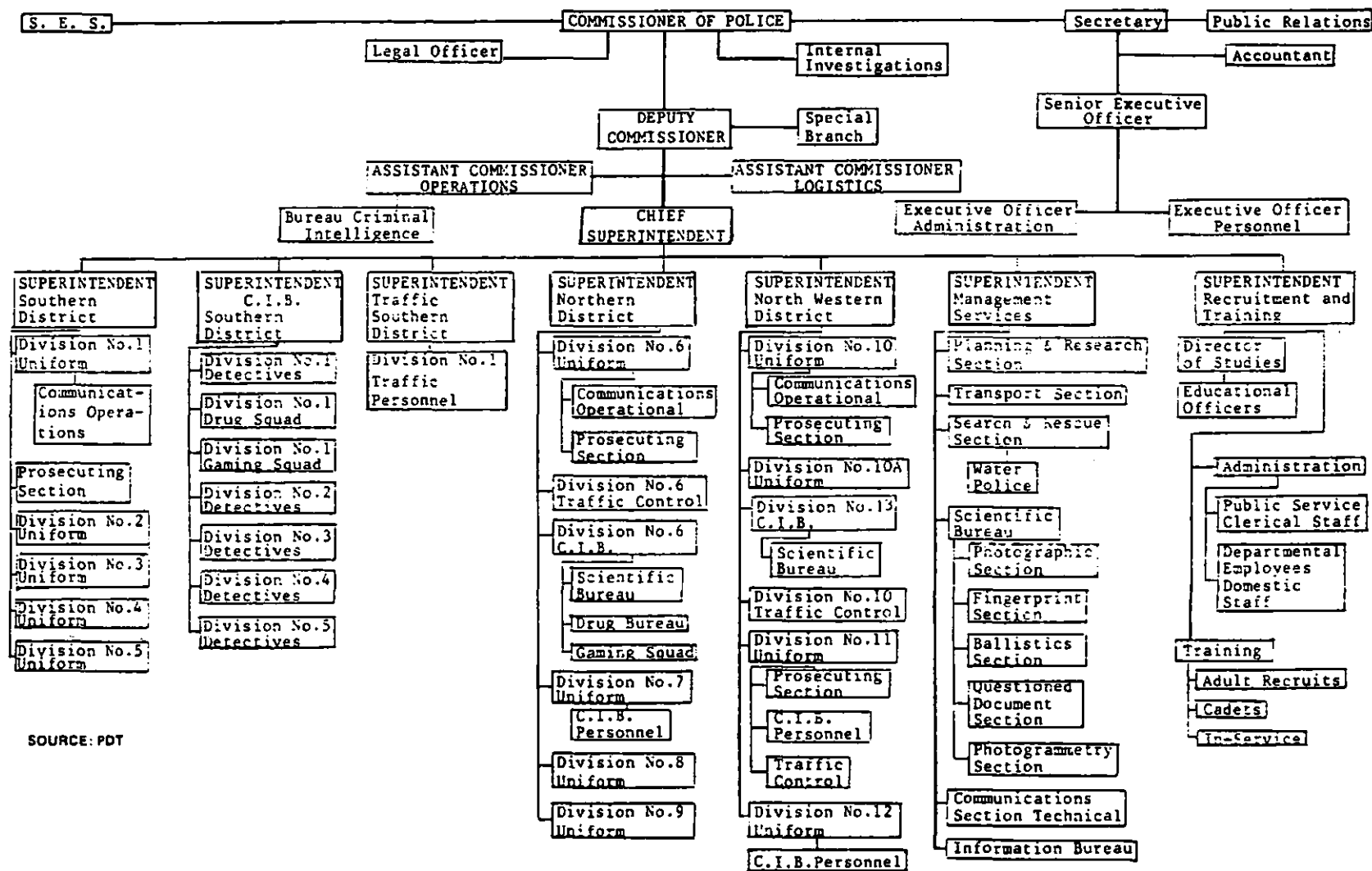
Territorial organisation:

Northern Territory Police is territorially divided into two commands, ie, Northern Command and Southern Command. The former is divided into four divisions and the latter into three divisions.

Functional organisation:

The functional organisation of Northern Territory Police comprises administrative and service commands, ie, Operational Services Command and Management and Planning Command. The functional organisation of the agency is depicted at Figure 2.27.

Figure 2:26 – TASMANIA POLICE ORGANISATION CHART (as at December 1983)



SOURCE: PDT

64



Australian Capital Territory

Address: City Police Station
 London Circuit
CANBERRA ACT 2601
GPO Box 401
CANBERRA ACT 2601

Year of origin: 1929

Legislation:

- * Australian Federal Police Act 1979
- * Complaints (Australian Federal Police) Act 1981

Minister: (as at Aug 85) Mick YOUNG

Assistant Commissioner: PD McCONAGHY (subject to
 direction of Commissioner
 AFP)

As from 1981 a Federal Police Disciplinary Tribunal has existed. This body exercises its jurisdiction in respect of ACT police officers. Its composition is:

President	JJA KELLY
Member	JRB NORRIS
Member	RJ CAHILL

Current strength: (as at 30 Jun 84) 797

Territorial organisation:

ACT Police is responsible for overall community policing of ACT area and Jervis Bay. ACT Police (region of AFP) is shown at Figure 2.28.

New Zealand

Address: Police National Headquarters
 180 Molesworth Street
WELLINGTON C1
 Private Bag
WELLINGTON

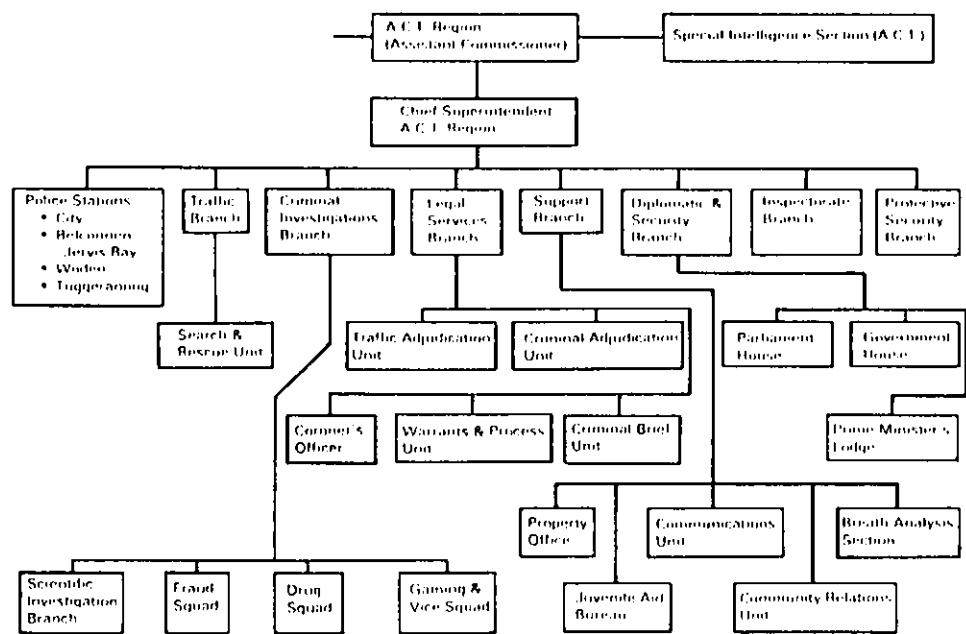
Year of origin: 1886

Legislation:

- * Police Act 1958
- * Police Regulations 1959

Minister: (as at Aug 85) Ann HERCUS

Figure 2:28 – ACT POLICE ORGANISATION CHART (as at June 84)



SOURCE: AFP

Executive: (as at Aug 85)

Commissioner	KO THOMPSON
Deputy Commissioner (Adm)	MT CHURCHES
Deputy Commissioner (Ops)	BW GIBSON
Head of Crime & Operations	SF McEWAN (Dep Asst Comm)
Head of Administration	SA RUSBATCH (Dep Asst Comm)
Head of Policy Research, Evaluation & Planning	Maurice CUMMINGS (Chief Supt)

Current Strength: (as at May 84)

Sworn officers:	5,032
Other employees:	690

Territorial organisation:

New Zealand Police is divided into 14 territorial Districts and two administrative Districts. They are shown at Figure 2.29. District Commanders vary in rank, according to size and population of their District, from Chief Inspector to Assistant Commissioner.

Functional organisation:

New Zealand Police is functionally divided at the top of the structure into Operations and Administration Departments. The Operations Department subdivides into support and criminal investigation subdivisions and, the Administration branch divides into administration and personnel subdivisions. The head of each of these four subdivisions has subordinate to him two or more directors. This structure is charted at Figure 2.30.

POLICE UNIONS

Each police agency is serviced by at least one and sometimes two police unions or associations. Second unions or associations in this context are those industrial bodies catering exclusively for commissioned officers, ie, management. In some cases, eg, New South Wales and South Australia, the commissioned officers' bodies are vocational branches of the respective state's Public Service Association.

Brief details are provided below concerning major police union/associations, ie, those which represent either Constables and Sergeants or, Constables, Sergeants, Inspectors and Superintendents.

New South Wales

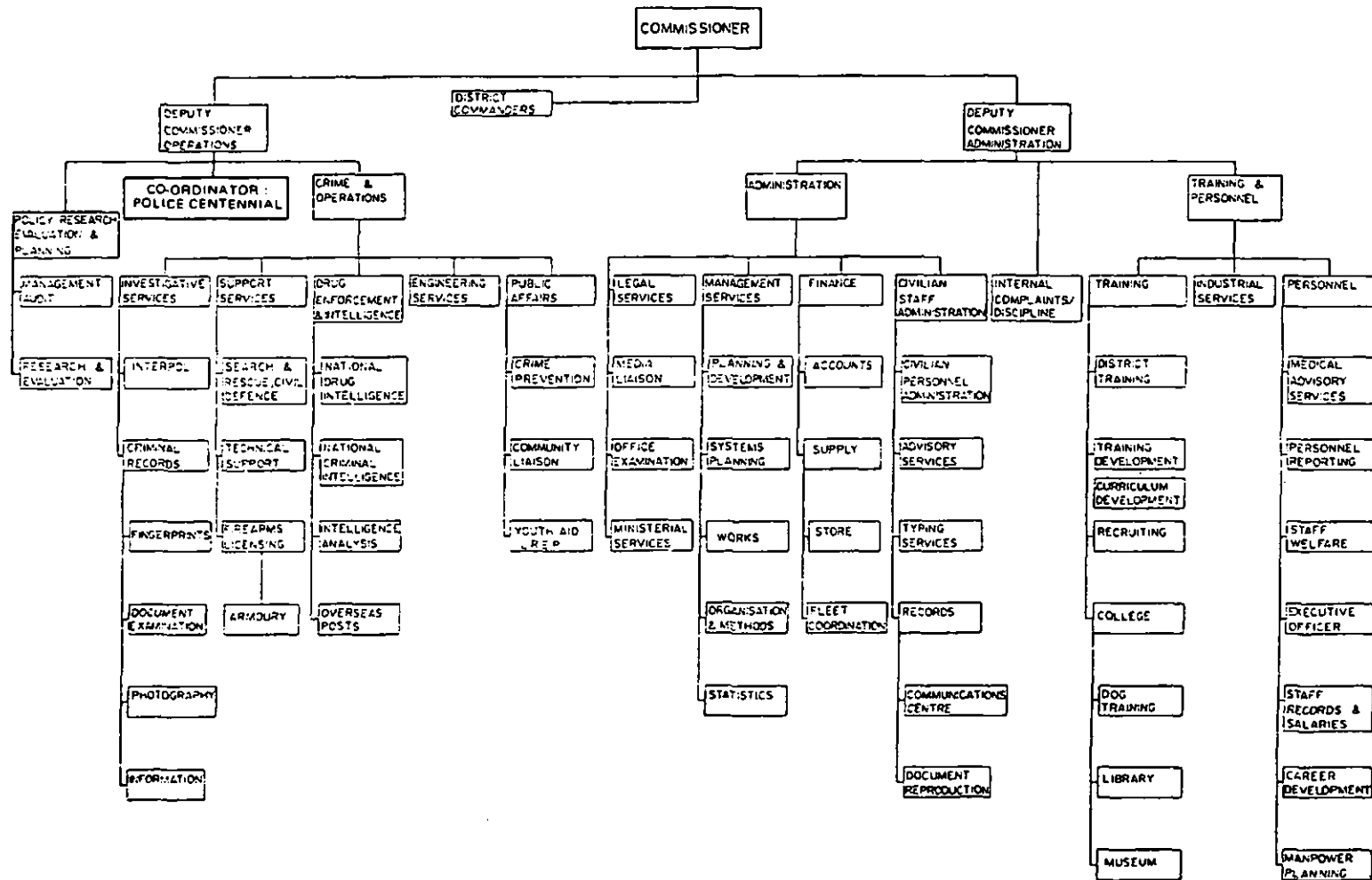
Address: Police Association
16th level
Town Hall House
456 Kent Street
SYDNEY NSW 2000
PO Box Q283
Queen Victoria Building
SYDNEY NSW 2000

Figure 2:29
NEW ZEALAND POLICE DISTRICTS



SOURCE: PFNZ

Figure 2:30 – NEW ZEALAND POLICE HEADQUARTERS ORGANISATION CHART (as at November 1983)



SOURCE: PFNZ

Year of origin: 1920

Registration: 1923 with Industrial Commission of New South Wales.

Publications: Police News (monthly)

Executive: (as at Aug 85)

President:	JC GREAVES	
S Vice President:	LW TAYLOR	
J Vice President:	GR GREEN	
Treasurer:	WA McINTOSH	
Trustees:	MR POOLE	
	AL DAY	
	PJ RANKIN	
Executive Committee	CJ STANDALOFT	KE MORONEY
members:	PM JOHNSTON	IA BORLAND
	JR SIMMONDS	A STEPHENSON
	DP DILLON	JK MALONEY
	TJ JACOBSEN	BG SPOONER
	RJ SADLER	CF RANKIN
	T COLLINS	G WILLIAMS
	A TOMICH	TA O'CONNELL
	P HOLDER	WW TAYLOR
	A LUKES	RS McSPORRAN

Executive sub committees:

- * Planning and priorities
- * Finance
- * Industrial
- * Superannuation and Compensation
- * Equipment, Health, Safety and Housing
- * Promotion and Rights
- * Legal Review
- * Conference
- * Rules revision

Principal employed officers:

Secretary (Adm)	RW PAGE
Secretary (Legal)	BR HOWE
Secretary (Industrial)	SP MacCORMAIC

Major objectives:

- * To conduct negotiations and enter into agreements with the relevant authority or lodge applications with industrial tribunals respecting rates of pay, allowances and conditions of service of members

- * To secure preference to members of the Association
- * To inquire into and secure fair and reasonable adjustment on behalf of members in cases of any charge, suspension, reduction in rank, position or rank and pay, dismissal or retirement
- * To secure redress for any grievance to which members may become subject
- * To afford opportunity for full discussion of any subject relating to the general welfare of the Police Association, and to use all reasonable and constitutional means in dealing with any matter
- * To provide means for combined action in matters affecting the welfare of members
- * To advise and assist members in preparing and placing cases before any Departmental Inquiry or Appeal Tribunal and to provide financial assistance and legal aid in accordance with these Rules
- * To acquire property for investment including the purchase or erection of a building for office and other accommodation
- * To publish the New South Wales Police News
- * To establish welfare schemes approved by Annual Conference for the benefit of members, their families or nominees
- * To promote the interest of the Police Service by every means consistent with its Rules, and with loyalty to the Government of New South Wales
- * To promote and encourage the social fellowship of members of the New South Wales Police Force

Branches and Secretaries: (as at Apr 84)

<u>ACADEMY:</u>	R J Holley	<u>BROKEN HILL:</u>	JS Wilkinson
<u>ALBURY :</u>	G Krooglik	<u>BURWOOD:</u>	RJ Sadler
<u>ARMIDALE:</u>	RB Small	<u>CAMPBELLTOWN:</u>	WD Newton
<u>ASSOCIATES</u>	CJ Alt	<u>CAMPSIE:</u>	SR Jones
<u>BALMAIN:</u>	IH Welch	<u>CASTLE HILL:</u>	ML Land
<u>BANKSTOWN:</u>	PM Johnston	<u>CENTRAL:</u>	JP Potts
<u>BATHURST:</u>	IA Borland	<u>CESSNOCK:</u>	KL Edwards
<u>BCI:</u>	JE Cahill	<u>CHATSWOOD:</u>	DP Robilliard
<u>BEGA:</u>	FE Christian	<u>CIB:</u>	A Turton
<u>BELMONT:</u>	P Baker	<u>COFFS HARBOUR :</u>	AB Guy
<u>BLACKTOWN:</u>	T Fagan	<u>COMMUNICATIONS:</u>	JA Christenson
<u>BOURKE:</u>	BM Goodall	<u>COOMA:</u>	SR Piovarchy

<u>COOTAMUNDRA:</u>	CJ Morley	<u>NORTH COAST</u>	
<u>DARLINGHURST:</u>	(vacant)	<u>ASSOCIATES</u>	EA Simpson
<u>DEE WHY:</u>	CW Haggett	<u>NORTH SYDNEY</u>	AE Groch
<u>DENILIQUN:</u>	S Bradshaw	<u>NORTHERN</u>	
<u>DISASTER AND RESCUE:</u>	AJ Hamilton	<u>ASSOCIATES</u>	CH Swan
<u>DUBBO:</u>	GG Marr	<u>NOWRA</u>	JS Millington
<u>EASTWOOD:</u>	PC Freund	<u>ORANGE</u>	LR Gane
<u>FAIRFIELD:</u>	KP Verdon	<u>PARKES</u>	BE Lambert
<u>FLEMINGTON:</u>	JJ Hillier	<u>PARRAMATTA</u>	HA Morfoot
<u>FORBES:</u>	GR Williams	<u>PENRITH</u>	HG Vanderwaarden
<u>GOSFORD:</u>	WJ Wilson	<u>PERSONNEL AND</u>	
<u>GOULBURN:</u>	RS Smith	<u>TRAINING</u>	BR Audsley
<u>GOULBURN POLICE</u>		<u>PETERSHAM</u>	SL Robinson
<u>ACADEMY:</u>	RP MacFarlane	<u>POLICE & CITIZENS</u>	
<u>GRAFTON:</u>	PJ Johnson	<u>YOUTH CLUBS</u>	JR Doyle
<u>GRIFFITH:</u>	KJ Coleman	<u>PROSECUTING</u>	WK Taylor
<u>HEADQUARTERS:</u>	R Hawken	<u>QUEANBEYAN</u>	BG Spooner
<u>HIGHWAY PATROL:</u>	AA Harvey	<u>REDFERN</u>	DJ Williams
<u>HORNSBY:</u>	RJ Waites	<u>REGIONAL CRIME</u>	
<u>HURSTVILLE:</u>	GJ Dunne	<u>SQUAD SOUTH:</u>	G Short
<u>INVERELL:</u>	MC Ehsman	<u>SAFETY ADVISORY</u>	IB Dawson
<u>KEMPSEY:</u>	RM Mudford	<u>SCIENTIFIC</u>	PJ Holder
<u>KOGARAH:</u>	GR Parriott	<u>SPRINGWOOD</u>	PJ Tunchon
<u>LICENSING:</u>	WG Hack	<u>SUTHERLAND</u>	RB Cope
<u>LISMORE:</u>	M Rodgers	<u>TACTICAL RESPONSE</u>	RS Lambert
<u>LITHGOW:</u>	DJ Brigg	<u>TAMWORTH</u>	MB Smith
<u>LIVERPOOL:</u>	AF Godfrey	<u>TAREE</u>	RA Hammond
<u>MAITLAND:</u>	PJ Miles	<u>TECHNICAL</u>	
<u>MAROUBRA:</u>	GM Davis	<u>SUPPORT</u>	LD Purday
<u>MERRYLANDS:</u>	AG Dunn	<u>THE ROCKS</u>	MP Flaherty
<u>MONA VALE:</u>	GA Byrne	<u>TWEED HEADS</u>	BG Knight
<u>MOREE</u>	RJ Campbell	<u>WAGGA</u>	TA O'Connell
<u>MOSS VALE</u>	MJ Handley	<u>WALGETT</u>	GL Wray
<u>MOTOR VEHICLES</u>	RG Vey-Cox	<u>WALLSEND</u>	W Gunther
<u>MOUNT DRUITT</u>	J Fuggle	<u>WARILLA</u>	K Hanson
<u>MUDGEE</u>	JW Ford	<u>WATER POLICE</u>	FL Mahony
<u>MUSWELLBROOK</u>	P Nicolaides	<u>WAVERLEY</u>	LJ Burroughs
<u>NARRANDERA</u>	DM Freudenstein	<u>WINDSOR</u>	IJ King
<u>NEWCASTLE</u>	PC Anforth	<u>WOLLONGONG</u>	EF Doherty
<u>NEWTOWN</u>	J Ault	<u>WYONG</u>	T Thomas

Source: Police News (NSW)

Victoria

Address: Police Association
43 MacKenzie Street
MELBOURNE V 3000

Year of origin: 1933 (a previous Association existed
1917-1932)

Registration: PAV registered under the Companies Act 1961
in 1931.

Publication: Police Association Journal (monthly)

Executive: (as at Aug 85)

President:	JRH SPLATT
S Vice President:	PN EDGE
J Vice President:	MJ PICKERING
Treasurer:	LJ BLOGG
Committee members:	LD ALLEMAND
	BJ HARDING
	WE KNEEBONE
	LA LALOR
	FJ LESLIE
	PW VAUGHAN
	MJ RYAN

Executive subcommittees:

- * Policy review and finance
- * Industrial
- * Journal
- * Police/Lawyers' Liaison/Legal
- * Rating and Examination
- * Club
- * Catering
- * Picnic
- * Health fund
- * Building and residences
- * Committee of inquiry
- * Research foundation

Principal employed officers:

Secretary:	Tom RIPPON (seconded police officer)
Assistant Secretary:	KT SERONG
Research Officer:	PM BEYER

Major objectives:

- * To promote the interests of members of the Police Force of Victoria by every means consistent with the provisions of the Police Regulations Act and any regulation made thereunder
- * To regulate the relations between members of the Association in order to maintain a contented and loyal Police Force

- * To improve the conditions of employment and service and to promote the welfare of members generally
- * To promote discipline in the said Police Force and concord between officers and men with a view to improving the efficiency of the said Force
- * To afford opportunities for the full discussion of any lawful means in dealing with any matter which may affect the welfare of its members
- * To use or make provision for or organise the use of any lawful means in dealing with any matter which may affect the welfare of its members
 - * To undertake any activity which may further the social employment of members of the Association
 - * To apply for registration of the Association as a Club pursuant to the provisions of the Liquor Control Act of the State of Victoria
- * To protect the rights, powers and privileges of the members of the Association and provide legal assistance to members
- * To assist members who have been injured in the execution of their duty and to safeguard the interests of members in such cases, any financial aid to be subject to the approval of the Executive of the Association
- * To provide gratuitous relief by means of pecuniary or other assistance of necessitous persons who are or have been members of the Association, their widows, children and immediate relatives dependent upon them
- * To engage in any lawful activity which has as its object the general welfare of the members of the Association
- * To remunerate any person, firm or corporation for services rendered to the Association and to pay for any property, rights, privileges, concessions or any other interest or thing acquired by the Association by cash payment or by the allotment of debentures, stock or other lawful securities issued by the Association
- * To purchase, take on lease or in exchange, hire or otherwise acquire any real and personal estate which may be deemed necessary or convenient for any of the purposes of the Association
- * To construct, maintain, and alter any houses, buildings or works necessary or convenient for the purposes of the Association
- * To take any gift of property, whether subject to any special trust or not, for any one or more of the objects of the Association

- * To take such steps by personal or written appeals, public meetings, or otherwise, as may from time to time be deemed expedient for the purpose of procuring contributions to the funds of the Association, in the shape of donations, annual subscriptions, or otherwise
- * To print and publish any newspapers, periodicals, books or leaflets that the Association may think desirable for the promotion of its objects
- * To sell, manage, lease, mortgage, dispose of, or otherwise deal with all or any part of the property of the Association
- * To borrow and raise money in such manner as the Association may think fit
- * To invest any moneys of the Association, not immediately required for any of its objects; in such manner as may from time to time be determined
- * To undertake and execute any trusts or any agency business which may seem directly or indirectly conducive to any of the objects of the Association
- * To affiliate with any other Association, society or federation in the Commonwealth of Australia having similar objects to the Association
- * To establish and support, and to aid in the establishment and support of any other Associations formed for all or any of the objects of the Association
- * To purchase or otherwise acquire and undertake all or any part of the property, assets, liabilities and engagements of any one or more of the institutions, societies or associations with which this Association is authorised to amalgamate or affiliate
- * To transfer all or any part of the property, assets, liabilities and engagement of this Association to any one or more of the institutions, societies or associations with which this Association is authorised to amalgamate or affiliate
- * To obtain all powers and authorities necessary to carry out or extend any of the above objects
- * To do all such other lawful things as are incidental or conducive to the attainment of the above objects
- * To establish and maintain a Benefit Fund
- * To subscribe to any charity and to grant donations for any public purpose
- * To provide a Superannuation Fund for the servants of the Association or otherwise to assist any such servants of their dependants

District delegates: (as at Aug 85)

Symbol and Location	HQ Station	District Delegate
A Melbourne	Russell Street	Sgt WR Devine
A Melbourne(Crime Car)	Russell Street	Sgt A Barnett
B Melbourne	Essendon	S/Sgt IG Payne
BCI Melbourne	Russell Street	Sgt R Johns
C Castlemaine	Ballarat	Sgt CC Underwood
CIB Crim Invest Branch	Russell Street	Sgt GD Landy
COMM Melbourne	Russell Street	Sgt WE Russell
D Trafalgar	Morwell	Sgt BL Jones
E Swan Hill	Swan Hill	S/Sgt EA Dalton
F Seymour	Benalla	Sgt GJ Quillinan
G Bendigo	Bendigo	Sgt BL Kinross
I St Kilda	Prahran	SC MA Grimshaw
DII Melbourne	Spencer Street	Sgt MV Dillon
J Norlane	Geelong	Sgt J Simon
K Colac	Warrnambool	S/Sgt GC Fitzpatrick
L Dimboola	Horsham	SC PJ Hughes
M Sunshine	Altona North	Sgt G Ellis
N Bairnsdale	Bairnsdale	Sgt IJ Gilmore
O Govt House	Melbourne	SC FR Spicer
P Cranbourne	Dandenong	SC BL Graham
PSG Queens Road	Melbourne	Reservist JN Franks
Policewomen, Broadmeadows	Avondale Hgts	SC C Woolley
Q Greensborough	Ivanhoe	Sgt E Lodi
R Hamilton	Hamilton	Sgt RL Hartrick
Research & Develop	William Street	SC M Holden
S Cobram	Shepparton	SC DD McNair
Services Dept, Brunswick	Russell Street	Sgt JW Denman
TOG Melbourne	St Kilda Road	S/Sgt RA Santon
TOG Brunswick	Brunswick	SC MD Woodlock
Training Police Academy	William Street	Sgt P Parson
V Broadmeadows	Avondale Heights	Sgt WJ Garner
W Tallangatta	Wangaratta	Sgt CE Johnson
X Records Section	Russell Street	Reservist MH Henderson
Y Bayswater	Nunawading	Reservist GJ Glenn
Z Frankston	Frankston	Sgt WK Cameron

Source: Police Association of Victoria.

Queensland

Address: Police Union of Employees
 268 Roma Street
BRISBANE Q 4000
 PO Box 2
 Roma Street
BRISBANE Q 4000

Year of origin: 1915

Registration: Registered with Industrial Commission in 1917.

Publication: Queensland Police Union Journal

Executive: (as at Aug 85)

President:	CG CHANT	
Vice President:	JKV O'GORMAN	Region 1
Treasurer:	EM KENNY	

Executive members:	John FOX	Region 2
	MJ BYRNE	Region 3
	PM FITZPATRICK	Region 4
	RC LEWIS	Region 5
	EM KENNY	Region 6
	MJ MELLING	Region 7
	Michael O'BRIEN	Region 7

Principal employed officers:

Secretary: TJ MAHON

Assistant Secretary: Michael NEEDHAM

Major objectives:

- * To deal with all matters appertaining to the advancement of police duties and the Rule of Law
- * To act as an intermediary between the members of the Union and their employers, and to promote good-will and discipline in the Police Force
- * To secure adequate salaries and conditions for members of the Union
- * To protect and advance the interest of members
- * To maintain a Legal Defence Fund for the benefit of members
- * To maintain a Sick and Incapacity Fund for the purpose of assisting financial members whose pay has ceased or has been reduced in accordance with the Police Award
- * To maintain a Union Journal which will be posted to members or contributors at regular intervals
- * To acquire for the proper purpose of the Union any real and personal property, and to sell, mortgage, lease, let, hire and otherwise deal as beneficial owner with all such land and other property
- * For the proper purposes of the Union, to borrow or raise money in such manner as may be determined from time to time by the Executive and the majority of Branches, and in particular by the issue of debentures or debenture stock perpetual or otherwise charged upon all or any part of the property of the Union, both present and future, or without any such charge and upon such terms and conditions as may be determined by the Executive and

the majority of Branches, and generally, to borrow money in any manner and on any conditions

- * To assist other Police Unions and/or Associations in Australia when occasion arises
- * To maintain a Mortality Fund
- * To assist our country financially and otherwise in time of danger
- * The Union shall be non-political, and no part of its funds shall be used for any political purpose. The Union may, however, affiliate with a political party organisation after approval of such action by referendum of the Union
- * For all of which purposes and for the administration of the Union, the funds of the Union shall be applicable
- * The Union may represent its members in any industrial matter
- * To maintain a Suspension Fund.
- * To inaugurate and support a Queensland Police Union Amateur Sporting Foundation

Branch and sub branch secretaries : (as at Aug 85)

DESPATCH BRANCHES AND SUB-BRANCHES

Region	Branch	President	Secretary
1	C.I. BRANCH Metropolitan	J O'GORMAN	T FENLON
2	TRAFFIC (Metropolitan) Sub-Branch Transport-Main Roads	F FOX AW GILLESPIE	GJ BAUMAN GB CLARKE
3	CITY POLICE DEPOT FORTITUDE VALLEY POLICE HEADQUARTERS REDCLIFFE TECHNICAL OFFICERS OPERATIONS Sub-Branch Water Police Watch House	T STRAIN G THOMAS I RAINE D McGRATH IR TOWNSLEY CL NASH RJ LEWIS	RD CORNOCK PJ PHILP M MITCHELL GL TOWNSEND W SPRENGER C FLANAGAN DO McMANUS MJ BURNS
4	ACADEMY BEENLEIGH IPSWICH OXLEY SOUTH BRISBANE WYNNUM	K O'KEEFE M BAINBRIDGE G PENNEY A ORDYNSKI SJ FRANKE P FITZPATRICK	JD MORLEY W RILEY M BALLIN KR PITMAN DP ZEITH KJ SCHREMMER

BRANCHES (Cont)

4	GOLD COAST Sub-Branch Cleveland	D HUGHES SJ STANTON	WT FROHMULLER GC HUNT
5	CHARLEVILLE DALBY ROMA TOOWOOMBA WARWICK Sub-Branch Gatton Goondiwindi St George Stanthorpe Cunnamulla	T ROCHE R BARNES N BEHM AB COSTA A LERCH IK WILLIAMS LJ LEWIS P RYAN T MISSINGHAM RJ KELLY	ET ROBERTS AD JACKSON AJE ORCHARD J BECKER M MELLING IJ HASTED G EDIE RS MARTIN R SMITH JT ENRIGHT
6	BUNDABERG GYMPIE KINGAROY MARYBOROUGH NORTH COAST Sub-Branch Hervey Bay Upper Burnett	M McNAMARA B WARD TW LUNNEY A BEASANT AG DAVEY D POWELL B HOLMES	M JOHNSON C SIDEY T DEAKIN D WELLARD WJ MAHER S SHULTZ KG CHAMBERS
7	GLADSTONE LONGREACH MACKAY ROCKHAMPTON Sub-Branch Central Highlands Biloela Coral Coast Emerald	G McKENDRIE R BARTON G JAMIESON BJ O'SULLIVAN H FULTON R PATTERSON ER SEYMORE	G JONES AJ HURLEY PL EIBY A BENSON RM CHALMERS G BURKIN BT MUIRSON
8	CAIRNS INNISFAIL MAREEBA MOUNT ISA TOWNSVILLE Sub-Branch Charters Towers Cloncurry Ingham Whitsunday Thursday Island	RL METCALFE N HACKETT BJ NORRIS G COTTERILL J URQUHART MR BEVERIDGE AJ PEARCE DJ LANGDON T CAMERON RA GLASBY	WK JEFFERY G GRONOW RJ WALL JM STEINKAMP A WADE DG WHEILDON ME BRAY MR BOW G HARTLAND S McLENNAN

Source: Queensland Police Union Journal

Western Australia

Address: Police Union of Workers
246 Adelaide Terrace
PERTH WA 6000
GPO Box K880
PERTH WA 6000

Year of origin: 1912

Registration: Registered with Industrial Commission in 1913.

Publication: Police News (bi monthly)

Council: (as at Aug 85)

President:	EW COUZENS
S Vice President:	Les McMILLAN
J Vice President:	Kim CHADBOURNE
Treasurer:	RC CROWE
Council members:	Robert HAMILTON
	AI DAVIS
	EB CLAY
	WD LEE
	AG RICHARDS
	BW SHARPER
	IB CONNOR
	JR HAWKES
	MW FYFE

Principal employed officers:

Secretary:	(vacant)
Assistant Secretary:	PJ STINGEMORE

Major objectives:

- * To promote the interests of the police service by every means consistent with its regulations and with loyalty to the government of Western Australia
- * To afford opportunity to discuss matters affecting the welfare of the service, and to provide means for combined action in matters affecting any member thereof
- * To consider any grievances or complaints affecting the Police Service, and to use every endeavour to obtain redress or settlement by means of such representation to the Government through the Commissioner of Police as may be deemed necessary, provided that no representation of individual cases of grievances or complaints shall be made, unless the branch of which he is a member notify the Council that it considers he has been unjustly charged or has a legitimate grievance
- * To encourage esprit de corps among members of the Police Force
- * To pay a death levy on the death of any member or a member's wife or husband as provided for in Rule 38.

Branch Secretaries: (as at Aug 85)

Metropolitan	C Hornsey	Murchison	OIC Police,
		Goldfields	Meekatharra

Fremantle	AN Harris	Kimberley (Acting)	R Edmonds
CIB	G Birch	Central Midlands	P Presbury
Traffic	N De Grussa	Geraldton	SA Bordas
Midland	P Wright	South Western	J Pooley
Commissioned		Centra Law Court	R Edwardes
officers	RC Crowe	West Pilbara	Police Station,
Cadets	(vacant)		Karratha
Gascoyne Districts	D Paterson	Lower South West	F Yates
Eastern Goldfields	J Cream	South Eastern	W Barrett
Eastern Districts	C O'Rourke	Mandurah	R Oversby
Merredin Districts	MK Newman	Great Southern	J Mephram
		North Pilbara	C Murray

Source: Police News (WA)

South Australia

Address: Police Association
27 Carrington Street
ADELAIDE SA 5000

Year of origin: 1911

Publication: Police Journal (monthly)

Registration: Registered with Industrial Commission 1923.

Executive: (as at Aug 85)

President:	Tom RIENIETS
S Vice President:	BM MOYSE
J Vice President:	Jim FURNELL
Treasurer:	Roger HALLIDAY
Executive members:	David EASSON
	Jack WALSH
	Bill NEWMAN
	Peter PARFITT
	Kathryn FINNEGAN
	Barry LOVEGROVE

Executive sub committees:

- * Legal
- * Journal
- * Finance
- * Pensions & Services
- * Facilities
- * Training & Education
- * Uniform & Equipment
- * Delegates.

Principal employed officers:

Secretary: Daniel BROPHY
 Assistant Secretary: RB RICE

Major objectives:

- * To promote the interests of the members of the Police Service of the State of South Australia by all means consistent with these rules and with loyalty to the Government of South Australia
- * To afford opportunity for the discussion of matters affecting the Police Service
- * To provide for combination of action in matters affecting any members or member of the Association
- * To consider, and if necessary to endeavour, to obtain redress or for settlement of, any grievances or complaints affecting the Police Service
- * To have recourse to all means provided by the Industrial Code as amended, or any other Acts of Parliament amending or extending the same in order to carry into effect the objects of the Association which is Registered under the Industrial Code as amended
- * To encourage esprit de corps among members of the Police Force of South Australia.

Delegates: (as at Jul 85)

Division

A1 Steve Scott
 A2 Peter Hoadley
 A3 John Bailey
 B (City) Philip Maynard

 B2 Ken Phillips
 B3 Mick Daly
 C1 Charlie Rumbelow
 C2 Mark Cundy
 C3 Geoff Malpas
 D Mick Supple
 D1 Al Thomson

 G1 Bob Burnard
 G2 Jane Anderson
 G3 (South) John Williamson
 G3 (North) Linc Gore
 G4 Neil Humphrey
 G5 Peter Franklin
 H2 (West) Tom Nyenhuis
 H2 (East) Peter Schapel

Division

H3 (South) John Gigger
 H3 (North) Paul Evans
 H4 (East) Rene Steen
 H4 John Hissey
 H5 Grant Vogelsang
 Education Wing Peter Jalfon
 J Rex Parsons
 K2 Peter Alexander
 K4 Stephen Nielsen
 L Colin Cornish
 Prosecution Harry Hills
 M2 Al Buckley
 M3 Dennis Schilling
 O1 Harry Marriott
 O2 Peter Sypek
 T1 Ross Rhodes
 T2 Jim Best
 Police Academy Ashley Pursche
 PHQ John Tuncks
 Commissioned
 Officers Ken Thorsen

Tasmania

Address: Police Association
 31 Warwick Street
NORTH HOBART T 7000
GPO Box 1299N
HOBART T 7001

Year of origin: 1923

Registration: 1973 registered with Public Service Board.
 (An Industrial Commission is expected to be
 established by late 1984).

Publication: Police Association Newsletter (monthly)

Executive: (as at Aug 85)

President:	Kevin CLARK	
S Vice President:	JV YOUNG	
J Vice President:	Leon KEMP	
Treasurer:	Peter STONE	
Assistant Secretary:	Peter STONE	
Trustees:	Kevin BARRY	
	Adrian LORING	
	Kate RENSHAW	
Members:	Frank LEPONIS)	
	Arthur WOODS)	Southern Branch
	Kevin BENNETT)	
	George GODMAN)	Northern Branch
	Wayne COOPER)	
	Robert FERN)	NW Branch
	Pat BOWES)	Commissioned
	Max GLENNON)	Officers Branch

Executive committees:

- * Finance
- * Legal Aid
- * Industrial
- * Association Review.

Principal employed officers:

Secretary: Graeme McDERMOTT

Major objectives:

- * To promote the interests of the Police Service by means consistent with its Regulations, and with loyalty to the Government of Tasmania, British Commonwealth of Nations and Her Majesty The Queen
- * To afford full discussion of any subject having relation to the general welfare of the Association, and to provide for the use of its Members all reasonable and constitutional means in dealing with any matters affecting any member thereof
- * To secure redress for any grievance to which members may become subject, where there is just cause

- * To enquire into and secure fair and reasonable adjustment on behalf of members in the case of any charge, suspension, reduction in rank, position, or rank and pay, dismissal or retirement
- * To advise and assist members in preparing and placing cases before Departmental enquiry
- * To secure preference for members of the Association
- * To enter in agreements respecting rates of pay and conditions of service with any authority acting on behalf of the Government
- * To provide means for combined action in matters affecting the welfare of members
- * To make financial provision for carrying out of any of the objects of the Association
- * To establish a fund or funds for the provision of financial assistance for the better carrying out of the objects of this Association
- * To establish a Sick Leave Bank to provide assistance for members, who are, or who become, sick, and as a result thereof are receiving less than their full pay, in accordance with Police regulations
- * To inaugurate and maintain a Credit Union Co-Operative Society within the Association
- * To provide financial assistance to members on the death of a member's wife or dependant child; and to provide financial assistance to the widow or next-of-kin of a deceased member
- * To secure or assist in securing legislation for the protection of the interests of the Association and for the general and material welfare of its members
- * To assist other Police Associations or Unions in the Commonwealth of Australia to pursue objects consistent with the objects of this Association
- * To foster and maintain a Registered Licensed Club for the members of the Association
- * To provide for the acquisition of property including the purchase or erection of a building for office and other accommodation
- * To promote and encourage the social fellowship of members of the Association
- * To give legal assistance in connection with all or any of the objects of the Association within the limits allowed by law and the by-laws of this Association.

Northern Territory

Address: Police Association
 18 Smith Street
DARWIN NT 5790
 GPO Box 2350
DARWIN NT 5794

Year of origin: 1945 (previous Association existed
 1939-1941)

Publication: NT Police News (quarterly)

Executive: (as at Aug 85)

President: GR CARTER
 S Vice President: SJ WALLACE
 J Vice President: IP MORRISON
 Treasurer: GR CASEY
 Assistant Treasurer: Sean O'SULLIVAN
 Assistant Secretary: Colin HAYMON
 Executive members: DJ LLEWELLYN
 AM MURPHY
 John BLAKE
 Stan SENSOM

Executive sub-committees:

- * Finance
- * Industrial
- * Police rights/legal review
- * Uniform, equipment & safety
- * Constitution review
- * Conference.

Principal employed officers: AJ CAROLAN (seconded
 police officer)

Major objectives:

- * To perform all and any acts, and do all and any things,
 as may be necessary for the welfare of, or benefit to,
 the Association, its members or the dependents of its
 members, and there shall be no limitation of any nature
 whatsoever to the generality of those objects.

Delegates: (as at Aug 85)

Region 1:	Julie DOWD	Region 5:	Mark D'ALTON
Region 2:	Mark McADIE	Region 6:	John HANCOCK
Region 3:	John BLAKE	Region 7:	Mike BRENNAN
Region 4:	Eric CLEAK		

Source: Police News (NT)

Australian Capital Territory

ACT police officers are members of the Australian Federal Police Association, of which body there is an ACT Branch:

Address: 217 Northbourne Avenue
TURNER ACT 2601

Year of origin: 1929 (original ACT Police Association)

New Zealand

The Police Association of New Zealand Inc represents subordinate police employees in the various grades of Constable and Sergeant. It is incorporated under the Incorporated Societies Act 1936.

Address: Police Association
 1st Floor
 Princess Towers
 180 Molesworth Street
WELLINGTON NZ
 PO Box 12344
WELLINGTON NZ

Year of origin: 1936

Publication: Police Association Newsletter (monthly)

Executive: (as at Aug 85)

President:	Keith MORROW
Vice President:	Ron RICHARDSON
Vice President:	JJ TAYLOR
Members:	Basil BOYD
	Alan MONK
	Brian WALKINSHAW
	Peter SHAUGNNESSY

Principal employed officers:

National Secretary (Admin and Welfare):	(vacant)
Advocate:	(vacant)
Executive Officer:	Graham BUTTERWORTH

Major objectives:

- * to maintain discipline, increase the efficiency, improve working conditions and promote the general welfare and contentment of members
- * to constitute the official channel of communication between its members as a body and: (1) Minister responsible for Police, and (2) Commissioner of Police
- * to foster a feeling of amity and goodfellowship throughout the Police

- * to provide assistance (other than financial assistance) to members, and to provide assistance to their dependents in need thereof and where necessary to bring their claims before the Department
- * to print and publish a magazine to be known as The New Zealand Police Journal and such other literature as may be considered conducive to promoting the objects of the Association
- * to take such action, consistent with the above objects and the constitution of the Association, as shall be deemed advisable in furthering the interests of members.

Association delegates: (as at Jul 85)

DISTRICTS

AUCKLAND CITY

National Councillor	P Hilt
Secretary	T Mayes
Chairman	(vacant)

WEST AUCKLAND (Henderson)

National Councillor	S Hawkins
Secretary	J Flanagan
Chairman	JN Gordon

STH AUCKLAND (Otahuhu)

National Councillor	PA Smith
Secretary	N Schultz
Chairman	S Mangnall

CHRISTCHURCH

National Councillor	C Mailing
Secretary	WG Thomas
Chairman	M Moore

DUNEDIN

National Councillor	P Stevenson
Secretary	W Nelson
Chairman	R Steedman

GISBORNE

National Councillor	LR Naden
Secretary	DR Batchelor
Chairman	CW Haar

GREYMOUTH

National Councillor	RJ O'Connell
Secretary	John Shirley
Chairman	SP Dawson

HAMILTON

National Councillor	A Olsen
Secretary	B Morgan
Chairman	R Fleming

INVERCARGILL

National Councillor	DJ Wisely
Secretary	L Walkinshaw
Chairman	D Wisely

NAPIER

National Councillor	R Manning
Secretary	S Simmonds
Chairman	M Jeffries

NELSON

National Councillor	FK Parfitt
Secretary	N James
Chairman	PJ England

NEW PLYMOUTH

National Councillor	I Gardiner
Secretary	I Gardiner
Chairman	P Shaughnessy

PALMERSTON NORTH

National Councillor	RT Vernon
Secretary	KP Allen
Chairman	I Sutherland

ROTORUA

National Councillor	SE Guy
Secretary	T Bolstad
Chairman	H Figgist

TIMARU

National Councillor	J Laredo
Secretary	DA Thomson
Chairman	MC Eathorne

WANGANUI

National Councillor	G Hodge
Secretary	F Mackay
Chairman	L Edwards

WELLINGTON CITY

National Councillor	K Burt
Secretary	B Wall
Chairman	E Wicke

PORIRUA

National Councillor	S Hinds
Secretary	H Beveridge
Chairman	S Hinds

HUTT

National Councillor	R Bull
Secretary	M Hamill
Chairman	G Orr

WHANGAREI

National Councillor	J Malcolm
Secretary	R Crate
Chairman	HJ Stoddart

BRANCHESKAITAIA

Secretary	W Te Kani
Chairman	J Bratty

TAUMARANUI

Secretary	PJ van Dosschoten
Chairman	TR Kay

TE KUITI

Secretary	W Botherway
Chairman	(vacant)

WHAKATANE

Secretary	B Plunket
Chairman	P Killen

TAURANGA

Secretary	J Bermingham
Chairman	LJ Pearce

TAIHAPE

Secretary	(vacant)
Chairman	(vacant)

TAUPO

Secretary	MC Flahive
Chairman	(vacant)

LEVIN

Secretary	J Craig
Chairman	W Cockburn

MASTERTON

Secretary	R Trass
Chairman	I Manawaiti

POLICE FEDERATION

The Police Federation of Australia & New Zealand opens its membership to associations and unions of government employed police officers within New Zealand and Australia. The idea of a combination of police unions was originally approved at an interstate meeting of police union representatives in 1922. The proposal was not ratified, however, and a similar exploratory meeting was not held again until 1945. On that occasion the proposal was agreed to by all police associations and unions, and the Federation was formally established in 1946. From that time forward the Federation has undergone various vicissitudes, mostly stemming from the essential lack of relevance of a federal body in relation to a state based enterprise. On the other hand, the Federation does provide a forum for discussion of problems of mutual concern to member bodies. The intention manifested in recent times by the various police employee representative bodies in Australia of achieving federal registration may result in the Federation achieving a central role.

Address: Secretary
Police Federation
c/- 43 MacKenzie Street
MELBOURNE V 3000

Membership: (as at Mar 84)

- * Police Association of Victoria
- * Police Union of Queensland
- * Police Union of Western Australia
- * Police Association of South Australia
- * Police Association of Northern Territory

Year of origin: 1946

Registration: nil

Publication: nil

Executive: (as at Mar 84)

President:	CG CHANT
S Vice President:	EW COUZENS
J Vice President:	Barry MOYSE
Secretary/Treasurer:	Tom RIPPON
Assistant Secretary:	Daniel BROPHY
Executive members:	Alex CAROLAN
	Graeme McDERMOTT
	Robert MOODIE

Objectives:

- * To promote the interests of the Federation and its member Associations and Unions
- * To hold conferences, seminars, lectures, discussion groups or other like gatherings in order to further the interchange of ideas, information and knowledge relating to matters of interest to the Federation and its member Associations and Unions
- * To secure throughout the Commonwealth of Australia and New Zealand, by conciliation, arbitration and negotiation without resort to direct industrial action or other methods which might be in restraint of trade, the best possible conditions of employment for Police employed by the Crown and to safeguard such persons from hardship or injustice arising out of or in the course of their employment
- * To secure throughout the Commonwealth of Australia and New Zealand preference to employment in the various Police Forces for those who are members of Associations or Unions which form part of the Federation
- * To accumulate, create and acquire funds, property (real and personal) and interests as are deemed necessary by the Federation for the carrying out of those objects and to use, sell or dispose of such monies, properties and interests to the same end
- * To obtain registration in so far as the members of the Commonwealth of Australia are concerned, of the Federation as an organisation pursuant to the provisions of the federal Conciliation and Arbitration Act 1902 (as amended) at such time as may be deemed convenient.

Source: Police Federation

At the time of going to press, the Federation was undergoing substantial review.

AUSTRALIAN POLICE MINISTERS COUNCIL (APMC)

The Australian Police Ministers' Council was formed in 1980 and comprises Ministers of the Crown responsible for police and associated functions.

The council meets at least each six months and assumes responsibility for coordination of those police activities which can be effected better on a collective basis.

To date, the Council has met in Melbourne, Perth, Sydney, Hobart, Brisbane and Canberra. Support for the Council is provided by the Senior Officers' Group which comprises the various Commissioners of Police and others. The Group meets about one month prior to each ministerial meeting so as to prepare an agenda, developing items and, as appropriate, draft recommendations for consideration by the Minister.

The Council is chaired by the host minister as appropriate. It is served by a secretariat located in the Department of the Special Minister of State, in Canberra.

Source: PDWAAR

PROTECTIVE SERVICES COORDINATION CENTER(PSCC)

The Protective Services Coordination Center is responsible for coordinating protective security arrangements for Australian and visiting holders of high office and arrangements for countering terrorism.

It is not a police body but, due to the centrality of some of its roles to the police function, a good deal of overlap occurs.

The Special Interdepartmental Committee On Protection Against Violence (SIDC-PAV), which meets monthly, is serviced by PSCC. The Special Incidents Task Force (SITF), a permanent sub committee of SIDC-PAV is similarly serviced.

Source: DSMOSAR

INTERNATIONAL POLICE ASSOCIATION(IPA)

The International Police Association is the largest fraternal police organisation in the world, with in excess of 160,000 members in approximately 63 countries.

In Australia, IPA is divided into regions:

- * Queensland
- * Victoria
- * New South Wales
- * South Australia
- * Western Australia
- * Tasmania
- * Australian Capital Territory
- * Northern Territory

Objectives:

The Association's aims and objectives are as follows:

- * The Association proposes to establish the following among all its members:

- . cultural relations in all activities which can broaden its field of knowledge
- . ties of solidarity and mutual assistance in connection with the social purposes within its jurisdiction
- . exchanges of professional information, taking into account the restrictions provided for in the Rules.

For this purpose, it undertakes to adopt the following main objectives:

- * To unite all serving and retired members of the Police Service, with a view to establishing ties of friendship and mutual aid among them
- * To organise exchange holidays, pen-friendships and group visits
- * To encourage and stimulate the work of public service, to promote respect for law and maintenance of order among members of the Police Service in all countries and, when the opportunity arises, to engage in social and cultural activities
- * To publish an International Police Review in several languages, a bibliography of police works and, if possible, any other publications on police, legal or judicial matters
- * To exchange publications regularly among national sections with a view to encouraging relations between members of the International Police Association throughout the world
- * To establish a correspondence service to inform members on all subjects of interest to the Association.

Office bearers: (as at Jul 83)

National Executive Committee and Council

President:	Val DOHERTY	(WA)
Vice President:	Elke PFAU	(SA)
Treasurer:	Wendy MILNE	(V)
Secretary-General:	Sid LOANE	(Q)
Assistant Secretary-General:	Eric CLEGG	(Q)
Editor-in-Chief:	Cliff REDLEY	(V)
Travel Secretary:	J BURN	(V)

National Executive Council Regional Representatives

Queensland:	Frank BLAKE
Victoria:	JR McIVER
New South Wales:	Colin JOYCE
	George DODDS

South Australia:	Norm MASON F HOLDEN
Western Australia:	MLT WRIGHT Val DOHERTY
Tasmania:	Kevin BARRY D SHEARER
ACT:	Gary TUCKWOOD Jim ROBERTSON

NATIONAL POLICE RESEARCH UNIT(NPRU)

The APMC established the National Police Research Unit in 1983. The Unit's roles are:

- * to liaise with Police Forces and other bodies to:
 - . coordinate
 - . stimulate
 - . sponsor
 research programs and projects relevant to policing and to disseminate results.
- * to undertake either in house or out of house:
 - . research into methods, equipment and techniques to assist participating Forces to meet their objectives in protecting life and property, preventing crime, detecting criminal offenders, preserving the peace
 - . research into the effects of sociological trends and influences on Police Forces and police officers.

Overall responsibility for the Unit rests with APMC.

Source: NPRU

CHRISTIAN POLICE ASSOCIATION (CPA)

The Christian Police Association was established in London in 1883 and now is represented in 24 countries world wide.

Four branches exist in Australasia, ie, Victoria, Queensland, Western Australia and Tasmania. The basis of CPA involvement is a personal faith in Christ and commitment to him. CPA is non-denominational. It exists to create a bond between members as well as to be a caring body of believers with a concern for the spiritual welfare of the police service generally.

Formal objectives of CPA are to:

- * promote and foster the fellowship of Christian police officers in that unity which is enjoyed by those who are born again by the spirit of God

- * demonstrate this relationship to God in a concern for righteousness both on and off duty
- * obey Christ in proclaiming his gospel, especially to members of the police service that they may be brought to know him personally

Source: Police News (WA)

AUSTRALIAN BUREAU OF CRIMINAL INTELLIGENCE (ABCI)

Established on 6 February 1981, the role of Australian Bureau of Criminal Intelligence is to provide facilities for the collection, collation, analysis and dissemination of criminal intelligence with a view to providing such intelligence to the Police Forces of the states and territories, as well as federal agencies to enable them to combat organised crime in Australia and, in particular, to assist them to combat illicit (sic) drug trafficking.

The functions of ABCI cover the following main areas:

- * research and distribution of criminal intelligence
- * liaison
- * identification of national targets for operational action
- * recommended proposals for legislative changes to combat organised crime.

ABCI is oversighted by a committee of police commissioners.

Source: ABCI

AUSTRALASIAN POLICE SCOUTERS ASSOCIATION

APSA membership is open to serving or former police officers throughout Australia as well as Guide, Scout, Cub and Brownie leaders. Branches exist in various states including Western Australia.

WA President: Sergeant 1/c Neville Thorpe
(09) 3250261 ext 2599.

Source: Police News (WA)

CHAPTER 3

PERSONNEL STRENGTHS, DISTRIBUTION AND EXPENDITURE

The largest item by far in any police agency's budget is salaries and other forms of remuneration. Thus, personnel strengths and expenditure are usefully presented in tandem.

Strengths

Approved establishments of police agencies are often seriously argued as meaningful measures of human resources in social policy, political and social planning contexts. They are, worse still, often argued comparatively. Such calculations and comparisons are pointless in any debate on police personnel strengths and expenditure thereon as they entirely fail to take into account differing social and economic conditions as well as a host of other considerations. Above all, when confined, as they often are, to discussion of sworn employees only no regard is paid to the important contributions made to the total agency effort by public servants, ministerial employees and other non-sworn employees.

This chapter focusses inter alia on posted (as opposed to approved) personnel strengths (at agency level) across a range of dimensions. These data can be useful when used in the public policy/administration domain provided the above strictures are heeded.

Posted strengths of sworn personnel from 1970 forward are shown by agency at Table 3.1. It should be noted the data do not include cadets.

In most police agencies female officers form a relatively small proportion of the total sworn strength. Female totals and percentages are shown by agency at Table 3.2. These data do not include cadets either.

In terms of total agency strengths, non-police employee strengths are important. Total non-sworn personnel strengths are shown at Table 3.3. The data do not include cadets, trainees, persons employed under various training and make work schemes, part time employees or, for the most part, temporary employees. Where senior police officers are employed under public service rather than police conditions, their numbers are shown in this Table.

Total agency posted strengths, ie, sworn and non-sworn employees are shown at Table 3.4, subject to the qualifications applying to Table 3.3.

Ratios of posted non-sworn to sworn employees are shown at Table 3.5.

TABLE 3.1
POSTED POLICE OFFICERS* : BY AGENCY, 1970-1983

agency	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983
NSW	7,144†	7,513†	7,741†	7,923†	8,212†	8,382†	8,482†	8,504†	9,011†	9,091†	9,225†	9,357†	9,388¶	9,812¶
V	4,770†	5,089†	5,410†	5,628†	5,841†	6,156†	6,487†	6,819†	7,238†	7,569†	7,814†	8,050†	8,302†	8,258¶
Q ¶	3,085	3,051	3,103	3,210	3,329	3,479	3,582	3,744	3,832	3,902	4,020	4,338	4,345	4,514
WA ¶	1,529	1,616	1,686	1,807	1,984	2,179	2,288	2,345	2,490	2,558	2,643	2,622	2,693	2,824
SA ¶	1,881	1,985	2,068	2,167	2,264	2,474	2,560	2,781	2,920	3,135	3,219	3,250	3,269	3,297
T ¶	717	715	738	787	828	890	938	942	946	956	974	974	987	982
NT ¶	235	259	281	318	361	443	418	451	470	538	524	550	566	591
ACT ¶	289	347	398	435	524	574	551	551	575	583	-	-	683	-
NZ §	3,119	3,214	3,302	3,560	3,742	4,119	4,332	4,466	4,700	4,758	4,961	4,946	5,000	5,094

* Excl Cadets and Junior Trainees

§ As at 31 Mar

† As at 31 Dec

¶ As at 30 Jun

Source: Police department annual reports and spokespersons

TABLE 3.2
POLICEWOMEN:† BY AGENCY, 1970-1983

agency	1970 fr	1970 %	1971 fr	1971 %	1972 fr	1972 %	1973 fr	1973 %	1974 fr	1974 %	1975 fr	1975 %	1976 fr	1976 %	1977 fr	1977 %	1978 fr	1978 %	1979 fr	1979 %	1980 fr	1980 %	1981 fr	1981 %	1982 fr	1982 %	1983 fr	1983 %
NSW	85	1.18	100	1.33	106	1.36	106	1.33	121	1.47	121	1.44	128	1.51	135	1.58	145	1.60	166	1.83	169	1.83	307	3.28	395	4.21	520	5.3
V	69	1.44	125	2.45	158	2.92	185	3.28	200	3.42	278	4.51	301	4.64	347	5.09	417	5.76	526	6.95	540	6.91	603	7.49	676	8.14	626	7.58
O	27	0.87	30	0.98	65	2.09	137	4.26	216	6.48	232	6.66	308	8.59	317	8.46	307	8.01	288	7.32	281	7.09	286	6.97	278	6.40	281	6.23
WA	30	1.96	35	2.16	38	2.25	38	2.10	38	1.91	38	1.74	35	1.52	53	2.26	70	2.81	71	2.77	75	2.93	70	2.67	72	2.67	74	2.62
SA	38	2.02	41	2.06	40	1.93	45	2.07	-	-	89	3.59	96	3.75	116	4.17	125	4.28	122	3.89	132	4.10	145	4.46	239	7.31	243	7.37
T	13	1.81	15	2.10	21	2.85	18	2.29	21	2.54	24	2.70	28	2.92	32	3.31	44	4.55	51	5.20	48	5.11	46	4.73	51	5.17	46	4.68
NT	8	3.40	7	2.70	5	1.78	5	1.57	5	1.39	6	1.35	9	2.15	8	1.77	13	2.77	22	4.09	31	5.92	32	5.82	30	5.30	35	5.92
ACT	5	1.73	6	1.73	7	1.76	8	2.07	14	2.67	17	2.96	17	3.08	19	3.45	21	3.65	22	3.77	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
NZ	74	2.37	77	2.40	91	2.76	98	2.75	116	3.10	159	3.86	190	4.39	169	3.78	187	3.98	205	4.31	210	4.23	237	4.79	205	4.10	204	4.07

† Excl Cadets and Junior Trainees

fr Frequency

Source : Police department annual reports and departmental spokespersons

TABLE 3.3
POSTED NON-SWORN EMPLOYEES* : BY AGENCY, 1970-1983

agency	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983
NSW	1,157	1,425	1,481	1,659	1,806	1,860	1,922	1,906	1,880	1,901	1,843	1,936	1,925	2,047
V	1,464	1,453	1,585	1,631	1,895	1,978	2,023	2,050	2,069	2,138	2,215	1,198	1,201	1,248
Q	429	430	507	556	605	694	748	755	751	761	777	784	815	866
WA	247	282	327	354	167	159	187	196	197	217	240	239	791	987
SA	269	275	295	318	350	349	369	395	433	435	461	459	451	-
T	85	111	120	156	195	215	225	227	243	256	257	251	212	304
NT §	-	61	62	30	41	62	59	62	66	154	157	160	151	164
NZ	242	262	285	297	359	467	548 †	565 †	636 †	656	671	698	706	706

† Authorised § Also service fisheries and firefighting element of agency * Excl Cadets and Junior Trainees

Source: Police department annual reports and spokespersons

TABLE 3.4
TOTAL POSTED, FULLTIME, EMPLOYEE STRENGTHS *: BY AGENCY, 1970-1983

agency	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983
NSW	8,301	8,938	9,222	9,582	10,018	10,242	10,404	10,410	10,891	10,992	11,068	11,293	11,313	11,859
V	6,234	6,542	6,995	7,259	7,736	8,134	8,510	8,869	9,307	9,707	10,029	9,248	9,503	9,506
Q §	3,514	3,481	3,610	3,766	3,934	4,178	4,330	4,499	4,583	4,663	4,797	5,122	5,160	5,380
WA	1,776	1,898	2,013	2,161	2,151	2,339	2,475	2,541	2,687	2,775	2,883	2,861	3,484	3,811
SA	2,150	2,260	2,363	2,485	2,614	2,823	2,929	3,176	3,353	3,570	3,680	3,709	3,720	-
T	802	826	907	943	1,023	1,105	1,163	1,169	1,189	1,212	1,231	1,225	1,199	1,286
NT	-	320	343	348	402	505	477	513	536	692	681	710	717	755
NZ	3,361	3,476	3,587	3,857	4,101	4,586	4,880	5,031	5,336	5,414	5,632	5,644	5,706	5,800

* Excl Cadets and Junior Trainees
§ Incl's Scientific and Tech officers

Source: Police department annual reports and spokespersons

TABLE 3.5

RATIO OF NON SWORN TO SWORN POLICE EMPLOYEES *: BY AGENCY, 1970-1983

agency	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983
NSW	1: 6.17	1: 5.27	1: 5.23	1: 4.78	1: 4.55	1: 4.51	1: 4.41	1: 4.46	1: 4.79	1: 4.78	1: 5.01	1: 4.83	1: 4.88	1: 4.79
V	1: 3.26	1: 3.50	1: 3.41	1: 3.45	1: 3.08	1: 3.11	1: 3.21	1: 3.33	1: 3.50	1: 3.54	1: 3.53 †	1: 6.72	1: 6.91	1: 6.62
O	1: 7.19	1: 7.10	1: 6.12	1: 5.77	1: 5.50	1: 4.79	1: 4.96	1: 5.10	1: 5.13	1: 5.17	1: 5.53	1: 5.33	1: 5.21	1: 5.21
WA	1: 6.19	1: 5.73	1: 5.16	1: 5.10	1:11.88 §	1:13.71	1:12.24	1:11.96	1:12.64	1:11.79	1:11.01	1:10.97	1: 3.40 ¶	1: 2.86
SA	1: 6.99	1: 7.22	1: 7.01	1: 6.81	1: 6.47	1: 7.09	1: 6.94	1: 7.04	1: 6.74	1: 7.21	1: 6.98	1: 7.08	1: 7.25	-
T	1: 8.44	1: 6.44	1: 6.15	1: 5.04	1: 4.25	1: 4.14	1: 4.17	1: 4.15	1: 3.89	1: 3.73	1: 3.79	1: 3.88	1: 4.66	1: 3.23
NT	-	1: 4.25	1: 4.53	1:10.60	1: 8.80	1: 7.15	1: 7.08	1: 7.27	1: 7.12	1: 3.49	1: 3.34	1: 3.44	1: 3.75	1: 3.60
NZ	1:12.89	1:12.27	1:11.59	1:11.99	1:10.42	1: 8.82	1: 7.91	1: 7.90	1: 7.39	1: 7.25	1: 7.39	1: 7.03	1: 7.02	1: 7.22

* Excl Cadets and Junior Trainees

† Removal of motor registry responsibility

§ Creation of RTA

¶ Return of traffic responsibility to PDWA

Source: Police department annual reports and spokespersons

TABLE 3.6

RATIO OF POSTED SWORN POLICE EMPLOYEES TO TOTAL POPULATION : BY AGENCY, 1970-1983

agency	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983
NSW	1:640.41	1:634.45	1:622.76	1:614.43	1:599.85	1:590.24	1:587.02	1:591.20	1:563.03	1:564.64	1:564.02	1:563.20	1:557.00	1:545.75
V	1:723.08	1:714.05	1:681.35	1:662.90	1:647.08	1:617.40	1:589.49	1:564.98	1:514.74	1:502.82	1:493.28	1:493.28	1:481.10	1:488.93
O	1:581.12	1:606.85	1:611.83	1:608.10	1:603.27	1:589.65	1:584.14	1:569.55	1:568.24	1:569.76	1:566.02	1:540.64	1:577.22	1:536.01
WA	1:648.37	1:652.10	1:641.76	1:609.30	1:568.35	1:530.01	1:514.99	1:513.77	1:494.34	1:490.27	1:481.84	1:495.46	1:495.28	1:473.41
SA	1:615.62	1:604.58	1:587.33	1:566.91	1:548.37	1:511.44	1:497.70	1:462.64	1:444.45	1:415.25	1:406.55	1:405.94	1:406.47	-
T	1:540.75	1:556.78	1:542.41	1:512.20	1:490.58	1:460.79	1:439.55	1:439.38	1:440.17	1:437.97	1:434.80	1:438.71	1:435.87	1:437.63
NT	1:335.37	1:330.89	1:327.76	1:305.35	1:285.04	1:209.71	1:234.93	1:226.61	1:227.66	1:207.06	1:219.85	1:223.27	1:225.09	1:226.57
NZ	1:902.85	1:890.13	1:880.28	1:833.43	1:809.89	1:749.94	1:721.26	1:703.18	1:669.34	1:660.93	1:634.65	1:641.10	1:638.02	-

Source: Police department annual reports and spokespersons, ABS

Ratios of posted sworn strengths to population are shown at Table 3.6.

Ratios of total posted strengths to population are shown at Table 3.7.

Proportions of ranks to agency strengths are shown at Table 3.8.

Areas, populations and police strengths are shown at Table 3.9.

It may be thought some of the above tables are of little explanatory value but, the fact is many inquiries are received at the Australian Institute of Criminology each year asking for such information. Thus, the tables are provided here to satisfy that demand. By presenting the various expenditure heads for selected agencies, it is possible for readers to calculate costs in specific areas should they so wish. The Commonwealth Grants Commission has accumulated detailed data in these and associated areas and is expected to have them available on computer file by late 1984. Researchers requiring greater detail could approach the Chairman of the Commission for access to his data.

Expenditure

Not all police agencies publish their annual accounts. Of those published, it will be noticed their formats vary considerably. A conference of senior police administrators was conducted in 1974 in an effort to standardise budget heads but, the problems posed were found insuperable. There is of course, no reason why heads of expenditure should be standardised. The various formats adopted by the various agencies reflect different traditions, accounting systems and administrative and operational emphases. Such variations are in fact highly desirable. The fact that interstate comparisons are thereby made impossible at worst and difficult at best is of no consequence. In fact, given the improper usage normally made of apparently comparative data, the lack of standardisation is beneficial.

Even within agencies establishing annual costs is difficult to ascertain. Some police costs are paid for by other agencies, eg, traffic officers operating in Sydney's CBD. Police agencies not only collect large amounts of public monies but, to varying degrees, are also revenue generators in their own rights. Should such receipts be deducted from expenditures? Similar questions occur in relation to grants in aid to police pension funds and a host of other factors. Clearly, establishing gross employee costs is a subjective exercise. Given the difficulties of the gross heads of expenditure utilised in published police annual accounts, this part of the chapter confines itself to producing a number of simple tables in respect of those agencies which publish their accounts.

Total police costs for selected agencies between the years 1970-1983 are shown at Table 3.10. No reference is made to public monies collected and revenue generated. Total cost of maintaining

TABLE 3.7

RATIO OF TOTAL POSTED, FULLTIME, EMPLOYEE STRENGTHS[†] TO TOTAL POPULATION : BY AGENCY, 1970-1983

agency	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983
NSW	1:551.15	1:534.41	1:522.75	1:508.05	1:491.71	1:483.05	1:478.58	1:482.96	1:465.84	1:466.99	1:470.10	1:466.65	1:469.19	1:452.01
V	1:553.27	1:555.46	1:526.96	1:513.96	1:488.57	1:467.26	1:449.35	1:434.39	1:416.13	1:401.37	1:391.76	1:429.38	1:420.29	1:424.74
Q	1:510.17	1:531.89	1:525.90	1:518.32	1:510.50	1:491.00	1:483.23	1:473.97	1:475.13	1:476.77	1:474.34	1:457.89	1:469.21	1:459.41
WA	1:558.19	1:555.82	1:537.51	1:509.49	1:524.22	1:493.76	1:476.08	1:474.14	1:458.09	1:451.93	1:441.73	1:454.07	1:382.84	1:352.01
SA	1:538.60	1:531.02	1:514.01	1:494.37	1:474.94	1:448.21	1:434.99	1:405.10	1:387.06	1:364.65	1:355.63	1:355.70	1:357.19	-
T	1:483.44	1:481.96	1:441.35	1:427.47	1:397.07	1:371.13	1:354.51	1:354.06	1:350.21	1:345.46	1:344.03	1:348.82	1:358.80	1:336.39
NT	-	1:267.81	1:268.51	1:279.02	1:255.97	1:183.96	1:205.87	1:199.22	1:199.63	1:160.98	1:169.16	1:172.96	1:177.68	1:177.35
NZ	1:837.84	1:823.04	1:753.62	1:769.25	1:738.99	1:673.57	1:640.27	1:624.21	1:589.56	1:580.85	1:559.04	1:561.82	1:559.08	-

[†] Excl Cadets and Junior Trainees

Source: Police department annual reports, spokespersons and ABS.

TABLE 3.8

RANK PROPORTIONS[†]: AGENCY BY FREQUENCY BY PERCENTAGE, 1970-1983

agency		1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983
NSW	1	178 2.5	179 2.4	199 2.6	220 2.8	260 3.2	264 3.1	265 3.1	267 3.1	272 3.0	289 3.2	302 3.2	309 3.2	314 3.3	337 3.4
	2	1850 25.9	1850 24.6	1879 24.3	1922 24.2	2066 25.1	2079 24.8	2105 24.8	2125 25.0	2277 25.3	2293 25.2	2320 24.7	2344 24.8	2393 25.1	2499 25.6
	3	5116 71.6	5484 73.0	5663 73.1	5781 73.0	5886 71.7	6039 72.0	6112 72.0	6112 71.9	6462 71.7	6509 71.6	6778 72.1	6815 72.0	6823 71.6	6933 71.0
V	1	155 3.2	188 3.7	246 4.5	266 4.7	269 4.6	302 4.9	308 4.7	342 5.0	371 5.1	375 4.9	358 4.7	384 4.6	405 4.9	397 4.8
	2	294 6.2	1268 24.9	1347 24.9	1426 25.3	1445 24.7	1593 25.9	1571 24.2	1744 25.6	1697 23.4	1835 24.2	1898 25.0	1875 23.0	1936 23.8	1992 24.1
	3	4321 90.6	3633 71.4	3817 70.5	3936 69.9	4127 70.6	4261 69.2	4608 71.0	4733 69.4	5170 71.4	5359 70.8	5347 70.3	5937 72.4	5961 71.8	5869 71.1
Q	1	68 2.8	93 3.0	97 3.1	100 3.1	101 3.0	110 3.2	125 3.5	132 3.5	124 3.2	131 3.3	NA	134† 2.9	142 3.4	143 3.3
	2	881 28.5	854 28.0	863 27.8	864 26.9	884 26.5	954 27.4	967 27.0	991 26.5	1026 26.8	1064 27.0		1101 24.2	1146 37.2	1163 26.6
	3	2116 68.6	2104 69.0	2143 69.1	2246 70.0	2344 70.4	2415 69.4	2490 69.5	2621 70.0	2682 70.0	2739 69.6		3197 70.2	2925 69.4	3072 70.1
WA	1	46 3.0	49 3.0	51 3.0	56 3.1	60 3.0	65 3.0	76 3.3	98 4.2	99 4.0	103 4.0	107 4.0	110 4.1	112 4.2	112 3.9
	2	273 17.8	327 20.2	346 20.5	411 22.7	440 22.2	483 22.1	532 23.2	556 23.7	569 22.8	599 23.4	601 22.7	622 23.4	630 23.4	657 23.3
	3	1210 79.1	1240 76.7	1289 76.4	1340 74.1	1484 74.8	1632 74.9	1680 73.4	1691 72.1	1822 73.2	1856 72.5	1935 73.2	1924 72.4	1951 72.4	2055 72.8
SA	1	57 3.0	58 2.9	61 2.9	69 3.2	81 3.6	89 3.6	94 3.7	101 3.6	103 3.5	108 3.4	108 3.1	106 3.3	103 3.2	11 3.3
	2	399 21.2	441 22.2	497 24.0	518 23.9	566 25.0	645 26.1	677 26.4	719 25.8	757 25.9	783 25.0	478 14.0	476 14.8	488 14.9	495 15.0
	3	1425 75.7	1486 74.9	1510 73.0	1580 72.9	1617 71.4	1740 70.3	1789 69.9	1961 70.5	2060 70.5	2244 71.6	2837 82.9	2638 81.9	2676 81.9	2692 81.6
T	1	44 6.1	47 6.4	51 6.7	54 6.8	57 6.9	58 6.5	61 6.5	63 6.7	66 7.0	62 6.5	63 6.0	61 5.9	60 6.1	65 6.6
	2	64 8.9	70 9.5	132 17.3	148 18.7	144 17.4	148 16.6	147 15.7	145 15.4	145 15.3	154 16.1	164 15.7	155 15.1	161 16.3	160 16.2
	3	609 84.9	622 84.1	580 76.0	589 74.5	628 75.7	684 76.8	730 77.8	734 77.9	735 77.7	740 77.4	814 78.2	813 79.0	768 77.6	761 77.2
NT	1	8 3.4	7 2.7	7 2.5	7 2.2	16 4.4	12 2.7	29 6.9	31 6.9	30 6.4	33 6.1	32 6.0	36 6.6	37 6.5	37 6.3
	2	44 18.7	46 17.8	52 18.5	66 20.7	71 19.7	103 23.2	104 24.9	105 23.3	103 21.9	120 22.3	115 21.5	122 22.5	126 22.3	132 22.5
	3	183 77.9	206 79.5	222 79.0	245 77.0	274 75.9	328 74.0	285 68.2	315 69.8	337 71.7	385 71.6	387 72.5	385 70.9	403 71.2	422 71.4
ACT	1	12 4.1	14 4.0	14 3.5	15 3.4	20 3.8	24 4.2	25 4.5	27 4.9	26 4.5	26 4.4	-	-	-	-
	2	54 18.7	66 19.0	72 18.1	78 17.9	81 15.4	84 14.6	89 16.1	96 17.4	102 17.7	103 17.7	-	-	-	-
	3	223 77.2	267 76.9	312 78.4	342 78.6	423 80.7	466 81.2	437 79.3	428 77.7	447 77.7	454 77.9	-	-	-	-
NZ	1	120 3.9	127 4.0	126 3.8	136 3.8	149 4.0	160 3.9	170 4.9	166 3.7	180 3.8	209 4.4	212 4.3	234 4.7	228 4.6	226 4.5
	2	597 19.1	616 19.2	689 20.9	704 19.8	720 19.2	769 18.7	766 17.7	785 17.6	918 19.6	957 20.1	979 19.7	1031 20.9	1023 20.5	1006 20.1
	3	2402 77.0	2463 76.8	2487 75.3	2720 76.4	2873 76.8	3190 77.4	3396 78.4	3514 78.7	3602 76.6	3592 75.5	3770 76.0	3681 74.4	3749 74.9	3781 75.4

† Frequencies shown in this table in some cases vary slightly from strengths shown elsewhere due to different counting criteria utilised by some sources but, in such cases no significant difference is made to calculated percentages.

1 Commissioned Officers including Commissioner, Deputy Commissioner, Chief Superintendents, Superintendents, Chief Inspectors, and Inspectors.

2 All grades of Sergeant but excluding Sergeant 3/C plus scientific and technical personnel in Queensland.

3 All grades of Constable, ie, Senior Constable, Constable 1/C, Constable, plus trainees and cadets, plus Sergeant 3/C in Queensland.

Source: ABS, departmental annual reports and departmental spokespersons.

TABLE 3.9
AREA, POPULATION & POLICE STRENGTHS : BY AGENCY, 1982

agency	area km ²	percentage of landmass	population	posted strength	police- population ratio	police- km ² ratio
NSW	801,401	10.43	5,308,000	9,530	1:557	1:84
V	227,600	2.96	3,994,000	8,302	1:481	1:27
Q	1,727,000	22.48	2,421,000	4,345	1:577	1:397
WA	2,525,000	32.87	1,334,000	2,693	1:495	1:938
SA	984,375	12.81	1,331,000	3,269	1:406	1:301
T	68,319	0.88	430,000	987	1:436	1:69
NT	1,347,525	17.52	127,000	566	1:225	1:2381
ACT	2,400	0.03	231,900	683	1:340	1:3.6
NZ	271,265	100.00	3,190,100	5,000	1:638	1:54

Source: DOS, ABS, police department annual reports and spokespersons.

TABLE 3.10

TOTAL EXPENDITURE[†] OF SELECTED POLICE AGENCIES, 1970-1983
(millions of dollars)

agency	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983
NSW	-	-	-	66,732	80,519	107,572	131,365	149,973	166,463	184,343	225,643	261,557	300,579§	326,158§
V	19,976	33,007	40,313	47,157	58,8718	78,4691	98,605	116,136	142,032	158,831	186,298	215,130	235,740	288,942
O	-	20,959	24,367	28,974	34,980	51,175	61,082	76,121	86,920	91,975	104,748	132,399	152,539	176,119
WA	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	88,214	102,970
T	4,056	4,869	6,220	7,594	9,118	13,738	16,053	19,025	22,302	23,346	25,764	28,656	34,986	35,653

† Dollars not discounted

§ Provisional

Source: Police department annual reports.

TABLE 3.11

COST[†] OF EACH SWORN EMPLOYEE, SELECTED POLICE AGENCIES, 1970-1983
(total expenditure divided by sworn employee strength)
(thousands of dollars)

agency	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983
NSW	-	-	-	8,423	9,805	12,834	15,488	17,636	18,473	20,278	24,460	27,953	32,017	33,241§
V	6,284	6,486	7,452	8,379	10,079	12,747	15,200	17,031	19,623	20,984	23,841	26,724	28,396	34,989
O	-	6,870	7,853	9,026	10,508	14,710	17,052	20,331	22,683	23,571	26,057	30,520	35,107	39,016
WA	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	32,757	36,462
T	5,657	6,810	8,428	9,649	11,012	15,436	17,114	20,196	23,575	24,420	26,452	29,421	35,447	36,306

† Dollars not discounted

§ Provisional

Source: Police department annual reports.

sworn employees for the years 1970-1983, ie, posted strength divided into total expenditure, is shown at Table 3.11. Total cost of maintaining non-sworn employees for the years 1970-1983, ie posted strength of public servants and ministerial employees divided into total expenditure, is shown at Table 3.12. Cost of monitoring total posted strength for the years 1970-1983, ie, total posted strength divided into total expenditure is shown at Table 3.13.

Detailed expenditure for NSW Police for the years 1982-1983 as shown at Table 3.14.

Detailed expenditure for Victoria Police for the years 1982, 1983 is shown at Table 3.15.

Detailed expenditure for Queensland Police for the years 1982, 1983 is shown at Table 3.16.

Detailed expenditure for WA Police for the years 1982, 1983 is shown at Table 3.17.

Detailed expenditure for Tasmania Police for the years 1982, 1983 is shown at Table 3.18. In all cases dollar amounts are shown in contemporary values and are not discounted.

Deployment of police officers

The various police agencies quite properly analyse the deployment of human resources according to dimensions most helpful to them. Thus, standardised headings of employee distribution are not possible. Gross details of police officer deployment under various heads are shown at Table 3.19.

Average strength of a police station and average jurisdiction of a police station

Due to the large number of police stations scattered throughout the states and territories of Australia it is impossible to provide a breakdown of what staff are assigned to each police station. Some police stations have a patrol area extending 100 kilometres in one direction and 200 kilometres in another, whilst others have only a few square kilometres. The one man police station is common in some states, such as Queensland. The police officer in such cases operates from the police station. His home is normally within the precincts of the police station yard. The officer in charge would normally spend part of his day in the police station attending to administrative matters and part of the day patrolling the district. Some patrols take days in remote areas. In some outback towns the police officer patrols in a four-wheel drive vehicle. Rural camel and horse patrols are no longer operated.

The largest concentrations of police are in the cities. Within the major cities there are what are commonly called suburban police station. These stations are usually staffed by

TABLE 3.12

COST[†] OF EACH NON SWORN EMPLOYEE,[§] SELECTED POLICE AGENCIES, 1970-1983
(total expenditure divided by nonsworn employee strength)
(dollars)

agency	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983
NSW	-	-	-	-	44,585	57,834	68,348	78,684	88,544	96,972	122,432	135,102	156,145	159,335
V	20,475	22,716	25,434	28,913	31,066	39,671	48,742	56,652	68,648	74,290	84,107	179,574	196,286	231,524
Q	-	48,742	48,061	52,112	57,818	73,739	81,660	100,823	115,739	120,860	134,819	168,876	187,164	203,371
WA	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	111,522	104,327
T	47,718	43,865	51,833	48,679	46,759	63,898	71,347	83,811	91,778	91,195	100,249	114,167	165,028	117,279

† Dollars not discounted

§ Excl Cadets and Junior Trainees

Source: Police department annual reports.

TABLE 3.13

COST[†] OF EACH EMPLOYEE (SWORN + UNSWORN),[§] SELECTED POLICE AGENCIES, 1970-1983
(total expenditure divided by total strength)
(dollars)

agency	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983
NSW	-	-	-	-	8,037	10,503	12,626	14,407	15,284	16,771	20,387	23,161	26,569	27,503
V	4,808	5,045	5,763	6,496	7,610	9,647	11,587	13,095	15,261	16,363	18,576	23,262	24,807	30,396
Q	-	6,021	6,750	7,694	8,892	12,249	14,107	16,920	18,966	19,724	21,836	25,849	29,562	32,736
WA	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	25,320	27,019
T	5,057	5,895	6,858	8,053	8,913	12,433	13,803	16,275	18,757	19,262	20,929	23,393	29,179	27,724

† Dollars not discounted

§ Excl Cadets and Junior Trainees

Source: Police department annual reports.

TABLE 3.14
PROVISIONAL EXPENDITURE, NSW POLICE 1982-1983

Item	1981-82	1982-83
<u>SALARIES & PAYMENTS IN THE NATURE OF SALARY</u>		
Salaries, Wages & Allowances	227,270	248,270
Payments for Leave on Retirement, Resignation, etc.	7,683	7,624
Overtime	20,434	20,597
	<u>255,387</u>	<u>276,490</u>
<u>MAINTENANCE & WORKING EXPENSES</u>		
SUBSIDIARY STAFF CHARGES-		
Workers' Compensation Insurance	364	339
Meal Allowances	16	23
Allowances to police on plainclothes duty etc.	1,841	1,968
EXPENSES IN CONNECTION WITH BUILDING-		
Rent, Rates, etc.	5,531	5,785
Maintenance, Alterations, Additions & Renewals	141	98
SUBSISTENCE & TRANSPORT EXPENSES-		
Travelling, Removal & Subsistence Expenses	4,847	4,918
Motor Vehicles, Launches, Aircraft, etc. -		
Running Costs, Maintenance, Hire & Insurance	12,794	13,789
Freight, Cartage & Packing	80	77
GENERAL EXPENSES-		
Postal & Telephone Expenses	6,478	7,386
Advertising & Publicity	(a)	44
Books, Periodicals & Papers	79	126
Gas & Electricity	1,721	2,920
Fees for Services Rendered	1,024	1,447
Laundry Expenses	3	8
Stores, Provisions, Furniture, Equipment,		
Minor Plant etc. (Including Maintenance & Repairs)	9,367	8,849
Printing	(a)	1,032
Other Insurance	32	16
Minor Expenses not elsewhere included	27	35
OTHER SERVICES		
Purchase of Horses	-	-
Contribution towards Cost of Establishing		
Police boys' Clubs	200	200
Meals, etc. for Prisoners in Lockups	359	474
Funeral & Other Expenses - deceased members of		
Police Force	3	-
Fees & Expenses of Police Training Courses	72	70
Overseas Visits	35	24
Compensation in respect of Police killed on Duty	45	-
Volunteer Rescue Association -		
Grant to meet Insurance costs	13	9
National Police Research Unit -		
Contribution towards Expenses	-	-
Non-recurring Services	120	31
Commonwealth/State Joint Task Force on Security		
of Wharves and Containers - Expenses	-	-
<u>TOTAL - POLICE DEPARTMENT</u>	<u>300,579</u>	<u>326,158</u>

(a) Included within Minister for Police & Emergency
Services Group Votes Expenditure

Source: Police department annual report (provisional)

TABLE 3.15

EXPENDITURE, VICTORIA POLICE 1982, 1983

Item	1981/82	1982/83
EXPENDITURE		
Salaries and Allowances -		
Police	169,566,371	209,738,324
Public Service Staff	<u>15,442,674</u>	<u>18,377,714</u>
	185,009,045	228,116,038
Overtime and penalty rates	5,699,755	7,211,245
Payment in lieu of long service leave, retiring gratuities	<u>2,555,782</u>	<u>3,350,817</u>
TOTAL	<u>193,264,582</u> =====	<u>238,678,100</u> =====
GENERAL EXPENSES -		
Administrative Expenses -		
Travelling and subsistence	2,572,930	3,146,830
Office requisites, printing and stationery	1,581,821	1,950,991
Books and publications	489,996	463,637
Postal and Telephone expenses	3,584,483	4,254,594
Motor vehicles and Police Air Wing -		
purchase and running expenses	8,230,678	8,987,621
Fuel, light, power and water	1,958,269	2,349,657
Incidental expenses	<u>1,125,029</u>	<u>1,278,783</u>
Sub Total	19,543,206	22,432,113
Motor Vehicles - Replacement cost and purchase of new vehicles*	2,389,711	2,550,180
Electronic Data Processing -		
Expenses	262,984	429,530
Personal equipment, uniforms, clothing and bedding	1,118,585	1,104,805
Radio, photographic, scientific and training equipment and materials	2,373,778	2,514,435
Contributions to Central Fingerprint Bureau, Sydney	72,823	160,000
Transport of prisoners, search parties and traffic school travelling expenses, etc	163,995	227,182
Burials	9,977	5,120
Provisions for Police Hospital	12,820	37,599
Police Long Service and Good Conduct Medals	2,000	-
Pay-Roll Tax	10,809,505	14,086,456
State Employees Retirement Benefits Fund - Contribution	<u>14,155</u>	<u>10,999</u>
TOTAL	<u>36,773,539</u> =====	<u>43,558,419</u> =====
OTHER SERVICES -		
Contribution to Police Pension Fund	5,669,000	6,601,000
Arson Investigation Project - Expenses	NA	24,410
Drug Use in the Driving Population - Expenses	NA	36,360
Drug Addicts and Criminology Study - Expenses	<u>NA</u>	<u>5,464</u>
	5,669,000	6,667,234
TOTAL	<u>235,707,121</u> =====	<u>288,903,753</u> =====
POLICE SERVICE BOARD -		
Salaries of Public Service Staff	32,374	36,931
Overtime of Public Service Staff	86	385
Postal and Telephone Expenses	<u>500</u>	<u>500</u>
TOTAL	<u>32,960</u> =====	<u>37,816</u> =====
TOTAL EXPENDITURE	<u>235,740,081</u> =====	<u>288,941,569</u> =====

* During 1982/83, the capital cost of replacement and purchase of new vehicles were isolated under an item separate from the running costs of the motor vehicle fleet. 1981/82 expenditure, therefore, has been recast accordingly.

Source: Police department annual report

TABLE 3.16
EXPENDITURE, QUEENSLAND POLICE 1982, 1983

Items	1982-83	1981-82
Salaries	100,658,532	89,036,540
Wages	1,139,694	873,444
Overtime & pay for statutory holidays	10,076,481	8,218,759
Allowances payroll	13,416,564	10,971,752
Travelling & relieving allowances	1,492,427	1,069,362
Fares, freights, etc	3,612,264	2,671,211
General contingencies	5,378,381	3,661,400
Purchase of motor vehicles & motorcycles	6,173,744	6,801,301
Maintenance of motor vehicles, etc	5,235,091	3,950,939
Radio & other equipment	1,041,696	1,710,882
Uniforms	1,937,155	1,431,316
Payroll tax	6,261,875	5,434,035
Computer installation	33,890	
Grant in aid of police superannuation fund	17,000,000	14,400,000
Cash equivalent of long service leave	2,012,074	2,242,407
Grant to Queensland police-citizens youth welfare association	73,821	65,912
Purchase of aircraft	575,000	
TOTAL EXPENDITURE	176,118,689	152,539,260
	=====	=====

Source: Police department annual report

TABLE 3.17
EXPENDITURE, WA POLICE 1982, 1983

Item	1982-83	1981-82
Salaries	82,476,139	70,985,458
Contingencies		
Other Staffing Costs	4,234,757	2,520,345
Communications	1,595,193	1,076,835
Services & Contracts	1,204,487	951,848
Consumable Supplies	1,122,608	481,259
Maintenance Plant/Equipment	253,967	45,052
Purchase Plant/Equipment	535,242	31,240
Grants/Subsidies/Transfers	54,349	10,948
Police Operations	4,600,703	2,967,692
Support Services	3,021,075	2,386,544
Scientific Bureau	298,656	231,392
Public Relations	19,095	6,117
Administration Expenses	-	2,534,211
Staff & Accommodation	-	1,492,892
Transportation	-	1,636,904
Licensing Expenses	1,554,067	1,031,523
Traffic Branch	1,999,953	11,874
Contingencies	20,494,152	17,416,676
Contingency Rebate		188,000Cr
Total Contingencies	20,494,152	17,228,676
TOTAL	102,970,291	88,214,134

Source: Police department annual report

TABLE 3.18
EXPENDITURE, TASMANIA POLICE 1982, 1983

Items	1981-82	1982-83
SUBDIVISION A: Salaries and Payments Related to Salaries -		
Salaries, including wages, allowances & overtime	2,660,711.05	2,769,987.55
Salaries, including special allowances to officers appointed under Police Regulation Act (No 48 of 1898)	<u>24,824,943.92</u>	<u>25,449,737.85</u>
TOTAL SUBDIVISION A	<u>27,485,654.97</u>	<u>28,219,725.40</u>
SUBDIVISION B: Departmental Expenses -		
Office requisites, printing & advertising	235,877.89	259,784.33
Postal charges & telephones	521,675.08	640,980.83
Power & fuel	469,906.87	360,122.89
Travelling expenses, including transfers & accommodation	349,923.88	319,697.97
Scientific & technical sections: Equipment & incidental expenses	153,343.36	167,647.65
Furniture & fittings	67,687.67	69,828.39
Typewriters: Purchase & maintenance	4,033.18	4,997.45
Office machines & equipment	12,012.85	15,834.03
Cleaning of Offices (Included with Power & Fuel in 1981-82)	-	202,575.16
Miscellaneous	<u>74,454.16</u>	<u>86,537.37</u>
TOTAL SUBDIVISION B	<u>1,888,914.94</u>	<u>2,128,006.07</u>
SUBDIVISION C: Other Expenditure -		
Purchase of motor vehicles	1,224,180.58	1,344,648.84
Comprehensive insurance: Motor vehicles	221,739.50	189,176.00
Transport expenses, including garage equipment	890,464.72	1,009,809.42
Maintenance of boats	77,632.58	65,373.17
Expenses of emergency search & rescue operations	29,355.43	35,289.59
Uniforms & equipment	514,965.02	564,923.90
Maintenance of properties	498,162.98	519,981.20
Medical & hospital expenses of members injured on duty	45,748.35	43,903.24
Meals, stores etc for prisoners	29,228.30	29,465.81
Contributions to Interstate, National & International Organisations	21,448.00	45,263.96
Police training college: Incidental expenses	92,435.75	81,030.30
Division of road safety: Administration & other expenses	570,528.24	562,179.87
Cost of emergency helicopter service	96,000.00	96,000.00
Payment to government salaries & wages suspense account	1,300,000.00	-
Ex-gratia payment in lieu of Workers' Compensation	-	42,660.60
Costs associated with Police presence in south-west Tasmania during HEC blockade	-	673,261.58
Ex-gratia payment in lieu of Long Service Leave	-	2,149.20
TOTAL SUBDIVISION C	<u>5,611,889.45</u> =====	<u>5,305,116.68</u> =====
TOTAL POLICE DEPARTMENT	<u>34,986,459.36</u>	<u>35,652,848.15</u>

Source: Police department annual report

TABLE 3.19
PERSONNEL DEPLOYMENT

agency	frequency	descriptor/function	%
NSW (1983)	17	executive	
	4,086	uniform GD + adm metro incl FPS (101)	42
	2,055	uniform GD + adm country	21
	1,267	CI metro	13
	214	CI country	2
	369	scientific & technical + op	4
	801	traffic metro incl HWP	8
	484	traffic country	5
	228	prosecuting	2
	146	licensing	1
	130	water police	1
V (1982)	5,135	operations	77
	722	traffic	11
	433	services	7
	142	personnel	2
	6	SDL	
	134	CCP	2
	68	R & D	1
Q (1983)	3,632	uniform	83
	431	detectives	10
	315	plain clothes	7
WA (1983)	7	executive	
	2,265	uniform	80
	334	detectives	12
	171	plain clothes	7
	47	other	1
SA (1981)		metro GD	37
		country GD	15
		planning & adm	3
		cadets & adults in trg	6
		services	13
		trg staff	2
		traffic	11
		CIB	12
T (1982)	166	criminal investigation	16
	110	traffic	11
	712	other special assignment +GD	68
	53	not allocated	6
NT (1982)	16	senior executive + adm	3
	331	uniform	53
	45	CIB	7
	45	traffic	7
	33	scientific and technical	5
	7	prosecuting	1
	18	marine and fisheries	3
	31	task force	5
	101	other	16

Source: Police department annual reports and spokespersons

between 10 members and 30 or 40 officers, depending on the size of the division in question. Officers at such stations attend to all administrative work, including station watch, communications, etc, in addition to process service. They also patrol their area to both prevent and detect crime. Apart from suburban police, the larger cities often have a specific section of police assigned to either general patrol or special patrol, eg, Victoria's independent patrol group. These officers are assigned to patrol selected areas and are prepared to quickly react to calls to attend all disturbances and other serious incidents.

Major factors influencing allocation of staff are population size and density, number of vehicles and accidents, volume of inquiry work and incident tasking rates. State and territory capital cities are in all cases the loci of major police concentrations.

Total number of precincts or outposts

Each police force maintains a large number of police stations, patrol bases and detective offices - sometimes combined in a single structure - distributed throughout cities, suburbs and rural districts.

Mostly, such buildings are owned by their host police department, although erected and maintained by service departments, eg, public works departments or contractors.

Population shifts and aging patterns require that station locations be constantly reassessed, which in turn, require periodic reconsideration of station functions and staffing. Personnel shortages and changing patrol tactics have led to the closure of many suburban police stations in metropolitan areas in recent years. New housing areas, of course, require the opening of new police stations. The current resources boom has meant the creation of a number of new mining towns in remote parts of the country and the enlargement of already existing townships. The number of operational stations, bases and offices maintained by the various police agencies as at late 1982 were:

New South Wales	-	364
Victoria	-	350 (116 metro, 234 country)
Queensland	-	310
Western Australia	-	160 (47 metro, 113 country)
South Australia	-	144
Tasmania	-	90
Northern Territory	-	36
Australian Capital Territory	-	5

CHAPTER 4

LEGAL POWERS AND PROSECUTION

Garry Hannigan
Senior Constable
Queensland Police

The various criminal justice systems in Australia have all been greatly influenced by the English precedents. Before looking in detail at the legal powers of police in Australia, it is relevant to firstly sketch an outline of the development of the criminal law in Australia generally.

Sources of criminal law

The first settlers in New South Wales brought with them so much of the law of England as was applicable to their situation. To clarify doubts concerning important changes to English law after 1788, the Australian Courts Act 1828 was passed and since that time applicable English law has been our law, except where altered by statute.

Anglo-Australian law is divided into two main parts, that which is enacted law and that which is not, ie, common law. Enacted law is made by parliaments and by legislative authorities acting for parliaments. Laws made directly by parliaments are called Acts or statutes and laws made by subordinate legislative authorities are known as Orders in Council, regulations, rules by-laws, etc. The English law which was applied in Australia after 1788 contained both statute and common law. Common law is law made by the courts without direct parliamentary authority and, as it grew in the English courts, it drew partly from custom, canon law, Roman law and common sense.

Common law has become a complex body of rules, one of them being the doctrine of precedent under which a court is bound to follow the decisions of courts higher than itself and is likely to follow previous decisions made at its own level.

Generally speaking, statute law prevails over common law where conflict occurs but, courts frequently read into legislation meanings not intended by legislators, apply legislation to unintended situations or, narrow legislation to exclude cases which law makers may have wished to cover.

Thus, legislation in force in each state includes elements of:

- * English statutes up to 1828 insofar as they were applicable to conditions in New South Wales at the time
- * English statutes expressly applying to Australia since 1828

- * New South Wales statutes passed between 1828 and the date of separation of other states from New South Wales
- * statutes enacted by state legislatures since separation.
- * Commonwealth of Australia statutes since 1901.

Additionally, binding judicial precedents include:

- * English judicial decisions up to 1828
- * New South Wales judicial decisions up to the date of separation
- * state judicial decisions since separation
- * judicial decisions of the Privy Council, the High Court of Australia and state courts concerning the law of the Commonwealth of Australia since 1901
- * High Court of Australia decisions since 1901 and Privy Council decisions.

Powers of arrest

Police powers of arrest (which are greater than those of ordinary citizens) are prescribed in specific statutes. The common law, so influential in the development of the law of arrest, no longer possesses its former significance. Indeed, in some states at least, eg, Victoria, powers of arrest are now exclusively defined by statute.

Each authority possesses its own constitutional authority to enact statutes, subject to certain broad constraints imposed by the federal constitution. The Northern Territory, which enjoys a form of self government, has rather more limited powers to pass laws. The Australian Capital Territory, not having its own legislature, is legislatively provided for by federal parliament.

Powers of arrest of police officers in the various states and territories, although possessing some broad commonality, nevertheless vary between states in certain respects.

The importance of arrest warrants has diminished as a result of statutory enlargements of the power to arrest without warrant. There are occasions, however, when it is difficult to arrest suspects without first obtaining a warrant.

Warrants for the arrest of offenders are issued by Justices of the Peace, Magistrates or Judges. To obtain a warrant it is necessary to lay a complaint (in some jurisdictions termed an 'information') supported by a sworn statement. The issuing justice is required to be satisfied there are good grounds for issuing the warrant. Warrants must identify the person to be arrested and the offence(s) alleged to have been committed by that person.

Although, as previously noted, the powers of police officers to arrest without warrant have been greatly enlarged by statute, there are understandable differences between states in terms of the precise powers provided.

New South Wales

Under the Crimes Act 1900 (as amended) police officers can arrest persons without warrant when those persons fall into any of the following categories:

- * caught committing an offence against any Act
- * caught and have committed an offence
- * loitering at night and are suspected with reasonable cause of being about to commit a crime
- * suspected with reasonable cause of having committed an offence
- * found on premises which have been searched under a search warrant and the persons are linked to seized objects
- * believed to be subject to a warrant that has been issued for their arrest.

Victoria

Powers of arrest are contained in ss.456, 458 and 459 of the Crimes Act 1958 (as amended). S.458(1)(a) of that Act provides that any person, whether police or otherwise, may at any time without warrant apprehend anyone found committing an offence (other than a breach of regulations) when it is believed on reasonable grounds that the person's apprehension is necessary. The rationale for an arrest may be based on the following considerations:

- * to ensure the appearance of the offender before court
- * to preserve public order
- * to prevent the continuation or repetition of the offence or the commission of a further offence
- * for the safety or welfare of the public or the offender.

The basic requirement inherent in the above provisions is that arresting persons must find an offender committing an offence, only then may they exercise discretion as to the relevance of one or more of the elements listed.

S.461(2) Crimes Act 1958 declares that a police officer is not bound to take into custody persons found committing offences if it is believed on reasonable grounds that proceedings can be brought by way of a summons.

S.462 Crimes Act 1958 provides that the expression 'finds committing' and any derivation thereof extends to the case of a person doing any act or so behaving or conducting himself or in such circumstances that the person finding him believes on reasonable grounds that the person so found is guilty of an offence.

S.459 Crimes Act 1958 provides that any police officer may at any time apprehend without warrant any person he or she believes on reasonable grounds to have committed an indictable offence in Victoria, or elsewhere; always provided that offence would be an indictable offence against the law of Victoria.

Queensland and Western Australia

The states of Queensland and Western Australia have similar Criminal Codes. The Criminal Codes have overridden the common law powers of arrest in these states and have authorised police to arrest persons without warrant whom they reasonably suspect of having committed a crime. The Codes also empower police to arrest without warrant persons found committing crimes or found at night in circumstances affording reasonable grounds for suspecting a crime has been committed. But, in each case, the power to arrest without warrant is conferred with the qualification that it is not exercisable where a contrary intention appears elsewhere in the Codes. The Codes have abolished the common law distinction between felonies and misdemeanours, and offences legislated by them are classified as crimes, misdemeanours, and simple offences.

Persons may be arrested without warrant for a specified number of statutory misdemeanours. The result is that police officers may arrest without warrant for some, but not all, crimes and misdemeanours defined by the Codes. Additional powers of arrest without warrant for other offences are conferred by other statutes.

South Australia

Section 75 Police Offences Act 1953 (as amended) empowers members of the police force to apprehend without warrant any person whom they find committing an offence or have reasonable cause to suspect they have committed or are about to commit an offence.

Tasmania

Tasmania also has a Criminal Code. Under the Criminal Code 1924 (as amended) the felony/ misdemeanour distinction has been abolished. Unlike Queensland and Western Australia, however, the

Tasmanian Code classifies offences into 'crimes' and 'offences'. Police officers in Tasmania are empowered by the Code to arrest without warrant persons found committing crimes or persons believed on reasonable grounds to have committed any of a number of offences specified under the Code.

Northern Territory

Under s.123(1) Police Administration Act 1979 (as amended), police officers may, without warrant, arrest and take into custody persons they believe on reasonable grounds to have committed, are committing or, are about to commit, offences.

Where persons have been arrested in accordance with subsection (1) of the Act and are in the custody of members of the Police Force but, are not charged with an offence, it is lawful to continue to hold such persons in custody for so long only as the member believes on reasonable grounds that it is necessary to hold them in order:

- * to ensure the appearance of the person before a court of competent jurisdiction in respect of the offence
- * to prevent a continuation of, or repetition of, or commission of the offence
- * to prevent the loss or destruction of evidence relating to the offence.

Under s.125(1) Police Administration Act 1979, police officers may arrest persons without warrant provided they believe on reasonable grounds that such persons have committed an offence in any state or territory and there is under the law of the Northern Territory a similar offence that is punishable by imprisonment for a period exceeding 6 months.

Place of arrest. At common law, whenever police officers have a right of arrest, with or without warrant, they may enter upon private premises, whether or not occupied by arrestees. It is, strictly speaking, immaterial whether occupiers grant or refuse them permission to enter.

Some states have enacted specific legislation granting permission for police to enter private premises to make arrests.

Section 126(2) Police Administration Act 1979 empowers Northern Territory police officers without warrant, to enter into or upon, by force if necessary, and with such assistance as they consider necessary, any premises, vehicle or vessel, at any time of the day or night, for the purpose of arresting persons, provided they believe on reasonable grounds such persons have committed an offence punishable by a term of imprisonment exceeding six months and also provided such persons are in or on the premises, vehicle or vessel.

Notice of reason for arrest. When making an arrest without warrant, it is not necessary for police officers to explain in detail to their prisoners reasons for their arrest. However,

suspects are entitled to know in broad terms what their offences are and, if police officers refuse to tell them or deliberately mislead them, such arrests are tainted with illegality.

Australian Capital Territory

Under the Crimes Act 1900 (adopted) police officers can arrest persons without warrant when those persons fall into any of the following categories:

- * drunk and disorderly, incapable, in need of protection
- * caught committing an offence against any Act
- * caught and have committed an offence
- * having committed an offence punishable by imprisonment for 5 years or more
- * suspected with reasonable cause of having committed an offence punishable by imprisonment for 5 years or more
- * loitering at night and are suspected with reasonable cause of being about to commit an offence punishable by imprisonment for 5 years or more
- * believed to be subject to a warrant that has been issued for their arrest.

Offences against federal laws

Under s.8A Crimes Act 1914 (as amended), police officers may arrest persons without warrant when:

- * a breach of the peace has been or is thought, on reasonable grounds, to be about to be committed by such persons; breaches must involve an offence against federal or territorial laws
- * police officers believe, on reasonable grounds, that persons have committed an offence against a federal law and a charge against such persons could not be effectively dealt with by summons.

Police officers and customs officers may arrest without warrant when they believe on reasonable grounds a person is involved in the commission of offences, such as, the importation or exportation of prohibited goods.

Detention for questioning

Nowhere do police possess the power to detain persons against their will merely for the purpose of questioning them

about criminal offences, nor are suspects under any duty to attend police stations when so requested or ordered by police officers - unless formally arrested for an offence. If persons are commanded to accompany police officers to a station or if police officers by their tone of voice or manner of address lead such persons to believe they have no alternative but to do as the police officers wish, an action could lie against the police officers for false arrest. Once at a police station, persons are entitled to leave when they please, unless they are either arrested or are about to be charged with an offence. Once arrested, an accused person must be taken to a place of detention, usually a watchhouse, and it is the duty of arresting officers to have prisoners brought before a court of law at the first convenient opportunity.

Search and seizure

As a general rule, police officers have no right to stop or detain persons in order to search their person for evidence of a criminal offence unless specifically authorised to do so by statute. However, in some states, police are empowered to search people whom they reasonably suspect of carrying unlicensed firearms.

Statutes relating to the use and possession of dangerous drugs also grant power to detain and search suspected offenders and seize dangerous drugs.

Under s. 84A Crimes Act 1914, (as amended) federal officers have power under prescribed circumstances to search persons and their belongings for evidence of breaches of national security laws.

Once persons are lawfully arrested for a criminal offence police are free to search their person and take property found in their immediate possession so as to:

- * discover weapons or means of suicide
- * secure evidence.

Such searches should be of a 'frisk' type rather than a comprehensive body search.

(NSW Crimes Act, s.353A; Qld Criminal Code, s.259; SA Police Offences Act, s.81(1); WA Criminal Code, s.236; Tas Criminal Code, s.33; ACT Crimes Act, s.353A)

Fingerprints and photographs may be taken once offenders are charged. However, police cannot compel a person they have arrested to undergo medical examination unless there exists statutory authority to do so. New South Wales, Queensland and South Australian statutes provide for the taking of fingerprints on the judgment of police officers that the taking of prints is necessary for the identification of prisoners. In Tasmania, the power to take prisoners fingerprints is expressed in general terms and is not restricted to cases where identity is in issue.

The law permitting compulsory fingerprinting of prisoners differs as regards the time at which those prints may be taken.

(NSW Crimes Act, s.353A; Qld Vagrants, Gaming & Other Offences Act, s.43; SA Police Offences Act, s.81(4); Tas Criminal Code, s.33; ACT Crimes Act, s.353A)

There is provision in all state statutes to require persons driving under the influence of intoxicating liquor to submit to examination by medical practitioners and allow blood or breath samples to be taken for analysis. In all states it is an offence to refuse such requests when lawfully made.

Search of premises and seizure of property

Police officers may not enter private premises against the will of the respective owners or occupiers, unless they possess express legal authority to do so. In some circumstances, such as drug raids, the law permits police officers to search premises without warrant but, where no such authority exists, a search warrant must be obtained from a Justice of the Peace or Stipendiary Magistrate. Ordinarily a search warrant must specify the property for which a search is to be made and the premises to be searched. But, in Victoria, Tasmania and, South Australia, general warrants may be issued to police officers. General warrants authorise the search and seizure of any property whatsoever found in a suspect's possession. As a matter of record, general warrants are rarely used.

Section 60 Police Offences Act 1935 (Tasmania as amended), empowers the Commissioner of Police to issue to any police officer a warrant, which remains in force for six months. Such warrants authorise police to enter and search any premises whenever reasonable grounds exist for believing stolen goods are present.

The Tasmanian and South Australian provisions are unusual not merely because they run counter to the common law regarding general warrants, but because they grant power to issue warrants to Commissioners of Police.

A wide range of statutes provide powers of search in addition to the obvious Acts. For example, in New South Wales s.41 Explosives Act 1905, s.43(1) Poisons Act 1966, s.13 Plant Diseases Act 1924 provide, in some cases, for warrantless searches. In Victoria, resort may be had, in addition to the Crimes Act 1958 and Police Offences Act 1958, to the Poisons Act 1958, Lotteries, Gaming & Betting Act 1966 and the Firearms Act 1958. Under s.92 Crimes (Theft) Act 1973, an Inspector of Police in Victoria may authorise a search for stolen goods under prescribed conditions.

Vicarious liability

It has long been the established law throughout Australia that a master is liable to third parties for injury or damage done through the negligence or unskillfulness of a servant acting in

his master's employ. The reason for this is that every act which is done by a servant in the course of his duty is regarded as done under the master's authority, and consequently, is treated as if it were the master's own act. The common law endowed Constables with certain original powers to keep the peace and apprehend offenders. This original authority rather complicates the master and servant relationship of police managers and their subordinates.

Thus, at common law the principle of vicarious liability does not necessarily apply to police officers. There are two major reasons for this view: (1) when the duty to be performed is imposed by law, and not by the will of parties employing servants, employers are not liable for the wrong done by the servant in such employment, and (2) vicarious liability rests on the relationship between master and the servant. Police officers are held not to be servants of the various police authorities. Police officers who make wrongful arrests could only be acting as servants of the government should their actions have been directly under the control of the government at the time of their performing the act in question. Also, it would be necessary for police officers at the time of their complained of behavior to be not only the employer's servant but they would also have to be under the government's immediate control. This provision places officers working in administrative areas clearly in a master-servant relationship but may arguably exclude officers exercising their powers in the field. The entire issue is confused at law and unclear in practice. For these reasons there is a great need for governments to clearly explicate by statute the responsibilities and onuses of police employers in respect of their employees. The distinction between the administrative actions of police officers and their actions as Constables is highlighted in the New South Wales Ombudsman Act 1974. Under that Act, the Ombudsman can act in respect of the former category of actions but not the latter.

This anomaly was not without criticism from various commentators and calls were made for the unequivocal abolition of the rule. These calls were eventually successful in NSW with the passing of the Law Reform (Vicarious Liability) Act 1983. In the absence of a police liability insurance scheme, the victims of police torts, are reduced to suing the tortfeasor, ie, the individual police officer, who is most probably of little economic substance and thereby incapable of paying substantial damages.

However, limited inroads have been made into the principle of vicarious liability by the various police regulation statutes, as well as undertakings made by state governments, with respect to their taking responsibility for the various actions of individual police officers.

In Queensland, for instance, s.69B Police Acts 1937 (as amended) was amended in 1978 to provide for crown liability for police torts but withholding such liability from punitive damages awarded in respect of a tort. The balance between the compensatory and punitive aspects of tort liability has thus been preserved.

The Northern Territory Police Administration Act 1979 (s.163) is identical with the Queensland provisions.

Section 26A Police Regulation Act 1899 (as amended) in New South Wales provides that a 'member of the police force is not liable for any injury or damage caused by him ... in the exercise or performance by him, in good faith of a power, authority, duty or function conferred or imposed on him under the Act or by any law with respect to the protection of persons from injury or death or damage to property.'

This provision, which dates from 1978, introduces the twin concepts of continued immunity of the crown and immunity of police officers in certain work situations. It follows that with regard to this regulation that damages resulting from good faith, but negligent, performance of a statutory or common law police power in the protection of persons or property, cannot result in tort actions against the police.

Elsewhere, statutory acceptance of qualified vicarious liability of police has not occurred. But, in certain instances, some governments have stated a willingness to accept responsibility for the actions of their police employees. For instance, during the period 1976 to 1979 an upsurge of unlawful street marches occurred in Queensland. The government of the day, being influenced by the concern of police officers about possible legal consequences emanating from street arrests, took upon itself the responsibility for any legal action taken by protesters against police officers who were performing duty at street marches. A similar situation occurred in New South Wales in 1979 when the Summary Offences Act was repealed. The replacement legislation was complex and considerable apprehension was expressed by police employees concerning their personal liability, should they fall foul of the new legislation and be subject to a tort action. As a result, the Commissioner of Police advised his subordinates that in the event of their being counter-acted, they would be protected by the government. It remains to be seen, of course, how such promises stand up should expensive legal actions arise in relation thereto. The Victorian government in 1976, following a police employee work to regulation campaign, similarly gave a qualified verbal undertaking to accept vicarious liability in respect of police officers.

Prosecution

There are three levels of courts within the various criminal justice systems operating within the Australian federation. Supreme Courts, District Courts and Courts of Summary Jurisdiction. The Court of Summary Jurisdiction (also known as a Magistrates Court, Court of Petty Session or Police Court) is the Court in which all prosecutions commence. It is constituted by a Magistrate or two or more Justices (with certain exceptions) and its jurisdiction is measured by the seriousness of the charges. Courts of Summary Jurisdiction deal with offences, such as all simple offences and traffic offences. There is no jury. Offences of a more serious nature are taken to District or Supreme Court after hearings of preliminary evidence during committal proceedings in magistrates courts.

Within Courts of Summary Jurisdiction police play an

important role. Most prosecutions in such courts are conducted by police officers. Police Prosecutors present the police prosecutions to the court. Police Prosecutors belong to their respective agency's Prosecution Section. All Police Forces in the federation have Prosecution Sections. Their members comprise police officers who have undergone rigorous training in prosecution duties. Some Forces have lengthy training courses for their Prosecutors, while others employ a system of on job training. Queensland conducts a six month Prosecutors Course for intending prosecutors, while Tasmania has an on job training scheme.

As well as prosecuting in Courts of Summary Jurisdiction, Police Prosecutors also prosecute persons placed before Childrens Courts. The legislation enabling the various Childrens Courts is shown below:

New South Wales	<u>Child Welfare Act 1939</u>
Victoria	<u>Children's Court Act 1973</u>
Queensland	<u>Children Services Act 1965-1978</u>
South Australia	<u>Childrens Protection and Young Offenders Act 1979</u>
Western Australia	<u>Child Welfare Act 1947-1977</u>
Northern Territory	<u>Child Welfare Ordinance 1958-1973.</u>
Australian Capital Territory	<u>Child Welfare Ordinance 1957.</u>

CHAPTER 5

THE "TYPICAL" POLICE OFFICER

Gavin Brown
Inspector
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A description of the "typical" police officer is an ambitious project notwithstanding research tending to show that police start with or develop some common values and attitudes. According to the 1981 Australian census, there are over 30,000 people who describe themselves as police officers and more than 6,000 others who work in police organisations. More than half the latter are clerical workers and typists. Others are technicians, cooks, cleaners, tradesmen and a variety of professionals, including doctors, teachers, lawyers, draftsmen, social workers and administrators.

Traditional Police Forces include a range of skills and sufficient ranks to militate against over generalisation. Uniformed officers, detectives and traffic police are backed by a variety of staff and support personnel. Communications technicians rub shoulders with accountants, pilots, computer programmers, motor mechanics, trainers, tape recording specialists, psychologists, lawyers and planners. The generic "police officer" includes not only the Commissioner of Police (in some jurisdictions) with a lifetime of experience and the respect of the public and confidence of the government but, also, in much greater numbers, young Constables on probation tentatively coming to grips with their new careers.

In terms of statistical aggregates the typical police officer is most likely to be a married man, less than 35 years of age, born in Australia, who left school at 14-16 years of age and performing duty in an urban area. Any post-school qualification would probably be at certificate (trade or other) level. If a policewoman, she would tend to be younger and unmarried. My task is to flesh out this skeletal framework at the same time remembering that somewhere there might be that statistical rarity of a police officer - an elderly, married female Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander with a Doctorate performing duty on a part-time basis for an annual income of less than \$8,000.

Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) census data is important in showing both the national picture on census night as well as trends over the past decade. The census, however, is conducted on a State/Territory basis and its statistics therefore include all "police" without distinguishing between agencies and some associated workers. But, differences are small and unlikely to overly influence analysis.

Policemen and policewomen

More than nine out of every ten police officers are males but the number of women police has increased significantly since 1971 and considerably faster than the growth rate of policemen, see Table 3.2. Victoria has the highest proportion of female police but some other Forces are not far behind. Most police agencies are coming under sufficient pressure from Equal Opportunity Boards and government policies to ensure the trend continues. At least one police agency, New South Wales Police, has appointed a full time Equal Opportunity Officer.

Few Forces now have general policies restricting the deployment of policewomen in particular areas. Each application for a vacancy must be judged on its merits and, in time, the posting of policewomen to one officer country stations may be acceptable. Some duties requiring direct physical strength, such as special tactical groups and search and rescue duties, will always be difficult areas for policewomen to operate. On the other hand, most Forces ensure policewomen are always available to interview women and children who have been the victims of sexual offences. At the time of writing, few policewomen have achieved high rank although a Superintendent is likely to be appointed shortly in Victoria. This pattern reflects the recency of the increased numbers and a higher wastage rate for policewomen. Integrated seniority lists are now the rule rather than the exception.

Deployment

According to the 1981 census, there was a national average of one police officer to 483 people, ranging from 1:535 in New South Wales to 1:207 and 1:182 in the Northern Territory and the Australian Capital Territory, respectively. During the previous ten years the number of police increased by 47 per cent, over three times the population rate (14.3 per cent) but, since that time growth rates of most Police Forces have slowed considerably. This reduction has special significance for our "typical" police officer whose promotional prospects may be less attractive than for members appointed before or early in the period of rapid growth. Most police officers work in capital cities, although this figure reflects the siting of police administrative functions and not all the difference comprise operational personnel, see Table 5.1. As Forces, have grown in size, most have had to deploy more police officers in staff and support positions. An increasing level of public accountability comprising Ombudsmen, Freedom of Information structures, Privacy Committees, Equal Opportunity/Anti-discrimination and other interests have contributed to this trend.

TABLE 5.1

POLICE POPULATION RATIOS IN STATES, CAPITAL CITIES
AND AREAS OUTSIDE CAPITALS, 1981

one police officer to:	overall	capital	outside capital
NSW	535	464	711
V	516	488	602
Q	520	411	663
WA	476	474	497
SA	403	370	508
T	402	269	556
NT	207	165	277
ACT	180	180	-

Source: Census 1981, ARS

Marital status

Most police officers are married (70 per cent), see Table 5.2 but, a high proportion of policewomen (66 per cent) were unmarried on 1981 census night. The proportion of divorced police (2.9 per cent - 2.8 per cent males and 4.6 per cent females) was lower than for the employed labor force generally (3.8 per cent) although the proportion of police who reported being separated (2.8 per cent - 2.9 per cent males and 1.8 per cent females) was slightly higher than for the labor force as a whole (2.4 per cent). The widowed proportion (0.3 per cent) was significantly lower than the 1.5 per cent figure for the labor force, probably a reflection of the smaller numbers of police in the 55+ age bracket. Available statistics do not support the often heard assertion that police have an abnormally high rate of marriage breakdown; although comparison with specific occupations might produce different results.

TABLE 5.2

OFFICERS' MARITAL STATUS: BY AGENCY, 1981

status	NSW %	V %	Q %	WA %	SA %	T %	NT %	ACT %
never married	19.6	25.8	23.4	17.2	26.2	22.8	16.4	23.9
now married	73.2	68.4	71.6	77.0	68.9	72.4	73.8	69.3
separated (not divorced)	3.1	2.8	2.5	2.8	2.4	1.8	4.7	3.4
divorced	3.7	2.6	2.3	2.7	2.3	2.7	4.8	3.2
widowed	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2

Source: Census 1981, ARS

Age

Most police officers (62 per cent) are under 35 years of age, see Table 5.3. A higher proportion of policewomen (88 per cent) than policemen (60 per cent) are found in this category. The figure is considerably higher than for the total employed labor force (51 per cent). There are also fewer police aged under 20 years (4.9 per cent) and over 55 years (3.7 per cent). In an era of over supply, some Forces have discontinued long and expensive cadet training programs which kept police numbers up during the relatively lean years in the sixties and seventies.

If numbers continue to stabilise and early retirement schemes are not developed, Forces will comprise increasing proportions of older police officers (40+ years) which, during 1981 ranged between 20.6 per cent (South Australia) and 29.4 per cent (Tasmania) to 28.8 per cent in New South Wales. In New South Wales, promotion to Inspector on average occurs after about thirty years service, ten years longer than most other Forces. A slowdown in the growth rate and an associated increase in older members will put very considerable pressures on personnel procedures in that state.

Birthplace

The typical police officer (86.5 per cent) is born in Australia, as were his parents (94 per cent). The highest proportion of overseas members were born in the United Kingdom or Ireland (9.3 per cent). That proportion is significantly higher in Western Australia, Tasmania and South Australia, see Table 5.4. Police form a much more homogeneous group than the total labor force, 74.3 per cent of whom were born in Australia. People from Italy, Greece and Yugoslavia comprise 5.4 per cent of the work force but only 0.4 per cent of police officers. In 1981, very few police officers (0.4 per cent) reported being of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander origin, although, understandably, this figure was highest (6 per cent) in the Northern Territory. In Northern Territory, Police Aides are classified as sworn officers.

The racial composition of the various police forces can be attributed to selection standards which require Australian or British citizenship. Regulations covering the New South Wales Force require Australian citizenship. In Western Australia, South Australia and Tasmania this is extended to include British citizenship. Although without specific legislation, in Victoria, Queensland and the Northern Territory, similar criteria apply.

Educational attainment

Most Police Forces require applicants to have a modest educational standard, usually about year four or its equivalent. New South Wales Police require Higher School Certificate, although exceptions have tended to be the rule.

The typical police officer (53.5 per cent) left school

TABLE 5.3
POLICE OFFICERS' AGE DISTRIBUTION: AGE INTERVAL GROUPS BY AGENCY, 1976 & 1981

Age Interval group	NSW		V		Q		WA		SA		T		NT		ACT	
	1976	1981	1976	1981	1976	1981	1976	1981	1976	1981	1976	1981	1976	1981	1976	1981
15-19	3.1	3.1	6.2	5.0	11.9	4.6	5.2	5.3	15.3	7.6	11.8	11.1	1.2	3.6	1.5	5.9
20-24	16.5	15.4	23.6	21.9	21.2	21.7	12.8	14.0	19.1	22.9	18.9	14.9	10.9	14.8	16.1	16.3
25-29	22.3	18.6	19.2	23.1	14.7	20.5	27.5	18.5	20.2	20.2	18.1	16.7	37.0	20.5	28.8	18.8
30-34	18.3	19.7	13.2	16.4	12.4	15.7	16.9	22.4	14.1	17.6	13.5	16.6	22.5	29.0	27.1	21.5
35-39	13.0	14.4	9.5	9.9	8.9	12.2	11.5	13.5	7.9	11.3	15.1	11.3	17.8	15.5	13.4	18.8
40-44	8.6	10.0	9.8	7.1	7.8	7.9	9.7	9.0	6.7	6.7	10.8	11.0	6.2	8.8	4.1	10.9
45-49	7.9	7.3	8.4	6.6	10.5	6.3	7.1	7.2	7.5	5.9	3.9	9.2	2.0	5.2	4.5	4.1
50-54	6.2	6.9	6.4	6.2	7.2	8.2	6.2	6.2	5.3	5.2	3.3	4.9	0.7	1.9	2.4	2.1
55+	4.2	4.6	3.7	3.8	5.4	2.9	3.1	3.9	3.9	2.8	4.6	4.3	1.7	0.7	2.1	1.3

Source: Census 1976 & 1981

aged 15-16 years. A further 11.8 per cent left school aged 14 or less, while 12.7 per cent left school aged 18 years or more. Higher proportions of this last group were located in Victoria (16.5 per cent) and New South Wales (15.2 per cent).

In 1981, the typical police officer (70 per cent) had attained no educational qualifications, although one in four reported having a trade (13 per cent) or other certificate (12 per cent), see Table 5.5. This latter qualification was defined as being issued by a college of technical and further education or business college in recognition of competence in a para-professional occupation, or skilled occupation other than that ascribed to a trade. Police studies certificates available in most states would be included in this category. Overall, only one per cent of police officers are reported as having University or College degrees in 1981.

The 27 per cent of police officers who in 1981 reported having post-school educational qualifications represented an increase of 10 percentage points over 1971 figures but was lower than that recorded for the employed labor force as a whole (32.6 per cent), although higher than for the Australian population aged 15 or more (24 per cent). In South Australia during the same period the proportion more than tripled (9.9 per cent to 32 per cent), no doubt a result of blending the external certificate course with the promotional requirements. More male police (27.5 per cent) reported having obtained a qualification than females (18.5 per cent) but many of these (50 per cent compared with the females 5 per cent) held trade qualifications. Fewer members aged 45 or over reported having qualifications. About eight per cent of police officers, particularly those in South Australia and Queensland, reported that they were attending an educational institution, most on a part time basis, see Table 5.6.

TABLE 5.4

POLICE OFFICERS' COUNTRY OF BIRTH: BY AGENCY, 1981

country of birth	NSW %	V %	Q %	WA %	SA %	T %	NT %	ACT %
Australia	91.0	85.9	90.1	78.6	81.8	82.1	80.0	78.9
UK & Elre*	5.1	10.0	6.3	15.6	14.2	14.3	12.8	14.4
Germany**	0.8	0.8	0.3	0.9	1.1	0.3	1.0	1.2
Netherlands	0.4	1.0	0.5	0.8	0.7	1.4	1.2	1.1
Other Europe	1.1	0.8	0.6	0.7	1.0	0.5	1.4	1.5
Asia & Middle East	0.5	0.4	0.4	1.8	0.2	0.1	0.7	1.2
America	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.3	-	0.5
Africa	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.3
Oceania	0.5	0.6	1.2	0.8	0.4	0.7	2.2	0.9
Other	0.1	-	0.1	0.1	0.2	-	0.2	-

* Includes Northern Ireland

** Includes German Democratic Republic

Source: Census 1981, ABS

TABLE 5.5

POLICE OFFICERS' ACHIEVED EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS:
BY AGENCY, 1976 & 1981

qualification	NSW %	V %	Q %	WA %	SA %	T %	NT %
1976							
no qualifications	69.6	72.8	68.1	69.9	64.5	71.4	68.3
trade*	15.1	11.5	12.7	17.9	6.9	10.2	17.7
other certificate*	9.2	11.2	14.4	8.4	23.5	14.0	8.1
non-degree tertiary (Diploma)	0.1	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.4	0.5	0.3
bachelor or higher degree	1.5	0.7	0.6	0.3	0.9	0.3	0.8
not classifiable/ stated	3.9	3.3	3.5	2.7	3.8	3.6	4.8
1981							
no qualifications	67.2	66.8	66.8	62.4	56.8	69.0	69.4
trade*	23.2	24.8	21.6	25.0	35.4	20.0	20.0
technician*	2.6	2.0	4.9	2.8	2.5	3.0	4.4
non-degree tertiary	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.1	0.5	0.4	0.7
bachelor or higher degree	0.9	0.4	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0
not classifiable/ stated	5.8	5.8	5.9	9.6	4.7	7.7	5.5

* Classification changed between census years

Source: Census 1976 & 1981, ABS

TABLE 5.6

POLICE OFFICERS ATTENDING EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS:
BY AGENCY, 1981

status	NSW %	V %	Q %	WA %	SA %	T %	NT %	ACT %
full time	0.2	0.8	2.6	0.3	0.5	7.2	2.2	1.2
part time	4.6	4.2	11.2	10.1	12.3	4.9	5.2	7.3
not attending	92.9	93.2	84.5	87.8	85.8	86.7	90.4	90.4
not stated	2.3	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.4	1.2	2.2	1.1

Source: Census 1981, ABS

Income and hours worked

According to the 1981 Census, hours worked by police officers vary significantly from the labor force generally. For example, some 92 per cent of police officers worked 35 or more hours (in fact, 40 hours is the standard working week) a week, only 75 per cent of the employed labor force worked 35 hours or more a week. There are minor variations only between agencies, see Table 5.7.

Income distribution also varies between Forces. For instance, whereas more than 20 per cent of police officers in the Northern Territory reported incomes of more than \$22,000 pa, only 6.7 per cent of Queensland officers reported incomes in that range. Fuller details are shown at Table 5.8.

TABLE 5.7

HOURS WORKED[#] BY POLICE OFFICERS: BY AGENCY, 1981

hours worked	NSW %	V %	Q %	WA %	SA %	T %	NT %	ACT %
0	5.1	5.4	5.9	4.2	4.2	3.3	4.7	3.7
1-14	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.0
15-24	0.5	0.3	0.7	0.3	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.7
25-34	0.9	0.4	0.9	0.4	10.0	1.1	1.0	1.4
35+	91.8	92.2	90.2	93.5	92.9	93.4	91.9	92.4
not stated	1.0	0.8	1.4	1.1	0.7	1.0	1.0	0.9

shortly prior to Census

Source: Census 1981, ABS

TABLE 5.8

INCOME EARNED BY POLICE OFFICERS: BY AGENCY, 1981

income interval group	NSW %	V %	Q %	WA %	SA %	T %	NT %	ACT %
0-8,000	0.8	1.3	3.1	3.6	5.3	2.6	4.8	0.2
8,001-12,000	6.0	7.3	10.8	3.5	4.7	12.3	4.3	5.5
12,001-15,000	11.3	26.3	29.6	17.0	20.3	33.6	14.3	21.0
15,001-18,000	30.6	36.4	29.7	36.3	35.9	25.9	29.1	28.0
18,001-22,000	38.4	20.7	18.8	27.4	26.3	16.7	26.2	22.5
22,000+	13.2	8.0	6.7	11.6	6.8	8.2	20.2	22.1
not stated	0.7	1.1	1.3	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	0.6

Source: Census 1981, ABS

Summary

The "typical" police officer is revealed by the 1981 Census as an Australian citizen, male, married, between 25 and 34 years of age, with a modest education and performing duty in an urban environment.

CHAPTER 6

DISCIPLINE AND ACCOUNTABILITY

Gavin Brown
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Each Police Force is established by statute and members are subject to a variety of statutory controls. Police organisations provide annual reports to their Ministers recording major activities and utilisation of resources. Most of those annual reports include reference to the behaviour and discipline of members. This chapter briefly records principal disciplinary mechanisms operating in each state and territory Police Force.

Complaints investigation

Complaints against police officers provide the major element of employee accountability and most Forces now have internal affairs sections dedicated to investigating allegations of criminal offences or misconduct. Complaints about administrative practices and policy issues may be dealt with by appropriate administrative mechanisms of the various Forces. Broadly, inquiries into disciplinary matters of a purely internal matter are also investigated in a similar fashion to public complaints, but this depends upon the potential seriousness of alleged infractions.

Investigation of public complaints is monitored by Internal Investigations sections which report directly to a Deputy Commissioner or Assistant Commissioner responsible for discipline. More serious complaints, such as commission of criminal offences or mistreatment of prisoners, usually have to be initially reported to Internal Investigations for a direction as to the subsequent investigation. Where a sustained inquiry is required, a task force of experienced investigators may be established. Complaint registers and indexes are maintained to record the progress of the investigation.

Public complaints of a minor nature are usually investigated locally, although line supervisors are not appointed to investigate allegations against members under their direct supervision. In those Forces where operational personnel are not integrated, senior traffic police officers or detectives investigate complaints in their respective branches.

In many Forces, complaint investigation is the responsibility of a commissioned officer although the matter may be reported to a less senior member. Some Forces require all complaints against police to be investigated by commissioned officers although in others, notably, New South Wales, other police may be involved.

Investigating officers make initial inquiries including taking immediate action to preserve evidence and establish the identity of persons involved. They view scenes of incidents and interview witnesses, taking their statements. Photographs may be necessary and in many cases official documents, such as patrol returns, occurrence books, diaries, message books and similar will need to be closely examined and photocopied. Identification parades are often required. Officers concerned have to be interviewed and this process often gives rise to additional factors which in turn need to be followed up. Personnel records and other internal reports must be examined.

Investigating officers' files contain covering reports summarising the various cases, tabulations of complaints or offences involved, evaluations of evidence, discussions of options available, lists of witnesses as well as detailed recommendations, statements from witnesses and appendices containing copies of documentary evidence.

Completed files are usually summarised at Internal Investigation units, including an appreciation of evidence and detailed recommendations. Files are then forwarded to relevant senior officers for decisions about prosecution, suspension or transfer. Such senior officers may receive legal advice from internal and external sources.

Where formal discipline proceedings are authorised, files may be returned to investigating officers for the preparation and service of charge sheets. If a reprimand is decided, it will usually be delivered by an officer's District Commander. Where open court proceedings are authorised, investigating officers are usually responsible for initiating prosecutions in similar fashion to charges laid against civilians. Procedures need not be detailed here but, where both criminal and disciplinary charges are laid, it is usual for the disciplinary process to be adjourned pending the open court hearing. A description of the main features of the disciplinary processes in each Force follows.

New South Wales

Members of the New South Wales Police Force are subject to complex internal discipline procedures. These are set out in the Police Regulation Act 1899, Police Rules and Police Regulation (Allegations of Misconduct) Act 1978. The Commissioner of Police is responsible for the Force subject to direction by the Minister. Police Rules direct that members promptly report misconduct and requires investigation of internal and public complaints. Where appropriate the Commissioner may direct internal or open court charges.

The Allegations Of Misconduct legislation provides an elaborate procedure for the reception and investigation of public complaints. The statute codifies the Internal Affairs Branch, originally commanded by a Chief Superintendent, although recently (1984) this has been amended to Assistant Commissioner. The Branch was initially divided into three sections, including the

Investigations Section comprising 22 two-man teams each led by either an Inspector or Sergeant (First Class). Public complaints must be recorded at Internal Affairs Branch and the Ombudsman's Office. However, the latter has no investigatory responsibility in the first instance. The Commissioner is obliged to send a report of the investigation to the Ombudsman who is empowered to comment on its efficiency and make recommendations. The Commissioner, however, is not obliged to follow that advice.

For some time a struggle has been waged by the Ombudsman and Police as to the Ombudsman's exact jurisdiction. That disagreement has been partly resolved by providing the Ombudsman with his own staff of investigators and permitting him to investigate those matters in which he is dissatisfied with IAB reports. The Ombudsman possesses royal commission powers under his own statute. The statute, permits the Police Tribunal to enquire into and report to the Minister upon any matter relating to the discipline of the Force. A hearing constituted by the President of the Tribunal has the powers of a Royal Commission. The provision has been used only once, in investigating allegations concerning a Deputy Commissioner. The recent creation (1984) of a Commissioner for Public Complaints will further impinge on such matters in New South Wales.

Suspension. The Commissioner may suspend a member against whom he believes a disciplinary or other charge is justified. Suspension may be with or without pay but, if without pay and undue hardship results, the member may be permitted to obtain other employment.

Disciplinary hearings. An officer charged with an internal disciplinary offence has seven days in which to notify whether he or she elects to have the matter heard before the Commissioner of Police or by the Police Tribunal. On finding a charge proved, the Commissioner may dismiss a member, reduce him or her in rank or seniority or impose a fine. Charges arising from public complaints are heard by the Police Tribunal constituted by a single member. The Tribunal is not bound by strict legal precedent but is required to determine whether charges have been proved. The Tribunal's decision must be referred to the Commissioner and the Ombudsman. Public complainants must receive a copy of the decision.

Appeals. The Review Division of the Police Tribunal comprises a President and two members. The Division is empowered to hear appeals against the Tribunal's determination of guilt and/or against a penalty imposed by the Commissioner of Police.

Victoria

Members of Victoria Police may be charged with disciplinary offences alleging misconduct, negligence, wilful incompetence, disgraceful conduct or breach of Police Regulations 1977. Regulations specify 52 types of conduct upon which formal charges may be based. Each offence is specified on a charge sheet which, with a notice of election, must be served personally.

Suspension. A notice of suspension can only be served after a member has been charged and the matter referred to the Police Discipline Board. A member may also be suspended when charged before an open court or when convicted in open court of an offence punishable by imprisonment. If found not guilty the forfeited salary (less any outside earnings) must be paid to the member. Even if the Police Discipline Board finds a charge proved, it may still order reimbursement.

Disciplinary hearings. Disciplinary charges are invariably heard by the Police Discipline Board, although the Police Regulation Act 1958 provides for hearings with consent by the Chief Commissioner or a member of or above the rank of Chief Superintendent. Such an officer is empowered to adjourn a hearing for six months, reprimand a member or impose a small fine (presently up to \$50). The Chief Commissioner of Police may adjourn a charge for six months, reprimand a member, impose a heavier fine (up to \$200) or reduce a member in rank.

The Police Discipline Board comprises a Stipendiary Magistrate and an Assistant Commissioner. Where a charge arises from a public complaint the Board also comprises a public representative nominated by the Minister who is not nor has been a member of the Force, a public servant or a barrister or solicitor. On finding a charge proved the Board may adjourn the matter for six months, reprimand a member, impose a penalty of not more than \$500, reduce a member in rank or dismiss a member from the Force. Charges may be heard ex parte unless a member wishes to be present.

The Police Regulation Act 1958 sets out procedural guidelines for disciplinary hearings. At least seven days notice in writing is required and a hearing must be held in the most convenient location, normally the member's District. A hearing is not an open court and the Chairman has discretion as to the persons present, although if the proceedings arose from a public complaint the hearing must be in public unless the Board orders otherwise. A charged member may be represented by another member or by counsel. Boards are required to follow, as far as possible, procedures followed in Magistrates' Courts. Evidence must be recorded and District Commanders must take reasonable steps to ensure witnesses nominated by a charged member are able to attend the hearing.

The Police Discipline Board has the same evidence gathering powers as a Board of Inquiry including authority to summon witnesses and take sworn evidence. It is authorised to penalise a member notwithstanding he has been proceeded against in a court and may have been acquitted or convicted. The civil standard of proof (balance of probabilities) is required but this requirement varies according to the seriousness of matters before the Board.

Appeals. The Police Service Board hears appeals from the Police Discipline Board. An appeal stops all orders except dismissal which is deemed to be a suspension from duty. Notice of appeal must be lodged within ten days. The Police Service Board comprises a County Court Judge, a government nominee and an elected member of or above the rank of Senior Sergeant. Where the

original decision arose from a public complaint the government representative is replaced by a public representative nominated by the Minister under conditions similar to those applying to appointees to the Discipline Board. Members appointed to date have both been pharmacists. In publicly initiated cases the Chief Commissioner is empowered to appeal against the Discipline Board's decisions and, only in such an appeal, is the Police Service Board authorised to increase the original penalty.

Queensland

Internal discipline procedures in the Queensland Police Force are outlined in Police Acts 1937-1980, the subordinate Police Rules and Police Complaints Tribunal Act 1982. The Commissioner, who has superintendence of the Force under the direction of the Minister, is responsible for its organisation, discipline and efficiency. Upon sufficient proof of misconduct or unfitness he is empowered to dismiss any Sergeant or Constable or any Technical or Scientific Officer.

Members are required to report misconduct without delay. Local commanders are obliged to appoint investigating officers, usually commissioned officers to investigate same. A statement obtained under compulsion during the investigation is not admissible in any proceedings without a member's consent. For public complaints, the Commissioner must be notified and direct how an investigation should proceed.

Since May 1982, the Police Complaints Tribunal, chaired by a Judge together with a nominee of the Police Union and a Government appointee, has been empowered to receive and, if necessary, investigate complaints of misconduct or neglect of duty. The Tribunal may direct the Commissioner to investigate a complaint.

Regional Superintendents must report results of their investigations and their recommendations to the Commissioner, although in trivial cases, no further action might be taken or a caution recommended.

Suspension. A Regional Superintendent is empowered to suspend a member pending a direction of the Commissioner. The Commissioner himself may suspend a member either with or without pay where he believes a member should be dismissed or has been guilty of an offence against Police Acts 1937 or Rules. With approval, a suspended member may engage in employment. If found not guilty he is entitled to reimbursement of his forfeited earnings.

Disciplinary hearings. Police Rules set out a number of procedures for the summary investigation of disciplinary offences. Where misconduct charges arise from a court conviction relevant court extracts must be served and the member invited to show cause why he should not be punished. In contested cases a commissioned officer may be appointed by the Minister to conduct a hearing. Where a member admits a charge, the Commissioner of Police may impose a penalty after considering extenuating circumstances.

Disciplinary hearings are conducted in private and may proceed ex parte. While parties to hearings may be represented, Police Rules require an investigation not be unduly prolonged and evidence confined directly to charges under inquiry. After a hearing, documentation and findings are forwarded to the Commissioner for notification of penalty. The Commissioner has the usual range of penalties including dismissal.

Appeals. Penalised members have 30 days in which to lodge appeals, which are heard by an Appeal Board comprising a District Court Judge, a nominee of the Commissioner and a representative proposed by the Union. Appeal hearings must be in public unless the Governor in Council directs otherwise. Strict rules of evidence do not apply. The Appeal Board sends its findings to the Commissioner of Police who must forward his report and recommendations to the Minister. The Governor in Council is not bound by the Commissioner's proposal but may impose a new penalty, including enforced retirement or enforced resignation.

Western Australia

Formal disciplinary procedures in the Western Australia Police Force are embodied in the Police Act 1892-1982 and Police Regulations 1979. The regulations detail conduct constituting a disciplinary offence. Complaints against police legislation was under consideration at the time of going to press but, had not been enacted.

Suspension. The Commissioner of Police is empowered to suspend Sergeants and Constables on full pay.

Disciplinary hearings. The Commissioner of Police or an officer appointed by him is empowered to take evidence on oath and summons witnesses. An examining officer who finds a member guilty may impose a fine, a reprimand or reduce a member in salary or suspend him or recommend his discharge or dismissal. These last two penalties require to be confirmed by the Commissioner of Police or, in the case of commissioned officers, by the Governor.

Appeals. Convicted members have 14 days in which to appeal to the Police Appeal Board comprising a Stipendiary Magistrate, a person appointed by the Commissioner of Police and an elected police officer. In appeal hearings evidence taken at a previous hearing is admissible during the appeal. Where the Board finds an appeal trivial it must award costs against the appellant. The Board's decision is final and binding on the Commissioner.

South Australia

In South Australia the Commissioner of Police is responsible for the management of the Force subject to the provisions of the Police Regulation Act 1952 and directions issued by the government. Such directions are required to be tabled in each House of Parliament within 6 sitting days and be published in the Government Gazette.

Most disciplinary provisions are contained in Police Regulations 1982, which create 13 core offences including disobedience, discreditable conduct and neglect of duty.

Suspension. The Commissioner may suspend a member charged with an offence against a Statute or contrary to Police Regulations, with or without pay. Unless the Minister directs otherwise, a member suspended without pay and who is later convicted of an offence or who resigns, is not entitled to salary reimbursement. If the charge is not proven or is withdrawn the charged member's salary is reimbursed without loss but, interim income may be taken into account.

Disciplinary hearings. A member charged with a disciplinary offence has 21 days in which to notify the Police Inquiry Committee whether he or she admits the charge. If he or she does so, the papers are forwarded to the Commissioner of Police for imposition of penalty. Options include suspension without pay, reduction in rank or seniority, reduction in pay or reprimand. The Commissioner may also recommend a member's dismissal.

The Police Inquiry Committee, comprising a Special Magistrate, a Justice of the Peace and a commissioned police officer, is empowered to hear contested charges. Charges must be proved beyond reasonable doubt, rules of evidence are observed and a charged member may be represented by the Secretary or Assistant Secretary of the Police Association or, by another member or, by Counsel. Hearings are private. The Committee's record of proceedings and its findings (including reasons) must be referred to the charged member as well as to the Commissioner for penalty.

Appeals. The Police Appeal Board comprises a District Court Judge, a person appointed by the Commissioner and an elected member. It is empowered to hear appeals against termination of service while on probation or any other punishment imposed by the Commissioner. The Board's recommendations are forwarded to the Commissioner of Police together with evidence taken and any dissenting reports. The Commissioner is required to submit appeal files, together with his recommendations, to the Chief Secretary whose decision is final.

Tasmania

Disciplinary provisions in the Tasmania Police Force are prescribed in the Police Regulation Act 1898 and Police Regulations. The Commissioner has control and superintendence of the Force subject to the regulating statute and directions of the Minister.

Suspension. The Governor is empowered to suspend, reduce, discharge or dismiss a commissioned police officer. Subject to the Minister's approval, the Commissioner of Police can suspend, reduce or dismiss Sergeants, Constables or Junior Constables. The Commissioner can also appoint, suspend, or reduce cadets and technical officers. The latter are civil members of the Police Department with relevant trade or technical education. All suspensions are on full pay.

TABLE 6.1
MAJOR STATUTORY CONTROLS ON POLICE COMMISSIONERS

agency	nominated appointing authority	nominated dismissing authority	superordinate authority/function of (chief) commissioner	tenure/dismissal provisions
NSW	governor s.4(1)	governor s.4(4)(a) & (b)	subject to the direction of the minister, is charged with the superintendence of the police force of NSW s.4(1)	<u>tenure</u> : the commissioner shall retire from office on the day he attains 65 years s.4(3) <u>dismissal</u> : the commissioner may be suspended or removed from office for misbehavior or incompetence but, only in accordance with the following provisions: (1) the minister shall cause to be laid by parliament a full statement of the grounds of suspension within seven sitting days after such suspension if parliament is in session and, if not, then within seven sitting days after the commencement of the next session, and (2) the commissioner suspended under these powers shall be restored to office unless each house of parliament within 21 days from the time when such statement has been laid before it, declares by resolution that the commissioner ought to be removed from office s.4(4)(a) & (b)
V	governor in council s.4(1)	governor in council s.4(1)	subject to the direction of the governor in council has the superintendence and control of the force s.5	<u>tenure</u> : the appointment of the chief commissioner shall be for such term not exceeding five years as the governor in council thinks fit s.4(1A). <u>Retirement</u> is compulsory at 65 years s.16A(b) <u>tenure & dismissal</u> : the governor in council may from time to time suspend, reduce, discharge or dismiss any such chief commissioner s.4(1)
Q	governor in council s.6(1)	nil	subject to the direction of the minister is charged with the superintendence of the police force of Queensland s.6(1)	<u>tenure</u> : the commissioner shall continue in office during such period as he is of good behavior and until the age of 65 years s.6(2)
SA	governor s.6	nil	subject to the Act and the directions of the governor, the commissioner shall have the control and management of the police force s.21(1)	<u>tenure</u> : the commissioner shall retire on the thirtieth day of June next after he attains the age of 65 years s.7(1)
WA	governor s.5	governor s.5	charged and vested with the general control and management of the police force s.5	<u>dismissal</u> : the governor as occasion requires may remove any commissioner of police and appoint another in his stead s.5
T	governor s.8	governor s.11	under the direction of the minister and subject to the provisions of the Act, have control and superintendence of the police force s.8	<u>tenure</u> : the commissioner shall retire from office on attaining the age of 65 years s.9A <u>dismissal</u> : the governor may at any time suspend, reduce, discharge, or dismiss any commissioner s.11
NT	adminis- trator s.7	nil	subject of the Act, the commissioner is charged and invested with the general control and management of the police force and of special constables s.14(1)	<u>tenure</u> : a commissioner who attains the age of 60 years shall cease to hold office as a member of the police force s.10(2)
ACT	governor-general s.17(1)	governor-general s.22(1)	subject to the enabling Act, commissioner has general administration of, and the control of the operations of the AFP, Incl ACT s.13(1)	<u>tenure</u> : commissioner holds office for such period, not exceeding 7 years, as specified in instrument of appointment <u>dismissal</u> : governor-general may terminate appointment by reason of misbehavior or physical or mental incapacity s.22(1)
NZ	governor-general s.5(1)	governor-general s.6	the commissioner may issue general instructions s.30(1)	<u>tenure</u> : every member of the police shall retire if he has attained the age of 60 years s.27(1). the commissioner may with the consent of the minister remain in the police for a period not exceeding two years after the date on which that officer is required by subsection (1) of this section to retire s.27(4). the governor-general may by order in council, make all such regulations as may in his opinion be necessary s.64(1). <u>dismissal</u> : the commissioner shall hold office during the pleasure of the governor-general s.6.

Source: relevant statutes.

Despite statutory provisions relating to powers to dismiss Police Commissioners, it seems there are other and overriding powers of dismissal available to governments although it is not possible to generalise on the point because of substantial differences among states and territories. No detailed survey of the provisions has been undertaken to date. But, the 1979 South Australian Royal Commission report into the dismissal of Commissioner Harold Hubert Salisbury held there existed a general power of dismissal in respect of all public officials by virtue of letter patent relating to the office of Governor of South Australia. A 1981 New South Wales report, which inter alia considered powers of dismissal of the Commissioner of Police and questions of that Officer's accountability, claims the Commissioner of Police in that state can be dismissed at pleasure regardless of s.4(4)(a) and (b) Police Regulation Act 1899 (which contains safeguards) - although the evidence is less clear when evidence of unsuitability is to hand. The power of a Governor to dismiss at pleasure is also said to stem from letters patent.

Conclusion

This brief chapter has attempted to set out the principal features of formal disciplinary processes in various police agencies. Of course, each year only a small percentage of members are subject to these proceedings although many more are investigated for one reason or another. Statistics concerning formal disciplinary proceedings are contained in Annual Reports and similar documents. Primary control in police organisations results from on job supervision and the informal pressures of a relatively coherent occupation in which nonconformity is often viewed with a degree of intolerance.

CHAPTER 7

CONDITIONS OF SERVICE

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Hours of work

All Police Forces operate on a 24 hour basis throughout the year. The starting and finishing times of police officers can vary throughout the day and night so as to provide for an efficient and effective means of public policing. Whilst some awards prescribe these times they can usually be overridden as the public interest or Force exigencies require. However, it is common in most States and New Zealand to work the following shift patterns, 7.00am -3.00pm, 3.00pm-11.00pm, 11.00pm-7.00am. Where meal breaks are taken in the employee's own time (see Table 7.3) between 30 minutes and one hour are added to finishing times. There is, thus, an overlap at the start and finish of all shifts.

Total hours in all States are 40 per week or 80 per fortnight and are worked on the basis of 10 eight-hour shifts per fortnight.* Police are granted four rest days of 24 hours duration each fortnight. Some agreements and awards specify that at least one Sunday, eg, Northern Territory, and/or one weekend each month should be taken as rest days and provide penalties if this provision is not adhered to. Most agreements and awards, however, specify only that this should be the case "if practicable" and there is no compulsion or inducement for such rostering to take place.

Administrative personnel in most States do not conform to the abovementioned shift pattern of operational Police. They generally work Monday to Friday on dayshift with weekends as rest days.

Salaries, allowances and penalty rates

The salaries, allowances and penalty rates to which police employees are entitled are contained in the various industrial awards and agreements. Salaries are shown by rank at Table 7.1. Penalty rates, shift allowances, other entitlements and conditions are shown in Table 7.2. In addition to these each agency operates a system of allowances for its specialist groups. Jobs requiring training and/or skills in addition to those required of general duties police officers are compensated with specialist allowances.

* In New Zealand day workers work a 37 1/2 hour week, whereas shift workers work a standard 40 hours.

TABLE 7.1
SALARIES: RANK BY AGENCY, 1983 (Oct)*

Rank	NSW	V	Q	WA Metro	WA Country	SA	T	NT	ACT	NZ
Commissioner	68200		60510							68296
Deputy Commissioner	56320		50774				46078			54236
Asst Commissioner	51315		46520				42701			42814
Deputy Asst Commissioner										40179
Commander		38691								
Exec or Snr Chief Supt	48508			42187	42632	39807				
Chief Superintendent	43175	35320		41232	41677	37766	40326	40863	37272	38844
Superintendent		33005		37095	37540	35629	36757	38210	34635	36581
Supt 1/C			40340							
2/C			38636							
3/C			37330							
3rd Year	41168									
1st Year	40179							38210+		
Chief Inspector		29922				34309		33862	32162	34446
Senior Inspector	34653			34388	34833					
Inspector		29188		32620	33065				30068	32433
Inspector 1/C			35966							
2/C			34587							
3/C			32970							
5th Year						33191				
4th Year	32740							32750		
3rd Year						32379	31504	32375		
2nd Year							30932	32000		
1st Year	31644					31567	30361	31626		
Station Sergeant									24032	
Senior Sergeants thereafter		24652				24245				30082
3rd Year			24902							29710
2nd Year			24745							29339
1st Year			24588						22862	28967
Sergeant 1/C	25199			25028	25483		24276	26572		
3rd Year			23316							
2nd Year			23211							
1st Year			23106							
Sergeant 2/C	23718			23010	23465		22843	25078		
3rd Year			21980							
2nd Year			21875							
1st Year			21770							
Sergeant 3/C	22194			21587	22042		21658	24022		
3rd Year			20535							
2nd Year			20430							
1st Year			20325							
Sergeant thereafter		22034				21703				26832
3rd Year										26461
2nd Year										
1st Year									21414	26091

TABLE 7.1 (cont)

Rank	NSW	V	Q	WA Metro	WA Country	SA	T	NT	ACT	NZ
Senior Constable										
After 15 Years			20172							
14 Years			20143							
13 Years			20114							
12th Year		19898	20086							
11th Year			20057							
10th Year			20028							
9th Year			20000							
8th Year			19971							
7th Year		19521	19942							
5 & 6th Year	20744	19308								
3 & 4th Year		19086								
2nd Year									19841	
1st Year	20516	18864							19358	
Grade 1						20282				
Grade 2						19488				
One Grade				20277	20732		20281	22087		
Constable 1/C										
2nd Grade							18156			
4th Year	19129						18156			
3rd Year	18898		18779				17938	20555		
2nd Year	18653		18674				17500	20224	18390	
1st Year	18415		18569				17280	19882	17906	
One Grade				18454	18909	18328				
Constable		18002				17036				
25th Year										23219
20th Year										23568
14th Year										23219
9th Year							17938			22797
7th Year						16815				
6th Year			17344							22543
5th Year	17570	17808	17065	17227	17682	16593	16688	18661		
4th Year	17217		16960	16779	17234	16373	16300	18320	16846	22105
3rd Year	16858	17441	16856	16331	16786	16150	15910	17968	16358	21431
2nd Year	16513	16522	16752	15998	16453	15797	15525	17626	15869	21057
1st Year	16150	15211	15961	15655	16120	15485	15139	17285	15015	20613
Probationary								16943		

* Salaries quoted in respect of agencies so marked are those applying prior to the reintroduction of centralised wage fixation in October 1983; exclusive of weekend loading.

TABLE 7.2
PENALTY & SHIFT CONDITIONS: BY AGENCY, 1983

penalty/shift	NSW	V	Q	WA	SA	T	NT	ACT	NZ
SATURDAY WORK RATE	Ordinary time + 10% Loading	Ordinary time + comp rate 13% below off	Time & half	Ordinary time	Time & half	Time & half	Ordinary time + 20% day & evening shifts + 25% night shifts.	Time & half	19% loading
SUNDAY WORK RATE	As above	As above	Double time	As above	As above	Double time	As above	As above	As above
PUBLIC HOLIDAY WORK RATE	Time & half	Ordinary time + comp rate 13% below off	3 X double time & half 8 X time & half	As above	Double time & half	As above	Double time & a half or time off in lieu (plus shift penalty)	Double time	As above
WEEKEND PENALTY LOADING	10% loading	13% base rate of each rank up to Snr Sgt	As above	Specified amount to scale	As above	As above	As above	As above	As above
ORDINARY OVERTIME RATE	Time & half first 2 hours then double time	Time & half or time off first 3 hours then double time	Time & half first 3 hours then double time (for no shiftworkers double time for shiftworkers.	Time & half first 3 hours then double time	Time & half first 3 hours then double time	Dayworkers time & half first 3 hours then double time. Shiftworkers double time.	Time & half	Time & half (time 3/4 on night shift)	As above, after 5 hours per week time off in lieu
SATURDAY OVERTIME RATE	As above	Double time or time off	As Ordinary Overtime Ra	As above	As above	As above	Double time	Double time	As above, after 5 hours per week time off in lieu

TABLE 7.2 (cont)

penalty/shift	NSW	V	Q	WA	SA	T	NT	ACT	NZ
SUNDAY OVERTIME RATE	Time & half first 2 hours then double time	Double time or time off	As Ordinary Overtime Rate	Time & half first 3 hours then double time	Double time	Double time	Double time	Double time	As above, after 5 hours per week time off in lieu
PUBLIC HOLIDAY OVERTIME RATE	Double time first 2 hours then double time & half	As above	As above	As above	Double time & half	Shiftworkers double time, dayworkers double time & half	Double time & half	Double time & half	As above, after 5 hours per week time off in lieu
ALLOWANCE IN LIEU OF OVERTIME	No	For CIB to scale	No	No	No	No	20% if not stationed at "Overtime" station	No	19% loading
1 OR 2 MAN STATION LOADING	No	\$1546 or commuted overtime allow (1 man)	Const 12%, Const 1/C 13.5%, S/Const 14.5%, Sgt 17% of Sgt 3/C ann/r (in lieu of overtime)	No	18% loading (in lieu of Sat, Sun, Pub Hol, . shift allowances & overtime)	15% loading (in lieu of Weekend over- time, weekend, Pub Hol, & shift allow) Additional allowance to scale	20% of Salary in lieu of overtime	No	Daily allowance for 1 & 2 man stations
REST PERIOD AFTER OVERTIME	8 hours off duty without loss of normal pay	No	No	No	8 hours off duty without loss of normal pay	Min 8 hours off duty without loss of pay	Rest may be granted not exceeding overtime hrs.	8 hours of duty	No
SHIFT WORKED AFTER O/TIME WITHOUT MIN REST	Double time until released	No	No	No	Double time until release	Double time until released	No	Double time for overlap plus extra 4 hours at double time	9 hours - 6 hours in emergency
MINIMUM PERIOD BETWEEN SHIFTS	8 hours	8 hours	8 hours	8 hours	8 hours	8 hours	8 hours	8 hours	10 hours

TABLE 7.2 (cont)

penalty/shift	NSW	V	Q	WA	SA	T	NT	ACT	NZ
PENALTY FOR SHIFT WITHOUT MINIMUM BREAK	Time & half for period of shift within 8 hours	Time & half for period of shift within 8 hours	No	No	No		No	No	No
SHIFT CHANGE AT SHORT NOTICE	No - except overtime if rest day changed	No	No	No	Notice in preceding shift or o/time for period of shift beginning earlier than the rostered time	24 hours notice or time & quarter for period of shift within 24 hours	No	7 days for change re operational requirements, 72 hours otherwise or overtime for period outside roster	No - changed only in emergency
EXCESS NIGHT SHIFTS	Time & half for more than 7 in 21 days	Time & half for more than 7 in 28 days	No	Max of 7 nights every 3 weeks in a centre, every 2 weeks elsewhere	10% of rates if not on day shift at least 1 week in 4	No	Time & half for more than 7 in 28 days. No more than 14 shifts between 6pm & 6am in 20 days	Time & half for more than 7 in 28 days	No
RECALL BETWEEN SHIFTS	3 hours min at time & half for first 2 hours then double time	3 hours min at overtime rates or time off in lieu	3 hours min at overtime rate	2 or 4 hours min at time & half	3 hours min at overtime rate	4 hours min at time & half	4 hours min at overtime rate if notified or 2 hours min at double time if not	4 hours min at overtime rate if notified or 2 hours min at double time in emergencies. Overtime if on call, 3 hours min	Time off in lieu over 5 hours per week - min 3 hours
ON CALL	No	No	No	No	\$2.50 on call between shifts; \$5.00 on call Sat, Sun, Pub Hol & Rest days	Availability \$4.35c per hour, min \$4.35/day. Standby \$4.35c hour min \$8.70/first 8 hours	4 hours min at time & half	\$4.20 per night \$10.50 per day & night	Standby allowance indexed to CPI

TABLE 7.2 (cont)

penalty/shift	NSW	V	Q	WA	SA	T	NT	ACT	NZ
RECALL FROM LEAVE	Time off in lieu or, min 8 hours at time & half	Time off in lieu or double time, Sat, Sun & Pub Hol, time & half other days min 4 hours	3 hours min at ordinary overtime rates	Ordinary rate for time worked & 1 day or 2 days off	Time off in lieu - one day minimum	4 hours min at time & half	time added to leave	8 hours min	Time off in lieu, min 8 hours
TRAVELLING TIME	Single time	No	No	No	Necessary travel is overtime	No	Single time	Single time, time & half on weekends	Necessary travel is overtime
WAITING TIME	1/3 single time	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
DISTANT WORK	single time for travel in excess of usual travel	No compensation unless the duty requires a temporary change of residence						Single time for travel in excess of usual travel	Compensation as for overtime
DAY SHIFT ALLOWANCE	No	No	No	No	No, but day worker paid penalty if shifts worked	No	No	No	No
EVENING SHIFT ALLOWANCE	Commencing between 10am & 1pm, 10%; between 1pm & 4pm, 15%	Commencing between 1pm & 4pm, \$8.70 NCO, \$13.08 CO	\$4.80/shift of 4 hours between 6pm & 6am. Weekdays only	No	15% for shifts ending from 6.30pm & midnight	15% for shifts ending between 6pm and midnight on weekdays	15% for shifts ending between 6pm and 1am on weekdays	10% for shifts commencing before 6.30am and ending after 8am	No
NIGHT SHIFT ALLOWANCE	Commencing between 4pm & 4am, 17.5%; between 4am & 6am 10%	Commencing between 4pm & 2am, \$11.42 NCO, \$17.18 CO	\$4.80 same as evening shift or 70c per hour for each hour worked after 12.00 and before 6am - weekdays only	No	15% for shift ending from midnight to 8am	15% for shifts ending between midnight and 8am weekdays	25% for shifts ending between 1am and noon weekdays	25% for shifts ending at or after midnight and before 8am, 10% for shifts ending after 6pm and before midnight	No

TABLE 7.2 (cont)

	NSW	V	Q	WA	SA	T	NT	ACT	NZ
MEAL BREAK	half hour break	30 mins unless meal taken at post	30 mins in employer's time	40 mins in employer's time	between 30 & 60 mins	Shiftworkers 20 mins in employer's time. Day workers 1 hour	30 mins in employer's time on night shift, 40 mins employers time on day or evening shift	20 mins in employer's time	shiftworkers 30 mins in employer's time payworkers 1 hour
MEAL WITHIN SPECIFIED PERIOD	Within 5 hours of starting the shift	No	Between 3 and 5 hours after the start of shift	Within 5 hrs 30 mins of start of shift	No	7am - 9am, 12 - 2pm, 5pm - 7pm, 12 - 2am	No	Between 3 and 5 hours after start of shift	No
PAID CRIB IN OVERTIME	No	No	No	No	20 mins for each 4 hours of overtime	No	No	Yes	Yes
HIGHER DUTIES	Allowance for relieving a min of one week if qualified or after 4 week pa qualifying period if not	Allowance for relieving a min of one week	Allowance equal to the difference in salary. Min period depending on situation	Allowance equal to difference in salary min of one week	Allowance equal to difference in salary min of one week	Allowance equal to the difference in salary min of one week	Allowance equal to difference in salary for each shift worked	Allowance equal to difference in salary for each shift worked	Allowance for relieving equal to difference in salary

Meal breaks

Conditions covering meal break entitlements vary considerably from agency to agency. They are shown at Table 7.3.

Leave

Recreation or annual leave entitlements for police employees vary slightly between the various agencies. The variety is due to a number of factors including climatic conditions. Conditions applying to recreation leave are shown in Table 7.4. Officers working shifts and those stationed in certain remote geographic areas are in some cases entitled to additional annual leave. Further, shiftworkers in some forces receive a higher rate of leave loading as compensation for loss of shift allowances and penalties during their leave period. Leave loading conditions are shown in Table 7.5. These are usually defined in the various Police industrial awards and agreements.

Public holidays for police employees, because of the 24 hour, seven days per week nature of police work, are often included in annual leave entitlements. Penalties may result if an employee is required to perform duty on such days - these are in addition to public holidays occurring within employees' annual leave. Conditions under which public holidays are compensated for in the various agencies are outlined in Table 7.6.

In addition to recreation leave most police agencies offer leave for other purposes such as for study, long service, confinements, etc. These areas of special leave are outlined in Table 7.7 and are usually linked to the standards applying in outside industry. Sick leave is, in most police agencies, quite liberal and is thus substantially higher than the norm.

Moonlighting

Policies of the various police agencies concerning employees working outside their official duties are shown at Table 7.8. As indicated by the table there is a wide official resistance to extra duty employment by officers. In no instance are police officers formally permitted to find employment in any occupation or task of their choosing. Where police officers are able to work at a second job outside their police work they are required to obtain the permission of the Commissioner of Police or Chief Secretary. Such a constraint permits police departments to at least monitor the activities of officers and prohibit them from working in certain occupations. An unsuitable occupation would be the employment of a police officer in a hotel or betting shop. Although an undemocratic attitude is apparent in these limitations, it does not seem unreasonable for the department to insist that members utilise their off duty time to relax and so return to duty refreshed. This point is especially valid in view of extensive employee claims concerning the physical and psychological stresses of police work. Police employee associations generally support management in this respect, as they

TABLE 7.3
MEAL BREAK CONDITIONS: BY AGENCY, 1983

agency	provisions
NSW	30 mins, employees' own time
V	Chief Commissioner can approve an 8 hour shift with meal at post but the Chief Commissioner can and does require some sections to have meal period in their own time. CIB staff work 8.5 hour day with one half hour meal in own time
Q	30 mins, in employer's time
WA	40 mins, employer's time. Allowance paid if not taken in prescribed period
SA	Between 30 and 60 minutes, employees' own time
T	60 mins, employees' own time for day workers, 20 mins in employer's time for shift workers
NT	40 mins, employer's time day and evening shift, 30 mins employer's time night shift
ACT	20 mins, in employer's time
NZ	30 mins, employer's time for shiftworkers, 60 mins employees' time dayworkers.

TABLE 7.4
RECREATION LEAVE CONDITIONS: BY AGENCY, 1983

agency	provisions
NSW	42 days, 49 days in far west zone and up to 5 days for shift workers
V	49 days all police
Q	42 days, 45 days in north and west zones
WA	42 days, 49 in north west
SA	42 days all police
T	42 days all police
NT	49 days all police
ACT	42 days all police
NZ	33 days exclusive of weekly days off (rest days), 4 1/2 days for shiftworkers

NB: This table should be read in conjunction with table 7.6 'Public Holiday Provisions' to see the effect of such holidays on Recreation Leave.

TABLE 7.5
LEAVE LOADING CONDITIONS: BY AGENCY, 1983

agency	provisions
NSW	17.5% on 4 weeks, 20% for shift workers on 4 weeks plus additional days to a maximum of that applicable to a Grade 12 Public Servant
V	17.5% on 4 weeks
Q	17.5% on 4 weeks, 20% for shift workers and those in receipt of 1 or 2 person station loading
WA	18.75% on 5 weeks to a maximum of average wage
SA	17.5% on 4 weeks, 20% for shift workers and those in receipt of 1 or 2 person station loading
T	17.5% on 4 weeks, plus 17.5% on 5 weeks for shift workers
NT	17.5% to a maximum of average weekly earnings
ACT	17.5% on 4 weeks
NZ	Nil

TABLE 7.6
PUBLIC HOLIDAY PROVISIONS: BY AGENCY, 1983

agency	provisions
NSW	Inclusive of annual leave, penalty if worked
V	Inclusive of annual leave, loading includes component for work on public holidays
Q	Exclusive of annual leave, penalty if worked.
WA	Inclusive of annual leave
SA	Extra day on annual leave if holiday occurs during such period between Monday to Friday; Penalty if worked; Extra day's pay if holiday occurs on a rest day between Monday and Friday
T	Inclusive of annual leave, penalty if worked
NT	Exclusive of annual leave, penalty if worked
ACT	Inclusive of annual leave, penalty if worked
NZ	Inclusive of 19% loading - non shiftworkers receive all such holidays

TABLE 7.7
MISCELLANEOUS LEAVE CONDITIONS: BY AGENCY, 1983

leave	NSW	V	Q	WA	SA	T	NT	ACT	NZ
COMPASSIONATE	1 to 3 days for funerals, for other reasons on application	3 days for funerals or other pressing necessity	Deducted from recreation leave entitlement	By agreement on a local basis	2 days for death of prescribed relative	5 days special leave per annum	3 days for death or serious illness of prescribed relative	3 days for sufficient cause, 2 days for death of prescribed relative	10 days off sick leave for emergencies, 3 days for funerals
LONG SERVICE	2 mths after 10 yrs, 2 1/2 mths per 5 yrs, thereafter	3 mths after 10 yrs, 1.5 mths per 5 yrs thereafter	13 weeks after 10 yrs, 1.3 weeks per yr thereafter	13 weeks after 10 yrs, 13 weeks after next 10 yrs, 13 weeks every 7 yrs thereafter	90 days after 10 yrs, 9 days/yr 10-15 yrs, 15 days/yr thereafter	3 mths after 10 yrs, 9 days per yr thereafter	4 mths after 10 yrs, 4/10 mth per year thereafter	3 mths after 10 yrs, 6 weeks thereafter	20 days after 20 yrs service
MATERNITY	5 weeks full pay 6 weeks 1/2 pay*	12 weeks full pay *	6 weeks before, 6 weeks after, without pay	12 mths max, 12 weeks min, without pay	Up to 52 weeks without pay	Sick leave can be used	Public Service entitlements	Public Service entitlements	12 mths, 6 mths for adoption - payment as for sick leave up to 6 mths
PATERNITY	No	One week full pay	No	No	No	No	No	No	14 days - no pay
STUDY	Max 4 hrs per week for approved courses	Available for certain courses	Rare - by administrative arrangement	No	5 hours per week plus reasonable travelling time and leave without pay	No	Public Service entitlements	Public Service entitlements	up to 12 mths or for lecture attendance on approved courses
TRANSFER	5 days or more if necessary	2 days for packing and unpacking	Reasonable leave for packing and unpacking	2 days for packing and unpacking	2 days for packing and unpacking	2 to 3 days	2 days for packing and unpacking	leave as necessary on application	on application
SICK	30 days first yr, 75 days in any 12 mths thereafter	30 days first yr, 15 days thereafter	60 days full pay, 30 days 1/2 pay in any 12 mths	5 days full pay & 2 days 1/2 pay on appointment, 5 days full pay & 3 days 1/2 pay after 6 mths, 10 days full pay fully cumulative	6 days first 6 - 12 mths, 12 days <u>pa</u> thereafter fully cumulative	75 days in any 12 mths	10 days full pay & 10 days 1/2 pay <u>pa</u> fully cumulative	6 weeks on appointment, 3 weeks each 12 mths thereafter, fully cumulative	up to 1 mth/annum depending on years of service

* Qualifying periods apply

TABLE 7.8
MOONLIGHTING PROVISIONS: BY AGENCY, 1983

agency	provisions
NSW	Not permitted
V	Not permitted
Q	Special duty permitted by award and other work with permission of Commissioner of Police
WA	Not permitted
SA	With permission of Chief Secretary
T	Not permitted
NT	With permission of Commissioner of Police
ACT	With permission of Commissioner of Police
NZ	Not permitted

can be subjected to complaints from other unions protesting about work being denied their members' due to moonlighting police employees. Official policies are widely flouted in this area, many police officers moonlight as photographers, laborers, security guards, etc. Instances of vacationing police officers being employed as masters-at-arms on cruise ships is one such area of employment that has received adverse publicity in recent times. In that case, the Commissioner of Police declined to censure such employment.

In Queensland, police officers are permitted by their industrial award to perform special duties. The term "special duty" means police officers can be called upon, for example, to escort payrolls for banks or direct traffic at road excavations. As the department has insufficient duty staff to perform such tasks, police officers are permitted to engage privately in such employment for a wage. Members receive payment at agreed rates direct from the firm or company employing them. The Police Department makes the formal arrangements for these "special duty" functions and collects a three per cent handling charge. Employees retain the remainder of the fee.

Retirement, age and pension funds

All police officers are covered by superannuation schemes. Such schemes variously provide income on retirement or a lump sum payment and/or an income. In the case of premature death of police employees, prescribed payments are made to their families. Some police agencies have their own pension scheme, ie, NSW, Q, SA. In others, employees are automatically enrolled in state government superannuation funds.

The contribution rates of members, age of retirement and pension on retirement are shown at Table 7.9.

The various superannuation systems vary greatly in their structure and it is difficult to generalise concerning them. As a general rule, though, the higher an officer's salary at retirement, the higher will be his or her pension. Some provision is made for late entrants, as shown at Table 7.10.

Most police employees unions, with varying degrees of cooperation from their respective governments, have attempted to achieve optional or early retirement for members. Not all such efforts have been successful. Table 7.11 outlines the conditions of optional and early retirement for police employees as well as their entitlements.

Even with the death of a police employee subsequent to retirement, the various superannuation schemes make provision for remaining family members. These benefits are shown at Table 7.12. Conditions applying to children placed in such circumstances are outlined at Table 7.13.

TABLE 7.9

OFFICERS' SUPERANNUATION CONDITIONS: BY AGENCY, 1983

agency	retirement age	contribution rate	pension on retirement										
NSW	60, Optional 55-60	6%	Av. of last 5 years Maximum 72.75% of salary at date of retirement										
V	60	Unit System to a maximum of 9% of salary	66-2/3rds of final salary at age 60										
Q	60 Compulsory, 55-60 Optional	<table><tr><th>Males</th><th>Females</th></tr><tr><td>19-20 yrs 2%</td><td>19-20 yrs 2%</td></tr><tr><td>20-25 yrs 7.5%</td><td>20-25 yrs 6.5%</td></tr><tr><td>25-35 yrs 8.0%</td><td>25-35 yrs 7.0%</td></tr><tr><td>35-60 yrs 8.5%</td><td>35-60 yrs 7.5%</td></tr></table>	Males	Females	19-20 yrs 2%	19-20 yrs 2%	20-25 yrs 7.5%	20-25 yrs 6.5%	25-35 yrs 8.0%	25-35 yrs 7.0%	35-60 yrs 8.5%	35-60 yrs 7.5%	Based on years of service with maximum 75% of annual salary for life - other options available
Males	Females												
19-20 yrs 2%	19-20 yrs 2%												
20-25 yrs 7.5%	20-25 yrs 6.5%												
25-35 yrs 8.0%	25-35 yrs 7.0%												
35-60 yrs 8.5%	35-60 yrs 7.5%												
WA	60	Unit system, contributions dependent on salary. Cost dependent on age next birthday	Approx 60% of retirement salary 1/6th may be commuted at rate of \$286.91 per \$, remainder residual pension										
SA	60, 55-60 voluntary	5.1%-6% depending on age of joining 21-30 years	Lump sum 150% last years salary 50% of annual salary for life - other options available										
T	<u>Police Regulations - 65, State Superannuation Act - 60, State Retirement Act - 60</u>	<u>Police Provident Fund - 7.5% Salary, State Superannuation Act - Unit System, State Retirement Benefit Act - 5.5% salary</u>	Members' cont + Interest + Govt contribution in lump sum. Maximum units approx 50% of salary 66-2/3rds of average salary last year of service										
NT	60 Compulsory 55-60 Optional	5% of salary	Return of all cont + Interest at age 60 years, with 40 years service 47.25%, age 55 and 30 years service 36%										
ACT	60 compulsory	5% of salary	Return of all cont + Interest at age 60 years, with 40 years service 45% of salary										
NZ	60	6% up to 13% depending on entry age	<table><tr><td>Years service</td><td></td><td>salary</td></tr><tr><td>00</td><td>x</td><td>1</td></tr></table>	Years service		salary	00	x	1				
Years service		salary											
00	x	1											

TABLE 7.10
EFFECTS OF LATE ENTRY ON SUPERANNUATION: BY AGENCY, 1983

agency	provisions
NSW	Reduced pension due to inability to attain higher rank and if one can't attain 30 yrs service, a scale also reduces the pension entitlement.
V	Minimum 30 years service for full pension. Pension reduced by 1/30th for every year under 30 years
Q	Option available to purchase additional service for maximum entitlements
WA	Provided member has a potential of 20 years service no loss occurs, a scale reduces pensions available if less than 20 years potential
SA	Entry cannot be any later than 30 years under regulations but, in special cases pension is reduced in accordance with contributions
T	Only persons affected are those in new Retirement Fund who must complete 40 years service for full pension. 1/60th is deducted for every year less than 40
NT	Provided member has potential 30 years service, no loss occurs. A scale reduces pension available if less than 30 years potential
ACT	Provided member has potential 30 years service, no loss occurs. A scale reduces pension available if less than 30 years potential
NZ	Reduced pension due to fewer years service

TABLE 7.11
OPTIONAL & EARLY RETIREMENT CONDITIONS: BY AGENCY, 1983

agency	provisions
NSW	55-60 55 years - 50.00% 58 years - 63.16% 56 years - 54.22% 59 years - 67.87% 57 years - 58.61% rises monthly, maximum at 59 yrs 11 mths is 72.34%
V	55 - Sergeant and below
Q	55 years of age 85% of Superannuation benefit
WA	Nil (changed in 1984 to 55 years - 100%)
SA	55-60 years 55 years - 60% 58 years - 83% 56 years - 68% 59 years - 92% 57 years - 75%
T	Provident fund members - 55 reduced sum, Superannuation - 55 reduced pension, Retirement benefit - 55 reduced pension
NT	As for pension
ACT	As for pension
NZ	Nil

TABLE 7.12
SPOUSES' ENTITLEMENTS ON DEATH OF RETIRED OFFICERS:
BY AGENCY, 1983

agency	provisions
NSW	Spouse receives 62.5% of contributor's pension
V	Spouse receives 66-2/3rds of contributor's pension
Q	Spouse receives 5/8ths of contributor's pension
WA	Spouse receives 22/35ths of contributor's pension
SA	Spouse receives lump sum of 2/3rds of contributor's original lump sum and pension of 2/3rds of the deceased's pension
T	Spouse receives 2/3rds of contributor's pension
NT	Spouse receives 67% of contributor's pension
ACT	Spouse receives 67% of contributor's pension
NZ	Spouse receives refund of contributions less those already paid or half of pensioner's annuity.

The conditions of remuneration applicable to police employees boarded out of the service are shown at Table 7.14. It will be noticed that only the police department of New South Wales distinguishes between boardings deriving from injuries sustained either on or off duty.

Adjustments to the various pension schemes are made periodically to offset inflation. Criteria concerning such adjustments are given at Table 7.15.

Police officers' entitlements to superannuation upon dismissal are shown at Table 7.16.

The Northern Territory government introduced a police supplementary pension scheme for police officers in July 1984.

TABLE 7.13

CONDITIONS APPLYING TO CHILDREN OF DECEASED PENSIONERS: CESSATION BY PENSION (1 parent)
BY PENSION (no parents) BY AGENCY, 1983

agency	cessation of child's pension	child's pension - 1 parent	child's pension - no parents										
NSW	18 years or on cessation of being a student	Allowance of \$26.20 per week as determined	Determined by Superannuation Board										
V	18 years, fulltime students 18-25 years	10% of pension per child (maximum 3 children), over 3 children 30% maximum	<table><thead><tr><th></th><th>% of Pension</th></tr></thead><tbody><tr><td>1 orphan</td><td>45%</td></tr><tr><td>2 orphans</td><td>80%</td></tr><tr><td>3 orphans</td><td>90%</td></tr><tr><td>4 or more</td><td>100%</td></tr></tbody></table>		% of Pension	1 orphan	45%	2 orphans	80%	3 orphans	90%	4 or more	100%
	% of Pension												
1 orphan	45%												
2 orphans	80%												
3 orphans	90%												
4 or more	100%												
Q	16 years, fulltime students 16-25 years	Allowance per fortnight per child as determined	Allowance per fortnight per child as determined										
WA	16 years, fulltime students 16-25 years	\$16 per fortnight for each child up to the age of 16 years or, 25 years if fulltime student	1-4 children widow's pension divided by 4, more than 4 children widow's pension divided by number of children + \$8, provided that each child's pension shall not be less than \$20										
SA	16 years, fulltime students 16-25 years	14.8% of deceased's pension	60% of deceased's pension										
T	Superannuates - 16 years, fulltime students 16-21 years	Superannuates - widow's pension and child's pension, Retirement Benefit - widow's pension and child's pension	Superannuates - \$600 per annum per child, Retirement Benefit - \$600 or 20% of widow's pension, whichever is greater										
NT	When child is no longer dependant - age has no bearing	Additional 11% of deceased pension for each child leading to maximum of 3 children. If living parent is pensioner, then no difference to pension for having children	<table><thead><tr><th></th><th>% of Pension</th></tr></thead><tbody><tr><td>1 orphan</td><td>45%</td></tr><tr><td>2 orphans</td><td>80%</td></tr><tr><td>3 orphans</td><td>90%</td></tr><tr><td>4 or more</td><td>100%</td></tr></tbody></table>		% of Pension	1 orphan	45%	2 orphans	80%	3 orphans	90%	4 or more	100%
	% of Pension												
1 orphan	45%												
2 orphans	80%												
3 orphans	90%												
4 or more	100%												
ACT	When child is no longer dependant - age has no bearing	Additional 11% of deceased pension for each child leading to maximum of 3 children. If living parent is pensioner, then no difference to pension for having children	<table><thead><tr><th></th><th>% of Pension</th></tr></thead><tbody><tr><td>1 orphan</td><td>45%</td></tr><tr><td>2 orphans</td><td>80%</td></tr><tr><td>3 orphans</td><td>90%</td></tr><tr><td>4 or more</td><td>100%</td></tr></tbody></table>		% of Pension	1 orphan	45%	2 orphans	80%	3 orphans	90%	4 or more	100%
	% of Pension												
1 orphan	45%												
2 orphans	80%												
3 orphans	90%												
4 or more	100%												
NZ	16 years, or 18 if a student	Allowance	Higher allowance										

TABLE 7.14
PENSIONER CONDITIONS: BY AGENCY, 1983

agency	provisions
NSW	Normal pension 72.75% of current pay up to 85% of pay if ability to obtain other work impaired. Up to 100% if injury arose from extreme risk and work ability impaired. If discharge not 100: up to 20 years service, 24 months pay - 20 years and over, pension to scale (20 years - 48.5%, 30 yrs - 72.75%)
V	70% of salary at discharge
Q	As per table 7.9
WA	Approximately 60% of salary, no provision for commutation of any portion of pension
SA	Pension same as age 60 years
T	Superannuation - full pension Retirement benefit - full pension
NT	70% of salary or 45% plus cash conversion or cash in lieu
ACT	70% of salary up to 72.5% after 40 years
NZ	Normal pension

TABLE 7.15
PENSION ADJUSTMENTS: BY AGENCY, 1983

agency	provisions
NSW	Annually according to CPI movement *
V	Annually according to CPI movement
Q	Annually according to CPI movement
WA	Annually according to CPI movement
SA	Quarterly according to CPI + 1.3%
T	Six monthly according to CPI movement
NT	Annually according to CPI movement but, only on the 45% comprising government's compulsory component of pension
ACT	Annually according to CPI movement but, only on the 45% comprising government's compulsory component of pension
NZ	Annually according to CPI movement

* CPI - consumer price index

TABLE 7.16

EMPLOYEES' SUPERANNUATION CONDITIONS ON DISMISSAL: BY AGENCY, 1983

agency	entitlements
NSW	Refund of contributions
V	Refund of contributions
Q	Refund of contributions
WA	Refund of contributions plus interest
SA	Refund of contributions, after 5 years service plus 3% interest
T	Refund of contributions
NT	The right to refuse refund is available but, generally, refund of contributions plus interest
ACT	Refund of contributions and interest
NZ	Refund of contributions

CHAPTER 8

ATTITUDES AND PROBLEMS

Public attitudes to police related phenomena are difficult to measure due to the conceptual complexity of the police function, to say nothing of the objectivity of individuals' perceptions. Indeed, it is probable that simple measures of police effectiveness are not possible. It may be that at the present moment apparent measurements of satisfaction with police are nothing but measurements of the quality of recent interactions with police officers or, perhaps, some other criminal justice official. There is a pressing need for detailed research in this area, as policy formulation is greatly incommoded by the lack of effective measurement data.

Just as public attitudes to various aspects of police are important so, too, are police attitudes to the public and the job they perform. This chapter presents data concerning attitudes and problems relevant to police.

Public attitudes to police

A number of surveys of public attitudes to police have been undertaken over the last decade.

Surveys of public opinion concerning honesty and ethical standards in selected occupations in Australia have been conducted by Morgan Gallup since 1976. Data so produced are shown at Table 8.1. It is interesting to notice variations over time within occupations as well as between occupations. The significantly greater regard in which police are held vis-a-vis lawyers is a matter of particular note. The consistently high regard in which medical practitioners are held is a telling comment on the enduring nature of occupational stereotypes.

Polls of police effectiveness have been conducted since 1973. Results of each survey are shown at Table 8.2. The showing of New South Wales and Queensland police relative to other agencies is of particular note, as is the recent decline in the perceived effectiveness of South Australian police - if that is what the poll in fact measures.

Two polls held just over a decade apart concerning public respect for police suggest substantial decreases in respect over the period, see Table 8.3. The extent of the decreases in respect of all states indicates a long term trend rather than perhaps a temporary phenomenon. Some observers of the police scene suggest that in addition to a possible perception of police agencies being increasingly unable to cope with certain social conditions, there is an erosion of middle class support for police as the criminal justice spotlight expands to include a social class not previously seriously subjected to sustained police attention. Breakdowns by income and occupational status are inconclusive on the point as in

TABLE 8.1

PUBLIC OPINION OF HONESTY & ETHICAL STANDARDS : STATE BY SELECTED OCCUPATIONS, 1976, 1979, 1981, 1983, 1984

Occupation	NSW					V					Q					WA					SA					T				
	1976	1979	1981	1983	1984	1976	1979	1981	1983	1984	1976	1979	1981	1983	1984	1976	1979	1981	1983	1984	1976	1979	1981	1983	1984	1976	1979	1981	1983	1984
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Bank manager	64	67	57	59	60	66	66	58	62	58	64	63	69	65	62	73	67	67	68	61	72	71	74	70	66	76	68	50	50	70
Doctor	60	62	61	61	62	63	66	65	68	63	64	61	61	64	65	70	53	60	59	69	59	63	67	72	69	64	59	60	58	61
Dentist	61	61	63	61	62	62	61	59	61	61	63	64	60	64	63	65	58	66	55	60	62	59	66	62	63	73	63	56	49	67
Teacher	56	54	53	55	53	52	48	48	51	49	55	61	72	63	58	61	53	59	57	60	55	58	57	52	58	76	64	57	53	71
Police	46	42	50	49	46	58	57	60	59	60	40	40	50	43	47	63	50	64	58	63	70	55	76	63	62	56	42	63	58	67
Uni lecturer	46	53	56	55	52	50	53	52	51	50	43	49	46	46	51	53	52	48	64	62	45	44	47	47	51	48	43	42	35	48
Lawyer	43	41	39	40	41	43	41	39	42	45	45	43	35	48	45	40	30	40	32	47	41	41	41	42	45	47	40	33	33	48
Politician (state)	21	23	18	21	17	21	18	17	25	19	19	8	13	13	17	27	24	23	21	19	25	26	12	22	17	14	17	6	4	20
Journalist	11	14	12	10	11	13	14	18	11	13	8	16	11	12	12	19	15	9	10	9	10	13	13	11	12	8	19	5	6	16
Union leader	8	7	7	10	8	11	10	8	8	7	9	6	9	5	7	10	8	10	9	4	5	9	7	4	7	11	9	5	-	4

% Percentage of sample responding either 'very high' or 'high' only

Source: Morgan Gallup Poll.

TABLE 8.2

PUBLIC PERCEPTIONS OF POLICE EFFECTIVENESS: BY STATE, 1973, 1976, 1979, 1982

Q. Do you feel that the police force in this state does a good job, a fair job or a poor job?

response	NSW				V				Q				WA				SA				T			
	73 %	76 %	79 %	82 %	73 %	76 %	79 %	82 %	73 %	76 %	79 %	82 %	73 %	76 %	79 %	82 %	73 %	76 %	79 %	82 %	73 %	76 %	79 %	82 %
good job	40	43	44	42	52	56	58	55	43	34	45	43	54	55	54	57	64	73	72	62	56	59	64	53
fair job	50	47	46	45	41	37	37	38	47	51	47	42	40	40	38	35	33	26	24	34	37	38	35	39
poor job	9	9	8	11	7	5	4	5	6	12	7	13	4	5	7	6	3	1	2	31	1	2	1	6
DK	1	1	2	2	-	2	1	2	4	3	1	2	2	-	1	2	-	-	2	1	6	1	-	-

Source: McNair Anderson

TABLE 8.3

PUBLIC RESPECT FOR POLICE: STATES BY PERCENTAGE CHANGE, 1967 & 1978

Q. And one about our police. How much respect do you have for the police -
a great deal - some - or hardly any?

response	year	NSW		V		Q		WA		SA		T	
		% response	% Increase decrease	% response	% Increase decrease	% response	% Increase decrease	% response	% Increase decrease	% response	% Increase decrease	% response	% Increase decrease
great deal of respect	1967	68.1	31.3	73.9	20.1	70.3	28.4	79.9	35.7	81.2	21.2	75.7	24.4
	1978	46.8	↓	58.9	↓	50.3	↓	51.4	↓	64.0	↓	57.2	↓
some	1967	27.3	48.0	22.5	52.9	24.4	47.5	15.3	148.4	15.4	75.3	19.6	86.7
	1978	40.4	↑	34.4	↑	36.0	↑	38.0	↑	27.0	↑	36.6	↑
hardly any	1967	4.6	147.8	3.6	36.1	5.3	88.7	4.7	97.9	3.0	115.1	4.7	23.4
	1978	11.4	↑	4.9	↑	10.0	↑	9.3	↑	7.1	↑	3.6	↓

Source: Morgan Gallup Poll

↑ = Increase

↓ = decrease

most categories high levels of respect for police dropped drastically right across the class spectrum. The greatest degree of disrespect for police still (as at 1978) seems to exist among urban manual workers but, respect for police varies little between white collar workers, self employed workers and manual workers.

Police standing and image

In his study of occupational status in Sydney, Athol Congalton (1968) ranked "policeman" sixty-fourth, just after "insurance agent" and immediately before "commercial traveller", in a total list of 134 occupations. Elsewhere in the same study he ranked "policemen" as 3 on a four part status list and 5 on a seven point scale. Congalton saw "policeman" as being in the upper half of the skilled worker category, immediately below "plumber, own business" and above "industrial foreman".

The late Art Niederhoffer (1969), realising that the functional/occupational "Police" label is too gross, ranked police captain, police lieutenant, police sergeant and police patrolmen together with 19 other occupations. Swanton and Wilson (1974) replicated Niederhoffer's rating with almost similar results. Considerable distinction was made in the rating of different police ranks. The rankings obtained in respect of prestige are shown at Table 8.4 and the rankings in respect of benefit to society are shown at Table 8.5

Ann Daniels (1981) found the class status of "policemen" was lower middle class. Dr Daniels felt that whilst police status appeared to be rising slowly, the phenomenon was most probably due to the declining status of other occupations; see Table 8.6.

A 1980 survey of public attitudes to incomes throughout the six states and the ACT indicated that 45 per cent of respondents agreed that "policemen", were paid about the right amount, whereas 33 per cent thought they were paid 'a bit too little.'

Police attitudes

Relatively few surveys have been taken of police attitudes and opinions. One survey of police officers in South Australia by Swanton (1974) suggested major problems perceived by members ranked as shown at Table 8.7. A major characteristic of the complaints offered, though, was not the depth of intensity experienced in respect of each grievance but the wide range of complaints held by a very small number of members.

A telephonic survey of police agencies conducted several years later by Swanton (1977) revealed a rather more general and less specific conception of problems confronting police. The major problems perceived by respondents, aggregated and classified according to organisational and functional categories, were as shown at Table 8.8. In New South Wales in 1979, police officers were surveyed by the state's Ethnic Affairs Commission. Attitudes and perceptions were requested in respect of a number of issues. With respect to police problems in contacts with Aborigines, see Table 8.9, the following responses were provided. Broken down by policy duty elements, responses to these problems showed as indicated at Table 8.10.

TABLE 8.4

SELECTED OCCUPATIONS RANKED BY PRESTIGE

1 = highest rank 23 = lowest rank

1. Doctor
2. Lawyer
3. Psychologist
4. Accountant
5. Superintendent of Police
6. Sociologist
7. Teacher
8. Inspector of Police
9. Lieutenant, Australian Army
10. Detective, Police
11. Farmer
12. Public Servant
13. Asio Agent
14. Police Sergeant
15. Private Enquiry Agent
16. Carpenter
17. Police Constable
18. Salesman
19. Plumber
20. Garage Mechanic
21. Clerk in a store
22. Private, Australia Army
23. Taxi Driver

TABLE 8.5

SELECTED OCCUPATIONS RANKED BY BENEFIT TO SOCIETY

1 = highest rank 23 = lowest rank

1. Doctor
2. Teacher
3. Farmer
4. Lawyer
5. Carpenter
6. Plumber
7. Accountant
8. Sociologist
9. Psychologist
10. Garage Mechanic
11. Superintendent of Police
12. Public Servant
13. Inspector of Police
14. Police Constable
15. Detective, Police
16. Police Sergeant
17. Taxi Driver
18. Clerk in a Store
19. Lieutenant, Australian Army
20. Salesman
21. Private, Australian Army
22. Asio Agent
23. Private Enquiry Agent

Source: Swanton & Wilson

TABLE 8.6
THE SOCIAL SCALE, 1981

Occupation	Social Opinion
UPPER CLASS	
Judge	stable
Cabinet Minister	stable
Medical Specialist	stable
Barrister	stable
Church Leader (Bishop, etc)	uncertain
University Professor	stable
General Practitioner	stable
Managing Director	rising
Army General	falling
UPPER MIDDLE CLASS	
Government Department Head	rising substantially
Architect	falling
Solicitor	stable
Parliamentarian	stable
Dentist	falling
Bank Manager	falling
Veterinary Surgeon	falling
School Principal	stable
Newspaper Editor	stable
Accountant	stable
Owner of Large Business	falling alarmingly
MIDDLE CLASS	
TV Producer	uncertain
Owner of Large Farm	falling rapidly
Grazier	falling rapidly
Works Manager	stable
Physiotherapist	falling steadily
Journalist	rising
Secondary School Teacher	falling
Social Worker	falling
Private Secretary	stable
Primary School Teacher	falling
Librarian	falling
Trained Nurse	stable
Air Hostess	stable
LOWER MIDDLE CLASS	
Electrician	rising steadily
Male Airline Steward	stable
Insurance Agent	falling
Foreman	stable
Senior Clerk	stable
Trade Union Secretary	very uncertain

TABLE 8.6

LOWER MIDDLE CLASS (Cont)		
Real Estate Agent		falling slowly
Policeman		rising slowly
Carpenter		rising slowly
Bank Teller		falling
Racing Jockey		rising spectacularly
Motor Mechanic		stable
Fitter and Turner		rising slowly
Disc Jockey		falling slowly
Printer		falling
Typist/Stenographer		falling
Undertaker		uncertain
Housewife		very uncertain
LOWER CLASS		
Bookie		uncertain
Butcher		stable
Bricklayer		rising slowly
Bus Driver		rising slowly
Taxi Driver		falling
Truck Driver		stable
Junior Clerk		falling rapidly
Storeman		stable
Barman		rising slowly
Debt Collector		uncertain
Shop Assistant		falling
Barmaid		rising slowly
Farm Laborer		falling
Petrol Station Attendant		falling
Office Cleaner		stable
Factory Worker		falling
Wharfie		stable
Massage Parlor Operative		uncertain
Unskilled Laborer		stable
Street Sweeper		rising slowly
Prostitute		uncertain

Source: Ann Daniels

TABLE 8.7

SA POLICE OFFICER PERCEPTIONS OF MAJOR PROBLEMS, 1974

1 = highest rank	9 = lowest rank
1. inadequate pay and/or allowances	
2. excessive paperwork	
3. incompetent commissioned officers	
4. inadequate equipment	
5. examination system	
6. lack of communication between functional elements	
7. excessive control	
8. substandard residential accommodation	
9. pinpricking by subordinates	

Source: Bruce Swanton

TABLE 8.8

POLICE PROBLEMS 1974

ORGANISATIONAL

- * unsatisfactory reporting procedures
- * inadequate selection standards
- * inadequate levels of funding

Functional

- * lack of clear definition of police goals & functions
- * constraint on criminal investigations
- * interference from environing occupations
- * biased media reporting
- * lack of public understanding of police sources
- * public opinion of police below desirable levels

Source: Bruce Swanton

TABLE 8.9

POLICE PROBLEMS IN CONTACTS WITH ABORIGINES, 1979

1 = highest rank

6 = lowest rank

1. Alcohol related
2. hostility, militancy, lack of cooperation
3. social
4. cultural
5. too much government assistance
6. fear, discrimination

Source: Ethnic Affairs Commission, NSW

TABLE 8.10

PERCEIVED PROBLEMS BY DUTIES, 1979

problem	GD	Traffic	Dets	Tech/Other
	%	%	%	%
alcohol related	27.0	11.1	28.1	6.8
hostility/militancy	22.9	14.8	30.7	22.7
social	12.9	3.9	8.8	11.4
cultural	6.3	2.5	7.0	6.8
too much govt asst	3.3	3.7	11.4	-
fear, discrimination	7.2	2.5	6.1	6.8

Source: Ethnic Affairs Commission, NSW

One study of police employee grievances involved the collection of substantially expressed complaints made within the various state police unions for a calendar year (Swanton 1983). It was not possible to identify the number of all grievances expressed or the intensity with which they were held by individual officers but, it was possible to comprehensively identify the types of grievances and classify them according to organisational dimensions, see Table 8.11. The Table suggests matters of concern to police officers qua members of police agencies occur mostly in the areas of administration, logistics and finance.

If it is dangerous to compare police officers' attitudes between the various states and territories, it is doubly dangerous to compare them cross nationally in conditions in which homogeneity is further reduced. One such study compared Queensland police officers and Newark, New Jersey, police officers (Lester, Lewis and Swanton, 1984) across three dimensions: (1) cynicism, (2) job satisfaction, and (3) locus of control. Details of this study are published at Part IV of this edition. Basically it was found that Queensland police officers overall were less cynical, more satisfied with their job and believed they were less subject to outside influences in the performance of their duty. This study was a subset of a wider study comparing police employees in America, Australia, Britain and Canada (Lester, Butler, Dalley, Lewis and Swanton, 1982).

A point of particular importance to police administrators is candidate motivation for joining a police agency. A non dated survey by Chappell and Wilson indicated considerations of economic security were prime motivations in seeking a police career, see Table 8.12.

Public attitudes to associated matters

Public attitudes to a range of issues are critical to sound public policy formulation and are therefore of interest to police, politicians and public administrators.

With respect to public attitudes to police functions, the prevention role was clearly perceived by South Australian respondents as pre-eminent, with detection following some way behind, see Table 8.13. A survey was conducted by New Zealand Police in South Auckland which sought inter alia to establish levels of public satisfaction with difficult police tasks as the perceived importance of those tasks, see Table 8.14.

A survey conducted in mainland state capitals in 1979 revealed some interesting variations to whether police should be granted additional powers to deal with law and order. Adelaide showed a strong willingness to accord police more power, whereas in Brisbane, although a larger proportion of respondents approved more power for police than those favouring a reduction, the percentage was far lower, see Table 8.15. Little difference was indicated between the percentages of Sydney, Melbourne and Perth respondents concerning increased police powers but, there were significant differences in the percentages of respondents advocating reduction in police powers.

TABLE 8.11

CLASSIFICATION OF POLICE EMPLOYEE GRIEVANCES

serial	sub categories		categories
1. (107 types)	health & safety (001-006)		
	discipline (007-011)		
	rights (012-029)	members (001-041)	
	dress (030-034)		personnel (001-057)
	relationships (035-039)		
	welfare (040-041)		
	exams (042-047)	careers (042-057)	administration (001-107)
	selection (048-057)		
		establishment (058-075)	
		organisation (058-096)	
2. (86 types)	postings & relieving (076-089)		
	shifts & rosters (090-096)	deployment (076-096)	
		procedures (097-107)	
	personal accom (108-111)		
	work accom (112-124)	real property (108-125)	
	vehicle accom (125)		
		clothing & personal (126-155)	
		issues	logistics (108-193)
		office & general (156-160)	
		supplies	
3. (54 types)	land transport (161-177)		
	air transport (178)	transport (161-178)	
		tech supplies (179-187)	
		armaments (188-191)	
		removals (192-193)	
	retirement (194-201)		
	insurance (202-206)		
	arbitration (207-208)		
	costs (209-211)		finance (194-247)
	leave (212-217)		
4. (36 types)	pay (218-219)		
	OT, allowances (218-242)		
	taxes (243-245)		
	police vote (246-247)		
		coord & coop (248-253)	
	crewina (254-257)		
	non police (258)	petrol (254-258)	
		technical (259-260)	operations (248-283)
		resources (261-267)	
		training & ed (268-279)	
5. (10 types)		control (280)	
		opposition (281)	
		security (282-283)	
		media criticism (284-289)	public affairs (284-293)
		publicity (288-293)	
6. (8 types)			legal (294-301)

Source: Bruce Swanton

TABLE 8.12

REASONS FOR JOINING POLICE: BY AGENCY, 1967

Q. Would you please list the three main reasons why you joined the police force in this state? Please list them in order of importance.

responses	Q %	T %	SA %
1. Pay and conditions of work	14	10	12
2. Opportunities of advancement	12	9	6
3. Security (personal future)	27	26	25
4. Interest in the work	13	5	18
5. Admiration for police, worthwhile work, etc.	12	10	14
6. Status, prestige, power	1	4	2
7. Lifelong ambition, always wanted to join	4	8	4
8. Other reasons	13	16	13
9. No answer	4	12	6
Total percentage	100	100	100
N	288	191	405

Table from: [1969] D Chappell and PR Wilson, The Police And The Public In Australia And New Zealand. St Lucia, UQ Press, p80.

Commercial surveys of public opinion concerning selected institutions in New Zealand have been conducted since 1975. Results are shown at Table 8.16.

Privacy remains a constant public issue in our increasingly automated society. A survey of citizens perceptions concerning privacy was conducted in 1981 and showed that police rated low on a select list of intruders into peoples' private lives, see Table 8.17.

Problems most affecting citizens were examined in 1982 across all states. Public fear of violent crime in all mainland states appeared significantly high, although less worrying generally than inflation, unemployment and industrial disputes, see Table 8.18. Victoria Police asked residents of Broadmeadows, in 1983, their major problems. Responses, shown at Table 8.19 provide an interesting list of citizen concerns at the local level.

In late 1978, Morgan Gallup Poll surveyed public opinion concerning the arming of police, see Table 8.20. Considerable variation was found between states but not within.

A 1982 international survey of human rights failed to take into account differences between Australian states and, apart from reference to Queensland's record in relation to unions and Aborigines, compared New Zealand and Australia as discrete polities with other countries. Among a select list of Pacific and

TABLE 8.13

PUBLIC ATTITUDES TO POLICE FUNCTIONS: GENDER BY AGE INTERVAL GROUP, SOUTH AUSTRALIA, 1974

Q. Below this is a list of police duties. Which one do you regard as most important? Which 2nd? Which 3rd?

		PREVENT			DETECT			SAFETY			PATROLS			TRAFFIC			PUBLIC RELATIONS			DON'T KNOW		
		1st	2nd	3rd	1st	2nd	3rd	1st	2nd	3rd	1st	2nd	3rd	1st	2nd	3rd	1st	2nd	3rd	1st	2nd	3rd
GOOD																						
Male	16-25	46	1	1	3	26	5	1	6	12	2	9	15	1	10	13	1	2	8	5	5	5
	26-39	14	3	1	2	9	2	0	5	3	2	1	9	2	0	1	0	1	3	1	2	2
	40+	40	9	4	6	21	6	1	7	5	7	9	20	2	8	13	1	4	6	2	1	5
Female	16-25	39	4	2	6	21	1	2	10	17	2	4	11	4	10	15	3	5	6	3	5	7
	26-39	45	6	4	3	21	8	9	13	10	1	9	19	1	8	14	3	5	8	9	9	8
	40+	68	15	5	15	32	8	7	22	21	7	14	31	4	14	29	7	9	9	10	12	15
BAD																						
Male	16-25	29	5	1	4	15	6	3	6	4	1	6	12	1	4	8	1	2	7	4	5	5
	26-39	19	12	2	1	5	2	4	3	6	1	3	9	3	5	4	3	3	8	0	0	0
	40+	51	6	5	3	27	4	5	9	17	2	5	20	4	11	10	5	9	13	1	4	2
Female	16-25	29	7	6	4	14	6	6	7	10	4	7	9	3	7	9	2	6	7	1	1	2
	26-39	58	3	6	3	31	5	1	15	17	1	7	20	1	10	11	6	4	10	2	2	3
	40+	89	17	1	4	37	13	9	20	42	8	10	34	8	21	9	5	15	19	1	4	6
TOTAL (frequencies)		527	88	38	54	259	66	48	123	164	38	84	209	34	108	136	37	65	104	39	50	60

Source: PDSA

NB: The categories "good" and "bad" refer to responses from areas considered to be either largely favorably or unfavorably disposed to police.

TABLE 8.14

PUBLIC SATISFACTION WITH POLICE PERFORMANCE OF SELECTED TASKS
& ASSESSMENT OF THEIR IMPORTANCE, 1983

Item	task	satisfaction %	Importance %
1.	catching professional criminals	78	92
2.	prevent crime	80	92
3.	catch hard drug takers	68	84
4.	catch drinking drivers	68	74
5.	dealing with children	72	66
6.	helping lost people	83	63
7.	retrieving stolen property	62	52
8.	controlling crowds	85	51
9.	settling family rows	49	18

Source: PFNZ (South Auckland Community Services Survey)

TABLE 8.15

PUBLIC ATTITUDES TO POLICE POWERS:
BY MAINLAND STATE CAPITAL CITIES, 1979

Q. Do you think police should have more power or less to deal with law and order?

response	Sydney %	Melbourne %	Brisbane %	Adelaide %	Perth %
More power	52.2	52.7	37.6	77.8	57.3
Less power	13.8	20.4	25.9	8.5	9.4
Same	10.1	1.5	18.7	3.4	18.2
Don't know	16.9	25.4	17.8	10.3	15.2

Source: Spectrum Research

TABLE 8.16

PUBLIC TRUST & CONFIDENCE IN INSTITUTIONS, NEW ZEALAND,
1975, 1979, 1981, 1982

Institution	75	79	81	82
education system	35.4	24.6	26.2	25.5
churches	31.4	32.4	32.0	30.7
police force	63.9	59.5	53.9	55.3
manufacturers	16.2	13.4	14.6	12.8
medical profession	65.8	62.6	60.2	58.5
public service	26.1	20.2	20.5	16.2
courts	-	-	39.9	37.6
supreme court	58.4	54.9	-	-
trade unions	8.8	10.3	10.8	9.9
parliament	32.6	-	14.4	13.5
employers	32.4	27.9	30.0	26.2
legal profession	44.6	39.5	34.8	35.8

Source: Haylen Poll

TABLE 8.17

PRIVACY SURVEY, AUSTRALIA, 1981

invasion of privacy due to	a great extent %	a small extent %	total extent %
credit bureau	47	20	67
insurance companies	33	34	67
government bureau	33	34	67
employers	18	48	66
door-to-door salesmen	29	32	61
press/other media	33	26	59
banks	24	35	59
police	20	39	59

Source: Bennett Research Pty Ltd

TABLE 8.18
PROBLEM PUBLIC MOST CONCERNED ABOUT: BY STATE, 1982

Problem	NSW %	V %	Q %	SA %	WA %	T %
Poverty	4	3	5	2	5	-
Violent Crimes	13	19	14	20	11	5
Education	7	8	7	3	8	11
Inflation	16	13	20	17	18	12
Family breakup	6	6	7	7	9	4
Unemployment	17	24	20	34	21	28
Industrial disputes	18	11	8	7	15	13
Road toll	8	5	9	3	2	8
Pollution/environment	4	4	2	3	7	8
Energy	1	1	2	-	1	2
Defense	1	1	2	0	2	2
Apathy	3	3	4	2	3	6
DK	5	3	3	3	1	5

Source: McNair Anderson

TABLE 8.19

Q. 'What, in your mind, are the major problems in this area concerning crime and police?'

rank order	specific offense/nuisance	%
1.	Vandalism	24.4
2.	Juveniles roaming streets unsupervised, particularly at night. Also congregating in gangs	22.1
3.	Stealing/housebreaking	12.9
4.	Ease of juvenile access to alcohol, alcohol abuse by juveniles	9.9
5.	Mini bike noise, illegally riding in streets & parks	8.6
6.	Speeding cars and trucks, irresponsible driving	5.6
7.	Youths on trains terrorising travellers	4.0
8.	Juveniles congregating around shops, drinking & frightening people	3.6
9.	Bashings & fighting	3.3
10.	Abusive, foul language from juveniles	3.0
11.	Arson	1.3
12.	Drugs	1.0
13.	Glue sniffing	0.3
N = 303		100.0

Source: PDV

TABLE 8.20

PUBLIC ATTITUDES TO ARMING OF POLICE, ALL STATES, 1978

response	NSW %	V %	Q %	WA %	SA %	T %
always armed	62	45	40	24	42	28
only on special duty	31	49	51	60	50	60
never armed	4	4	7	15	6	6
undecided	3	2	2	1	2	6

Source: Morgan Gallup Poll

Asian countries, Australia ranked joint second behind New Zealand. This comparison is relevant in that police coerciveness was included in the construction of the scale, see Table 8.21.

Polls can be useful to police in ascertaining public opinion concerning services supplied in specific locations. A 1979 survey conducted by Victoria Police in order to check public perceptions of sufficiency of police services in Melbourne revealed some interesting responses, see Table 8.22. Data of this kind are essential for police policy formulators.

A later poll was conducted in Victoria by the research section of the Minister Of Police and Emergency Services on behalf of the Committee of Inquiry into Victoria Police. The survey studied working relationships of police and community welfare agencies. It was a comprehensive study, revealing a great deal of information. One of the major findings related to the satisfaction of welfare agencies with their working relationships with police. These data are shown at Table 8.23.

Conclusion

Opinion polling has many traps in terms of method and consistency but it does possess the great virtue of gratifying views that are otherwise no more than "hunches". Thus, although they should be treated with reserve, attitude surveys are an extremely important tool for police planners and administrators and will be used more frequently by them in the future as their utility is increasingly appreciated.

Caution especially requires to be exercised with inter-state or national data as demographic, social and economic variations involve the measurement of unlike phenomena. Comparisons should be confined to intra agency data over time.

TABLE 8.21

HUMAN RIGHTS RATING, SELECTED COUNTRIES, 1982

posn	country	score*
1.	New Zealand	96
2.	Australia	93
2.	Papua New Guinea	93
4.	Japan	92
5.	Hong Kong	86
6.	Sri Lanka	75
7.	India	70
8.	Thailand	64
9.	Singapore	61
10.	Malaysia	54
11.	Indonesia	53
11.	Taiwan	53
13.	Philippines	52
14.	South Korea	51
15.	Pakistan	42
16.	China	32
17.	Vietnam	29

* points out of one hundred.

Source: 1983. HUMANA Charles. World Human Rights Guide.
London: Hutchinson.

TABLE 8.22

RESIDENTS' OPINIONS OF THE SUFFICIENCY OF POLICE DUTIES IN MELBOURNE, 1979
(n = 407)

duty	far too much	a bit too much	about right	not quite enough	not nearly enough	don't know
patrolling in cars	1.0	2.9	32.7	43.0	11.8	8.6
crime investigation	-	0.2	35.6	16.0	5.4	42.8
helping & advising young people	0.2	-	25.3	26.3	11.6	36.6
checking motorists	2.2	7.9	38.8	20.4	12.3	18.4
enforcing drink/driving laws	0.2	1.0	29.7	25.6	19.2	24.3
patrolling on foot	0.2	0.7	15.7	38.4	34.9	10.1
enforcing liquor licensing, <u>eg</u> hotel closing hours	0.7	2.9	41.6	10.3	6.4	38.1
preventing under age drinking	0.2	1.5	21.1	22.9	20.4	33.9
enforcing drug laws	2.5	1.7	24.3	19.2	17.9	34.4

Source: PDV (Prahran Patrol Evaluation)

TABLE 8.23
 LEVEL OF SATISFACTION OF COMMUNITY WELFARE AGENCIES
 REGARDING THEIR WORKING RELATIONSHIP WITH POLICE, 1984

level of satisfaction	%
very satisfied	20.0
satisfied	40.9
neutral, no opinion	12.6
varies	5.6
dissatisfied	9.3
very dissatisfied	2.3
no contact	4.7
no answer	4.7

Source: Ministry for Police & Emergency Services, Victoria

CHAPTER 9

RANKS, UNIFORMS AND WEAPONS

Garry Hannigan
Senior Constable
Queensland Police

Rank titles

Rank titles employed by the various police agencies of Australasia are generally similar. Minor variations reflect differences of style and scale. The various rank titles are shown at Table 9.1.

The three major distinctions in police agency rank structures are: (1) commissioned officer, (2) non-commissioned officer, ie, various grades of Sergeant, and (3) Constable. Disregarding specialists (including the provision of separate rank titles for technicians and specialists in Queensland Police) the three distinctions roughly equate to management, supervisors and workers. The proportions of these various groupings in each agency are shown at Table 3.8. For the most part, members of each agency commence as Constables and work their way up through the various ranks. An appreciation of the need to modify this hierarchical form of career structure is presently taking place and innovations can be expected in this respect over the next few years.

Uniforms

As with rank titles, a broad degree of similarity exists in respect of police uniforms throughout New Zealand and Australia.

Most police officers are issued with uniforms although, naturally, some officers are required to work in plain clothes. Departmental designs vary somewhat but apart from tropical and subtropical areas, shades of blue predominate. Embellishments vary according to state and territory heraldry and preference.

Each Police Force has a winter and summer uniform. This is a relatively recent phenomenon; until the sixties, the only concession to summer heat was a lightweight uniform. Nowadays, short sleeved and open necked shirts are utilised in summer in most agencies, whereas tunics are worn in winter. Some departments, eg, South Australia, also provide a patrol jacket.

Commissioned officers wear slightly different uniforms, taking into account rank differences. Their basic uniform is similar with badges of rank and cap visor braid accounting for the major differences.

Professional etiquette

All non-commissioned police officers are required to salute

TABLE 9.1
POLICE RANK TITLES : BY AGENCY, 1984

NSW	V	Q	WA	SA	T	NT	ACT	NZ
Commissioner	Chief Commissioner	Commissioner	Commissioner	Commissioner	Commissioner	Commissioner		Commissioner
Deputy Commissioner	Deputy Commissioner	Deputy Commissioner	Deputy Commissioner	Deputy Commissioner	Deputy Commissioner	Deputy Commissioner		Deputy Commissioner
Assistant Commissioner	Assistant Commissioner	Assistant Commissioner	Assistant Commissioner	Assistant Commissioner	Assistant Commissioner	Assistant Commissioner	Assistant Commissioner	Assistant Commissioner
Executive Chief Superintendent	Commander		Senior Chief Superintendent	Senior Chief Superintendent				Deputy Assistant Commissioner
Chief Superintendent	Chief Superintendent	Superintendent 1/G	Chief Superintendent	Chief Superintendent	Chief Superintendent		Chief Superintendent	Chief Superintendent
Superintendent 2/G								
Superintendent	Superintendent	Superintendent 3/G	Superintendent	Superintendent	Superintendent	Superintendent	Superintendent	Superintendent
Senior Inspector	Chief Inspector	Inspector 1/G	Senior Inspector	Chief Inspector		Chief Inspector	Chief Inspector	
Inspector 2/G								
Inspector	Inspector	Inspector 3/G	Inspector	Inspector	Inspector	Inspector	Inspector	Inspector
Sergeant 1/C	Senior Sergeant	Senior Sergeant	Sergeant 1/G	Senior Sergeant	Senior Sergeant	Sergeant 1/C	Station Sergeant	Senior Sergeant
Sergeant 2/C		Sergeant 1/G	Sergeant 2/G			Sergeant 2/C	Senior Sergeant	
Sergeant 3/C	Sergeant	Sergeant 2/G	Sergeant 3/G	Sergeant	Sergeant	Sergeant 3/C	Sergeant	Sergeant
Sergeant 3/G								
Senior Constable	Senior Constable	Senior Constable	Senior Constable	Senior Constable 1/G	Senior Constable	Senior Constable	Senior Constable	
Senior Constable								
Constable 1/C		Constable 1/C	Constable 1/C	First Class Constable	First Class Constable 1/G	Constable 1/C	First Constable	
First Class Constable 2/G								
Constable	Constable	Constable	Constable	Constable	Constable	Constable	Constable	Constable

Sources: Police department annual reports and departmental spokespersons.

commissioned officers. At least that is the rule but, in some Forces the practice has diminished as collegial attitudes develop. There is no requirement for non-commissioned ranks to salute each other, as in some European and American police agencies.

In all Police Forces commissioned officers wear mess dress for formal evening occasions. Retired commissioned officers in some states are also permitted to wear their mess dress with the letter 'R' (for retired) on their epaulettes.

Police officers of all ranks are able to wear service medals on formal occasions. When in general working uniform, ribbons only are worn, displayed on the left breast. There are a number of police service medals issued to police. There is firstly the Imperial Long Service and Good Conduct medal, issued after 22 years of service. The Nation medal is issued after 15 years service and the Queen's Police Medal may be awarded to recommended members. The latter is the most difficult to obtain, with usually only two or three a year issued to each Police Force. In Victoria, police may be awarded the department's own Police Medal for gallantry. All police commissioners issue "favorable records", "commendations" and the like, to officers performing their duty in an exemplary fashion and/or with distinction.

The practice of a departmental funeral is still observed in most forces for police officers killed in the line of duty.

Some police forces have a departmental flag.

Weapons

Weaponry has assumed a larger profile in police circles in recent years. This increased profile is associated with the growing sophistication of police internal security groups (discussed at Chapter 15) in recent years. Rifles, shotguns, tear smoke projectors, etc, are now held by all Police Forces.

The baton and, in some cases, a pistol are the weapons normally available to police officers routinely pursuing their duties. The make and caliber of pistols varies between agencies and within agencies over time. Policies regarding the use of pistols also varies between agencies. Brief details are provided below:

New South Wales: all police are armed with handguns on duty.

Victoria: all detectives carry handguns on duty; all uniformed personnel carry handguns on patrol.

Queensland: following industrial action, police officers were permitted from 1973 to decide for themselves whether to wear handguns whilst on duty. Now, most police officers do so. Standard utility belts are provided for the carriage of firearms on public view.

Western Australia: detectives carry handguns when on duty, uniformed men carry handguns whilst on night patrol.

South Australia: detectives are issued with a personal handgun and carry it when on duty. Traffic and mobile patrol personnel receive a pistol issue each shift and carry them throughout their shift. As a general rule foot patrol officers in both 'sensitive' and 'non-sensitive' areas carry concealed firearms.

Tasmania: most detectives routinely carry a handgun on duty but uniformed personnel generally do not carry firearms unless, of course, special circumstances warrant their temporary issue.

Northern Territory: practice in the Northern Territory is similar to that obtaining in Queensland but with less control inasmuch as personal rather than official issue firearms are frequently carried.

Australian Capital Territory: practice in Australian Capital Territory is similar to that obtaining in Victoria.

New Zealand: carrying of handgun is discretionary at two officer stations. Detectives carry pistols at their discretion on night patrol.

In addition to the foregoing, the carriage of shotguns in police vehicles, sometimes in the absence of official approval, is said to be increasing in certain agencies. This increased concern by police officers for improved personal protection reflects in part a perception among street police officers in major cities of increased use of violence by offenders.

Use of deadly force

The law applicable to the use of deadly force when effecting arrests depends on the nature of arrest being attempted. There are two basic types of apprehension, *ie*, 'confrontation' and 'fugitive' arrests. The former involves direct physical resistance, and the latter, flight.

In confrontation arrests, the guiding common law principle is that of 'minimum force'. The logic of the principle is that if a person is killed in the course of a struggle whilst being arrested, *ie*, a confrontation arrest, as a consequence of the use of reasonable force, the killing would be justified. However, the use of greater force by police than is reasonably necessary in the effecting of an arrest is unlawful. In practice, police officers in such circumstances must have reason to believe their lives are in real and immediate danger.

With respect to fugitive arrests, the common law provides that, if arrestees are attempting to avoid arrest by flight, they may be killed so long as they are wanted for treason or felony and an arrest could not be made by any other means.

However, states with Criminal Codes have moved slightly away from the common law position. The Codes require that where police officers seek to arrest persons, and such persons take flight, police officers will only be justified in using force likely to cause death or grievous bodily harm when the arrest is for a crime punishable by death or by life imprisonment and where no other means of apprehension are available.

In addition to these legal considerations, there is a view in some police administrations and amongst many police officers that in circumstances in which fleeing offenders are responsible for property offences only, resort should not be made to firearms.

CHAPTER 10

PROMOTION PROCEDURES IN STATE AND TERRITORY POLICE FORCES

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The aim of this brief chapter is to outline the various eligibility criteria obtaining in police forces throughout the Federation as well as approximate periods of service necessary to qualify for promotion. These data are displayed in the following Tables, 10.1, 10.2 and 10.3.

The stark data revealed in the Tables do not entirely reflect differences of style and practice in the various agencies. For example, periods of service completed before attaining a rank are approximate only and actual promotion criteria have been barely outlined. Although most forces administer examinations for the attainment of rank, some forces also conduct Classification Boards, some take into account seniority while other use a merit system. For reasons of space this chapter does not comprehensively explore such requirements, or the content of the requisite examinations.

Another issue worthy of deeper consideration but which is not expanded upon here is the composition of Classification Boards or, as they are also known, Selection or Promotion Panels. It might be argued the present practice of limiting membership of these bodies to police with operational experience might be questionable when considerations regarding the psychological and medical suitability of applicants for certain positions can have serious implications for public safety.

As will be seen from the following tables, considerable variation exists between States concerning: (1) duration of basic training, (2) eligibility to sit promotional examinations and, (3) period of service estimated before promotion.

Additionally, it will be noted promotion to certain ranks is automatic in certain cases but, generally, where no examinations have been taken promotional opportunities are inhibited. On the other hand, members eager for promotion appear to have more positively defined career pathways by undertaking eligibility examinations as soon as their period of service allows.

These matters are dealt with in greater detail in a study entitled Police Recruitment And Training In Australia - A Comparative Analysis, which was undertaken by the Research Section of the Ministry for the Committee of Inquiry in April 1984.

TABLE 10.1

SUMMARY GUIDE TO PROMOTIONAL STRUCTURES

period of service	conditions	NSW	V	Q	WA	SA	T	NT	ACT
(weeks)	<u>BASIC TRAINING</u>								
17					X				
49									X
50-52								X	
52				X					
54		X							
87			X						
102						X			
104							X		
(years)	<u>PROMOTION TO CONSTABLE 1/C</u>								
5	Subject to satisfactory service and passing examinations				X				
	<u>CONSTABLE ELIGIBLE TO SIT FOR PROMOTION EXAMINATION TO SENIOR CONSTABLE OR EQUIVALENT</u>								
2 *	May sit examination for promotion to Constable 1st Class	X							
2 *	May sit examination for promotion to Senior Constable		X				X**		
3 *	May sit examination for promotion to Constable 1st Class					X			
4 *	May sit examination for promotion to Constable 1st Class			X					
	<u>AUTOMATIC PROMOTION TO SENIOR CONSTABLE OR EQUIVALENT</u>								
4	subject to satisfactory service	X				X		X***	X***
10			X						
	<u>APPROXIMATE LENGTH OF SERVICE BEFORE CONSTABLES WILL BE PROMOTED TO SENIOR CONSTABLE OR EQUIVALENT</u>								
5	5 to 8 years (Tasmania)		X****				X		
7 to 10	(if passed examinations)			X					X
9	If passed examination				X	X			
10	If not sat examinations							X	
	<u>PERIOD OF SERVICE, SUBJECT TO PASSING EXAMINATIONS BEFORE PROMOTION TO SERGEANT</u>								
4+								X	
6+									X
8-12			X						
11-18							X		
13-18				X					
13-20					X				
16-24		X							
18						X			
	<u>PROMOTION TO SENIOR SERGEANT OR EQUIVALENT SUBJECT TO PASSING EXAM</u>								
14+									X
15-22				X					
17			X						
21						X			
26-27		X							
27					X				
	<u>PROMOTION TO INSPECTOR</u>								
16+									X
20			X						
21+						X			
22+				X					
30		X							
30+					X				

* period after confirmation of appointment.

** upon passing upgraded to Constable 1/C.

*** provided examination for promotion to Sergeant 3/C has been passed.

**** if passed examinations.

TABLE 10.2
DURATION OF RECRUIT TRAINING

agency	basic training	operational phase	refresher phase	total number of weeks from commencement of training to confirmation as Constable
NSW	12 weeks initial training at Police Academy*	36 weeks probationary training. The first six weeks of which is spent in a "Buddy Training" system	6 weeks secondary training at Police Academy	54 weeks
V	18 weeks basic training at Police Academy	66 weeks "on the job" training	4 weeks continuation training	88 weeks
Q	Adults: 24 weeks initial training at Police Academy	48 weeks "on the job" training	4 weeks advanced training course	76 weeks
	Cadets: 18 months training at Police Academy	48 weeks "on the job" training	4 weeks advanced training course	min 2 1/2 years
WA	17 weeks **			
SA	50 weeks recruit training at Police Academy	52 weeks probationary training		102 weeks
T	44 weeks training at both the Police Academy and in operational areas, 60 weeks probationary training			104 weeks
NT	15 weeks in classroom	26 - 28 weeks work experience in operational areas of the Force	9 weeks in the classroom	50 - 52 weeks
ACT	20 weeks recruit training at Police College	1 week local procedures course	28 weeks continuation training program which combines operational experience and written assignments	49 weeks

* New South Wales proposes that this course will be increased to 16 weeks.

** Extension studies (Phase 1) can be completed over a period of five years at own pace.

TABLE 10.3

PERIOD OF SERVICE PRIOR TO PROMOTION - CONSTABLE - SENIOR CONSTABLE (OR EQUIVALENT) -
SERGEANT - SENIOR SERGEANT

Agency (a)	Constable (b)	Senior Constable (or equivalent) (c)	Sergeant (d)	Senior Sergeant (e)
NSW	2 YEARS after confirmation of appointment eligible for Constable 1/C promotional examination	After 2 YEARS Constable 1/C is eligible for Sergeant 3/C promotional examination After 4 YEARS automatically promoted to Senior Constable rank Senior Constable must pass Sergeant 3/C examination before obtaining this rank	After 2 YEARS service Sergeant 3/C is eligible for Sergeant 1/C examination After (approx) 8 YEARS on previous rank becomes a Sergeant 2/C	2-3 YEARS after service on previous rank, and provided passed promotional examination becomes a Sergeant 1/C
Time Span	6 to 9 Years	16 to 24 Years.....	26 to 27 Years.....
V	After 2 YEARS as a Constable eligible for promotional examination to Senior Constable	Eligible to sit promotional examination for Sergeant as soon as promoted to rank of Senior Constable. Subject to passing examination attends Classification Board and then promoted to Sergeant, subject to classification and vacancies	Upon promotion to Sergeant eligible to sit Senior Sergeant examination. Promotion subject to classification and vacancies	May sit for Officer's Examination when promoted to Senior Sergeant. Promotion subject to classification and vacancies
Time Span	5 Years.....	9 to 12 Years.....	17 Years
O	After 4 YEARS a Constable is eligible for Constable 1/C promotional examination	Constables 1/C are upgraded to Senior Constable upon completion of 3 subjects of Advanced Studies (7 years) or by passing examination for rank of Sergeant 2/C (10 years) Senior Const who have completed the Sergeant examinations are eligible for promotion (10 to 15 years) Senior Constable not promoted to Sergeant 2/C, after 15 years are promoted to Sergeant 3/C provided they have passed Sergeant 2/C examination	Sergeant 2/C eligible for 1st Class examination Promotion follows 2-4 years	Sergeant 1/C eligible for Senior Sergeant examination. Promotion follows after 2-4 years
Time Span	..4 Years.....	7 to 10 Years) Two 'streams', 10 to 15 Years) see above	13 to 18 Years.....	15 to 22 Years.....
WA	After 5 YEARS as a Constable and satisfactory completion of courses promoted to Constable 1/C	Eligible to sit promotional examinations for Senior Constable upon promotion to Constable 1/C. Senior Constable qualified for promotion to Sergeant 3/C (except for NCO course) to be taken within 12 months of anticipated promotion to Sergeant 3/C	Upon passing promotion exam Sergeants 3/C are eligible for promotion to Sergeant 2/C	After 7 YEARS service on previous rank and provided promotion exams passed, promoted to Sergeant 1/C
Time Span	9 to 14 years.....	21 years.....	28 years.....

(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
SA	3 YEARS after confirmation of appointment Constable is eligible for I/C Constable examination	After 4 YEARS service a I/C Constable is automatically promoted to Senior Constable Senior Constable is eligible for same rank, I/C if, he passes the core subjects of the Police Studies Certificate A member who has completed 5 core subjects of the Police Studies Certificate may apply for the NCO Course	Promoted to Sergeant upon completion of NCO Course	After 5 YEARS service as a Sergeant, and subject to having passed the Police Studies Certificate promoted to Senior Sergeant
Time Span	.. 3 years.....9 years.....18 years.....21 years.....			
T	2 YEARS after confirmation of appointment Const. is eligible for Senior Constable promotion examination. Upon passing examination upgraded to I/C Constable	I/G Constable eligible for promotion to Senior Constable (5 to 8 years). Senior Constable is eligible for promotion to Sergeant 3 to 5 years after passing promotion examinations for rank of Sergeant	Senior Constable promoted to rank of Sergeant 3/G, and those who fulfill selection criteria may be promoted to rank of Sergeant 2/G after three to five years	After promotion to Sergeant 2/G officers may sit for examinations for promotion to the rank of Inspector and are eligible for promotion to rank of Sergeant 1/G
Time Span	.. 4 years.....5 to 8 years.....8 to 13 years.....11 to 18 years.....			
NI	4 YEARS after satisfactory service Constable is promoted to Constable I/C (No examination)	After 10 years satisfactory service a Constable I/C is promoted automatically to Senior Constable Constable can be promoted to Senior Constable provided he has passed the examination for promotion to Sergeant 3/G and has completed 4 years service	Eligibility to sit for examinations: Sergeant 3/C Sergeant 2/C Sergeant 1/C	3 years service Passed examination for promotion to Sergeant 3/C Passed examination for promotion to Sergeant 2/C
Time Span (Non-examination Promotion)	Constable Constable I/C4 years service....Constable I/C to Senior Constable....10 years service.			
	(By examination) Constable shall be promoted to Senior Constable provided passed examination for promotion to Sergeant 3/C and completion of 4 years service.			
ACT	After 4 YEARS satisfactory service Constable is promoted First Constable. Member then eligible to sit Senior Constable Proficiency examination	Upon suitable assessment and qualification by examination, members may be advanced to Senior Constable. Then eligible to sit for Sergeant's promotion examination After 10 years service advanced to Senior Constable subject to satisfactory service, but not permitted to sit for Sergeant's promotion examination	Having passed exam member may apply for any gazetted vacancy for this rank. Promotion is not automatic but is based on assessment and recommendation Sergeants may sit Station Sergeant's exam. May apply for Senior Sergeant, but not automatic	Persons qualified for rank of Station Sergeant may apply for vacancy to that rank. Promotion not automatic
Time Span (Non-examination Promotion)	.. 10 Years Constable to Senior Constable, cannot sit examination for promotion to Sergeant.			
	(By Examination) .. 4 Years Constable to First Constable....6 Years to Senior Constable....6 Years to Sergeant....10-14 Years to Station Sergeant ...14+ Years Station Sergeant to Senior Sergeant.			

CHAPTER 11

TRAINING AND EDUCATION

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Inspector
Tasmania Police

The subject of police training is dynamic, with curricula being refined and enlarged almost weekly. Although for long neglected compared with training, police education is now emerging into the limelight as one of the major police administration preoccupations for the remainder of the 80s at least.

This chapter is confined to the precise situation obtaining in the various states and the Northern Territory at the time of writing. Inevitably, by the time it reaches the reader's gaze some portions will have been superseded. Even so, readers will be able to form a comprehensive and reasonably accurate overview of police training and education in 1984 through perusing this chapter.

New South Wales

1. Basic training

- a. Adult recruit course.
 - (1) Twelve (12) weeks duration.
 - (2) Male and female trainees.
 - (3) Age limit 19 - 33 years.
 - (4) Most training is vocational, some behavioral studies are conducted. There is no other education content.
 - (5) Recruit Training is broken down as follows:
 - (A) Twelve (12) weeks in Academy
 - (B) Nine (9) months in the field.
 - (C) Six (6) weeks at the Academy.
 - (6) Courses are inducted every six (6) weeks each with fifty four (54) students; a total of four hundred and thirty two recruits each year.
 - (7) NSW had a Cadet Training System from 1930 to the end of 1970 when it was phased out.
 - (8) A proposal has gone forward to have the initial Recruit Course extended to sixteen (16) weeks.

2. In-Service training

- a. Most In-Service training is conducted at either 619 Elizabeth Street, Redfern or, the Union Carbide Building, Liverpool Street, Sydney.
- b. Some other In-Service training is conducted by specialist branches at various other venues.
- c. The broad areas of In-Service training are:-
 - (1) Development courses.
 - (2) Detective training.
 - (3) Specialist training.
 - (4) Driver training.
 - (5) Firearms training.
- d. Development training
 - (1) 1/C Constable Course - 4 weeks
After 7 years service
 - (2) Sergeant 3/C Course - 4 weeks
Six years later
 - (3) Senior Sergeant Course - 7 weeks
After appointment to Sgt 1/C
 - (4) Inspectors Course - 3 weeks
Immediately after promotion
 - (5) Senior Executives Course - 2 weeks
On a needs basis - for Superintendents.
- e. Detective training
 - (1) Potential Investigators Course - 4 weeks
Students complete modules in their own time.
 - (2) Detective designation - 4 weeks
 - (3) Arson awareness - 1 week
 - (4) Commercial crime Course - 3 weeks
 - (5) Criminal assault complaints course - 1 week
- for policewomen.
- f. Specialist training
 - (1) Traffic Control conduct regular courses for radar operators, BA operators and traffic personnel generally.
 - (2) Special Weapons and Operations Squad conducts regular one week courses for squad members - some Interstate police are invited to attend these courses.
- g. Driver training
 - (1) Conducted at St Ives.
 - (2) Staffed by one Sergeant and 20 others.
 - (3) Courses include -
 - (1) basic driving - 1 week
 - (2) advanced driving - 2 weeks
 - (3) high speed pursuit course - 2 weeks
 - (4) Some AFP and Military personnel are occasionally included on driving courses.

- h. Firearms training
 - (1) Basic during initial training.
 - (2) Range supervisors travel to centres to conduct regular practices.

3. Higher education

- a. Currently in NSW, there are three Colleges of Advanced Education that offer police relevant Associate Diploma courses. Some other Technical Colleges have developed supervision courses designed to meet the needs of police students.
- b. The Mitchell College of Advanced Education
 - (1) Located at Bathurst.
 - (2) Offers an 18 unit Associate Diploma in Justice Administration by external study.
 - (3) External students can complete the course in a minimum of four and one half years.
 - (4) A one week residential requirement each semester is compulsory.
 - (5) The course is recognised by the NSW Police Department and the NSW Department of Corrective Services as a criterion for promotion.
 - (6) Credits for the course may be granted.
 - (7) Course Structure -
 - (A) Bridging Units (Taken by all Students)
 - Research and Reading Skills.
 - Research Skills and Report Writing.
 - (B) Core Units (Taken by all students)
 - Introduction to Psychology.
 - Introduction to Sociology.
 - Criminal Justice Systems I
 - Understanding Work Organisations.
 - Psychology in Law Enforcement I.
 - Psychology in Law Enforcement II.
 - Sociology of Crime and Deviance I.
 - Sociology of Crime and Deviance II.
 - Human Relations.
 - Human Resources Management.
 - Public Administration IA.
 - (C) Strand Units for Police Officers.
 - Criminal Law and Process.
 - Evidence and Procedure.
 - Political Studies I.
 - Australian Police systems.
 - (8) Admission requirements -
 - (A) NSW Higher School Certificate.
 - (B) Adult admission over 21 years.
 - (C) A quota system operates because of the demand for places on the course.
 - (9) Steps are currently under way to make the Associate Diploma the core of a BA Social Science (Police Studies). Students who have completed the Associate Diploma receive 16 unit credits towards the BA Degree.

- c. Newcastle College of Advanced Education
- (1) Offers a four year Associate Diploma in Police Studies for police officers stationed in and around Newcastle. However, if a student is transferred before completing the course provision is made to complete the course externally and to transfer to the Milperra College of Advanced Education.
 - (2) Course commenced in 1981 with 40 police students.
 - (3) There are approximately 25 police in each of the first three years, ranging from Constable 1/C to Inspector.
 - (4) The college awards a certificate of competence/achievement after four semesters, subject to the achievement of 32 credit points.
 - (5) Course Structure -
 - year 1 - Behavioral Science I.
Communication Part I.
Communication Part 2.
Behavioral Science II.
 - year 2 - Administration I.
Social Welfare I.
Social Welfare II.
Material Hazards and Safety Procedures.
 - year 3 - Sampling Techniques and Basic Statistics.
Multicultural Studies Part I.
Multicultural Studies Part 2.
Enquiry Methods and Problem Solving.
 - year 4 - Electives.
Either -
Police and Society in NSW.
Research I.
Research II.
Administration II.
Behavioral Studies III.
Or -
Police and Society in NSW.
Depth Study.
Administration II.
Behavioral Studies III.
- d. Milperra College of Advanced Education, Sydney
- (1) Offers Associate Diploma in Community Studies. It is a 4 year part time course.
 - (2) Students attend 3 hours of lectures each week.
 - (3) It is intended that the course should have some parity with the Newcastle College of Advanced Education Course, to enable Newcastle students who are transferred to the Sydney Metropolitan area to complete the course.
 - (1) Course Structure -
Introduction to Psychology.
Introduction to Sociology.

Administration.
 Communications I.
 Enquiry and Research Methods.
 Communications II.
 The Criminal Justice System
 Aboriginal Studies.
 Crisis Intervention.
 Welfare Principles and Practical.
 Multicultural Studies.
 Contemporary Issues in Australian Society.
 Police in Australian Society.
 Criminology.
 Police Community Relations.
 2 Special Study Unit Electives.

Electives -
 Introduction to Differential Statistics.
 Residential Care (Juvenile).
 Youth needs.
 The Law and Justice Administration.
 Family Relationships.
 Drug Studies.
 With approval, a vocationally specific unit offered by the School of Liberal and Scientific Studies may be taken as an elective.

4. Training Administration

- a. Training is administered by Assistant Commissioner (Personnel and Training). Angus Graham, GPO Box 45, Sydney, 2001. Phone (02) 20966.
- b. The Officer in Charge of Training is Superintendent Ron Wark, 749 Bourke Street, Redfern 2016. Phone (02) 6997667 prior to 7 May 1984; subsequent to that date, Police Academy, Goulburn, 2580.

Victoria

1. Basic training

- a. Adult recruit course
 - (1) 87 weeks duration.
 - (2) Male and female trainees.
 - (3) Age limit eighteen and a half to 35 years.
 - (4) Vocational with 60 periods of basic English and 48 periods of Human Behavior Studies.
 - (5) Program comprises:

(A) Academy	(initial)	- 18 weeks
(B) Driver training		- 2 weeks
(C) Leave		- 10 weeks
(D) Training station attachments		- 23 weeks
(F) Section attachments		- 30 weeks
(G) Retention phase		- 4 weeks

- (6) Recruits inducted in squads of 25 each four weeks.
- (7) Approximately 500 recruits trained each year.
- (8) Initial course is conducted at the Victoria Police Academy, View Mount Road, Glen Waverley, V, 3150.

- b. Cadet Training was phased out in early 1982.
- c. The OIC Recruit Training is Inspector Stan ROSS.
Phone (03) 5669566.

2. In-Service training

- a. In-Service training for Victoria Police is conducted at:
 - (1) Police complex, Spencer Street, Melbourne
 - (2) "Airlie" Police College
 - (3) Various stations/sections
- b. The two main areas of In-Service training are:
 - (1) Development Training
 - (2) Specialist Training
- c. Development training
 - (1)(A) Senior Executive Course - 3 weeks
For Chief Inspectors
approaching Superintendent rank
 - (B) Officers' Course - 15 weeks
(Senior Sergeants)
approaching Inspector rank
 - (C) Sub-Officers Course - 15 weeks
(Senior Constables)
approaching Sergeant rank
 - (2) Serial (A) and (B) are conducted at "Airlie" Police College, and Serial (C) is conducted at Spencer Street Police Complex.
 - (3) Victoria accepts a limited number of interstate police officers on "Airlie" sub-officer courses.
 - (4) Chief Inspector Brian NOBLE is OIC,
Sub officer training at "Airlie".
- d. Special training
 - (1) Criminal investigation course - 3 months
 - (2) Advanced detective training course - 3 weeks
 - (3) Method of Instruction course - 4 weeks
 - (4) Specialist courses as required - various

These courses are conducted by Operational Groups and not the Academy.
- e. Driver training
 - (1) This is conducted by the Traffic Operations Group.
 - (2) No civilian courses are conducted.
- f. Firearms training
 - (1) Conducted during Basic Training
 - (2) Conducted at Operational Stations once a year by Range Instructors.

- g. Reviews are currently under way for Constable, Sub-Officer and Officer training.

3. Higher education

- a. Three tertiary level courses are advertised in the Police Gazette each year for which members of Victoria Police may seek approval for Study Leave. They are:
 - (1) Diploma of Criminology
 - (2) Associate Diploma in Police Studies
 - (3) Associate Diploma in Criminal Justice and Welfare Administration.
- b. Diploma of Criminology - Melbourne University - two year part-time course.
- c. Associate Diploma in Police Studies -
 - (1) Conducted by the Chisholm Institute of Technology.
 - (2) The course is three and one half years part-time, a total of fourteen subjects must be completed.
 - (3) Core subjects are:
 - (A) Police Studies - 3 subjects - Management aspects of administration
 - (B) Legal Studies - 3 subjects - substantive areas of law
 - (C) Social and Behavioral Studies - 4 subjects - Applied Psychology and Applied Sociology.
 - (4) Four electives may be selected from a wide range of subjects to suit the personal needs and interests of the students. They include Data Processing, Political Studies, Accounting and Finance and Communication Studies.
 - (5) The course is now well established, attracting good quality students ranging in rank from Superintendent to Constable. The majority of students are in the Sergeant to Inspector ranks.
 - (6) The Chisholm Institute plans to introduce a degree course in Police Studies by the end of 1985.
- d. Associate Diploma in Criminal Justice and Welfare Administration.
 - (1) Conducted by the Phillip Institute of Technology
 - (2) The course can be completed in two years full time or up to six years part-time
 - (3) Students must undertake twenty-four (24) course units -
 - (A) five core subjects each of three units
 - (B) nine elective units
 - (C) a field study

- (4) Each unit consists of three contact hours a week for one trimester, plus private study time. Full time students take four units per trimester.
 - (5) Core Subjects:
 - (A) Introduction to Police, Legal and Correctional Systems
 - (B) Sociology
 - (C) Principles of Management
 - (D) Psychology.
 - (6) Elective subjects:
 - (A) Introduction to Modern Treatment Programmes
 - (B) Youth Services
 - (C) Social Administration
 - (D) Aboriginal Studies
 - (E) Administration and Personnel, Criminal Justice
 - (F) Psychology
 - (G) Residential Care
 - (7) Field Study:

Two trimester research units followed by either a situational study or an investigation with a substantial written report.
 - (8) A proposal has gone forward to have this course form part of a Bachelor of Arts (Criminal Justice Administration) in the near future.
- e. Bachelor of Arts (Criminal Justice Administration)-proposal:
- (1) Conducted by the Phillip Institute of Technology
 - (2) It is a three year full time or equivalent part time course
 - (3) Students must undertake;
 - (A) A three year major study in Criminal Justice
 - (B) A sub-major study in administration
 - (C) A sub-major study in psychology
 - (D) Studies in Sociology and Social work
 - (E) Field Studies
 - (4) Course components are:
 - (A) Criminal Justice Major
 - * Criminal Justice Systems
 - * Theories of Criminal Behavior
 - * Criminal Law and Social Control
 - (B) Administration Sub-Major
 - * Organisations/Leadership/Personnel
 - * Public Administration
 - (C) Psychology Sub-Major
 - * Development Normal/Abnormal Behavior
 - * Social Psychology/Organisational Psychology
 - (D) Other required studies
 - * Sociology/urban studies/ethnic studies
 - * Social Work

- (E) Elective Studies (3 subjects from):
 - * Youth Affairs 1/11
 - * Social Group Work
 - * Communication
 - * Community Development
 - * Economics 1/11
 - (F) Field Studies:
 - * Research Methods
 - * Situational Study/Investigation
 - (5) The academic year is divided into trimesters, each of approximately ten weeks duration. Contact time for full time students during term will average approximately twelve hours per week.
- f. (1) Victoria Police has been for some time encouraging members to improve their education and skills and even country members are advised of external courses which would help them in their careers.
- (2) Other External courses are as follows:
- (A) Associate Diploma Media Production, Victoria College (Toorak) - 2 years full-time, 3 years part-time.
 - (B) Australian Administration Staff College, Mt Eliza (Advanced Course) - 2 months.
 - (C) Australian Administration Staff College, Mt Eliza (Intermediate Course) - 5 weeks.
 - (D) Australian Counter Disaster College.
 - (E) Australian Institute of Management - Applied Management Course - 30 weeks part-time (1 evening per week).
 - (F) Australian Institute of Management - Fundamentals of Management - 10 days full-time.
 - (G) Bushwalking/Mountaincraft Leader (National Fitness Council) 7 - 9 weeks.
 - (H) Cinematograph Operators RMIT - 1 week
 - (I) Climbing - 3 weeks.
 - (J) Commercial Crime - 4 weeks.
 - (K) Computer Terminal Operator (Advanced) - 1 week.
 - (L) Disaster Victim Identification (Natural Disasters Organisation) - 1 week.
 - (M) Diving Supervisor (Army) - 3 weeks.
 - (N) Drug Enforcement (Manly) - 2 weeks.
 - (O) Explosive Ordinance (Army) - 6 weeks.
 - (P) Fraud Squad - 2.1/2 months over 1 year.
 - (Q) Industrial Mobilisation - 12 months.
 - (R) Inspectors' Management Course, New Zealand - 12 weeks.
 - (S) National Intelligence Analysis (Manly) - 3 weeks.
 - (T) Nordick Ski-ing (National Fitness Council) 1.1/2 weeks.
 - (U) Officer College (Manly - 16 weeks.
 - (V) Radar Operators Course (RMIT) - 5 days.

- (W) Roping (Army) - 2 weeks.
- (X) Senior Executive Officer (Manly) - 3 weeks.
- (Y) Search Mission Co-ordination (Dept. of Transport) - 6 weeks.
- (Z) Systems Analyst and Systems Programmer - 7 1/2 months.
- (AA) TV Studio Production Techniques (RMIT) - 18 weeks.
- (AB) University of Melbourne Summer School of Business Administration - 6 weeks - Administration.

- g. The Caulfield Institute of Technology, School of Industrial Studies has, since 1975, offered a special purpose vocational course in Police Studies at pre-tertiary level for those wishing to qualify for entry to the Associate Diploma Course. The Certificate course is open to members of the Force who have completed their training and have served in the field for at least two years.

4. Training administration

- a. Training is administered by the Assistant Commissioner (Personnel) Eric MUDGE, GPO BOX 2763Y, Melbourne, V, 3001. Phone (03) 6671911.
- b. Constable Training is directed by Superintendent Ron ELLERY. Phone (03) 566 9566.
- c. Officer and Sub-Officer Training is directed by Superintendent L RYMER.
- d. Chief Superintendent Derek BATEMAN is responsible for all training.

Queensland1. Basic training

- a. Basic training is conducted by way of:
 - (A) Cadet training
 - (B) Adult Recruit training
- b. Cadet training
 - (1) 12 months study at Academy plus on-job training at suburban police stations until attaining 19 years
 - (2) Male trainees only
 - (3) Age limit 17-18 years
 - (4) The course is primarily vocational but subjects such as Psychology, Human Relations, English, Typing and Police Science and Community Service Projects are taught.
 - (5) Approximately 100 cadets are trained each year, ie, four squads of 25 cadets.
- c. Adult recruit training
 - (1) Six months duration
 - (2) Male and female trainees
 - (3) Age limit 19 to 39 years
 - (4) Vocational course with subjects such as English, Human Relations, Psychology, Typing and Police Science.
 - (5) Approximately 100 trainees are trained on these courses each year, 25 on each.
- d. At the conclusion of the basic training courses recruits are posted to various stations but, return to the Police Academy between six and nine months later to attend a four week advanced training course.
- e. A study is currently being conducted to determine the training needs for a Constable in his first two years of service. It is envisaged that as a result of this study the present basic training courses will be altered.

2. In-Service training

- a. In-Service Training for Queensland Police is conducted at Queensland Police College, 17 Laurel Avenue, Chelmer 4068. Phone (07) 3797033.
- b. The three broad areas of In-Service Training are:
 - (1) Development training
 - (2) Specialist training
 - (3) Driver training
- c. Development Training
 - (1)(A) Sergeants Second Class Development Course - 3 weeks
 - (B) Sergeants First Class Development Course - 4 weeks
 - (C) Commissioned Officers Course - 8 weeks

- (2) The three courses are completed as a prelude to promotion to the next rank.
- (3) Course (B) and (C) above qualify members for promotion and also qualify them to attend the Commissioned Officers Course. The Sergeants Course emphasises law, whilst the Officers Course emphasises management.
- (4) Development Courses are planned for Constables 1/C and Senior Constables. They will come into effect in late 1984 or early 1985.

d. Specialist training

- (1)(A) Crime Investigators Course - 3 weeks
- (B) Juvenile Aid Bureau Course - 3 weeks
- (C) Breath Analysis Operators Course - 3 weeks
- (D) Accident Investigation Course - 3 weeks
- (E) Rape Squad Course - 2 weeks
- (F) Prosecutors Course - 6 months
- (G) Firearms Training - various
- (H) Computer Awareness Course - 3 days
- (2) The Prosecutors Course is conducted by the Training and Legal Section. It comprises three (3) months in the classroom and three (3) months 'on the job' training.
- (3) Firearms Training is conducted by the Firearms Branch for all police and specialist emergency units.
- (4) The Computer Awareness Course is conducted by the Police Computer Branch.

e. Driver training

- (1)(A) Basic Driver Training Course - 3 weeks
- (B) Pursuit Driver Course - 2 weeks
- (C) Basic Motorcycle Course - 2 weeks
- (D) VIP Evasive Driving Course - 1 week
- (2) Driver Training Wing is attached to Transport but will be transferred to the Police Academy sometime in 1984.

f. Two Inspectors are attached to the Superintendent's office in Brisbane to set assignments for, and supervise probationary constables on the job.

g. The Officer in Charge of In-Service Training is Inspector Keith KRATZMANN, Phone (07) 379 7033.

3. Higher education

- a. In 1971 a Police Arts and Sciences Certificate Course, approved by the Department of Education and operated through the Technical and Further Education College (TAFE) was sponsored by Queensland Police.
- b. In 1981 that course was superseded by a more comprehensive course known as the Advanced Studies Course for Police.

- c. The Advanced Studies Course was -
 - (1) approved and made available to police along the same lines as the Police Arts and Science Course;
 - (2) designed as a post-secondary education external study course to:
 - (A) contribute towards the professional development of the police officer;
 - (B) provide learning experiences which would accelerate the acquisition of proficiency in his/her responsibilities, increasing opportunities for growth as an individual.
 - (3) structured to allow for specialisation and flexibility according to a member's career and personal needs.
 - (4) intended to be completed part time over two years.
- d. Members attempting the course must:
 - (1) complete four core subjects comprising -
 - (A) Police Communications 1
 - (B) Police Law 1
 - (C) Queensland Police Administration 1
 - (D) Social Psychology.
 - (2) Then choose any four subjects from a comprehensive list of 33 subjects grouped under the following headings:
 - (A) Law Enforcement - 4 subjects
 - (B) Accounting/Finance - 5 subjects
 - (C) Work Recording - 7 subjects
 - (D) Management and Administration - 7 subjects
 - (E) Computer Technology - 4 subjects
 - (F) Personnel - 4 subjects
 - (G) Welfare - 2 subjects
- e. Members who complete the course are credited with 24 units and are permitted to proceed to the Management Certificate Course (a non-police TAFE Course) and receive a monetary allowance (presently \$7 per fortnight).
- f. A plan went forward for a four year Diploma Course to be conducted by the Brisbane CAE beginning in 1985. However, the proposal has been "mothballed".

4. Training administration

- a. Training is administered by Assistant Commissioner (Training and Legal) Donald McDONALD, Phone (07) 2266257
- b. A Training Superintendent is attached to the Commissioner's Office. He is in charge of the Police Academy and the Police College. This position is held by Superintendent John DONOGHUE, Phone (07) 2266001.

Western Australia1. Basic training

a. Cadet training

- (1) Not a Cadet Training system as such.
- (2) Age limit 16-18 1/2 years.
- (3) Complete 12 days training over a 12 week period.
- (4) Serve in different sections until aged 19 when they are inducted on to the adult recruit course.

b. Adult Recruit Course

- (1) 17 weeks duration.
- (2) Male and female trainees.
- (3) Age limit 19-29 years.
- (4) 3 courses per year each with approximately 30 students.
- (5) From 1981 to September 1983 the Basic Course was 15 weeks duration; prior to 1981, it was 13 weeks.
- (6) Training is conducted at the Police Academy, Maylands. It is a non-residential course.
- (7) The course is mainly vocational with communication, public speaking and management segments.
- (8) At the completion of the 17 week course, students are required to undertake extension studies comprising a 21 unit correspondence course which requires an 80 per cent pass rate. The course is designed to reinforce and continue recruit training in the field.

2. In-Service training

a. Most In-Service training is conducted at the Police Complex, Erindale Road, Warwick.

(In late 1984 or early 1985, all training will be conducted at Maylands).

b. The broad areas of in-service training are:

- (1) Combined Branch In-Service Training.
- (2) Detective Training.
- (3) Correspondence Promotional.
- (4) Special Training.
- (5) Driver Training.
- (6) Firearm Training.

c. Combined Branch In-Service Training.

- | | |
|------------------------------|-----------|
| (1) Constable 1/C Course | - 3 weeks |
| (2) Senior Constables Course | - 4 weeks |
| (3) NCO (3/C and 2/C) Course | - 4 weeks |
| (4) Senior NCO Course | - 6 weeks |

- d. Detective Training.
 - (1) Conducted through the Criminal Investigation Branch.
 - (2) There are four course levels to meet the needs of the service and rank levels of the member group.
- e. Promotional Correspondence.
 - (1) The current promotional study involves an internal correspondence course of statutes and reporting subjects each of nine units.
 - (2) These studies are conducted up to the ranks of Sergeant.
- f. Special seminars.

These are conducted after legislation changes and as procedures alter.
- g. Driver Training.

Driver Training is undertaken by the Traffic Branch.
- h. Firearms Training.

Conducted by the Ballistics Section during initial training.

3. Higher education

- (1) No courses of higher education for police are conducted within the WA Police Force.
- (2) Members may undertake higher education studies as a private matter. This is generally approved but special remuneration or automatic promotion is not granted in respect of such studies.
- (3) A proposal for future training is in the embryonic stage at this time. It has yet to be accepted and ratified. However, consideration for some form of higher education is acknowledged as a future necessity.

4. Training administration

- a. Senior Inspector Ted BARTHELMEH is the Officer in Charge of Training, and is responsible direct to the Commissioner of Police. He is stationed at the Police Complex, Erindale Road, Warwick, Phone (09) 4473255.

South Australia

1. Basic training

- a. Adult Recruit Course.
 - (1) 52 weeks duration.
 - (2) Male and female trainees.
 - (3) Age limit 18-29 years.
 - (4) Five courses with 20 students each per year conducted at Fort Largs.
 - (5) SA Police still refer to basic training as cadet training, even though age limit is 29.
 - (6) Prior to 1976, the cadet training course was 3 years. In 1976 it was reduced to 2 years and in March 1983 it was further reduced to one year.
 - (7) All training is vocational with the exception of the communication module which is taught by two Technical and Further Education teachers, and the Psychology Module which is taught by three psychologists. (Two police officers and one civilian).
 - (8) The course is divided into five phases, three of which are spent in the Academy and two on operational postings. It comprises 22 modules.

2. In-Service training

- a. Some In-Service training is conducted at the Police Academy, Fort Largs, and some is conducted at Thebarton Barracks.
- b. The broad areas of In-Service training are:
 - (1) Development Training.
 - (2) Specialist Training.
 - (3) Driver Training.
 - (4) Firearms Training.
- c. Development Training.

(1) Law Refresher Course	- 2 weeks
(2) Non Commissioned Officers Course	- 4 weeks
(3) Sergeants Seminar	- 1 week
(4) Senior Sergeants Seminar	- 1 week
(5) Officer Training	-10 weeks
- d. Specialist training.

This ranges from one week to one month's duration and is conducted on a needs basis.

 - (1) Criminal Investigation Courses.
 - (2) Arson Investigation Course.
 - (3) Breath Analysis Course.
 - (4) Accident Investigation Course.
 - (5) Communications Course.
 - (6) Methods of Instruction Course.
 - (7) Government Investigators Course (civilian) - five days - as requested.

- (8) Sex Crime Investigation Course.
- (9) Fraud and Computer Investigation Course.
- (10) Prosecutors Course.
- (11) Patrol Officers Course.
- (12) Motor Traffic Officers Course.

e. Driver training.

- (1) Recruit Driving Course - 3 weeks
- (2) Patrol Officers Course - 1 to 6 weeks
- (3) Motor Cycle Course - 1 to 6 weeks
- (4) Four Wheel Drive Course - 1 to 6 weeks

f. Firearms training.

- (1) Conducted by Weapons Training Officer.
- (2) Initial Training instruction.

3. Higher education

a. Police Studies Certificate.

- (1) A joint enterprise between the Department of Technical and Further Education (TAFE) and the Police Department.
- (2) The course is structured in 3 sections and includes 10 subjects, five of which are taught and administered by TAFE and five which are taught and administered by Police Department.
- (3) The studies are controlled by a Police Studies Control Board which is comprised of representatives from both TAFE and Police.
- (4) Studies undertaken qualify for promotion.
- (5) Course Structure -
 First Class Constables Examination - Police.
 (after 3 years service)
 Section A. Communication (Police) - TAFE.
 Section B. Law I - Laws of Evidence - Police.
 Law II - Criminal Law - Police.
 Law III - Regulatory Law - Police.
 Police Practice and Supervision -
 Police Students after completing
 Section B and a four week NCOs Course
 are qualified for promotion to
 Sergeant.
 Section C. Electives - 4 subjects necessary,
 administered and taught by TAFE. The
 subjects need to be approved by the
 Police Studies Control Board, and
 must be occupationally relevant (no
 more than two subjects can be
 accredited under this section).
 After completion of Sections A and C
 members are academically qualified
 for promotion to the rank of Senior
 Sergeant. The examination for rank
 of First Class Constable may be
 taken at three years service.

b. Associate Diploma in Business.

(1) Comprises seven options:

Credit Management.
Health Administration.
Industrial Engineering.
Justice Administration.
Management.
Marketing.
Personnel/Industrial Relations.

(2) The basic entry requirement for each of the seven options is association.

(3) 4 year part time course (it is possible to complete course in 2 years full time).

(4) Formal classes of 6-8 hours per week are programmed.

(5) Justice Administration Option.

The Justice Administration option of this Course is a joint initiative of the S.A. Institute of Technology and the Police, Courts and Correctional Services Departments.

Whilst police officers are free to pursue any of the options of the course, and a number in fact undertake the Management or Personnel/Industrial Relations options, the Justice Administration option is normally preferred.

The structure of this option is:

year 1 - Justice Administration I.

Introduction to business & Management.
Business Psychology.

year 2 - Justice Administration II.

Public Administration A.
Personnel Management IA.

year 3 - Police Administration or Courts

Administration or Correctional
Services Administration.
Industrial Relations.
Business Statistics A.

year 4 - Business Information systems.

Financial Management IA.
Elective.

The subject 'Police Administration' is normally restricted to police officers and is designed to give students an appreciation of the background and factors impacting on the role of a police manager, and particularly a chief executive in a contemporary democratic society. The syllabus covers such topics as the history, objectives, professionalism, ethics and organisation of police agencies, management of policing functions and the application of management principles in a police organisation.

c. Other Tertiary Courses.

In addition to the courses listed above, normal study assistance is available for a number of other tertiary courses relevant to specific functions of

the Police Department. These courses include degree level courses at the University of Adelaide or Flinders University, diploma level courses at the South Australian College of Advanced Education and certificate level courses and the Department of Technical and Further Education.

4. Training administration

- a. Training is administered by the Assistant Commissioner (Personnel) PM Hurley.
- b. The Officer in Charge of Training and Education is Chief Superintendent Geoff EDWARDS, Police Academy, Fort Largs, SA, 5016. Phone (08) 2481111.

Tasmania1. Basic training

- a. Adult recruit course
 - (1) 44 weeks duration
 - (2) Male and female trainees
 - (3) Age limit 18-33 years
 - (4) Much of the training is vocational. However trainees must, during the Recruit Course, complete two subjects of a Certificate Course in Police Studies conducted by TAFE. The subjects are:
 - (A) Communication Studies
 - (B) Individual in Society
 - (5) The course is broken down as follows:
 - (A) Academy - 29 weeks
 - (B) Driver Training - 3 weeks
 - (C) Section Attachments - 1 week
 - (D) Community Involvement - 1 week
 - (E) Station Attachments - 6 weeks
 - (F) Firearm Training - 1 week
 - (G) Adventure/Search and Rescue Training - 2 weeks
 - (H) Interchange Visit SA - 1 week
 - (6) Two courses, each with approximately 20 trainees, are conducted each year.
 - (7) Included on the Recruit Course, on occasions are members of the Tasmania Fisheries Development Authority and the National Parks and Wildlife Service.
 - (8) Cadet training was phased out in August 1983.
 - (9) First 44 week course begins February 1984. Prior to that, Cadet and Adult Recruit Training ran concurrently.
 - (10) Recruit Training is conducted at the Police Academy, Rokeby, T, 7019.

2. In-Service training

- a. All In-Service training is conducted at the Tasmania Police Academy, Rokeby.
- b. The broad areas of In-Service training are:
 - (1) Development Training
 - (2) Specialist Training
 - (3) Driver Training
 - (4) Firearm Training
 - (5) Civilian Training
- c. Development Training
 - (1) Sergeants Course - 3 weeks
 - (2) Senior Constables Course - 2 weeks
 - (3) Police Law and Procedures - 2 weeks
 - (4) Senior Administration Course - 2 weeks
 - (5) Command and Management Course - 1 week
 - (6) Personnel Management Course - 2 weeks

- (7) First Line Supervisors Course - 2 weeks
- (8) Certificate in Police Studies - Operational Management Course - 1 week

d. Specialist Training

- (1) Breath Analysis Operators Course - 3 weeks
- (2) Special Weapons Squad - Close Quarter Battle Course - 3 weeks
- (3) Explosive Reconnaissance Course - 1 week
- (4) Criminal Investigation Course - 6 weeks
- (5) Drug Investigation Course
 - (A) Basic - 1 week
 - (B) Advanced - 2 weeks
- (6) Arson Investigation Course - 1 week
- (7) Child Protection and Welfare Course - 1 week
- (8) Scientific Procedures Course - 1 week
- (9) Small Boat Handling Course - 1 week
- (10) Method of Instruction Course - 2 weeks
- (11) Search and Rescue Course - 2 weeks
- (12) Bomb Squad Refresher Course - 1 week
- (13) Computer Crime Course - 3 weeks
- (14) Firearms Training Course - 1 week
- (15) Range Supervisors Course - 2 weeks
- (16) Disaster and Emergency Procedures - 2 weeks
- (17) Prosecution Course - 3 weeks
- (18) Victimology Course - 1 week
- (19) Family Crisis Intervention Course - 1 week
- (20) Traffic Control Course - 2 weeks
- (21) Accident Investigation Course - 2 weeks

e. Driver Training:

- (1) Police -
 - (A) Basic Car Driving Course - 3 weeks
 - (B) Basic Motorcycle Riding Course - 4 weeks
 - (C) Refresher Car Driving Course - 1 week
 - (D) Refresher Motorcycle Riding Course - 1 week
 - (E) Driving Instructors Course - 2 weeks
- (2) Civilian:
 - (A) Ambulance Drivers Basic Course - 3 weeks
 - (B) Federal Government Drivers Course - 1 week
 - (C) State Government Drivers Course - 1 week
 - (D) Four Wheel Drive Instructor Course - 1 week
 - (E) Motorcycle Training Instructors Course - 6 days
 - (F) Transport Tasmania Driving Course - 1 week
 - (G) Ambulance Driver Refresher Course - 1 week

f. Firearm training

- (1) Recruits undergoing Basic Training receive Firearm Training at various periods during the course which is culminated with a one full week session on the range just prior to graduation.
- (2) Other members of the Force receive up to two (2) half day sessions each year.
- (3) Firearm Training is conducted at the District Headquarters around the State.
- (4) Specialist Firearm Training for Special Weapons Squad and marksmen is conducted regularly.
- (5) Training is conducted by Range Supervisors trained at the Police Academy.

g. Civilian Training

- (1) Legal Procedures Courses
 - (A) Forestry Commission - 1 week
 - (B) National Parks and Wildlife - 1 week
 - (C) Fire Services Commission - 1 week
 - (D) Sea and Inland Fisheries - 1 week
 - (E) Local Government - 1 week
 - (F) Retail Stores Security - 1 week
 - (G) Labor and Industry - 1 week
 - (H) Agricultural Department - 1 week
 - (I) Transport Commission - 1 week
 - (J) Insurance Investigators - 1 week
- (2) Bomb Reconnaissance Course - 2 days
- (3) Small Boat Handling - 1 week
- (4) Driver Training Courses - As listed above e.(2)

3. Higher education

- a. The Division of Further Education (TAFE) sponsors a Certificate Course in Police Studies for Tasmania Police Officers.
- b. The associated course of study consists of four stages. Each stage being designed for one year's study.
 - (1) Stage 1
 - (A) Practical Police Duties;
 - (B) Acts and Regulations;
 - (C) Police Regulations and Standing Orders;
 - (D) Elementary Evidence.
 - (2) Stage 2
 - (A) Communication Studies;
 - (B) Legal Studies.
 - (3) Stage 3
 - (A) Personnel Management (Police);
 - (B) The Individual in Society;
 - (4) Stage 4
 - (A) Operational Management (Police)
 - (B) Criminology.

- c. With the exception of Stage 1, the course is available through correspondence and tuition provided by the External Studies Service. Stage 1 consists of the Senior Constable's promotion examination which can be taken after three years service as a Constable.

4. Training administration

- a. Training is administered by the Assistant Commissioner (Logistics) Alan SWINTON, GPO Box 308C, Hobart, T, 7001. Phone (002) 381101.
- b. Training and Recruitment is directed by Superintendent Garry DORAN, Tasmania Police Academy, Rokeby, T, 7019. Phone (002) 477100.
- c. The Officer in Charge Recruit, In-Service and Driver Training, is Inspector Colin FOGARTY, Tasmania Police Academy, Rokeby, T, 7019. Phone (002) 477100.

Northern Territory

1. Basic training

- a. Cadet training.
 - (1) Cadets are recruited between 16 1/2 and 17 1/2 years.
 - (2) Cadets spend time at stations until aged 19 years, at which time they are inducted into the Adult Basic Recruit Course.
- b. Adult recruit course.
 - (1) 44 week duration.
 - (2) Age limit 19-30 years.
 - (3) Male and female recruits.
 - (4) Usually one course per year February to December. Approximately 25 recruits on each course.
 - (5) Training is mostly vocational with some psychology segments.
 - (6) Course Structure -
 - 13 weeks Academy.
 - 22 weeks Station Attachments.
 - 9 weeks Academy.
 - (7) Training is conducted at the Police Training Centre, Cavanagh Street, Darwin.

2. In-Service training

- a. In-Service training is conducted at the Police Training Centre, Cavanagh Street, Darwin.
- b. The broad areas of in-service training are:-
 - (1) Development Training.
 - (2) Investigation Training.
 - (3) Special Training.
 - (4) Driver Training.
 - (5) Firearms Training.
- c. Development courses.
 - (1) Constable Refresher - times vary.
 - (2) Sergeants Refresher - times vary.
 - (3) NCO Training - times vary.
 - (4) Officer Development - these comprise correspondence modules over 8 months.
- d. Investigation courses.
 - (1) Criminal Law Course.
 - (2) Accident Investigation Course.
- e. Special Courses.
 - (1) Breath Analysis Operators Course.
 - (2) Seamanship Course.
 - (3) Range Officers Course.
 - (4) Basic Rescue Course.
 - (5) Armed Offenders Course.
 - (6) Officers are sent to Manly for Corporate Crime Course and to South Australia for Arson Course.

- f. Driver training.
 - (1) Standard Driving Course - 3 weeks
 - (2) Pursuit Driving Course - 2 weeks
- g. Firearm training.
 - (1) This is undertaken by the Police Task Force and not through the Training Centre.
 - (2) Recruits receive initial instruction during Basic Course.
 - (3) Police Task Force personnel visit remote areas to conduct firearm practices.

3. Higher education

- a. No higher education program for police at this time.
- b. Discussions are currently being held with the Darwin Community College to implement a Diploma in Administration for Police.
- c. Course Structure - (intended)
 - (1) Stage 1 - Consists of 4 elective units approved by the college but conducted by Police.
 - Evidence and Procedures.
 - Criminal Law.
 - Police Administration.
 - Crime Scene Techniques.
 - (2) After completion of electives, core units are undertaken in the college.
 - Stage 2 - Administrative Communication.
 - Australian Government.
 - Police Administration.
 - Economics.
 - Stage 3 - Public Finance I.
 - Use of Data in Administration.
 - Introduction to Human Behavior.
 - Organisational Communication.
 - Computing.
 - Administrative Law.
 - Office Administration.
 - Decision Making.
- d. To enrol, a Constable must have completed 3 years continuous service.
- e. It is proposed that a successful pass of the electives (stage 1) would academically qualify a member to the rank of a Sergeant 3/C.
- f. Completion of stage 2 would academically qualify a member for promotion to Sergeant 2/C.
- g. Passes in subsequent units in blocks of four would academically qualify a member for promotion to Sergeant 1/C and commissioned rank respectively.

- h. Whilst the Associate Diploma can be completed in 4 years, all units must be completed within a period of 8 years.

4. Training administration

- a. Superintendent John Taylor is the Officer in Charge of Training, responsible direct to the Commissioner of Police.
- b. Training comes under Planning Command.
- c. Superintendent John Taylor is stationed at the Police Training Centre. Phone (089) 815555.

Australian Capital Territory

1. Basic training

- a. Basic training is conducted by way of:
 - (1) Adult Recruit - General Duties.
- b. Adult Recruit Course
 - (1) Twenty (20) weeks duration
 - (2) Male and female trainees
 - (3) Age Limit - 18 to 30 years
 - (4) Completely vocational. NO education subjects taught
 - (5) After twenty (20) weeks trainees undertake a two week Local Procedures course.
- c. All recruit training is conducted at the Australian Federal Police College, Weston, Canberra.
- d. OIC Recruit Training - Inspector Mac Rugala, Police College, Unwin Place, Weston, ACT 2611.
Phone (062) 870321.

2. In-Service training

- a. In-Service Training is conducted at the Australian Federal Police Academy, Barton, Canberra.
- b. The four broad areas of in-service training are:
 - (1) Command Management/Special Requirement
 - (2) In-Service Training
 - (3) Driver Training
 - (4) VIP Security Training
- c. Command Management/Special Requirement
 - (1) (A) Officer Development Course - 3 months
 - (B) First Level Management Course (Sergeants) - six months external comprising assignments and four (4) weeks course.
 - (C) Method of Instruction Course - 6 weeks
 - (D) Overseas Commissioned Officers Course - 10 weeks
 - (E) Overseas Sergeants Course - 8 weeks

- (2) Promotion courses replaced existing promotion examinations in 1984.
- (3) Method of Instruction Courses are conducted in conjunction with the Canberra College of Advanced Education (CCAEE).
- (4) Overseas Commissioned Officers Course and the Overseas Sergeants Course are conducted in conjunction with the Australian Development Assistance Bureau and the Department of Foreign Affairs for Papua New Guinea police officers.
- (5) Commander of Command Management Branch is Chief Inspector Lionel Claydon, Phone (062) 704811.

d. Detective training

- (1) (A) Detective Stage 1 Course - 6 weeks
(Stage II of this course is conducted on-the-job assignments - 2 years).
- (B) Detective Designation Course Stage III - 3 months.
- (C) Detective Sergeant Supervisors Course - 4 weeks.
- (D) Sexual Offences Course - 2 weeks
- (E) Drug Intelligence Course - 2-4 weeks
- (F) Scientific Course - 2 weeks
- (G) Drug Intelligence Course (as necessary)
- (H) Accident Investigation Course - 3 weeks
- (I) Radar Operators Course - 2 weeks
- (J) Breath Analysis Operators Course - 4-6 weeks
- (2) Commander of In-Service Training Branch is Chief Inspector Michael KEATING, Phone (062) 704811.

e. Driving training

- (1) (A) Standard Police Car Course - 10 days
- (B) Standard Motorcycle Course - 6 weeks
- (C) Pursuit Driving Course - 3 weeks
- (2) Pursuit Driving courses can only be undertaken by students who have completed (A) and (B).
- (3) The Commander of the Driver Training Branch is Senior Sergeant Robert BROWN, Phone (062) 974344.

f. Commander of the Police Academy is Chief Superintendent Peter DAWSON, Phone (062) 704811.

3. Senior Management Training/Education

a. Outside organisations are relied upon for the development of senior police managers. Institutions utilised are as follows:

- (1) Overseas Command Course Bramshill, U.K. - 6 months - Chief Superintendent, Assistant Commissioner.

- (2) Advanced Course, Australian Administrative Staff College, 2 months - Chief Superintendent
 - (3) Management Development Course, Australian Administrative Staff College, 2 months - Station Sergeant
 - (4) Joint Services Staff College, (Defence), Canberra, 6 months - Superintendent
 - (5) Senior Staff Course, RAAF Staff College, Canberra, 12 months - Inspector/Chief Inspector.
 - (6) Senior Executive Officers Course, Australian Police College, Manly, 4 weeks every third year - Superintendent/Chief Superintendent
 - (7) Officers Course, Australian Police College, Manly, 10 weeks - Inspector
 - (8) Officers Selection Course, South Australia Police Academy, 3 months - Station Sergeant (qualified to Inspector)
 - (9) Victoria Police Officers Selection Course, Airlie, Melbourne, 3 months - Station Sergeant (qualified to Inspector)
 - (10) Officers Course, New Zealand Police college, 3 months - Inspector
 - (11) Supervisors Seminars, Australian Institute of Management, 1 week - Sergeant/Senior Sergeant
 - (12) Counter Disaster Management, Australian Counter Disaster College, 1 week - Sergeant to Inspector.
- b. Members are encouraged to undertake tertiary study under a Studies Assistance Scheme which allows members to attend an approved tertiary institution as part-time students for five hours per week including two hours travelling time.
- c. Training Administration
- ACT police training falls under the administrative control of the Chief Superintendent (Training) AFP, JD Reilly. Phone (062) 497444.

CHAPTER 12

HIGHER EDUCATION

The popular stereotype of police officers as being conservative and anti-intellectual is slowly eroding in the public mind. It may be that liberal changes in the police occupational ethos across such dimensions are little more than reflections of change in the community generally. Indeed, given marked differences in the social ethos of the various states and the Northern Territory and the styles of their respective police agencies, the association is probably close.

Some police organisations, however, are more attuned to the benefits of higher education than others and the best measure of the acceptance by the various police communities of the need for higher education, at least for some years to come, will be the number of police officers possessing degrees and graduate diplomas.

In 1977, Victoria Police was recorded by Duncan Chappell as totalling 23 degrees among its members, with 17 members possessing a range of diplomas and certificates. In 1983, the membership claimed 53 degrees and eight graduate diplomas. These data certainly suggest a substantial increase over the six year interval. The first survey of higher education among police officers, of any consequence, occurred in 1982 when Superintendent Garry Doran, Tasmania Police, undertook such a task in pursuit of a B Ed Thesis. Doran's figures, which are less than comprehensive, are shown at Table 12.1. Closely following that survey was another conducted by the Research Division of the Ministry of Police and Emergency Services in Victoria. The data obtained in the course of that survey, also less than comprehensive, are shown at Table 12.1. The closeness and incompleteness of the two surveys permits little analysis. It is thought the latter survey will be repeated annually, which will conveniently permit the identification of trends within agencies over time.

The Police Scholarship scheme conducted through the Australian Police College has provided a stimulus to a few police officers interested in studying police phenomena overseas, the benefits of what will be seen eventually in their respective studies. In 1984, Senior Constable Christine Nixon, of the NSW police department, was awarded a three year Harkness Fellowship, which permitted her to study for her Master's degrees in political science at Harvard University. Education is losing its status as a nasty word in the police vocabulary.

Although most police departments, with the exception of Tasmania and Western Australia, recognise the possession of external tertiary qualifications for purposes of posting and promotion, only New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland and South Australia actually provide a salary incentive.

TABLE 12.1

DEGREES & GRADUATE DIPLOMAS HELD BY SERVING POLICE OFFICERS,
1982-1983⁺

qualification	NSW		V		Q		WA		SA		T		NT	
	82*	83#	82	83	82	83	82	83	82	83	82	83	82	83
MA	1										1	1		
BA	11		25	13					13	13	2	4	3	3
BA (Social Sc)												1		
B Phil									1	1				
LLB	8		6	1					2	2	1	1		
B Juris			2											
B Legal Studies	4													
B Police Sc														1
B Ed/Studies					1				1	1	1	1		
Dip Ed			6						5					
B Com			1											
Dip Computer Sc														
B Ec			5						1					
M Sc										1				
B Sc			10						19	17			6	8
B Appl Sc			1						1				3	1
Dip Appl Sc			1										2	
BSW			1											
Dip App Psych									1					
B Business			1											1
B Business Studies					1									
B Business Adm			1											
Dip Business Studies			1						9					
Dip Business Adm													1	
Dip Business Mgt														
Dip OP Res										1				
B Library Studies										1				
B Eng		1												
B Tech (Elec Eng)										1				
B Tech & Elec Eng									1					
Dip Pub Adm					1	1					1	1		
totals	24	1	61	17	1				40	52	6	9	15	14

+ Data refer to numbers of qualifications held, not individuals, eg, one police officer may possess several degrees and diplomas.

* Doran Survey (82)

MP & ES Survey (83)

In his study mentioned previously, Superintendent Doran identified a loose association between higher education and professional attitudes among police officers in some states.

In addition to the qualifications shown at Table 12.1, several hundred tertiary certificates are held by police officers in the various states and the Northern Territory, ranging from computer programming to river pilot.

CHAPTER 13

TRANSPORT

Garry Hannigan
Senior Constable
Queensland Police

Wheeled and tracked vehicles

The task of detailing vehicle holdings of the various police Forces is difficult as not all agencies publish their vehicle establishments. Some present detailed accounts of their various vehicles establishments whereas others present only truncated data. Table 13.1 outlines wheeled and tracked vehicles used by the various Forces for the years indicated. All such agencies are heavily motorised. Indeed, it is difficult to envisage a modern public agency without a large vehicle fleet. Probably, only the armed services have adapted to motorised transport more comprehensively than police. The heavy trend to police motorisation only commenced in the late forties. Prior to that time police vehicle fleets were modest.

Geographic and climatic conditions are a prime determinant in the selection of vehicles for police use. In the Northern Territory, for example, four-wheel drive vehicles figure prominently in police operations whereas in Victoria, with a relatively well developed road system, the sedan is more practical for routine transportation.

Vehicles used by Police Departments are mostly marked with either an agency decal or the word "Police" in bold lettering. A majority of vehicles are fitted with emergency equipment such as flashing dome lights (usually blue or red) and sirens. Many highway vehicles are fitted with special driving suspension, heavy duty gearboxes and radial tyres. A fire extinguisher is fitted to each vehicle. In Queensland, in country areas, all police vehicles are equipped with factory fitted air-conditioning. Air conditioning of police patrol cars is a matter of industrial dispute in several states. Most vehicles are sold after 40,000 kilometres.

Most Police Departments possess their own motor vehicle maintenance sections in metropolitan areas which carry out repairs on departmental vehicles. This practice operates efficiently, contributing greatly to cost reduction. In some agencies mechanics are police officers but in others they are ministerial employees. Most departments have their own driver training sections. These sections test and train police personnel in driving skills under all weather conditions and traffic. Some departments now require recruits to be departmentally qualified to drive service vehicles prior to completion of their probationary period.

TABLE 13.1

MOTOR TRANSPORT HOLDINGS: AGENCY BY TYPE

agency/year (a)	number (b)	type (c)
NSW (1983)	2,161	fourwheeled vehicles
	93	trailers
	207	motor cycle
	94	fourwheel drive vehicles
	2,555	TOTAL
V (1982)	169	sedans 4 cyl
	808	- 6 cyl
	189	- 8 cyl
	126	divisional vans
	7	prison vans
	5	brawler vans
	2	comms vans
	42	panel vans
	11	trucks
	2	tractors
	2	canteens
	19	buses
	99	station wagons
	15	utilities
	33	four wheel drives
	1	horse floats
	1	snow mobiles
	151	motor cycles (pursuit)
	27	others
	1,709	TOTAL
Q (1983)	996	TOTAL
WA (1983)	638	general
	601	vehicles used by Traffic
		branch
	1,239	TOTAL
SA (1983)	528	motor sedans
	229	other motor vehicles
	209	motor cycles
	966	TOTAL
T (1983)	319	radio patrol cars
	17	traffic cars
	7	cars
	47	motor cycles
	29	trailers
	5	caravans
	424	TOTAL
NT (1983)	58	sedan
	2	station wagon
	6	utility
	3	utility twin cab
	28	van, light
	1	van, heavy
	4	van, Hi-ace
	12	four wheel drive SWB
	49	four wheel drive, utility
	1	four wheel drive,
		station wagon, general
	1	four wheel drive,
		light utility
	7	four wheel drive, station
		wagon, extended ptl

(a)	(b)	(c)
NT (1983) (continued)	10	sedan, pursuit
	28	motor cycle
	2	truck, 3 ton
	1	truck, 1 ton
	3	bus, 22 seat
	3	bus, 1 seat
	223	TOTAL
ACT (1984)	241	motor vehicles
	47	motor cycles
	288	TOTAL
NZ (1983)	725	cars
	14	station sedans
	7	command vehicles
	49	dog vans
	51	patrol/prison vans
	31	4 x 4 Landrovers
	9	estate cars
	7	trucks
	6	omnibuses
	899	TOTAL

Source: Police department annual reports.

Purchase and running costs of the various Police Departments' vehicles is an expensive matter and represents a sizable percentage of police budgets. In Victoria for instance, in 1983, more than two and one half million dollars were put aside for police vehicle replacement and purchase (see Table 3.15) and, in the same year, Queensland Police set aside almost seven million dollars for the purchase of new vehicles (see Table 3.16). At the same time, it should be borne in mind that vehicle purchase costs are substantially offset by revenue gained from the sale of obsolete transport. The increasing trend to airconditioning patrol vehicles has added to fleet costs but, hopefully, improved operational performance compensates for the outlay.

Response time

It is impossible to establish response time figures for operational police. Given the very large landmass and the vast spread of population, police could take days to reach the scene of an offence in certain outback areas. In the city, it may only take minutes for police to arrive at the scene of an incident. Some departments have attempted to decrease response times for police attendance in metropolitan areas but this is difficult to achieve. No validated average response times are available. There is now a general awareness that police response times are less critical than prompt reporting of offences by victims or witnesses.

Ratio of vehicles to police officers and land area

Again, it is difficult to calculate meaningful ratios of vehicles to personnel. Police officers are generally entitled to

use departmentally issued vehicles only whilst on duty, although there are exceptions to the no take home rule. Hence, many vehicles are used by several members over the course of 24 hours.

Watercraft

All Police Forces make use of water craft. Coastline data for various jurisdictions are shown at Table 13.2.

The number of powered water craft operated by the various police agencies is shown at Table 13.3.

Water police inter alia carry out search and rescue work. They also enforce various regulations involving port traffic. The Members of the various water police sections are part of the normal police promotional structure. They possess, in addition to their normal police qualifications, a variety of marine skills certificates.

Aircraft

Until 1983 all mainland state police agencies operated rotary and/or fixed wing aircraft. Queensland Police lost its air wing late that year. Aircraft operated by Queensland Police were handed over to the State Government. Queensland Government operates what is known as State Government Airways and that body took over the police aircraft. However, early in 1985, the government reserved its decision and aircraft were returned to police control.

Police Forces operate rotary and/or fixed wing aircraft depending on their needs. For instance, New South Wales Police operates only helicopters. Brief details of agency aircraft holdings are shown at Table 13.4.

Both rotary and fixed wing aircraft are utilised for a variety of tasks - from search and rescue work, traffic control, law enforcement duties, as well as transporting Police and equipment. Some Force use aircraft to ferry specialist Police teams, ie, Drug Squad members, to operational areas. To offset high purchase and running costs some police agencies hire their aircraft out when not operationally required. Police aircraft are generally piloted by serving police officers.

TABLE 13.2
COASTLINES: JURISDICTION BY LENGTH

jurisdiction	length of coastline (km)
NSW	1,900
V	1,800
Q	7,400
SA	3,700
WA	12,500
T	3,200
NT	6,200
ACT	35
NZ	4,000 (est)

Source: ABS

TABLE 13.3
WATERCRAFT HOLDINGS : AGENCY BY TYPE

agency	number	type
NSW	18	offshore vessels
	2	sharkcat
V	12	larger vessels, 54 feet +
	2	SAR craft
Q	11	large vessels
WA	2	boats
SA	6	power boats
T	3	offshore vessels
	18	Inshore craft
NT	3	offshore vessels
ACT	4	power boats
NZ	2	patrol craft

Source: Police department annual reports and spokespersons.

TABLE 13.4
AIRCRAFT HOLDINGS : AGENCY BY TYPE

agency	number	type
NSW	2	rotary wing
V	2	fixed wing
	1	rotary wing
Q	3	fixed wing
WA	2	fixed wing
SA	3	fixed wing
NT	2	fixed wing

Source: Police department annual reports and spokespersons.

CHAPTER 14

INTERNAL SECURITY

Garry Hannigan
Senior Constable
Queensland Police

In the first edition of Police Source Book it was felt appropriate to state that 'the political climate in the various states and territories generally has not lent itself to high levels of civil disorder or violence, although there are occasional outbursts of political protest from time to time, eg, Victorian moratorium marches'. Generally, that comment still holds although, quite impressionistically, it is felt the climate of political violence has deteriorated since those words were written. Not only have some disorders, eg, Pine Gap, Roxby Downs and New Zealand's Springbok tour violence, had a distinct political flavor but, other events, such as violent outbursts of a special nature by Aborigines in Sydney or builders laborers in Melbourne, begin to shade into political action.

In addition to such matters, demonstrations of mob violence such as have occurred at Moree, Bathurst, Glenelg, Newcastle, Mildura and elsewhere have served in very recent times to further increase levels of violence in society. Police have reacted to such events in a measured way and the results are dealt with in detail in the following chapters. These and other measures, especially those concerned with combatting any terrorist inspired violence that might occur, have led to a heightened emphasis of military style and organisation in some police units. The style is popular with many action oriented police officers and is measured by the strong attendance of police officers at selected army courses. Provided such preferences are confined to appropriate police sub units, little exception can be taken to the trend but, should they become popular in other functional areas, the result could well be an inhibition of professionalism. It is also noticeable that the Department of Defence is showing a marked interest in a range of internal security areas and it can be expected that the Defence head of power will be utilised before long to justify further involvement.

Anti-riot techniques and equipment

It is rare that other than hand to hand conflict occurs at political and other demonstrations. Police are not often forced to use batons on such occasions. They usually attempt to overpower demonstrators (police officers work in pairs where possible) and place them in vans to be transported to a watchhouse for charging and bail procedures. However, all police agencies possess sufficient armament and trained personnel to engage in limited small arms fire fights. Violent incidents involving extended use of small or medium caliber weapons would require military aid to the civil power.

Students, activists, guerrillas and terrorists

The majority of protest activities conducted so far are conducted by special interest groups and students rather than party political interests. The vast majority of such events are completely lawful and peaceful. During the period 1976 to 1979, however, the Queensland government restricted street marches. Hundreds of students and other protesters were arrested for unlawful street marching. Even so, relatively little violence occurred.

There has been relatively little terrorist activity in Australia, although a Turkish official has been assassinated and Israeli government premises bombed. In 1978, a bomb exploded outside Sydney's Hilton Hotel when Commonwealth Heads of Government were meeting in that city. One explanation of the event suggests a religious group was attempting to convey its displeasure to one of the heads of government attending the meeting. Another account, equally unofficial, has it that agents of a foreign government planted the bomb to discredit the religious group. Regardless of motivation, one police officer was killed and several others were wounded by shrapnel as a result of the explosion.

The sending of explosive devices by mail and the use of explosives in the pursuit of extortion type crime has grown in recent years. Bomb disposal squads have been established within most police forces in New Zealand and Australia. Personnel are trained to locate and defuse explosive devices. Many calls are made to police concerning the planting of bombs in buildings and other structures. Most such calls are hoaxes but each one has to be treated seriously. The Australian Army has bomb disposal personnel available in each state and the NZ Army offers similar expertise. Military personnel generally have better knowledge and greater expertise in the field of bomb disposal than police officers and it is they who mostly attend to the destruction of explosive devices.

The federal government has equipped some state police forces with special equipment, including bombsuits and purpose built operational vehicles.

Surveillance of subversive groups

Public knowledge of police activity in this area is naturally limited. However, a few general observations can be made. There are two branches within the various police forces possessing primary surveillance responsibilities. The more important of these, with respect to subversive groups, are the various Special Branches. It should be noted that Victoria Police no longer has a Special Branch on its organisation chart.

These units are staffed by experienced police officers, either plain clothed or detective staff. Their function inter alia is to monitor and observe the activities of subversive groups. The various Special Branches liaise closely with the Australian Security Intelligence Organisation (ASIO). This latter

body is not a police organisation despite its being frequently and erroneously referred to as a "secret police" agency.

Special Branches compile files inter alia on suspected political subversive groups and dangerous political activists. These files are not accessible to the public and little else is publicly known about the workings and activities of these sections. The Special Branch files of South Australia and New South Wales have both been subjected to outside scrutiny in recent years. The reports relating to these two inquiries are referenced at Part IV.

Other sections used in surveillance of subversive groups are the various Criminal Intelligence Bureaus. These units mainly carry out surveillance on criminals but have, on occasions, been used to carry out activities involving subversive groups, especially where there is an overlap between traditional crime and politically motivated activists.

Criminal intelligence personnel are variously trained in surveillance techniques, data collation and analysis. Sophisticated electronic surveillance equipment is utilised and officers assigned to such duties are generally regarded as among the more efficient and professional personnel in their respective agencies. In some instances, intelligence sections have been used to carry out surveillance on corrupt police officers but in recent times this practice has stopped in some states, as the internal investigation function tends to obstruct the criminal investigation function. Close liaison is maintained between the various criminal intelligence sections and/or units, including Telex links.

A routine crime intelligence function is that of collection, collation and dissemination of crime related data. In New South Wales, an operational arm has been added to the normally passive intelligence unit. The providing of operational arms to intelligence units is generally considered counter productive.

Use of undercover operatives

The various police departments all use undercover personnel and, on occasions, agents to detect offences. The practice is most common in the drug, unlawful gambling and prostitution fields.

Police officers act covertly principally to detect offences and obtain evidence to sustain convictions against offenders. But they also do so to obtain information of a more general nature concerning activities and relationships so as to permit analysts to reconstruct criminal networks. Generally speaking, younger members of the police service are used as agents. They are mostly employed for short periods in an undercover capacity only. If they remain too long in some fields they become compromised and possibly placed in danger. It is not uncommon in gaming and liquor prosecutions for principals to plead "not guilty" so as to force police to place undercover witnesses in court and therefore be subject to identification. Should the prosecution in such

cases depend in part on the evidence of undercover police officers, their cover is then 'blown'.

Other police officers are employed under deep cover for intelligence purposes. Such officers are used in a variety of fields, including drugs, gaming, organised crime, bikie gangs, etc. Such work is taxing and policies are being devised to support such officers, especially in terms of health, as the strain can be great. Generally, several years is the limit for police undercover operatives but considerable individual latitude has to be expected depending on the caliber of individual agents and the importance of their work.

The use of agents provocateurs is illegal in all states and although such persons were utilised until the mid 1930's in some departments, they are no longer employed. The changing nature of crime, however, has increased the use of non-police undercover agents in recent years.

Electronic surveillance

Telephone bugging and telecommunications interception generally are conducted with great selectivity by police. There is provision in the Telecommunications (Interception) Act 1979 for federal employees to monitor and alter telephones under prescribed circumstances, including the issue of a warrant.

The use of listening devices by police is controlled by state legislation and police are bound by the statutory constraints imposed on them. The Australian Security Intelligence Organisation Act 1979 empowers officers of that organisation to utilise listening devices within the states and territories regardless of state laws. A major scandal erupted in New South Wales when audio tapes, allegedly made illegally by police, were leaked in 1984. The resulting uproar contributed to the calling of a state government election.

CHAPTER 15

POLICE TACTICAL UNITS

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In response to a perceived need to provide specialised personnel to cope with high risk situations involving armed offenders or terrorists, to control demonstrations and riots with firmness and discipline, and to ensure the maintenance of order with minimum disruption and inconvenience at large public events, all police forces in Australasia have established tactical units of some form.

Police tactical units are generally formed either as armed offender squads or as public order squads, but in some forces the roles have become somewhat merged. The earliest units were established to provide a specialised response to armed offender situations. In the 1960s various units began to emerge in which small numbers of General Duties and/or CIB personnel were drawn together on a part-time basis and given special training in marksmanship, elementary tactical skills, and negotiation techniques. The squads were designed to be activated at short notice to deal with situations involving armed criminals or other armed persons posing a danger to the public. With the worldwide rise in political terrorism in the late 1960s and 1970s, a need was identified for more specialised training in counter-terrorist techniques to deal with more sophisticated armed offenders and more complex situations. In many cases the existing armed offender units provided the core for this new capability, and all forces now possess some form of anti-terrorist response force, either in a dedicated role or as an adjunct to the conventional armed offender role.

The second stimulus to the development of police tactical units has been an increase in the frequency and intensity of public order problems. In response to criticisms of poor handling of instances of public disorder, particularly those involving political demonstrations and large-scale sporting events where violence (in the latter case, often exacerbated by alcohol) has flared, most forces have formed tactical units with special responsibility for public order duties. In some jurisdictions, the formation of public order units has been a response to a general increase in the need to provide a crowd control capability. In addition, some jurisdictions have experienced a series of clashes, such as those which have occurred at the Bathurst motor cycle races in NSW in recent years, which seem to have assumed a regularity which demands the provision of dedicated public order units with full-time training or operational duties in this area. In other jurisdictions, the particular challenges

of large-scale public disorder, such as that accompanying the 1981 Springbok Tour of New Zealand, has led to the training of large numbers of personnel in public order-keeping skills and the formation of temporary specialised units (such as the New Zealand Police's well-publicised Red and Blue Escort Squads), which now provide a large pool of trained personnel able to be formed into new units as the need arises.

In spite of the belief that public disorder is now more frequent or more violent than in the past, it is still a relatively rare occurrence in Australasia. This infrequency creates major problems for police administrators. Police are severely criticised when they seem to be unable to effectively control a violent crowd. They are accused either of over-reaction, thus making the confrontation worse than it need have been, or of being insufficiently organised or equipped to handle public disorder. There are criticisms of lack of discipline in the face of provocation and of having overly authoritarian attitudes. Many of the proposed solutions involve the provision of specialised training and the formation of units with a specifically public order role.

Unfortunately, however, it is difficult to justify, for example, the maintenance of a dedicated riot control unit, when that unit may be used only rarely, if at all, on riot control duties. But if a riot does eventuate, and police either fail to contain it or overreact because of inadequate planning and training for, and discipline in, these situations, they are the target of considerable criticism. The solution attempted in some forces has been to create multi-role units which combine some elements of public order duties with such other specialised areas as armed offender operations, protective security, and in some cases, search and rescue. Other forces have created more specialised but part-time squads.

Some criticism has been made of police tactical units on the grounds that they may introduce a "heavier" element into policing. The fear has been expressed that because these units exist, with their emphasis on being prepared for violence and their access to special equipment (such as helmets, shields, long batons, chemical munitions), they will be deployed in situations in which more conventional police units have been used in the past and will introduce a more confrontationist element into the situation. This, it is claimed, leads to greater violence and more injuries than would occur with use of 'normal' policing methods. Others see the introduction of tactical units as the thin edge of the wedge for the creation of a paramilitary police force.

While some of these issues have often been raised in a largely ideological context by those who oppose police generally, they do nevertheless expose some genuine problems which police have seldom been willing to acknowledge publicly. There is certainly a seeming contradiction, in terms of philosophy, training, and tactics, in having units trained extensively in riot control and associated skills and also being expected to carry out community policing duties. The possibility must be honestly

addressed of a preparation for violence and training in aggressive techniques having a spillover effect such that members of tactical units approach their normal policing in a more aggressive manner than is desirable.

A similar potential has been raised for armed offender operations. A recent official inquiry in New Zealand into the fatal shooting of an offender by an Armed Offenders Squad Entry Section (all of whose members also happened to be members of the Police Anti-Terrorist Squad) discussed the possible dangers of dual roles, particularly that Anti Terrorist Squad training may make a member more aggressive than was desirable for normal armed offender operations. Although finding that the Armed Offenders Squad had acted reasonably and properly in the operation which led to the shooting, the inquiry recommended that "the Police carefully consider the possibility of membership of the Anti-Terrorist Squad influencing the attitude of its members in a manner harmful to the exercise of their duties as Armed Offenders Squad members and should this be found to be likely, take remedial steps" (Report for the Honourable MBR Couch MP, Minister of Police, from CM Nicholson Esq, QC, Re: Paul Chase Shooting, September 1983, p113).

No doubt, some of the possible conflicts between public order and community policing can be overcome or minimised by improved and appropriate training, better staff work, upgraded command and control capabilities and clearer policy guidelines to operational commanders and field staff. But these conflicts must be addressed squarely so that such alienation of some sections of the community as will inevitably occur with the use of tactical units will be limited. Police need to assess carefully the appropriate structure of tactical units and, in particular, the appropriateness of their deployment in specific situations. Often, conflict with the community might be lessened if such assessments were carried out as part of community consultative arrangements. Certainly there is a need for openness about the existence and nature of tactical units. It seems inevitable that such squads will remain part of modern policing and we must ensure that their existence does not overly influence the relationship between the police and the public.

Table 15.1 provides a listing of the various Australasian Police Tactical Units by agency. The details of these units are given for each jurisdiction on the following pages.

New Zealand

Armed Offenders Squads. Armed Offenders Squads became operational in 1965 and are designed to efficiently counter armed persons who present a danger to the public or the Police, while enabling the traditional 'unarmed' concept of normal policing in New Zealand to be retained. Squad philosophy emphasises the use of patience and 'voice appeal', with use of force being very much a last resort.

All 16 Police Districts are served by squads or sections, with Auckland and Wellington each having two squads. A basic

TABLE 15.1

NAMES OF POLICE TACTICAL UNITS : BY AGENCY

agency	public order	armed offender/ anti terrorist
NZ	Team Policing Units	1. Armed Offender Squads 2. Anti Terrorist Squad
NSW	Tactical Response Group	Special Weapons and Operations Squad
V	Independent Patrol Group	Special Operations Group
Q	1. Public Safety Response Team 2. Task Force, Brisbane	Emergency Squad
WA	Special Squads/Task Forces	Emergency Squad
SA	Special Tasks & Rescue Force	Special Tasks and Rescue Force
T	1. Special Weapons Squad 2. Task Force	Special Weapons Squad
NT	Task Force	Task Force
ACT *	Tactical Support Unit	Special Operations Team

* Australian Federal Police, ACT Policing Component

squad comprises one officer, two NCOs and nine men, but in the larger centres, additional officers and men fill key positions. The needs of smaller centres are covered by sections of the squads comprising five members and two NCOs. The total number of personnel serving with Armed Offenders Squads is 177.

Members undergo an initial training course in arms proficiency and operational techniques prior to taking up duty with a squad or section, and this is followed by periodic refresher training. Members are required to train as a section one day per month and the Squads must train with their respective sections at least three times annually. Every fourth training day is required to be used for range practice. There is also an annual qualification shoot at which all members are required to demonstrate that they are above the minimum standard. Squad members are armed only when engaged in an armed offender operation. At other times they carry out normal uniform or CIB duties.

During 1982 the Armed Offenders Squads attended 130 incidents.

Anti Terrorist Squad. The Anti Terrorist Squad (ATS) was formed in 1977 in response to the growing incidence of international terrorism. The Police have the primary responsibility for dealing with acts of terrorism within New Zealand, but may also call for assistance from the counter terrorist element of the Defence Forces if the situation warrants it. The ATS comprises 30 specially selected members of Armed Offenders Squads organised as three sections, one each based at Auckland, Wellington, and Christchurch. As with the AOS, members of the ATS are armed only when engaged in appropriate operations, and otherwise carry out normal uniform or CIB duties. Advanced weaponry is available only to the ATS.

The Squad was brought to a very high standard of proficiency by an initial training course in counter terrorist tactics and this is kept current by monthly training sessions. The Squad exercises with highly trained Police Hostage Negotiation Teams, and also with Defence Forces to ensure that there is necessary co-ordination in the event of a terrorist operation involving Defence support.

Team Policing Units. In the past few years large numbers of police throughout New Zealand have undergone special training to enable them to form teams to cope with particular outbreaks of violence related to gangs, demonstrations and crowd unruliness. These units form the primary trained response to situations of public disorder. During the 1981 Springbok Tour of New Zealand two groups of Team Police trained personnel were formed into Escort Groups and provided with more specialised training and equipment to deal with serious and potentially violent protest confrontations. This capability now exists for any future events of a similar nature.

New South Wales

The New South Wales Police Force has established two major elements which deal specifically with public disorder and armed offender situations. These are the Tactical Response Group (TRG) and the Special Weapons and Operations Squad (SWOS).

Tactical Response Group. The TRG is a statewide support element designed to provide for more efficient and effective management and control of complex operations requiring general policing experience in conjunction with specialist skills and training. The Group provides a response unit of selected volunteer general duties police, available 24 hours a day, to be used on complex operations or those beyond the normal function or capacity of police in the incident area. The objectives of the TRG are (1) to provide a street patrol force for saturation patrols strategically activated and deployed to combat outbreaks of hooliganism, violence and criminal activity, (2) to provide a trained and disciplined group for rapid deployment at incidents of civil disobedience, public disorder, demonstrations and riots, (3) to supplement and support the Special Weapons and Operation Squad in siege/hostage situations and counter-terrorist operations, and to relieve that Squad of duties in gaols during industrial disputes, and (4) to develop appropriate techniques to expand

police capabilities regarding disasters, searches, rescue operations and the like.

In accordance with these objectives, the following duties are typical of those performed by the TRG:

- * assistance to the Special Weapons and Operations Squad by providing a support element to be used in emergency siege/hostage incidents, including the maintenance of controlled perimeters
- * crowd control in situations of riots, demonstrations, processions, strikes, public entertainment and major sporting events
- * rapid deployment to the scene of any disaster or emergency where it can provide specialist assistance such as disaster victim identification, information processing, manning floodboats, perimeter control, prevention and detection of looting, and general support to other specialist groups
- * deployment during times of industrial disputes at Corrective Services establishments to provide security within the gaols and to perform guard duty
- * saturation patrols. Where serious problems or criminal activities are occurring on a regular basis, the Group is used to saturate the particular area with a view to detecting and apprehending the offender/s. The TRG is also used to perform patrols in specific areas as a preventive policing measure
- * searches. The TRG is utilised in searches for missing persons, vehicles, vessels and aircraft and in searches of large areas where serious crime is suspected. Some members are trained as observers for air search and rescue operations. The TRG also provides an expert unit to search any location for bombs or other explosive devices
- * security. The TRG performs and assists in static guarding for Royal visits and VIP tours and, when special circumstances exist, assists with the security of consular residences and offices. The Group may be deployed as perimeter guards or to quickly cordon off any area which operational necessity dictates should be secure
- * special escorts. The TRG provides teams for escorts for persons considered to be dangerous or a security risk

The TRG structure incorporates a number of discrete elements.

Executive Element. This element, which is responsible for the overall management of the Group, comprises a Controller (Superintendent in Charge), Chief Inspector (Operations Commander), and Inspector (Training Commander).

Administrative Element. The purpose of this element is to relieve the Operations Element of the requirement to perform many administrative functions, thereby allowing the Operations Element as much time as possible to act as a street patrol force. The functions carried out by this element include operations support (planning, research, intelligence, preparation of operation orders, preparation of briefings/debriefings), equipment control, personnel, and communications.

Operations Element. This element, with 40 members, carries the major responsibility for carrying out the TRG's major tasks. It consists of four Supervisors (Sergeants 1st Class) and nine teams, each team consisting of a Team Leader (Sergeant 3rd Class or junior Sergeant 2nd Class) and three Team members (any Constable rank).

Divisional Element. The New South Wales Metropolitan Area is divided into ten Police Districts, and these Districts contain a total of 33 Police Divisions. The Divisional Element of the TRG consists of ten District Commanders (Inspectors), 33 Field Supervisors (Sergeants 1st Class) and 66 four-man teams (two teams per Division). At the time of writing, training is under way to bring the 66 Divisional Teams up to full strength (ie, 264 personnel) with fully-trained personnel presently numbering 247. The Divisional Element personnel have a dual role. Although they make up fully trained TRG units, they perform primarily General Duties and only adopt their TRG role when any emergency situation arises (as opposed to the Operations Element which always acts in the TRG role).

Training Element. This consists of seven Instructors who are responsible (with the assistance of other Departmental and outside Instructors) for the training of all TRG personnel and the development of new TRG courses.

In order to be able to perform the extensive duties assigned to the TRG, a great deal of emphasis is placed on adequate specialised training. All members of the TRG are required to undergo a five week (25 training days) Initial Training Course prior to being permitted to participate in TRG duties. This course includes the following subjects:

- * weapons/firearms - including survival shooting techniques, fatal errors, vital points of shooting, shotguns and handguns
- * operations and command - including operation orders, elementary observation, operational movement, field signals, night vision, control centre operation, leadership

- * crowd control - including crowd psychology, control formations, field tactics, demonstration guidelines and use of tactical body armour
- * SWOS - Standing Operational Procedures
- * siege situations - high risk incidents, building entry and search procedures
- * prisons - duties in prisons during industrial disputes
- * bombs - introduction, identification, bomb search procedures
- * legal aspects
- * radio communications
- * weapon control
- * use of the PR24 Baton and the Police Long Baton
- * physical training.

In addition to the Initial Training Course, TRG Team Leaders and Commanders are required to participate in an additional course which includes instruction on leadership, operations command and orders, drill, situation problems, presentation of orders, and field exercises.

After successfully completing initial training, all TRG personnel are then assigned to a compulsory on-going training program which includes the following subjects:

- * map reading
- * Disaster Victim Identification
- * physical training
- * handling of rescue boats
- * air observer for search and rescue
- * communications
- * counter-escape plans for prisons
- * bomb appraisal
- * roping and rapelling
- * baton practice
- * weapons practice
- * scenarios related to current events.

TABLE 15.2

TASKINGS OF NSW POLICE TACTICAL RESPONSE GROUP 1982-1983

month	1982	1983
Jan	-	30
Feb	-	50
Mar	-	52
Apr	-	38
May	20	147
Jun	20	127
Jul	18	156
Aug	22	160
Sep	7	104
Oct	4	170
Nov	10	96(as at 15Nov)
Dec	23	

Source: PDNSW

Members of the Divisional Element, TRG, are required to attend On-Going Training for one day (an eight-hour shift) each month. However, members of the Operations Element, in addition to attending the one day training session each month, are also required to participate in training on a daily basis, whenever rostering time permits. The training program is under constant review by the Training Element in an effort to ensure that TRG personnel are being trained for the types of duties which they are or could become involved in.

The extent to which the TRG is employed can be seen from Table 15.2 which is compiled from Job Sheets maintained for each task the TRG has performed since its formation on 1 May 1982 (data are available only until 15 November 1983). The tasks enumerated include many routine functions as well as the policing of major public events.

The major events which required specialist deployment of the TRG included the Bathurst Motor Cycle and Car Race, Anzac Day demonstration, and larger football and cricket matches. The only events which actually resulted in acts of violence were the Bathurst Motor Cycle Races (during which the Police Command Post was besieged by a large crowd armed with rocks, bricks, and petrol bombs) and the Anzac Day demonstration. Equipment issued to TRG members for incidents such as those at Bathurst include long batons, three-quarter length perspex shields, steel-capped boots, groin protectors, leather jackets, full-face helmets, and shin guards.

Special Weapons and Operations Squad. The SWOS is a unit located within the Criminal Investigation Branch, tasked with the resolution of high-risk incidents involving armed and dangerous offenders, barricaded/besieged persons involving hostages, terrorist actions, and air piracy. The operational objective in

response actions is to resolve the particular situation with minimum risk to (in descending order of priority) the public, the police, the offender, and property. Deployment philosophy of the SWOS is one of rescue, with force being the last option.

Squad members undergo training in weapons, close quarter battle techniques, map reading and the following specialist areas:

- * negotiation
- * roping and rapelling
- * marksmanship
- * chemical agents deployment
- * threat assessment.

The Squad comprises a permanent element of nine instructors with 110 detectives drawn from Sydney Metropolitan Squads. Women are represented in both the permanent and volunteer elements. Country areas of New South Wales are covered by ten Special Weapons and Operations Squads at Superintendents' headquarters, with 357 members deployed throughout the State at regional stations. Regional Squads comprise plainclothes and uniformed officers, mainly uniformed.

The role of Regional SWOS units in high risk incidents is to provide a secure perimeter or holding action pending the arrival of the Metropolitan SWOS to effect resolution. Training, of both Metropolitan and Regional SWOS units is conducted by the permanent instructional element. Each Squad member is required to undergo a strict medical examination every twelve months and it is a Departmental directive that each member must participate in physical training. SWOS units are utilised primarily on the following tasks:

- * arrest of escapees
- * arrest of armed offenders
- * siege situations involving recovery of hostages
- * response to extortions
- * close protection of visiting VIPs
- * secure escort of reputedly dangerous prisoners.

Victoria

Victoria Police has established Protective Security Groups with special responsibility for VIP security, court security, and counter-terrorist operations. In this context, terrorism includes politically motivated criminal activity as well as other forms of

activity which terrorise people. In addition, the groups provide general support to police operations throughout the State.

The Protective Security Groups consist of the Court Security Group (which need concern us no further here, as its role is to provide security within the precincts of the Supreme and County Courts of Victoria), the Independent Patrol Group, and the Special Operations Group. They are under the command of an officer of, or above, the rank of Superintendent who:

- * subject to such modifications as are necessary, assumes the responsibilities of an Officer in Charge of a District
- * reports directly to the Officer in Charge of a District
- * maintains liaison with the Bureau of Criminal Intelligence concerning any activities or impending events having a potential need for the deployment of Protective Security Groups
- * maintains liaison with the Courts Liaison Officer (CIB) and any other section of the Force as may from time to time be determined necessary.

He is assisted by a small administration staff.

Independent Patrol Group. The Independent Patrol Group (IPG) was the first section of the Protective Security Groups to be established. It was formed to give operational support to all police units when, where, and for whatever purpose it is required. The IPG works in both plain clothes and uniform. Its roles include VIP protection, silent observation watches, searching for escaped prisoners or lost persons, manning the inner perimeter for hazardous situations, providing operational support for the Special Operations Groups, disaster victim identification, and crowd control in violent demonstrations. Because of its size and training and the fact that it is not tied to one geographical area, the IPG gives the Victoria Police the flexibility to mount operations that local districts would never be capable of.

Special Operations Group. The role of the Special Operations Group (SOG) is directed towards (a) preventive/protective security, and (b) combat operations. The SOG protects persons threatened with death or injury (such as VIPs or witnesses) and guards security sensitive establishments and locations faced with destruction through extortion. Other responsibilities include responding to situations involving hostages, barricades and snipers. The Group assists in searches involving some threat of armed retaliation and gives protection to persons engaged in undercover operations. Assistance is given in stake-outs, and overt and covert surveillance conducted by other squads. The SOG also has a counter-terrorist capability, as well as handling most situations involving explosives, such as bomb searches and searches of blast scenes. In conjunction with the IPG, the SOG provides chemical munitions for civil and jail disorders.

The Deputy Commissioner (Operations) must approve any request for operational deployment of the SOG and its resources, determines all policy decisions, and approves the Group's training objectives.

Queensland

Emergency Squad. The Emergency Squad consists of 50 officers drawn on a part-time basis from various sections of the Brisbane Criminal Investigation Branch and uniformed staff under the control of an Inspector. In addition, a small six-man Emergency Squad is located at Townsville in case of a serious incident in North Queensland. The function of this Squad is to act in a holding capacity until the arrival of the Brisbane Squad.

The Emergency Squad is primarily designed to deal with serious armed offender and terrorist situations. Members receive specialised training to enable them to handle armed offenders in siege situations, hijackings, counter-terrorism and any other incidents involving armed or dangerous people.

Task Force, Brisbane. The Task Force is a 20 person unit under the control of an Inspector, whose primary function is to provide specialised back-up support to the Licensing Branch, the Criminal Investigation Branch and uniformed police at sporting venues, as well as to give assistance in policing areas where hooliganism and other major behaviour problems appear prevalent. The Task Force is stationed in Brisbane, but can be despatched to other centres in the State to provide temporary saturation policing and to support local police confronted with situations of public disorder.

Public Safety Response Team (PSRT). The PSRT was formed in 1982 to provide a purpose-trained unit to be available for use at the scene of any civil disturbance or disorder to restore peace and order and to protect the safety of the public. Its members can also be used in any non-violent situation where public safety is in jeopardy. The team has 64 personnel under the command of an Inspector, with a Sergeant First Class as second-in-command. Two Sergeants Second Class act as Field Commanders and the remainder of the Team is comprised of five squads of 12 men each, with two non-commissioned officers in each squad. One of the squads is a specialist shield squad trained to deal with riot situations.

The PSRT trains for one day per month and training involves special baton instruction and drills, formation drills, arrest techniques with two-man teams, fitness training (mainly aerobic), and discipline training with simulated confrontation situations.

In the last 12 months the PSRT has been in attendance at such events as Aboriginal Land Rights demonstrations, the Commonwealth Games, Royal Visit, large scale rock concerts, New Year Celebrations at Coolangatta and Queen Street Mall demonstrations in Brisbane.

Western Australia

Emergency Squad. The Western Australia Police Emergency Squad is based at Police Headquarters, Perth. The Squad was formed to attend to any armed offender situation that may occur anywhere in the State. It does not attend to any of the political or other type demonstrations against public order.

Special Squads or Task Forces. These units are raised when and where a problem exists or is envisaged, such as large sporting events, popular punk rock concerts, industrial disputes, demonstrations, protests, disasters, or if large unruly groups start to congregate in certain areas.

In 1979, Task Force Command 'Bravo' was formed to counter a threatened industrial riot when it was alleged that 10,000 unionists intended to protest at Police Headquarters and demand release of their colleagues, arrested previously. It comprised 475 officers and men. The units were deployed outside Police Headquarters, complete with facilities for arresting and processing prisoners. The strength and organisation displayed defused the situation.

In 1980, the Nukunbah Task Force was formed to escort a convoy of drilling rigs and equipment to Nukunbah drilling site and it was anticipated that demonstrators would try to disrupt or interfere with the operation.

During 1982/83, public order events requiring special units or deployment of substantial police were:

- * Rottnest Island disturbances (WASP)
- * New Year's Eve (Element of Task Force 'Bravo')
- * Perth City Council garbage strike (Task Force Element)
- * various other industrial disputes
- * demonstrations at the visits of various nuclear ships.

Apart from the Western Australia Police Emergency Squad there is no special training given other than briefings, lectures or written exercises.

In 1980, a WASP (West Australia Special Police) team was formed as crowds of punk rockers and larrikins were becoming organised, visiting large hotels and being disruptive, brawling, damaging property and committing various offences. To deal with this problem, WASP was formed, being a mobile team drawn from Uniform, Traffic, CIB, Plain Clothes and Photographic personnel. Its aim was to locate the problem areas at night, deploy plain clothes elements, identify the leaders and major problems and when offences occurred, move in fast, arrest the offenders and move on to the next venue. WASP is used at tourist resorts, sports arenas and other areas where large groups of youths gathered. Strength of the unit has varied from 16 to 40 officers. In general, WASP was successful in fulfilling its mission, though it is periodically reformed for specific incidents.

South Australia

Special Tasks and Rescue (STAR) Force. Star Force is an integrated specialist patrol force which began operating in the South Australian Police Department on 30 November 1978. At formation date the organisational features of the Force were quite new, and the Department believes that the Force was the first of its type in the world. The concept itself was not entirely new as the Police Force had, for a number of years, had available special squads which dealt with emergencies. The practice was to call the specialists together when an emergency arose, and since most squad members were attached to Headquarters (now Central Headquarters) commands this could be done conveniently and expeditiously.

With the re-organisation of the Force in 1973, and its subsequent decentralisation, it became more difficult and time-consuming to assemble these squads. It was decided that it would be more practical and expedient to combine all the skills in one unit and have specialist personnel on duty or available on call at all times to deal with emergencies.

Star Force is, in effect, a combination of the pre-existing Task Force, Armed Offenders Apprehension Group, and Emergency Operations Group, but is an expansion of their original roles. The concept is designed to handle problems and situations which require more concentrated and coordinated attention than can normally be provided by the general duties police and/or which call for tactics which cannot be used by patrol members in uniform.

The unit has its headquarters at Police Barracks, Thebarton. It consists of highly trained personnel skilled in the use of firearms, anti-terrorist tactics, crowd control, crime prevention techniques, underwater recovery, and search and rescue techniques. Thus, there is available at all times a mobile patrol force to assist other line units in emergencies of any kind, and to act as a support force in crime control operations.

The charter of Star Force responsibilities comprises:

- * armed offender containment
- * anti-terrorist containment
- * VIP protection
- * crowd control (eg, at sporting fixtures and demonstrations)
- * search and rescue operations
- * helicopter operations (as a support to virtually all Star Force operations)
- * winch operation (lowering personnel to inaccessible places and recovering casualties)
- * air observer leaders (coordinating aircraft support to ground and sea operations)

- * underwater recovery
- * sea rescue
- * cliff rescue
- * mine and cave rescue
- * map coordination
- * force lecture commitments
- * immediate first aid to casualties
- * high risk arrest (outside the role of general duties policing).

The philosophy of the unit when policing any contingency is to adopt a firm and positive attitude in an endeavour to maintain public order.

Members of Star Force are carefully selected. Because of the high standard of efficiency and physical fitness expected from its members, training is considered a high priority. Training is aimed first at attaining the standards required, and then at maintaining them at a high level. To this end, a most interesting training program has been developed. Each member is trained in all facets of the areas of responsibility outlined above. The only exceptions are the highly specialised functions of underwater recovery, some aspects of high-powered weaponry, and helicopter operations. The number of members skilled in these areas is limited, but other members are trained as support units.

Each of the four Star Force teams undergoes four days training one week in four. This training is provided by members of the Logistics Support Group, which is an integral part of Star Force. The Logistics Support Group comprises a Senior Sergeant, three Sergeants and four Constables who are experienced officers having specialised knowledge in all the activities which Star Force personnel are required to perform. Two of the four training days are allocated to Special Weapons, which includes training to deal with high risk situations such as domestic disturbances involving armed persons, or criminal/terrorist sieges involving hostages or barricade situations. Star Force personnel are required to attain a high level of skill in handling such situations to minimise any danger to victims and to be able to neutralise offenders without violence if possible.

The remaining two training days are allocated to rescue training where all aspects of rescue operations are practised. In addition to these four days of regular training, specialised training in the following activities is conducted:

- * helicopter operations
- * winch operations
- * air observer leader, navigation and radio communications
- * underwater recovery and sea rescue.

All Star Force personnel undergo physical fitness and endurance training each day they are on duty.

As well as undergoing the departmental training program, Star Force members also receive specialised training by other agencies in the following fields:

- * VIP protection
- * marksmanship
- * aircraft navigation
- * search and rescue techniques
- * first aid
- * field catering.

Star Force is commanded by a Commissioned Officer, and is divided into two groups of equal strength and capabilities with a Senior Sergeant in charge of each. Both groups are divided into two teams of ten Constables, with a Sergeant as supervisor of each team. Each team contains one or more experts in each special activity and the other team members provide the back-up. The teams rotate on a four week roster system. Duty hours are spread from 0830 hours to the following 0230 hours for seven days each week. This means that there is at least one team on duty during those hours to attend to any emergency. During 'high risk' periods there are two or three teams available. There is also a mobilisation plan to ensure a quick back-up for teams on duty, or to recall emergency teams during non-duty hours.

During the financial year 1982/83 Star Force personnel participated in operations connected with the following events:

- * 66 x Special Operations
- * 17 x searches for escapees
- * 15 x demonstrations
- * 17 x major crimes
- * 2 x sporting fixtures.

The majority of special operations involved crowd control at major functions.

Tasmania

Special Weapons Squad. The Tasmania Police maintains a Special Weapons Squad trained to deal with all situations involving armed persons. Responsibilities of this Squad range from containment and resolution of armed offender situations to specialised duties of an anti-terrorist nature. As with other

Australian police forces, much of the specialised equipment and training for the anti-terrorist role has been provided by the Commonwealth Government through the Standing Advisory Committee on Commonwealth-State Co-operation for Protection Against Violence (SAC-PAV), which is responsible for co-ordinating counter-terrorism planning and responses on a national level. In 1982-83, SAC-PAV's appropriation included \$1.6 million to buy special equipment for State and Territory police forces, including a number of specially equipped tactical vehicles for counter-terrorist operations and communications equipment, and to fund training programs.

As well as being equipped for armed offender and counter-terrorist roles, the Special Weapons Squad assumes a secondary role in riot control. In 1983, the Squad was called out for one domestic siege, four VIP escorts, and 5 standbys (arising from murders and similar activities). There are 31 members in the Squad, which is structured into a headquarters group, three assault teams, and three sniper teams.

Training for the Squad includes the following areas:

- * close quarter combat
- * building and vehicle assault techniques
- * marksmanship
- * operational planning
- * ground navigation
- * rapelling (buildings, cliff and airborne).

Involvement in national exercises through SAC-PAV, as well as other counter-terrorist training activities has significantly improved the skills and operational preparedness of the Special Weapons Squad.

Task Force. A four-person Task Force operates each night in Hobart and its suburbs. It is a highly mobile unit which concentrates on areas where hooliganism and unruly behaviour are most prevalent.

Northern Territory

Task Force. The special group formed for public order and armed offender incidents in the Northern Territory is the NT Police Task Force. The objective of the Task Force is to provide readily available trained personnel and the equipment necessary for emergency search, rescue, and other special operations. The duties of the Task Force are as follows:

- * search and rescue operations
- * anti-hijack and anti-terrorist activities

- * underwater recovery
- * national disaster emergency control
- * riot control
- * domestic, industrial, transport and mining emergencies
- * apprehension of armed offenders and criminal escapees
- * VIP security.

There are currently 31 members in the Task Force which has the following rank structure:

- * 1 x Chief Inspector
- * 1 x Sergeant First Class
- * 1 x Sergeant Second Class
- * 5 x Sergeants Third Class
- * 23 x Constables.

Special training is provided so that some members of the squad are qualified for all the major operational requirements, eg, underwater recovery, cliff rescue, armed offender situations, etc. All members are trained in group activities, such as riot and crowd control.

Because of the remoteness of the Northern Territory and the size and dispersal of the population, incidents of large-scale public disorder are uncommon. The only significant public order situation which has involved deployment of the Task Force in recent times was on 17 August 1982 when there was a large assembly in Darwin to protest against the export of uranium yellowcake. A number of protesters picketed a security yard and chained themselves to the fence. As a result of this demonstration 16 persons were arrested.

Australian Capital Territory

Tactical Support Group. The Tactical Response Group (TSG) comprises 60 members of the General Policing Division of the Australian Federal Police, ACT Region. The Group is under the control of an Inspector and was conceived as a quick-response unit with capacity to deal with possible violent, political demonstrations in the ACT. Training takes place on two days per month and includes riot and crowd control formation drills; use of batons, protective shields and helmets; plus unarmed combat and 'come-along' holds. In addition the TSG has been trained in Disaster Victim Identification procedures.

Special Operations Team. The specialised functions of armed offender and anti-terrorist operations in the ACT are the responsibility of the Australian Federal Police Special Operations Team.

CHAPTER 16

DRUG ENFORCEMENT AND POLICE

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Drug enforcement in Australia is a combined State, Territory and Federal responsibility. In each jurisdiction drug laws incorporate the controls and penalties for offences required by international drug conventions, although there is considerable variation in the precise provisions applying in each State and Territory. The responsibility for enforcing the drug laws of each State and the Northern Territory lies with their respective Police Forces, each of which has a specialised drug squad. The Australian Federal Police has responsibility for policing laws relating to illegal drugs within the Australian Capital Territory.

In Australia, the illicit importation and exportation of drugs is covered by the Customs Act 1901. The federal Minister for Industry and Commerce, responsible for the Australian Customs Service, administers the Act, but the Special Minister of State administers some specific law enforcement provisions relating to control of drug trafficking. In practice, this means that the Customs Service is responsible for detecting drugs at the Customs barrier and the Australian Federal Police for investigations beyond the barrier. Generally, the Australian Federal Police prosecutes Commonwealth offenders.

At the operational level there has been increasing cooperation in drug enforcement activities, particularly in the light of recommendations of recent Royal Commissions (specifically, the Australian Royal Commission of Inquiry into Drugs, which reported in March 1980, and the Stewart Royal Commission of Inquiry into Drug Trafficking, which reported in February 1983). This cooperation is often formalised by the formation of joint units or task forces. In the Northern Territory a Combined Drug Law Enforcement Unit comprising members of the Northern Territory Police and the Australian Federal Police has been formed. This unit is responsible for the enforcement of both State and Federal laws relating to drug trafficking. A similar unit has been formed in Tasmania, comprising members of the Tasmania Police and the Australian Federal Police. A Commonwealth-State Task Force established in 1979 and comprising members of the Australian Federal Police and the New South Wales Police is continuing investigations into drug trafficking and drug importation into Australia. In addition there are a number of operations in progress at any time involving cooperative efforts

between relevant State and Territory Police, the Australian Federal Police and the Australian Customs Service.

The Australian Federal Police maintains liaison posts in Malaysia, Thailand, Indonesia, the United States of America, New Zealand and the United Kingdom. Additional posts will soon be established in the Phillipines, Hong Kong, Italy, Singapore and Pakistan. The officers stationed at these posts maintain liaison with drug enforcement authorities within their area and co-ordinate those international drug investigations where Australia is identified as the recipient country.

The enforcement pattern in New Zealand is, of course, less complex organisationally, due to the fact of its having a national police agency. Police and Customs work closely on operations connected with importation and trafficking and police Drug Squads provide specialised enforcement within the country. New Zealand Police also maintain overseas liaison posts in Sydney, Bangkok and Singapore.

Both Australia and New Zealand have experienced significant increase in the use of illicit drugs in the past decade. Particularly in the period 1982 to the present there have been major increases in seizures of heroin, cannabis, and cocaine made at or near the point of importation. Price stability and reports of increased availability of illicit drugs suggests that in spite of large seizures a large part of the supply is continuing to penetrate the Customs barrier. Amphetamine, 4 Bromo 2, 5 dimethoxyamphetamine, and LSD appear to also be increasing in demand and availability. Heroin continues to come mainly from South Asia but some shipments from South West Asia have also been made.

One trend noticed is a tendency for Australian heroin importers to have South East Asian supplies delivered in Australia rather than themselves undertaking the shipment of consignments ordered. Since this has been observed particularly with shipments of Thai origin, it is hypothesised that the heavier Thai trafficking penalties and increased drug enforcement activities in Thailand are significant factors in causing this change. However, increased risk does not seem to have affected the price or purity of heroin on the street (which has remained reasonably static at around \$120 per 'street gram' and 15 to 20 per cent pure in Sydney).

Concern has been expressed in both Australia and New Zealand about the link between drug use and crime. Whilst it is very difficult to determine causal relationships, and thus determine accurately the extent to which crime is committed by drug users to gain income to finance drug purchases, there is ample evidence of an increasing proportion of armed robberies and breaking offences being drug-related. Violence within the drug scene has also increased the rate of violent assault and murder.

Brief information about drug enforcement in each Australasian jurisdiction is given in the following sections.

New Zealand

Co ordination of drug enforcement efforts in New Zealand is the responsibility of the National Drug Intelligence Bureau, located at Police National Headquarters, Wellington. The Bureau was established in 1972 to act as a central co-ordinating organisation designed to improve operational co-operation between Police and Customs and liaison with the Department of Health. It is staffed by Police and Customs personnel and operates under the direction of a Board of Control, which is chaired by the Commissioner of Police and includes departmental heads from Health and Customs and specialised staff involved in the drugs area. The principal functions of the Bureau are to interpret trends in drug use in New Zealand and overseas and to collect and analyse drug intelligence. The Bureau assists field enforcement staff in a variety of ways including the identification of offenders, supply of current intelligence on persons trafficking in illicit drugs, and liaison with overseas agencies. Drug enforcement operations are the responsibility of Police Drug Squads based in a number of Police Districts.

The increasing amount of crime which appears to be drug-related has attracted considerable attention in New Zealand in recent years, particularly in the area of violent offending. In terms of drug usage, cannabis offending is the largest and fastest growing area of drug abuse. Police and Customs operations have significantly reduced the amount of heroin entering the country, but there is a resurgence in the availability of LSD and indications of increased use of cocaine. Major operations over the past two or three years have destroyed several large importing and distribution syndicates.

The New Zealand Police have the power of search without warrant under the Misuse of Drugs Act 1975. In the year ended 31 March 1983, this power was exercised on 484 occasions, on 358 of which drugs were seized. The Police also have the power to use listening devices and intercept telephone conversations. Interception warrants may be issued under authority of the Misuse Of Drugs Amendment Act 1978. The New Zealand Police consider this power central to their ability to convict large-scale drug traffickers. In the year ended 31 March 1983, a total of 24 prosecutions resulted from evidence obtained from the use of listening devices. All persons charged faced a multiple number of charges related to drug dealing offences.

New South Wales

The problem of illicit drugs in New South Wales from a law enforcement point of view is on four levels. The importer level - with responsibility vested in the Australian Customs Service and the Australian Federal Police; major traffickers; plantations (Indian Hemp); and intermediary dealers and users - the latter three levels being the responsibility of the New South Wales Police Force. In addition, as a result of Royal Commission recommendations, the Commonwealth/State Joint Task Force on Drug Trafficking, comprising equal numbers of Australian Federal Police and NSW Police was formed in 1979 for the purpose of investigating

importers and major traffickers. The diagrammatic representation of this structure is set out in Table 16.1.

TABLE 16.1

DIVISION OF RESPONSIBILITY FOR DRUG ENFORCEMENT IN NSW

activity level	enforcement responsibility
1. importation	Customs, AFP - Joint Task Force
2. major trafficking	- NSW Police Drug Law Enforcement Bureau Joint Task Force
3. cultivating plantatations	- NSW Police Drug Law Enforcement Bureau -
4. intermediate dealing and using	- NSW Police Drug Law Enforcement Bureau -

Drug Law Enforcement Bureau

The NSW Police Drug Law Enforcement Bureau (DLEB) was established in late 1984 with a budget of some \$6 million and a strength of 152 police and 2 civilian computer experts. The Bureau was formed largely from the existing NSW Police Drug Squad. It is organised on a decentralised system, whilst still maintaining a strong centralised headquarters.

DLEB headquarters is situated at the Criminal Investigation Branch headquarters in Sydney. Staff comprise the Chief Superintendent in Charge, administrative staff, Special Forces Group (Undercover) as well as operational units. The Special Forces Group comprise specially trained personnel used to infiltrate major drug operations.

Regional Drug Units are established under the command of a Regional Detective Sergeant in each of the ten metropolitan police districts, Newcastle and Wollongong. The largest of these units is located at Kings Cross, acknowledged as the 'nightlife' area of Sydney and which is also the prostitution centre of the city. The industrial cities of Newcastle to the north of Sydney, and Wollongong to the south, each have four officers solely engaged on drug law enforcement.

A recent innovation within the NSW Police Force has been the establishment of Regional Crime Squads, comprising 50 Detectives from the various squads in the Criminal Investigation Branch, located at Penrith in the far western suburbs of Sydney,

and at Miranda in the south. The Regional Drug Units in those areas are included in the Regional Crime Squad.

Joint Task Force

The DLEB provides a permanent detachment of three members to the Joint Task Force. The Joint Task Force is a discrete body and works independently of the DLEB and the Australian Federal Police Drug Unit. It has achieved a number of significant prosecutions as a result of its operations.

Equipment

The DLEB is equipped with a comprehensive range of sophisticated motor vehicles as well as electronic and surveillance equipment. Personnel are trained in the use of static and video camera equipment, and are highly skilled in covert surveillance. The Police Airwing has three helicopters which are frequently used in the Squads operations.

Problem drugs

Sydney is acknowledged as the heroin capital of Australia and latest estimates place the addict population at approximately 10,000. Sydney International Airport is the major avenue for importation of heroin. The user purity of heroin ranges from 22-24 per cent, which compares with an average of 5 per cent in the United States and Canada. Three and one half kilograms of 87 per cent pure heroin were seized recently following the arrest of a number of Chinese in Sydney.

Some indication of the amount of heroin entering Sydney is given by the following recent seizures:

- * 37 kilograms from a Chinese container ship
- * 22 kilograms from Sydney Airport
- * 27 kilograms in possession of Chinese
- * 3.5 kilograms in possession of Chinese
- * 1 kilogram in possession of Turkish immigrants.

Well over 100 kilograms of heroin were seized in the first four months of 1984.

Indian hemp leaf presents a major problem as it has been successfully cultivated in most parts of the State. The DLEB has the responsibility for the detection and apprehension of major growers and a special unit comprising DLEB personnel and members of the Bureau of Crime Intelligence concentrate on major plantations. Frequent use is made of the 'Landsat' satellite for the detection of Indian Hemp plantations and several large scale plantations have been identified and seized using this facility.

Large quantities of hashish and hash oil imported from the Middle East have been seized in Sydney, both from the Airport and Container Terminals. One seizure involved two tonnes of hashish.

Cocaine is available in Sydney, being imported from either the United States or South America. Use of this drug follows overseas patterns, in that it is being used by those engaged in the entertainment and more affluent sections of the community, as compared to heroin, which is more widely distributed. The DLEB has seized several kilograms of cocaine following the arrest of American nationals during 1983.

Amphetamines and hallucinogens also pose problems for the DLEB but not on the same scale as drugs already mentioned.

Drug Crime

Police estimate approximately 80 per cent of the armed hold ups committed in Sydney are drug related. There were 13 drug related murders in 1982 and 11 in 1983. DLEB personnel are frequently engaged with the Homicide Squad and the Armed Hold Up Squad investigating these crimes and have a close working relationship with them. There has been an upsurge in property thefts from dwellings and motor vehicles and many of these crimes are attributed to heroin addicts.

Rehabilitation services

The DLEB works in close liaison with the Drug and Alcohol Authority, a statutory body responsible for rehabilitation services throughout the State. The Bureau is represented on community education, diversion and training committees within the Authority.

The approach taken by the Police Force is that the drug problem is multi-faceted and requires close co operation with all involved. A pilot scheme titled 'The Manly Drug Referral Center and Police Project' is being carried out at the present time by the Manly Drug Referral Centre and the Manly Regional Drug Unit. In this scheme those arrested or seeking advice in relation to heroin are referred to the Referral Centre for counselling and possible treatment. Should the study prove successful, it will be introduced on a State wide basis.

Community education

In line with contemporary thinking, responsibility for community education is vested in the Drug and Alcohol Authority, and Police are not engaged in this field as it has been found to be counter productive. The DLEB provide drug law enforcement education for all sections of the Police Force, and to the National Drug Law Enforcement Officers' Course held at the Australian Police College, Manly, twice yearly. Selected government departments are lectured on drug identification by DLEB

personnel and Bureau personnel are actively engaged in public seminars on the drug problem.

Powers

Power to enter premises is vested in the Poisons Act 1966 and warrants must be obtained before entry is made. Special provision is made for the seizure of drugs and property found.

A 1982 amendment provided for the forfeiture to the Crown of money or property gained from the proceeds of drug sales. An interesting section within the Poisons Act 1966 relates to the destruction of growing Indian Hemp. Once having located a plantation, Police cause the issue of a warrant for its destruction and such a warrant empowers the Director General of Agriculture to destroy the crop and to prevent regrowth.

State Police do not have telephone tapping powers, these being vested solely with federal agencies. NSW Police consider drug law enforcement cannot be fully effective without this aid. Police in NSW also feel legal authority to open bank, legal and taxation records, with legislation to enable use of such evidence, would be of tremendous assistance.

Victoria

The Victoria Police Drug Squad is a centralised unit based in Melbourne but capable of deployment throughout the state for particular operations. In addition to its own operations, the Squad also participates in Joint Task Forces with other agencies. The policy of the Drug Squad is to concentrate on those who manufacture or sell drugs, and of the 152 arrests made by the Squad in 1982, 58 were for offences of that nature. As with most jurisdictions, however, the majority of arrests for drug offences are made by General Duties or CIB members. During 1982, there was a 28 per cent rise in the number of persons charged with trafficking.

In recent years there has been an upsurge in offences related to amphetamines. Some of these drugs are imported but it is believed that most of the illicit supply is manufactured in Victoria. The possibility has also been considered that an attempt is being made in Australia to produce heroin from diverted codeine, following chemical analysis of two small heroin seizures made in Melbourne. Whilst most of the heroin available in Australia is of South West Asian origin, there is evidence of an increasing availability of South West Asia heroin on the street in Melbourne. However, Indian hemp remains the most widely abused drug.

The Victoria Police have frequently expressed the view that they have insufficient statutory powers to provide a modern police service. Many of the powers which the police desire to see amended, such as those relating to arrest, samples and specimens, searches, and entry into premises, are particularly relevant to the Drug Squad. However, they would be particularly keen to have the power to intercept and record telephone conversations.

The Victorian Government announced in early 1985 that the Drug Squad would be expanded from a staff of 39 to 191 over the next three years.

Queensland

The Queensland Police Drug Squad is staffed by 20 officers and is controlled by a Detective Inspector. Additional staff are also recruited from other sections of the Department to perform undercover duties. The Squad is based in Brisbane but acts as a statewide unit assisting other squads, CIB and uniform personnel throughout the State. There is no participation at the present time in any interstate task force, but the squad does work in conjunction with the Australian Federal Police.

The Drug Squad is responsible for the enforcement of the provisions of the Health Act 1937 and Poisons Regulations 1967 in the area of illicit drug trafficking and abuse throughout the state. The main emphasis is placed on identifying and prosecuting major drug dealers.

In common with other jurisdictions, Queensland Police are detecting an increasing link between drug use and offences of breaking, entering, and stealing. In recent times there has also been a clear link between some offences of armed hold-up and drug use. While the majority of arrests are overwhelmingly for possession or use of cannabis, there appears to be a trend back towards the use of LSD and similar drugs.

Problems identified by the Drug Squad as hindering their effectiveness include the lack of power to seize from offenders the assets accrued from the large scale sale of drugs, the fact that major drug dealers are becoming more sophisticated and difficult to prosecute successfully because of their knowledge of police operational techniques, countermeasures against the use of police agents, and the problems of adequate transport and communications posed by the size of the state. Another major problem is seen to be the lack of access to federal government records, especially those held by the Taxation Office.

Western Australia

The Western Australia Police Drug Squad is based at Police Headquarters but is available to travel anywhere within the State depending on the priority of the inquiry. The policy of the Drug Squad is to concentrate on detecting dealers with a view to reducing the street trade and the seizure of considerable quantities of prohibited substances in the course of this action has ensured diminished supplies reaching the street. In the financial year 1981-82, 43.7 kilos of cannabis, 2.9 kilos of cannabis resin, 1.02 kilos of heroin, 5 grams of cocaine and 243 trips of LSD were seized. While the Drug Squad focuses on dealers, patrols carried out by 79 Division and the Combined Operations Unit apprehend numerous user/minor possessor drug offenders.

The Drug Squad participates frequently with the Australian Federal Police and the Customs Service in Joint Task Force type operations. Examples of such joint operations were the seizure of one kilogram of heroin at Freemantle in July 1983 and 10 kilograms of cannabis resin imported through Perth Airport also in July 1983. In both cases offenders were apprehended.

In Western Australia illicit drug use continues to demand increasing supplies, particularly where opiates are concerned. In the period July-September 1983, the quantity of heroin seized had already exceeded the total for the year 1982-83. There also appears to be a resurgence in the availability of LSD on the local market.

In general terms the Drug Squad is satisfied with its powers under Western Australian legislation. The only major complaint being the lack of a power of internal search of a known or suspected drug courier. Instances have occurred where it is known that a courier has concealed illicit drugs within his or her body (the fact usually being disclosed by an informant) but there is no evidence with which to charge the person and he or she has been released. The Criminal Code does authorise the necessary examination (Section 236) but only where a person has been arrested and the examination will afford evidence as to the offence with which the person is charged. Even using this section, some doctors have refused to examine a suspect against his or her wishes.

South Australia

The South Australian Police Drug Squad consists of 25 police members, with one civilian clerk. The Squad is a centralised unit based at Police Central Headquarters, Adelaide, but its personnel operate throughout the State. Drug offences are also detected and investigated by Regional CIB units and Regional uniformed personnel. Being a specialist unit, the Squad endeavours to concentrate on the more serious types of drug investigations. On an ad hoc basis, Joint Task Forces have been implemented with interstate police forces and also with the Australian Federal Police.

The Drug Squad is organised into three teams working a dual shift roster, and each team is headed by a Senior Sergeant, with a Sergeant as deputy. A Senior Sergeant carries out the administrative functions of the unit and co-ordinates the activities of the three teams. Because certain exercises in the enforcement of laws relating to drug abuse are of some magnitude and are complex in areas of strategy and policy, the Commissioned Officer in Charge of the Drug Squad is available at all times to attend if necessary the scene of an investigation and manage that investigation to ensure maximum proficiency is achieved.

Listing of financial assets. Members selected for posting to the Drug Squad are invited, on a voluntary basis, to complete a 'Confidential Financial Status Report'. Such reports are held in a sealed envelope in a safe and are not opened without permission from the member concerned unless the Commissioner of Police is of

the opinion that an inspection will materially assist any investigation where the financial position of the member is relevant. The concept of inviting personnel posted to the Drug Squad to voluntarily declare their assets and financial interests was considered desirable in order to afford protection against malicious allegations in the course of their duty.

Tenure of service. The tenure of service of members of the Drug Squad is now set at three years. Only in special circumstances and then with the approval of the Commissioner of Police can the three years be extended. It was considered desirable to limit tenure of service of members of the Drug Squad to a period of three years as a measure to reduce the risk of corruption. Prior to the introduction of this policy, very few members had served in the Drug Squad for more than three years. However, it was considered necessary in special circumstances to retain the right to extend the terms of service to permit administrative flexibility.

Registration of informants. Within the drug scene there is an ever present risk of false accusations being levelled at Drug Squad members who operate in a strange world of intrigue, gossip, informers, criminals and other unsavoury characters. Many of these people are drug users and are likely to engender grievances, resentment and desire for revenge against police officers. To offset this potential danger, methods have been introduced whereby particulars relative to informants are documented in a formalised manner. The confidential registration of all informants and the documentation of all dealings between informants and Drug Squad personnel, affords protection to Squad members against malicious allegations of unethical, immoral or possible illegal arrangements between officers and people acting as informers.

Planning drug raid operations. The carrying out of drug raids is a significant part of drug law enforcement. Therefore, one officer has the responsibility for the supervision of each drug raid from the planning stages to execution. The magnitude of an exercise determines the rank level of the operation commander.

The planning of each operation is properly documented in the form of a specific 'Operation Order' to ensure personnel are deployed in specific areas of responsibility. The planning also gives consideration to the deployment of support personnel such as recorder, photographer, exhibits officer, botanist and crime scene examiner, as well as instructions relating to the carrying and use of firearms.

A formalised work assignment and case management system has been devised and implemented whereby all information received by members of the Drug Squad is documented, given a control number and assigned to a Team Leader for investigation.

The system operates on three levels. The quality and seriousness of the information/intelligence determines the level at which the investigation is handled. That is:

- * Preliminary investigations/operations are headed by Drug Squad investigators
- * Serious investigations/operations are headed by a Drug Squad Senior Sergeant (Team Leader)
- * Major investigations/operations are headed by the Commissioned Officer in Charge of the Drug Squad.

Issue of receipts. All exhibits seized by police personnel are recorded in a Field Receipt Book. The original is given to the person from whom the property was received, as soon as reasonably practicable. The duplicate is retained in the Field Receipt Book for audit purposes. The property is lodged at the appropriate police station at the first opportunity and entered in the General Property Book. The General Property Book receipt number is recorded in the place provided on the duplicate Field Receipt.

Security of drug information/exhibits. Much information of value is held in the Drug Squad office. Tight security is exercised over entrance to this area, and the office is secured by an electronic card key device. With regard to exhibits there is a secure area under the control of the Administration Sergeant.

Withdrawal of drug charges. Because of the possibility of allegations, unfounded or otherwise, relative to reducing or withdrawing drug charges, such charges cannot be reduced or withdrawn (for reasons other than legal) without the written authorisation of the Assistant Commissioner (Crime). The Assistant Commissioner was selected for this task as he is sufficiently remote from the Drug Squad, yet is aware of the complexities of drug law enforcement.

Drug education. In response to demands from numerous organisations in the community including secondary schools, service clubs and professional groups such as medical practitioners, pharmacists and teachers, selected Squad personnel have delivered many lectures to those organisations. Lecture content includes an explanation of drug legislation, the types of drugs located by Squad members, identification of public places where drug abuse is occurring and an overview of drug trends both interstate and overseas.

As the majority of lecture requests stem from members of the public requiring knowledge concerning drug use, particularly illicit drug use, and law enforcement prevention programs, it is considered that the police objectives when giving drug lectures are twofold:

- * to reduce drug abuse by educating members of the public concerning the hazards involved, and promoting a healthier attitude towards drug usage
- * to inform the community of the police role in law enforcement programs.

Although police officers attached to sections other than the Drug Squad provide lectures which contain a drug abuse component, the majority of lectures devoted fully to this subject are performed by senior detectives from the Drug Squad. These personnel are in the unique position of being able to include their personal observations of the illicit drug scene, based on their daily contact with drug abusers and their associates.

Squad members also conduct drug education programs in conjunction with the Alcohol and Drug Addicts Treatment Board and COPE (Centre of Personal Encounter).

In addition to lectures, Drug Squad members receive numerous telephone calls each day from members of the public who require information and assistance. The majority of these calls are from parents who suspect that their children are misusing drugs, and headmasters and school teachers who suspect that their schools have a drug problem.

General. The Drug Squad handles approximately 25 per cent of the total drug offences detected in South Australia. The majority of offences detected involve the use or possession of cannabis or a derivative thereof and the possession of drug instruments. A large quantity of cannabis is grown in South Australia, particularly in the Riverland areas and the market garden areas on the outskirts of Adelaide.

As in other jurisdictions, there is a distinct relationship between persons committing serious crimes and those in the drug sub-culture. In relation to armed hold-ups, approximately 60 per cent of offenders are known drug offenders. It is believed many intruders are breaking into premises, stealing electrical equipment, and selling it for a fraction of its value in order to finance their drug habit.

The South Australia Police consider that being granted special investigative powers as recommended by the Australian Royal Commission of Inquiry into Drugs would be of assistance in investigating drug trafficking offences. These powers would include intercepting telecommunications and having access to Taxation and Reserve Bank records. Amendments to the Postal Services Regulations to allow police officers to examine postal articles believed to contain illicit drugs would be desirable, as evidence indicates that postal services are a popular method of transporting drugs. Finally, it is suggested that legislation should be introduced for ultrasonic examination of persons to reveal internal drug concealment.

Tasmania

As in the Northern Territory, drug enforcement has evolved into a joint State/Federal operation. A Combined Drug Enforcement Unit has been formed, staffed by 22 personnel from the Tasmania Police Drug Squad and two Federal Police officers. The Unit comprises three squads centred on Hobart, Launceston and Burnie respectively. The organisation has the following rank structure:

* Hobart

- 1 x Inspector
- 1 x First Grade Sergeant
- 1 x Third Grade Sergeant
- 1 x Senior Constable
- 1 x First Class Constable
- 7 x Constables

2 x Federal Police Officers

* Launceston

- 1 x Third Grade Sergeant
- 1 x Senior Constable
- 2 x First Class Constables
- 1 x Constable

* Burnie

- 1 x Third Grade Sergeant
- 1 x Senior Constable
- 3 x First Class Constables

Each squad is responsible for drug enquiries in its own area, but frequent interchange of officers is necessary to supplement the smaller squads as operations dictate. The Drug Squads work closely with the Health Department in matters of prescription offences, doctors, hospitals, institutions and pharmacy offences.

As with other jurisdictions, Tasmania Police believe there is a close connection between drug use and crimes relating to burglary and stealing, and prostitution. Recently there has been a large increase in the availability of ephedrine and heroin in Tasmania. An emergence of opium 'gel' and 'juice' from poppies has also been experienced. The size of plantations of marihuana has decreased in size over the past few years, but the number of plantations is greater. Growers are planting several smaller crops as an insurance against seizure of one or more crops. These are more difficult to detect from the air and discovery is less likely by other means.

Amendments to the Poisons Act designed to facilitate drug enforcement have been placed before Parliament and include the power to seize property and money relating to drug trafficking, the power to search bodies prior to the person being charged, and the implementation of a telephone warrants system. At the time of writing, these amendments were under debate in the Tasmanian Parliament.

Northern Territory

The Northern Territory Police Drug Squad has a gazetted strength of ten and is a component of the Northern Territory Combined Drug Enforcement Unit, which is comprised of the Drug Squad and the Drug Unit of the Australian Federal Police, Northern

Territory Region. The Combined Drug Enforcement Unit regularly carries out joint operations with the Australian Customs Service.

The aim of the Unit is to ensure that the main thrust of drug law enforcement is directed towards the suppression and disruption of the illegal importation, manufacture, cultivation and distribution of drugs.

The use of cannabis in the Northern Territory continues to increase, but there has recently been a decline in the detected use of LSD. Heroin use appears fairly stable, and use of cocaine is increasing.

There is no existing legislation which allows the Northern Territory Police to use electronic listening devices, and this is seen as a major drawback by the police. The police also consider that powers to gain access to taxation records would be a significant advantage.

Australian Capital Territory

Policing in the ACT is the responsibility of the General Policing Department of the Australian Federal Police, ACT Region. A Drug Squad, located in the Criminal Investigation Branch, is responsible for drug enforcement in the ACT.

During recent years there has been an increase in drug-related offences in the ACT, particularly those involving armed holdups and breaking offences. The Drug Squad has seized an increasing quantity of drugs with seizures for the year 1982-83 being 155 grams of heroin, 88.6 kilos of cannabis, 286 grams of cannabis resin, 1 gram of amphetamine, 4 grams of cocaine, and 1 gram of methaqualone.

In 1982-83 major operations were conducted to stop the supply to Canberra of heroin from a Sydney source, the transportation of heroin and cannabis from Melbourne to the ACT, and to locate large cannabis plantations in and around the ACT region. A number of operations involve close liaison and combined operations with the NSW Police Drug Squad.

CHAPTER 17

COMPUTER SYSTEMS *

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The significant use of computers by police has occurred only within the last decade. The cost and the disruption to day-to-day work, involved in setting up computer facilities has been a major constraint. Perhaps also a reluctance to employ specialist staff within police forces has contributed to the slow introduction of computer methods. The options of training police officers to use computers or drafting in civilian specialist staff to provide these services have been adopted with varying degrees of emphasis around the states and territories.

Most police forces initially developed systems such as "Vehicles of Interest", based usually on datafiles operated by the state's motor registry branch and containing details of drivers' licences and vehicle ownership. This system enables immediate checking of information supplied by a driver stopped by a patrol officer and can assist in identifying persons of interest where only a vehicle registration plate number was witnessed.

The next data systems to be developed for police operational use were generally the "Persons of Interest" files and various "Lost/Found/Stolen Property" registers. Simultaneously, with the acquisition of or direct access to a computer, a variety of management functions were computerised, including personnel and payroll records, financial accounting and vehicle fleet management. Typically such systems would be installed in a single host computer using magnetic tape and/or fixed disk storage and operated in batch mode. The adoption of computers had little effect on the way the police information system actually worked, particularly since many of the more complex subsystems, such as the criminal histories files, were too difficult to transfer to computers.

Typically, a patrol officer in a major city would call the central operations room by two-way radio for information. The operator at the other end would place the request on a card which was passed onto an information centre - usually in another part of the building. The information was manually extracted from card files and despatched in reverse manner. The only difference made by the introduction of computers was in the extraction of the data.

The next stage, which is not yet complete even in the major states, came with the introduction of real-time networked computers with message-switching capabilities and numerous visual

* The assistance of Don Mowat in providing NZ data is gratefully acknowledged.

display terminals (VDTs) remote from the actual computer headquarters. Although in-car terminals are unlikely to be standard equipment for several years, the basic communications systems are now being developed. In the most recent installations, VDTs have entirely replaced the card systems for message switching, and card index files have been transferred to random access memory for instantaneous information retrieval. The patrol officer now radios direct to a VDT operator who keys in the request and radios back the response immediately. Current activity in such systems is related to increasing the geographic coverage of the VDT networks, completing the development of complex cross-referenced systems such as "Criminal History" and "Crime Reporting" files and developing analytical systems to assist in the detection of frauds or the collation of modus operandi information. There are also a number of developments aimed at improving interstate information flows by providing for direct system-to-system inquiries via dedicated VDTs.

The following tables summarise the state of development at the end of 1983 in New South Wales (Table 17.1), Victoria (Table 17.2), Queensland (Table 17.3), Western Australia (Table 17.4), South Australia (Table 17.5), Tasmania (Table 17.6), Northern Territory (Table 17.7), Australian Capital Territory (Table 17.8), New Zealand (Table 17.9).

TABLE 17.1

New South Wales Police - Major Computer System Characteristics

Computer System(s)	2 Facom M180 IIAD (one on-line, one batch and backup) with 3 Data General Nova 3-12 front-end computers (2 on-line and one backup). 8 local and 60 remote terminals are connected to the Facom for system updating and inputting. 179 enquiry terminals are connected through the Novas - 20 for administrative branches, 3 in Queensland, one in Melbourne, one in Canberra and the remainder in metropolitan and regional NSW stations. 127 Telex links are also routed through the Novas of which 21 are in Queensland and 5 in Victoria. The Facom is also directly linked to the Department of Motor Transport.
Operational Software	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * stolen vehicles * crime information and intelligence system * pistol licences * property registers * warrants * traffic penalties * road accident records * breath analysis * police seniority records
Planned Developments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * names index * traffic (Combined System) * criminal histories * personnel
Usage Rate(s)	Around 18,000 enquiries per week of which about 50% are DMT inquiries; 25% relate to stolen vehicles and 20% to warrants.

TABLE 17.2

Victoria Police - Major Computer System Characteristics

Computer System(s)	<p>4 Univac V77-800s of which two are on-line while the others are for back-up, batch processing and system development. One of the on-line machines acts as the communications processor and message switching centre.</p> <p>180 terminals are connected via direct lines: 84 at central office, 74 in other metropolitan stations and 22 in country areas from Portland to Bairnsdale.</p> <p>197 authorised interstate users communicate directly via Telex. Three direct computer to computer links exist: to the Motor Registration Branch in Melbourne, to the NSW Police in Sydney and the Australian Federal Police in Canberra.</p>
Operational Software	<p>The acronym for the whole system is PATROL, <u>ie</u>, Police Access To Records On Line. It consists of:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * vehicles of interest * persons of interest * streets of interest * message switching * personnel system.
Planned Developments	<p>If approval is forthcoming a major equipment upgrade is planned in about two years. The enlarged capacity will enable the addition of the following systems:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * on-the-spot fine accounting * crime reporting * property register * fleet management * fraud squad intelligence * arson register * criminal histories * program budgetting
Usage Rate(s)	Approximately 6,000 inputs/outputs per hour during peak periods.

TABLE 17.3

Queensland Police - Major Computer System Characteristics

Computer System(s)	An in-house Spectrum SS2 mini-computer and the State Government Computing Centre. The Spectrum has 5 terminals and the SGCC computer is linked to 62 terminals mostly in country centres as far away from Brisbane as Mareeba and Mt. Isa.
Operational Software	<p>The Spectrum is used mainly for a Police Vehicle Availability Register for the Police Operations Board.</p> <p>The SGCC machine performs Personnel/Management and Crime Statistics computing in batch and a number of on-line functions including:</p>

TABLE 17.3 (Continued)

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * message switching * vehicles of interest * motor vehicle registrations enquiries <p>A "Keyholder" register is also maintained on the SGCC machine for the Brisbane metropolitan area.</p>
Planned Developments	<p>A major equipment purchase is to be announced shortly which will eventually enable the transfer of all SGCC computing to in-house and allow the installation of 300 terminals statewide. The 5-stage plan will take 3-4 years to implement and should include such systems as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * computer aided despatch * persons of interest * property registers * criminal histories * driving licence records * firearms registrations * major crime case management <p>In addition, direct computer-to-computer links are expected to be established in the near future with the NSW Police in Sydney and the Queensland Transport Department.</p>
Usage Rate(s)	<p>17,000 messages sent per month. 30,000 messages received per month. 25,000 Vehicles of Interest queries per month. 41,000 Vehicle Registration queries per month.</p>

TABLE 17.4

Western Australia Police - Major Computer System Characteristics

Computer System(s)	<p>2 IBM 43-41 Group 12s both in production.</p> <p>180 VDTs of which approximately 100 at head office and the remainder in metropolitan stations.</p> <p>Telex Interfaces to over 50 stations in north west and south of the state.</p> <p>The Bureau of Criminal Intelligence group is linked directly to the AFP system.</p>
Operational Software	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * persons of interest (includes drivers' licences) * vehicles of interest * fleet maintenance * personnel records * crime reporting * criminal histories * various inventories
Planned Developments	<p>Plans for main-frame upgrading in a year or so. Capacity limitation serious problem. Network of VDTs currently being installed in south west of state to replace Telexes (5 year program). In-car terminals made by OMNITRONICS to WA Police specifications have been designed and tested. Terminal has 4 160-character screens with normal keyboard and special "status" keys.</p>
Usage Rate(s)	<p>97% of available computer time is used during peak periods. General inquiries run at over 3 million per year.</p>

TABLE 17.5

South Australia Police - Major Computer System Characteristics

Computer System(s)	<p>A DEC 1170 on line to 13 terminals in Firearms Branch, 6 in Central Records, 3 in the BCI and 1 in Communications Branch.</p> <p>Telexes are used to communicate between Central Records and Country Stations.</p> <p>An in-house Prime 350 and the Government Computing Centre's machine are also used.</p>	
Operational Software	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * firearms registry * traffic infringements * driving licence records * vehicles of interest * radar deployment analyses * major crime case management system * summons preparation * vehicle registration history * payroll * establishment control (personnel) * accounts * crime statistics 	<p>on the DEC</p> <p>on the Prime</p> <p>Government Computing Centre</p>
Planned Developments	<p>A Touche Ross study of Justice Information Systems is under consideration by the State Government. It approved, the police systems would be incorporated into it along with court records, etc, and the system is intended to commence in 1984; becoming fully operational in 3-4 years.</p> <p>Approval has recently been received to transfer the Payroll and Personnel systems to in-house equipment.</p>	
Usage Rate(s)	(To be advised)	

TABLE 17.6

Tasmania Police - Major Computer System Characteristics

Computer System(s)	<p>None in-house.</p> <p>Police have access to the Transport Commission's machine for motor registration data and the State Government Computer for internal personnel records.</p> <p>Telex links are maintained to Victoria and NSW Police computers.</p>	
Operational Software	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * vehicles of interest * personnel records 	
Planned Developments	<p>Plans have been submitted to State Government for approval to purchase equipment and develop systems modelled on the Western Australian police system. If approved, this could commence in around two years.</p>	
Usage Rate(s)	Not available.	

TABLE 17.7

Northern Territory Police - Major Computer System Characteristics

Computer System(s)	<p>None In-house.</p> <p>On-line access to the Government Computing Centre IBM 30/81D. About 50 terminals are operational, 40 in Darwin with the remainder distributed around the other five main population centres. There are interfaces with the Department of Law and the Department of Transport and Works systems.</p>
Operational Software	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * persons of interest * vehicles of interest (registrations & Licences via Dept of T&W) * criminal histories * finance records * traffic accident records * breath analysis statistics * firearms registrations * fingerprints of known offenders * fleet management * interface with courts ("Promis") * general information system
Planned Developments	<p>The purchase of micro-computers and shared-logic wordprocessors linked to the NTGCC computer in the next year or so is expected to speed up the preparation of rosters, crime pattern analysis and general office work. In addition it will allow for financial modelling and for investigations of major white collar crimes.</p> <p>Systems to be added to the NTGCC computer within the next 18 months include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * personnel * crime reporting * property * crime statistics * computer aided despatch * modus operandi analysis
Usage Rate(s)	<p>During peak periods the computer is already working at around 95% capacity.</p>

TABLE 17.8

Australian Capital Territory - Major Computer System Characteristics

Computer System(s)	<p>NAS 66/50 CPU with NAS 66/30 (used for development and back up). COMTEN front end processor. Disk capacity of 15 gigabytes. IBM MVS operations system. CICS Telecommunications monitoring software. ADABAS management system. "Natural" is the main programming language.</p>
Operational Software	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * stolen vehicles * crime information and intelligence system * property register * warrants * traffic convictions * criminal histories * major case management system * financial management * subject indexing/file control

TABLE 17.8 (continued)

Planned Developments	Expand assistance to investigation and intelligence work.
Usage Rate(s)	About 75,000 transactions/day.

TABLE 17.9

New Zealand Police - Major Computer System Characteristics

Computer System(s)	1 Sperry Univac 1110/82 on-line production machine with 1 Sperry Univac 1100/10 as a development machine. The system serves an integrated Criminal Justice System with a network of remote terminals to three dedicated users: * police 190 * justice (courts and prisons) 79 * ministry of transport (road traffic) 141
Operational Software	Police have access to the following subsystems: * persons of interest * property of interest * vehicles of interest * master names index * criminal histories * court document processing * fingerprints * modus operandi * incident/offence statistics * firearms register * motor vehicle register * drivers' licence register * message switching * computer aided despatch * document locator (file record book)
Planned Developments	Access to a government bureau holding Personnel Information and Payroll Service. Development of Stores Application on a government bureau Access to Financial Management Information held on a government bureau
Usage Rate(s)	Transaction monthly total 2,045,995 Transaction average peak hour 8,973 System availability is maintained in excess of 99%.

Source: NZ Police Department

CHAPTER 18

TRAFFIC

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Each Police Force has responsibility for the control of traffic and administration and enforcement of traffic laws within its boundaries. Legislation, usually entitled Motor Traffic Act (or similar), sets out the various traffic regulations and certain control procedures. The various statutes and their Regulations set out in detail the various speed limits, motorists obligations, etc, and prescribe maximum penalties for offenses.

Each of the various police agencies possess what may be loosely termed a traffic branch. Traffic branches are responsible for the enforcement of traffic regulation and rules as defined under the various statutes. These sections operate speed traps to counter speeding motorists and motorcycle traffic patrols to enforce various rules applying to moving traffic. Some police forces operate highway patrols to enforce traffic laws along arterial routes which transcend formation boundaries. Aircraft are also being used by police in Queensland, New South Wales, Victoria and Western Australia, to assist in this area of enforcement and control.

Staff and equipment of the various traffic branches come under the direct control of a Superintendent of Traffic or similar official. He is in turn subordinate to a senior administrator. The position of traffic branch in police organisations is shown at Chapter 2.

Within police agencies, Commissioners and fellow executive officers determine broad departmental policy with respect to traffic matters in concert with appropriate government Ministers. Traffic branch personnel execute those policies. For example, in recent years there has been considerable concern expressed by the various Police Commissioners concerning road deaths and injuries. Research indicates drivers affected by alcohol contribute significantly to the high rate of traffic accidents. As a result, traffic branch officials are instructed to emphasise the detection of drinking drivers. Data relating to personal injury accidents are shown at Tables 18.1 and 18.2. Total vehicle registrations per 1,000 of population, total licence registrations and registrations of new motor vehicles are shown at Tables 18.3, 18.4 and 18.5. In New Zealand, traffic enforcement is principally the responsibility of the Ministry of Transport, except for a few municipalities which have retained a traffic control responsibility. Police have full authority in traffic matters but do not routinely implement it.

The traffic control function in Western Australia was assumed by the Road Traffic Authority in 1975. However, it

TABLE 18.1
ROAD TRAFFIC ACCIDENTS INVOLVING CASUALTIES:† BY JURISDICTION, 1970-1980

	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
NSW	25,434	26,575	27,365	29,308	29,853	28,217	27,393	27,943	29,451	27,013	9,911
V	16,435	15,023	14,757	14,485	12,542	12,514	12,680	14,803	14,957	13,898	7,074
Q	7,869	8,147	7,863	8,643	8,086	8,241	7,814	7,696	8,094	7,746	4,195
WA	5,218	5,178	4,909	5,404	4,742	5,104	5,287	6,224	7,513	7,025	2,566
SA	7,424	7,386	8,116	9,267	9,469	8,793	8,090	7,922	8,160	8,359	2,322
T	1,425	1,385	1,371	1,479	1,393	1,496	1,603	1,603	1,641	1,507	776
NT	528	660	592	711	575	554	582	634	716	650	347
ACT	877	856	777	854	813	869	833	868	802	816	222

† Accidents reported to police or other relevant authority which occurred in public thoroughfares and which resulted in death within 30 days or personal injury to the extent that the injured person was admitted to hospital.

Source: ABS

TABLE 18.2
PERSONS KILLED IN ROAD TRAFFIC ACCIDENTS: BY JURISDICTION, 1970-1981

	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981
NSW	1,309	1,249	1,092	1,230	1,275	1,288	1,264	1,268	1,384	1,290	1,152	1,292
V	1,061	923	915	935	806	910	938	954	869	847	608	766
Q	537	594	572	638	589	635	569	572	612	613	508	594
WA	351	332	340	358	334	304	308	290	345	279	268	238
SA	349	292	312	329	382	339	307	306	291	309	240	222
T	118	130	106	105	111	122	108	112	106	93	96	111
NT	42	50	53	55	44	64	51	47	68	53	55	70
ACT	31	20	32	29	31	32	38	29	30	24	27	29
NZ	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	702	654	554	596	670

Source: ABS, DOS

TABLE 18.3

MOTOR VEHICLES[†] ON REGISTER (per 1,000 pop) :
BY JURISDICTION, 1976-1981

30 June	NSW	V	Q	WA	SA	T	NT	ACT
1976	427.9	458.7	324.1	489.9	477.5	475.4	325.9	427.5
1977	431.1	463.3	464.8	520.3	494.9	490.9	338.6	450.0
1978	443.3	482.2	483.4	542.2	501.5	511.8	394.4	436.8
1979	455.0	494.4	498.3	552.4	506.7	529.7	386.9	474.3
1980	468.5	487.5	516.6	561.8	515.7	530.8	381.9	462.4
1981	479.8	499.3	539.1	569.8	522.1	542.7	408.0	465.0

† Excludes motor cycles, tractors, plant and equipment, caravans and trailers

Source: ABS

TABLE 18.4

MOTOR VEHICLE OPERATORS' LICENCES:
BY JURISDICTION, 1982

jurisdiction	licences
NSW	3,087,347
V	2,181,714
Q	NK
WA	731,113
SA	771,993
T	236,728
NT	67,588
ACT	137,545
NZ	NK

Source: Police department annual reports

TABLE 18.5

REGISTRATIONS OF NEW MOTOR VEHICLES: TYPE BY JURISDICTION, 1982

Jurisdiction	Motor Cars + Station Wagons	Utilities	Panel Vans	Trucks		Other Truck Types	Buses	TOTAL (excl motor cycles)	Motor Cycles
				Rigid	Articu- lated				
NSW	165,538	14,019	25,013	13,736	1,152	835	1,945	222,238	24,705
V	121,960	8,382	3,296	12,992	953	693	1,201	149,477	15,731
Q	81,240	17,927	9,122	4,261	670	279	885	114,384	15,324
WA	42,329	4,749	5,656	4,786	317	98	473	58,408	5,835
SA	36,890	2,926	3,063	2,811	402	204	222	46,518	7,050
T	12,210	1,487	979	562	82	84	108	15,512	1,110
NT	3,467	2,001	521	187	67	12	47	6,302	882
ACT	7,621	544	359	727	22	13	117	9,403	1,054
NZ	85,479	NK	NK	NK	NK	NK	NK	-	22,306

Source: ABS

returned to police early in 1982. Even when the Road Traffic Authority did exercise formal responsibility for traffic control and enforcement within the state, its patrol personnel were seconded police officers. This experiment in traffic management foundered on the rocks of political and occupational opposition.

The numbers and percentages of police officers working in the traffic branches of the various forces (where known) are shown at Table 18.6. It will be appreciated, of course, that many other personnel and units of the various agencies also play a significant role in traffic control and enforcement.

Some agencies have proportionately more members assigned to traffic enforcement duties than others. However, this is to be expected given the considerable divergences in geographic and demographic characteristics among the various jurisdictions.

The lengths of proclaimed and declared roads are shown at Table 18.7. The lengths of different classification of roads are given at Table 18.8.

Traffic branch staff wear normal police uniforms, except where their uniform is adapted to suit their duties. For instance police motor cyclists mostly wear motor cycle riding boots, pantaloons and crash helmets. Equipment used by the various traffic branches is generally the same as used by the rest of the department, although in some states, eg, New South Wales, highway patrol vehicles are marked with the words 'HIGHWAY PATROL'. Special devices are utilised for measuring speeds and driver blood alcohol concentrations which are peculiar to traffic law enforcement.

Apart from the fact that police forces, except for New Zealand, all have a specific section of their force or staff responsible for traffic enforcement, general police also have a duty and a responsibility to enforce traffic regulations. If a detective, for instance, were to observe a driver commit a serious driving offence he might well charge the offender. Many criminals drive to and from scenes of crime whilst others are as anti social behind the wheel of a car as they are in other circumstances. The link between traffic offenses and crime is well recognised by police officers. The number of traffic officers who later become detectives is a noted phenomenon in some states.

Budget and operations

There are no figures available setting out the annual costs of running police traffic branch activities. Traffic operations fall under the general head of law enforcement and no real distinction is made between traffic duties and general police duties when yearly police expenditures are analysed, at least publicly. Of course, due to the considerable involvement of non-traffic branch personnel, such analysis would prove extremely complex.

Traffic officers perform their duties in a number of ways. They may be deployed on highway patrol, motor cycle patrol, foot

TABLE 18.6
TRAFFIC PERSONNEL: BY AGENCY

agency	personnel	percentage of force
NSW (1981)	1,150	12%
V (1982)	722	11%
Q	NK	NK
WA (1983)	-	11%
SA	NK	NK
T (1983)	110	11%
NT (1982)	45	7%
NZ	NK	NK

Caution: these data should not be compared as conditions vary greatly between agencies.

Source: Police department annual reports.

TABLE 18.7
PROCLAIMED OR DECLARED ROADS: LENGTHS (km) BY JURISDICTION, 1982

Class of road	Jurisdiction						
	NSW	V	Q	WA	SA	T	NZ
State highways	10,495*	7,350	10,348	(7,739)		1,956	10,944
Trunk roads	7,098		(149)	(7,482)	13,381	()	-
Ordinary main roads	18,349	14,585	(8,606)	()		(1,196)	38,081
Total main roads	35,942	21,935	19,103	15,221	13,381	3,152	49,025
Secondary roads	299 [†]	-	13,020 [§]	8,740	8,729	285	-
Development roads	3,474	-	8,036 ₃	-	-	84	-
Tourist roads	444	797 [¶]	-	-	-	176	-
Other roads	2,511	1,030	-	-	-	-	-
Total other roads	6,728	1,827	21,056	8,740	-	545	-

* Includes 167 kilometers of freeways and tollways. † Metropolitan only.

§ Includes mining access roads, farmers roads and tourist tracks

¶ Forest roads.

Source: ABS, DOS

TABLE 18.8
CONSTRUCTION OF GENERAL TRAFFIC ROADS: LENGTHS (km)
BY JURISDICTION, 1982

jurisdiction	Bitumen/ Concrete	Gravel [#]	Formed only	Cleared only
NSW*	70,277	66,616	39,188	13,092
V	63,926	47,905	23,503	21,867
Q	48,996	34,575	57,640	21,202
WA	37,081	34,168	44,777	22,826
SA	20,777	-	1 81,362	1
T	8,014	13,684	407	210
NT	5,460	4,064	4,834	6,670
ACT	1,865	327	42	-
NZ	49,025	44,107	-	-

[#] Includes crushed stone or other improved surface. *Excludes 15,397 kilometres of road dedicated but not trafficable.

Source: ABS

patrols, radar patrols, etc. Police officers sometimes direct motor traffic at street intersections during peak traffic periods but traffic lights have greatly reduced that particular task. Police operate their own breath analysis sections. Operators attend training courses at their respective police training establishments. In some states, eg, New South Wales, mobile breath analysis units operate in major cities for quick analyses of specimens provided by suspected drink/driving offenders. Generally speaking, however, breath analysis machines are located at police stations and operators are assigned to such stations.

Police are universally responsible for attending serious traffic accident scenes and conducting appropriate investigations. Reports are furnished when serious damage occurs to vehicles, property other than vehicles involved, or persons are injured or killed. In more recent times, minor damage only accidents have not been reported or recorded officially should the value of the damage incurred be below a specified sum in most jurisdictions. The various departments set a minimum limit on what are classified as reportable and non reportable accidents.

When police officers detect traffic offences they are sometimes able to issue "on the spot" tickets which show the prescribed offence and penalty, although some offences are not catered for by such tickets. There are also options available of arresting offenders or issuing a summons to appear in court. The actual options selected depend very much on the circumstances involved and the attitudes of individual drivers.

Processing of traffic violations & parking tickets

Police officers initiate traffic proceedings and process them through departmental channels. The processing of traffic complaints before the courts is conducted by police officers. Police prosecutors prosecute traffic matters before Justices or Magistrates. Police prosecuting officers obtain their training by attending departmental training courses, although a number also possess legal qualifications. Charging officers are called to give evidence in court when "not guilty" pleas are entered.

With respect to most charges, traffic offenders do not have to appear in court if they plead guilty by letter. In such cases they are informed by mail of the fine imposed. In turn, the motorist concerned sends a cheque for that amount to the clerk of the court. Generally speaking, revenue gained from traffic fines goes into consolidated revenue. However, in some cases, costs in tow away cases are split between police departments and local government authorities. There is also a widespread practice of permitting motorists to pay a sum, according to a set scale of charges, in lieu of a fine. In this manner, motorists (again, provided they do not wish to contest their case) can avoid a minor conviction for traffic offences. Such amounts are paid by cheque or postal order into consolidated revenue.

Parking offences involve a slightly different approach to general traffic violations. Local government authorities (except in New South Wales) accept a general responsibility to enforce by-laws involving parking regulations. Such authorities establish parking and non parking areas, install parking meters, enforce their use and employ parking officers or by-law inspectors. Such officers patrol the streets issuing parking infringement notices. The processing of these parking breaches is controlled by the various local authorities and does not normally involve police. Parking officers have no power to issue other than parking tickets. In New South Wales, a parking patrol force (not police officers) is operated by the police department. Parking patrol personnel operate in all major centres.

Police possess authority to issue parking tickets but, where other personnel are assigned to such tasks, they tend to concentrate on moving violations unless a serious situation is evident, eg, vehicles parked on pedestrian crossings or too close to intersections. The management of such process, when initiated by police, is carried out by police within their own resources. However, in some metropolitan central business districts police officers are also employed to enforce static vehicle violation laws.

Public education

All police forces conduct driver education courses and teach traffic safety to primary school children in major centres of population. In some states, an option available to the courts, subject to the consent of charged motorists, is to direct erring motorists to attend police traffic lectures at designated centres.

CHAPTER 19

POLICE AND ABORIGINES

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Police involvement with Aborigines throughout the federation varies according to local needs and circumstances. The situation in each State may be gathered from the information supplied below. Information has been gathered in categories considered pertinent with a view to providing readers with a comparative perspective whilst at the same time indicating individual factors applicable in each State.

Aboriginal populations

The first step in developing an overall picture of the Aboriginal situation in Australia so far as police are concerned may well be to ascertain the approximate number of Aboriginal persons on a State by State basis.

It should be borne in mind that there are many Aboriginal persons, particularly in the eastern States, who are not readily identifiable as such to the casual observer.

A generally accepted definition is that applied by the Commonwealth Department of Aboriginal Affairs which defines an Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander as:

a person of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander descent - who identified as an Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander - and is accepted as such by the community in which he lives.

Experience has shown that estimates of Aboriginal population vary according to source and other factors. It will be appreciated that many difficulties are inherent in such a task.

Estimated Aboriginal populations in each State are as follows:

New South Wales

Estimated population from 1981 Census report of DAA, 35,372. However, other sources estimate a figure of between 45,000 and 47,000.

Victoria

Estimated 15,000.

Queensland

The Department of Aboriginal and Islander Advancement Report of 1982 indicates a population in the vicinity of 58,000.

Western Australia

Figures obtained from the Aboriginal Planning Authority, Western Australia, 1981/82 Annual Report, places the Aboriginal population to June 30 as:

Males	20,248
Females	20,118
	<hr/>
	40,365
	<hr/>

About 11,000 of this number are thought to be full blooded Aborigines.

The figures for 1982/83 are not yet available. However, when comparing the 1980/81 and the 1981/82 figures, an increase of 740 was noted and a similar increase can be expected to June 1983.

South Australia

Information obtained from ABS 1981 Census, is used as the basis for all data provided:

Total Aboriginal population is 9,825, ie, 0.76 per cent of the State's population.

Tasmania

Statistics maintained by the Department of Aboriginal Affairs, Hobart, indicate a total of 2,688 comprising 1,388 males and 1,300 females.

Northern Territory

Approximately 30,000.

Areas of population within States

Available information relative to the dispersion of Aboriginal persons within the States is as follows:

New South Wales

No tribal Aborigines, approximately 35 per cent live in metropolitan areas, 55 per cent in urban and large town communities and 10 per cent in former reserves and fringe areas.

Regional distribution -

Metropolitan and Eastern Coast	40)
South Western and Riverina	14.5) per cent
Central-Western-North Western	20)
Northern-Far North Coast	25.5)

Victoria

About 300 to 400 live in separate communities but there are no tribal Aborigines in Victoria. About 50 per cent of total population live in Melbourne and the remainder in country towns.

Apart from Melbourne, the principal clusters of population are in Northern Victoria and Gippsland (to the south-east).

Queensland

There are 14 Aboriginal Reserves in Queensland and an estimated 15,000 people live on them. It appears there is a tendency to gather in coastal areas such as Brisbane, Rockhampton, Townsville, Cairns and also Mt Isa, Coen and Normanton. Reserves are generally situated in close proximity to cities. The Department of Aboriginal and Islander Advancement is gradually providing housing and employment and the "fringe" or "shanty" image is being phased out.

Western Australia

The report of the House of Representatives Standing Committee on Aboriginal Affairs regarding Aboriginal town campers, 1982, indicated there were 252 fringe dwellers then resident in the metropolitan area.

The ABS figures for 1982 place the main full-blooded Aboriginal population in the Kimberleys and in the Central Desert areas east of Leonora-Laverton; although no statistics are available on exact locations.

The greater concentration of mixed blood Aborigines occurs south of Geraldton.

The more densely populated areas of the State are -

Warburton	573
Kalgoorlie-Boulder	1,338
Wiluna	500
Meekatharra	500
Balgo Mission	500
Carnarvon	1,623
Geraldton	1,105
Port Hedland	2,532
Jigalong	500
Roebourne	800
Onslow	500
Halls Creek	950
Kununurra	960
Turkey Creek	500
Broome	1,500
Derby	1,100
Fitzroy Crossing	800
Albany	350

Katanning	280
Narrogin	250
Collie	280
Bunbury	300
Northam	480
Perth	9,000

South Australia

<u>Semi-tribal</u>	<u>Fringe</u>	<u>Urban</u>
2,000	200	7,625

Some 2,000 semi-tribal people are concentrated in the far north-west and far west of the State. The former is the 'Pitjantjatjara Lands' and the latter is intended to be designated the 'Maralinga Lands' under proposed land rights legislation.

Fringe dwellers now total about 200 persons. That figure is being reduced with the progress of housing programs. They are now limited to a few areas, Port Augusta, Oodnadatta, Ceduna and Coober Pedy.

Urbanised people are largely concentrated within the Adelaide metropolitan area where approximately one third of 7,625 of the State's Aboriginal population resides.

TABLE OF SA ABORIGINAL POPULATION DISTRIBUTION

Statistical Subdivision	Aboriginal Population	Proportion of Total
Adelaide	8,283	33.4%
Outer Adelaide	136	1.4%
York & Lower North	337	3.4%
Murray Lands	815	8.3%
South East	192	2.0%
Eyre	1,220	12.4%
Northern	3,842	39.1%

Tasmania

There are no tribal Aborigines in Tasmania. About 65 per cent of Tasmanian Aborigines reside in urban areas. A more detailed breakdown indicates 610 in Hobart, Launceston 432, Devonport 163, Bass Strait Islands 228, Burnie/Wynyard 287 and the remainder distributed throughout the State.

Northern Territory

Approximate percentages - Tribal 64 per cent, Fringe 7 per cent, Urban Dwellers 17 per cent, Pastoral Properties 12 per cent. These people reside mainly in Aboriginal Community settlements and missions.

Involvement of Aborigines in the police function

Aborigines may be involved in the police function as fully qualified constables or as ancillary personnel such as trackers, aides, etc. Information to hand indicates the following positions:

New South Wales

Aboriginals are recruited to the police force as members of equal standing. The employment of Aboriginal persons as trackers ceased some time ago.

Victoria

No more involvement of Aborigines in police functions than other ethnic groups.

Queensland

The Queensland Police Force has Aboriginal persons within its ranks and in addition employs "Aboriginal Police" to assist regular police on Aboriginal Reserves. Each of the 14 Aboriginal Reserves has at least two and sometimes three Queensland Police stationed on them and these are assisted by a number of Aboriginal Police officers in each case.

Western Australia

In December 1974, the Western Australian Government began considering a scheme whereby selected Aborigines were to be appointed as Uniformed Police Aides to assist regular police officers in dealing with offenders among the Aboriginal population. The scheme was introduced in 1975, with aides being allocated to police stations in areas where a strong tribal influence prevailed.

A total of 35 Police Aides are currently employed with the Police Department at centres throughout the Kimberleys, Pilbara and Eastern Goldfields.

South Australia

There is no special involvement of Aborigines in the police function.

Some Community Councils within the Pitjantjatjara Lands employ Aboriginal Wardens who are expected to perform a peace officer type role. They act as liaison personnel between the Community and visiting Police patrols.

Tasmania

There are no Aboriginal persons known to be involved in the police function in Tasmania.

Northern Territory

The Northern Territory has Aboriginal Police Trackers, Liaison Officers and Police Aides.

Police Trackers assist in maintaining police facilities and equipment as well as tracking and identifying offenders where occasions occur to utilise their skills.

Aboriginal Liaison Officers were forerunners to the present Police Aide Scheme. At the time of writing only one remains. His main function is as a "go between" with Aboriginals and police. He assists in language problems encountered, sits in on some interviews and assists with police relations with Aborigines generally.

The Aboriginal Police Aide Scheme was introduced in 1979 with the primary aim of providing coastal surveillance and observation of persons, animals or plants entering Australia illegally, illegal fishing operations and for training Aboriginals in Police/Community Liaison to assist in police duties at remote localities. The scheme has now been extended to the point where Police Aides are utilised in selective Community Policing.

Community liaison schemes operating or considered involving Police and Aborigines

Information to hand indicates a growing interest in improving relations between Aborigines and Police Officers. A number of discussions have been held across State borders and ideas exchanged. Aboriginal leaders too are displaying an increasing willingness to participate with a view to developing greater two way understanding as well as improving lines of communication to the benefit of all concerned.

New South Wales

The New South Wales Police/Aborigine Liaison Unit has organised standing local committees between Aboriginal representatives and local police in most of the medium sized Aboriginal population townships:

- * several community liaison committees exist in larger Aboriginal population townships and both police and Aboriginals are represented thereon
- * there is a standing Aboriginal and Police Education Committee
- * the Police-Aborigine Liaison Unit liaises with all Aboriginal organisations in the Redfern area and monitors the activities of Aboriginal Community Liaison Officers in that area, rendering assistance where necessary.

The Police Aborigine Liaison Unit also meets regularly, or as the need arises, with various Aboriginal organisations, community based groups and Government bodies involved with the Aboriginal community; thus maintaining a finger on the pulse insofar as all pertinent issues involving Aboriginal people in the State are concerned.

Members of the Unit travel extensively throughout the State visiting the various Aboriginal communities and maintaining face to face contact with the people.

Victoria

Several local standing committees involving police and Aborigines exist, in addition to a Police-Aborigine Liaison unit. Meetings are presently held at Fitzroy, Morwell, Traralgon in Gippsland and Shepparton and Ballarat in Central Victoria. In July 1983, with the cooperation of the Aboriginal Advancement League, monthly meetings commenced in Fitzroy during which various community issues are discussed. In addition to the police and the Advancement League the following Aboriginal organisations participate: Victorian Aboriginal Legal Service, Aboriginal Child Care Agency, Aboriginal Housing Board, Prison Liaison Officer for Aboriginals, Aboriginal Evangelical Fellowship, Aboriginal Health Service, Department of Community Welfare Services Corrections, Aboriginal Youth Support Group, Ministry of Aboriginal Affairs, Nindebica Work Shop, Aboriginal Health Coordinator, Liaison Health Officer, St Vincent's Hospital.

In December 1983, Victoria Police established an Aborigine-Police Liaison Committee to act as a mechanism for improving understanding between police and Aborigines. The committee's objectives are:

- * establish policies in connection with Aboriginal-police relations
- * coordinate the development of Aboriginal-police liaison committees throughout Victoria
- * advise Aboriginal-police liaison committees throughout the state of policies or agreements which have been made at the state level

- * consider initiatives which can be taken at the state level to resolve problems affecting Aboriginal-police relations
- * consider ways of improving communications and facilitating understanding between Aboriginals and police at state level.

The inaugural committee includes three police representatives: (1) Chief Inspector Bloggs (Cochairman), Public Relations Division, (2) Inspector Robinson (Operations Department), and (3) Snr Sgt Smith (R & D Department). Four Aborigines are represented on the committee: (1) Mr Stewart Murray (Cochairman), (2) Ms Jenny Witton, (3) Mr William Stewart, and Mr Kevin Atkinson. Mrs Fay Marles, of the Human Rights Commission, acts as an independent observer.

Queensland

Discussions are held with representatives of Aboriginal community groups during regular visits to the Queensland Police Academy and the Queensland Police College.

Representatives of Aboriginal community groups continue to visit the Queensland Police Academy and the Queensland Police College. It is felt this program creates a greater awareness of the difficulties confronting police officers when dealing with Aboriginal people, as well as providing a forum for Aboriginal spokesmen and women to pass on valuable information concerning Aboriginal cultural backgrounds.

Meetings have been held between representatives of the Aboriginal community and senior officers of the Department. These meetings are designed to give Aboriginal representatives an opportunity to bring to the attention of the Department's top administrators matters affecting their people.

The encouragement of better relations between Aborigines and police officers is seen as a means of creating mutual trust which will benefit both members of the Aboriginal community and police personnel. There is contact sport between police and Aboriginal football teams. Usually, matches are played weekly between trainee police and Aboriginal teams. Each year a police team travels to Barcaldine to take part in the "black and white" football carnival.

The employment of Aboriginal Police on Reserves also serves as a liaison system.

Western Australia

The Police Department is represented on a committee known as the 'Special Cabinet Committee on Aboriginal/Police Relations'; a Government appointed committee set up with the view to improving relations between police and Aborigines. Recommendations from this committee are directed to Ministers for consideration.

The committee comprises representatives from the Aboriginal Planning Authority, Aboriginal Legal Aid Service, persons elected from the Aboriginal community by Aborigines and the Police Department.

South Australia

Several Aboriginal/police liaison committees are operating within the State. They are encouraged in localities possessing a significant Aboriginal population.

The success or continuity of such committees is largely dependent on the commitment of the individuals involved from both sides.

Localities where liaison committees are currently operating include:

- Adelaide - This is the main forum which provides a communication link between Aborigines and the Police central administration.
- Maitland - The District Council hosts this committee which includes representatives of civic authority, professional services, business, education, Aborigines and Police.
- Port Lincoln - The coordinating body for the various Aboriginal organisations within the locality host a monthly meeting of representatives of the various Government Departments providing services within the district.
- Ceduna - The Aboriginal Progress Association hosts intermittent meetings to which local police representatives are invited.
- Port Augusta - The local coordinating committee for Aboriginal organisations has regular meetings and invites a police department representative whenever law and order issues arise.

Tasmania

Constant liaison is maintained with officers of the Federal Department of Aboriginal Affairs in Hobart. The Commissioner of Police maintains an "open door" approach whereby any problems confronting the Aboriginal community may be discussed. DAA officers are said to have indicated a high degree of satisfaction in this method of approach.

Northern Territory

The Police Aide Scheme is in fact a Community Liaison Scheme. Before applications are considered, a request for the

establishment of a Police Aide position must be made by the Aboriginal Community.

If an application is agreed to, then the Community involved selects applicants for Police to interview. Aboriginal Councils are also required to meet costs of local services and to some equipment if required by their Aides.

Police training programs involving Aborigines and associated matters

All police forces include lectures concerning Aborigines in their respective training curricula. The degree and topical nature of the inclusion depends generally upon the circumstances peculiar to each State.

New South Wales

Training lectures, videos and discussion group exercises are given to New South Wales Police by members of the Police-Aborigine Liaison Unit at all levels of in-service courses, ie, Initial and Secondary trainees; Constable First Class, Detectives' Course, Sergeant Third Class and Senior Sergeants' Courses, as well as the Executive Officers' Course.

The unit is assisted in this program by Aboriginal persons who speak on historical and cultural topics. Persons utilised are acceptable to their own people in this role. They include members of the Special Aboriginal Education Unit, some members of Aboriginal organisations and other persons, dependent upon the level of the topic for discussion.

The program content level is coordinated by the Officer in Charge of the Liaison Unit.

Victoria

Recruit training programs were under revision during late 1983. Recruits are addressed early in their career by members of the Ethnic Affairs Commission and this introductory material is later followed by a specific segment on Aborigines. During this same period the question of Aboriginal lectures to Police generally was being considered.

Queensland

Lectures are given by visiting speakers to the Police Academy on subjects such as -

- * Traditional Aboriginal education - Kath Walker, Moongalba, Stradbroke Island.
- * Legal issues - Jim Evans, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders Corporation (QEA) Legal Service.

- * Aborigines in Queensland society - Lance O'Chin, Education Liaison Officer, Bremer High School.
- * Children's services - Denis O'Brien, Department of Children's Services.
- * Support services - Joann Schmider, Queensland Department of Education.
- * Cultural lifestyles and health - Barbara Keys, Aboriginal Health, Department of Health.

Members of the Aboriginal Communities have presented addresses at the Queensland Police College and at the Police Academy - such addresses being designed to give serving and future Police Officers a broader dimension of understanding of Aboriginal culture and customs.

Western Australia

The Police Department, through its training branch, conducts in-service courses for officers from First Class Constable to Senior Sergeant rank, in addition to the Police Academy course for new recruits. Several periods throughout these courses are devoted to the subject "Police/Aboriginal Relations".

South Australia

For some years the police cadet training curriculum has included a segment on Aboriginal Affairs, which developed to comprise 8 x 45 minutes lecture periods. Four periods were programmed to involve five or six prominent Aboriginal community identities in a plenary type discussion with the cadet group. The other four lectures were undertaken by Police Liaison members and involved instruction on the Police/Aboriginal Liaison organisation, policy, General Orders, case law and issues in Aboriginal affairs generally.

A number of refresher and other in-service training courses have included a lecture period on this subject.

The recruit training curriculum has been recently revised. A training module "Community Service and Crisis Intervention" will include a segment entitled 'Aboriginal and Ethnic Affairs'. The contact time will be 8 x 45 minutes and will be equally divided into two workshop type sessions, one on Aboriginal and one on Ethnic affairs. Issues such as the Racial Discrimination Act and cross-cultural interaction are applicable to both sessions.

Tasmania

Aboriginal people are invited to become involved in courses conducted at the Police Academy. These courses include a lecture entitled "The Individual in Society - Minority Groups", which is delivered to recruit and in-service training courses.

Northern Territory

Police Recruit Training syllabus places strong emphasis on matters pertaining to Aborigines during both Phase I and Phase III.

Phase I of the Recruit Training comprises of 15 weeks. Phase III is of 9 weeks duration. The total input of matters relating directly to Aborigines consists of 67 hours spread over 9 days throughout the course. This includes visits to Aboriginal Settlements, direct contact with the Aborigines themselves, visits to Aboriginal Colleges schools, training centres, and Aboriginal lecturers. Aboriginal Legal Aid Lawyers, anthropologists and historians also provide valuable input into the course.

CHAPTER 20

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

Garry Hannigan
Senior Constable
Queensland

Employees

The industrial interests of all sworn employees of police agencies in New Zealand and Australia are represented by an appropriate Association or Union. The various bodies, complete with year of formation, are shown at Table 20.1

TABLE 20.1
POLICE ASSOCIATIONS & UNIONS : BY YEAR
OF FORMATION

association/union title	year of origin
Police Association Of South Australia	1911
Commissioned Police Officers' Association Of South Australia	1950
Western Australian Union Of Police Workers (previously Police Association Of Western Australia)	1912
Queensland Police Union Of Employees	1915
Queensland Police Officers' Union Of Employees	1925
Police Association Of New South Wales	1920
Commissioned Police Officers' Association Of New South Wales	1920
Police Association Of Tasmania	1923
Police Association Of Victoria*	1933
Police Association of New Zealand	1936
NZ Police Officers' Guild	1950
Police Association Of Australian Capital Territory	1933
Police Association Of Northern Territory†	1945
Northern Territory Police Officers' Association	1967

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology

* Previous Police Association of Victoria existed 1917-1932

† Previous Police Association of Northern Territory existed 12 Nov 39 - Sep 41.

The Commissioned Officers' Association, NSW, is a vocational branch of the state Public Service Association. It is apparent from the Table that in some agencies an industrial distinction exists between commissioned and non-commissioned personnel.

Very few police officers choose not to belong to the Association or Union representing their industrial interests. There have, however, over the years, been several breakaway movements. One attempt, in NSW, in the thirties, revolved around the desire of some members to form a separate Sergeants Association. Another, in SA, in the seventies reflected the dissatisfaction of certain members who attempted to join a public service union. No such breakaway moves have been successful to date.

The Police Federation (under the name of Australian Federation of Police Associations and Unions) was established in 1947.

The Federation extended its membership to include New Zealand in 1979. Generally speaking, insufficient commonality of industrial practice and interest exists between New Zealand and Australia to provide a stable trans-Tasman police employee grouping. As a result, Police Association of New Zealand left the Federation in 1984. Within Australia, the Federation provides a focus for periodic discussion by employees of mutual problems but, with the exception of lobbying in respect of certain federal domains such as taxation, exercises little industrial influence. Police industrial relations are solidly based in their respective polities until such time as industrial dispute mechanisms are nationalised. NSW Police, which accounts for one third of all police employees in Australia, is not a member of the Federation.

Views generally

Police unions vary greatly from jurisdiction to jurisdiction. But certain common functions are generally present in most of them. Common functional areas identified are:

- * economic
- * welfare
- * discipline/legal
- * grievance resolution
- * defence of host agency
- * information.

Employers

Most police agencies in New Zealand and Australia have an industrial section possessing special responsibility for

negotiating with employee representative bodies and engaging in collective bargaining. All have a senior officer responsible for such matters. Some agencies emphasise collective bargaining more than others and, in NSW, the police department has largely disengaged itself from collective bargaining concerning Award matters, leaving them to the Public Service Board. The status of nominal employer in the various jurisdictions varies. In Tasmania and Queensland, for example, it is the Commissioner of Police. In other polities different nominal employers are prescribed.

Brief details of police industrial relations structures in the various jurisdictions are shown below.

New South Wales

Industrial disputes are generally dealt with through collective bargaining. Failing the collective bargaining processes, recourse is had to the State Industrial Commission. Commission access is limited by the Industrial Arbitration (Police) Act 1946.

A dispute can generally involve any issue although there are certain areas which are designated managerial prerogative and therefore non-negotiable, ie, promotion, discipline transfers. An avenue of appeal in respect to promotion and discipline is available through the Government and Related Employees Appeal Board.

In the event of an impasse being reached through the collective bargaining process, s.18 Industrial Arbitration Act 1940 permits referral to a Conciliation Committee, in order to resolve the issue. The Committee consists of a Conciliation Commissioner as Chairperson, two members representing the Police Association and one person representing the Commissioner of Police and Public Service Board respectively.

If impasse is total the committee may make or amend an Award.

On notice being given by an involved party, a Conciliation Commissioner may inquire into any dispute.

Unless parties to the Police Award have previously agreed to abide by the decisions of a Conciliation Committee or Commissioner, decisions are appealable in Court Session which comprises one or more judges selected by the President sitting together. The nominal employer in all industrial matters is the Public Service Board. All matters involving new industrial standards are required to be referred to the Commission in Court Session for eventual deliberation.

Victoria

All conditions of service for police employees below the rank of Commander are determined by the Police Service Board. It was first established by s.69 Police Regulation Act 1958. The Police Service Board is chaired by a County Court Judge. One

appointed government representative and one elected police representative of or above the rank of Senior Sergeant comprise its membership. Conditions of service are set out in an Industrial Award and are confined exclusively to economic factors, ie, salaries, overtime rates, leave, etc.

There is no provision for collective bargaining between employer and employee representatives. Industrial disputes must go to the board for resolution if access exists. There is no provision for independent arbitration or mediation in respect of these matters. Issues concerning matters in which agreement between the parties to the award exists are presented to the Board for consideration in addition to disputed items. The Board is not bound to accept informal agreements presented to it and may reject or vary them.

There are no avenues of appeal against a determination of the Board, although it can be nullified by State Parliament.

Queensland

Collective bargaining is the strongest feature of dispute resolution in Queensland. This involves discussions between employer and employee representatives. Any matter affecting Industrial Award conditions must involve the Public Service Board.

All matters not of an economic nature are discussed directly between the Commissioner or his representative, usually the Deputy Commissioner, and the Union.

Recourse to the State Industrial Commission can be had if agreement cannot be directly reached between the parties. The Commission usually consists of one Commissioner sitting alone. This practice is only departed from if an issue will have some bearing on other Industrial Awards.

All industrial conditions are set out in the Police Officers Award and are strictly economic in nature, ie, overtime, salary, etc. A decision of the Industrial Commission is appealable to the State Industrial Court. The Court consists of a Judge of the State Supreme Court sitting alone.

Western Australia

The State Industrial Commission is constituted under S.44 Industrial Arbitration Act 1912. Under the Western Australia industrial nominal system a person or party is bound to respond to an initiator within 21 days. Within these 21 days collective bargaining between the parties is entered into in an effort to resolve the matter. In the event of agreement being reached, the Industrial Commission merely holds a ratification hearing. In the event of failure, the dispute is referred to the Industrial Commission and a mediator may be appointed at the request of both parties.

The Industrial Commission (a Commissioner sitting alone) has authority to either conciliate a dispute and return it to collective bargaining or arbitrate it and amend the Award accordingly. Should an Award variation application be involved, a Commissioner may refer a matter to the Commission in Court Session for consideration. A Commission in Court Session has the power to either settle a matter and return it to the Commission or it may itself vary an Award.

The Industrial Commission has power to deal with virtually any dispute whatsoever, although non-economic matters do not find their way into the Police Award.

South Australia

Police in South Australia, rather like New South Wales, tend to concentrate on collective bargaining in the resolution of industrial disputes. Industrial agreements are permitted under s.106 Industrial Conciliation Act 1972.

Disputes referred to the Industrial Commission of South Australia are directed in the first instance to the Commission. The Commission consists of a single Commissioner of Presidential Member or Conciliation Committee (a Committee chaired by a Commissioner and possessing equal numbers of employer and employee representatives). A Conciliation Committee has not so far been established for police.

Failure to resolve a dispute through collective bargaining results in the matter being referred to the Commission. The Commission has wide powers, with authority to hear disputes on virtually any matter; as well as grant and vary awards. Emphasis in the Commission's activities is on the settling of claims through amicable agreement between parties, ie, through collective bargaining.

Appeals from the Commission with respect to both decisions and matters of law are directed to the full Commission for consideration.

Appeals on matters of law arising from deliberations of the Commission itself and other matters such as Award interpretations are directed to the Full Industrial Court for adjudication. Basically, the Full Industrial Court exists as an Appeal Forum for all Commission matters.

Tasmania

The Public Service Board has responsibility for determining Industrial Awards for public sector employees, as well as police, in Tasmania. The board is confined to economic matters by virtue of the provisions of s.47 Public Service Act 1973. Areas traditionally considered the prerogative of management are not treated as industrial matters. Police are not permitted access to the Public Service Board in respect of classification.

Disputes may be resolved through collective bargaining but, as a matter of practice they are referred to the Public Service Board. A Commissioner is appointed to arbitrate the dispute. The parties place the grounds justifying their respective stances before the Commissioner. He tests the evidence presented and ultimately delivers a verdict. No conciliation provisions are made available within the process, nor is independent mediation or arbitration available to industrial disputes.

Should either party to a determination made by a Public Service Commissioner be aggrieved by such decision, appeal can be made to the Public Service Arbitrator. That decision is final. It is expected that an Industrial Commission will be introduced into Tasmania shortly.

Northern Territory

Police industrial negotiations in the Northern Territory are commenced within a collective bargaining format. Where such bargaining is not productive resort may be had to the Police Arbitral Tribunal. The Tribunal is composed of a member of the Commonwealth Conciliation and Arbitration Commission or other persons nominated by the Minister. It is established under Part III Police Administration Act 1979.

Australian Capital Territory

ACT police officers are now members of the Australian Federal Police following the demise of their own union in 1982. AFPA is registered with Commonwealth Conciliation & Arbitration Commission.

Police employee militancy

The industrial temper of police employees in New Zealand has remained stable over the last few decades whereas, in Australia, the opposite has occurred. Until the last few years, employee militancy had reached serious levels in some jurisdictions. Employee industrial consciousness has remained high in all jurisdictions but, during the latter part of the recent economic recession, the intensity of such militancy has reduced markedly.

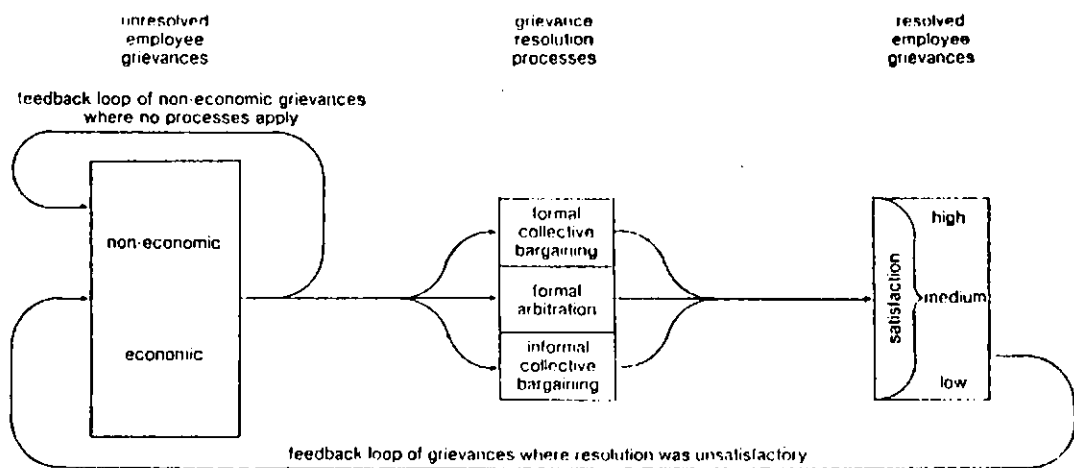
Although the actual mechanisms utilised in the various jurisdictions for resolving employing grievances vary in detail, common functional processes are apparent. These are shown at Figure 20.1. Basically, both economic and non-economic based grievances may be addressed through: (1) formal collective bargaining, (2) formal arbitration, and (3) informal collective bargaining. Certain non-economic based employee grievances relating to matters viewed by employers as managerial prerogatives cannot be addressed. It is mostly such grievances which from time to time erupt in outbursts of intense employee dissatisfaction. For the most part, though, grievances are addressed through the means provided and result in varying degrees of satisfaction. Of course, low satisfaction resolution sometimes festers and results in either a continued or renewed grievance.

New Zealand

As a general rule, police industrial disputes in New Zealand are dealt with by way of collective bargaining. Collective bargaining includes employee representatives on the one hand and representatives of the Commissioner of Police and/or Minister for Police on the other. Unresolved disputes and or major salary claims go before the State Services Commission.

FIGURE 20.1

OUTLINE POLICE DISPUTE RESOLUTION SYSTEM



Source: 1979 . Bruce Swanton & RW Page. 'Police Industrial Dispute Resolution Processes & Their Implications For Militancy,' Journal Of Industrial Relations, v21 #4 Dec: 398-417.

Police industrial relations generally

It is impossible to attempt a general judgment concerning the efficiency of police industrial relations in all jurisdictions. In most agencies at most times relations can be described as satisfactory, although single issues can periodically inflame situations. Expertise by both employers and employee representatives is improving. On the other hand, increasingly constrained resources, changing social conditions and occupational expectations are acting to increase strains operating on both sides of the bargaining table. At the present time there is some evidence of a concerted employer effort to restore ground lost in earlier years. Perhaps even this delicate state of affairs can be said to constitute a favorable judgment in respect of police industrial relations practitioners, given the difficulties under which they labor.

Disciplinary hearings. Disciplinary offences detailed in Police Regulations include insubordination, misconduct, neglect of duty and violation of duty. A charged member has 14 days in which to admit or deny the charge and elect that a matter be heard by a Magistrate. The member may tender a written submission or may request to be paraded before the Commissioner of Police. The Commissioner may impose an appropriate fine. In other cases, disciplinary charges are heard by a Magistrate.

Appeals. The Police Disciplinary Board comprises a Magistrate, a public representative nominated by the Minister and a person nominated by the Minister from a list of three provided by the Police Association. The Board is empowered to hear appeals against dismissal, reduction in rank, position or pay, fines or forfeiture of pay and compulsory resignation. The Board has wide powers to impose a different penalty and its decision is binding.

Northern Territory

Formal discipline procedures for the Northern Territory Police Force are prescribed in the Police Administration Act 1979 and subordinate Regulations. The Commissioner of Police is responsible for control and management of the Force subject to directions in writing by the Minister.

Suspension. A member charged with a serious disciplinary offence may be suspended on pay by the Commissioner. A member charged before an open court may be suspended with or without pay as the Minister directs.

Disciplinary hearings. The Commissioner of Police is empowered to hear disciplinary charges and impose a modest fine or a reprimand. The matter must be referred to the Police Appeal Board if a heavy fine, dismissal or reduction is considered appropriate.

Appeals. The Police Appeal Board comprises a Stipendiary Magistrate, a nominee of the Commissioner and an elected member. It has wide powers to take evidence and to affirm or vary the original penalty. Hearings are in public and all parties may be represented.

Australian Capital Territory

ACT police officers are subjected to the same discipline and accountability provision as members of other elements of the Australian Federal Police organisation.

Following the ACT Police's loss of independence in 1979, disciplinary processes were detailed in the Australian Federal Police (Discipline) Regulation 1979. In 1981 these were superseded by the Complaints (Australian Federal Police) Act 1981. At that time the Police Discipline Board chaired by a magistrate was replaced by a Disciplinary Tribunal chaired by a judge.

Regulations created pursuant to the statute specify conduct

which constitutes disciplinary offence including contravention of Regulations, Standing Orders and similar; negligence, disgraceful, discreditable or improper conduct; disorderly behaviour and being found guilty by a court of an offence against an Australian law or that of another country. Aiders and abettors are also liable.

Suspension. A member charged with a disciplinary offence or convicted of an offence may be suspended usually on full pay unless the Commissioner directs otherwise. In a small number of cases, where an Officer is commissioned by the Governor-General, suspension requires specific approval at that level. Suspension can also arise after a member has been charged in open court. A member may be suspended before or after or at the time disciplinary charges are served. A Disciplinary Tribunal constituted by a judge at any time during a proceeding may direct that a member be suspended.

Disciplinary Hearings. Disciplinary charges may be heard by the Commissioner (with consent) or the Disciplinary Tribunal. Among the usual range of penalties, the Commissioner may dismiss the member, impose a fine not more than the equivalent of five days salary or reduce the member's salary.

The Complaints (AFP) Act 1981 provided for an Internal Investigation Division, defined some of the responsibilities of the Ombudsman and established the Federal Police Disciplinary Tribunal. The Act requires public complaints to be referred to the Internal Investigation unit which must notify the Ombudsman. In investigating public complaints, Internal Investigation Personnel or members approved by the Commissioner may direct a member to furnish information, produce a document or answer a question relevant to the inquiry notwithstanding self incrimination. However, coerced matters are admissible only in disciplinary hearings. Section 8 of the Act, which makes failure to comply or furnishing misleading information punishable by a fine of \$1,000 or six months imprisonment, does not have its equivalent elsewhere. Internal investigation reports must be forwarded to the Ombudsman who may request further investigation or recommend prosecution. Where the Commissioner disagrees, the Attorney-General is empowered to direct the action to be taken.

Disciplinary charges arising from public complaints are heard by the Federal Police Disciplinary Tribunal, the President and Deputy Presidents of which must hold judicial office. Members must be magistrates or lawyers with at least five years service. The tribunal also hears contested disciplinary charges and those referred by the Commissioner or preferred by a charged member. A tribunal chaired by a judge may impose a penalty after conferring with the Commissioner or his nominee. The range of penalties is similar to that which may be imposed by the Commissioner but if reduction in rank or dismissal is intended the member must be informed in writing and given seven days to provide a written statement which must be considered. The Tribunal cannot dismiss a Commissioned Officer but may recommend such action. Where the Tribunal is not chaired by a judge, it is required to pass its finding to the Commissioner who must determine the penalty.

Appeals. Where the Commissioner imposes a penalty after the Tribunal has determined guilt, both the member and the Attorney General have 28 days in which to appeal to the Disciplinary Tribunal. The member may appeal against the severity or legality of the sentence while the Attorney General may appeal against its inadequacy. The Disciplinary Tribunal constituted by the President or a Deputy President, may affirm the decision or set aside the penalty and impose a new penalty that was available to the Commissioner. Similar appeal rights exist from disciplinary penalties imposed at a hearing by the Commissioner.

The Disciplinary Tribunal is also empowered to inquire into any matter relating to the Australian Federal Police referred to it by the Minister. During any proceedings, it may also refer matters to the Commissioner for investigation. Proceedings must be in public unless the Tribunal directs otherwise. Hearings before the Tribunal are not bound by strict legal technicality or the rules of evidence. Legal points, including the sufficiency of the evidence, may be referred to the full bench of the Federal Court of Australia.

New Zealand

The Police Act 1958 (as amended) establishes the formal disciplinary procedures of the New Zealand Police Force empowering the Commissioner of Police to issue general instructions which are deemed to have been communicated to members when published in the Police Gazette or manual or brought to their personal notice. Similar to most Australian jurisdictions, the subsidiary Police Regulations itemises 62 disciplinary offences and makes members aiding and abetting liable to be proceeded against as principals.

Suspension. The Commissioner of Police may in writing suspend members considered guilty of misconduct or neglect of duty with pay, with part pay or without pay and may vary or rescind his order at any time. Unless delay in dealing with a disciplinary inquiry is beyond the control of the Commissioner, a suspension is for no longer than 21 days. Where criminal proceedings have been taken, a suspension cannot extend beyond 28 days of the final determination of the proceedings. Members under suspension are not permitted to wear uniform. A member suspended without full pay is entitled to have the decision reviewed. If found not guilty, he or she is entitled to back pay for the period of suspension.

Disciplinary hearings. The Commissioner's powers vary according to the rank of the member alleged to be guilty of misconduct or neglect of duty. Where a member admits a charge proceedings move to the penalty stage. Where this is not so, the Commissioner must appoint 'a Commissioned Officer or other person' (in respect of a Constable being charged); 'any person whether member of the Force or not' (in respect of a non-Commissioned Officer being charged) or, where a Commissioned Officer is charged, the Minister must appoint two or more persons (only one of whom may be a member of the Force) to hear the charges. A Tribunal must report to the Commissioner or Minister as to whether a charge is proved together with any written or oral submissions as to penalty, as well as any other comments.

The following factors are among those considered in appointing a person to inquire into a breach of discipline:

- * rank of the member charged
- * nature of the charge:
 - . serious or minor breach
 - . criminal offence or administrative breach
- * complexity of the case
- * degree of public involvement or interest
- * impartiality of the proposed appointee.

In practice, appointments have been made from commissioned officers of police, stipendiary magistrates and practising barristers and solicitors. The Director of Personnel maintains a list of people available to act as Tribunals.

Where a charge is not established, members can be awarded 'just and reasonable' sums towards their defence. Where guilt is proved or admitted, the Minister or the Commissioner may:

- * dismiss a member
- * reduce in rank (except Constables)
- * reduce seniority by a specified number of years
- * reduce pay to any specified step in the scale
- * fine (commissioned officers - up to \$400, NCO's - up to \$250 and Constables up to \$175)
- * discharge a member without penalty or with an order as to costs
- * direct a charge be dismissed.

Disciplinary procedures include the following features:

- * a member reported for an offence must be told as soon as practicable that he is to be reported and the nature of the offence. Where the member is unfairly prejudiced as a result of his not being told, the charge may be dismissed
- * a charge cannot be laid after 12 months unless it can be shown that it could not reasonably have been proceeded with within that period
- * a member has three days in which to plead to a charge

- * persons not officially concerned with the inquiry are not admitted into the hearing without the Tribunal's permission. The press or public require the Minister's permission
- * a member of the Tribunal cannot disclose any part of the findings against a Commissioned Officer without the Minister's consent, or if against a non-commissioned officer or Constable, without the Commissioner's consent
- * the Tribunal must report findings in writing to the member and the Commissioner or Minister at the same time. Submissions regarding penalty must also be sent to the Commissioner or the Minister
- * applications for rehearing may be made within 7 days of notification
- * the procedure must conform as far as possible to that followed in the Magistrates' Courts in their summary criminal jurisdiction.

The Police Act 1958 empowers the Commissioner of Police to dismiss a Constable and, with the Minister's approval, a member of higher rank believed to be unfit to remain in the Force. The dismissal takes effect seven days after written notice during which time a member is suspended and he may make oral or written representations to the Commissioner. These must be considered before a dismissal is confirmed.

Appeals. The Police Appeal Board, constituted by a Magistrate (Chairman), a Commissioner's representative and a member of the Police Officer's Guild or the Police Association (not of lower rank to an appellant) is empowered to hear appeals against dismissal for unfitness, against Tribunal decisions and against penalties imposed for disciplinary charges. The Commissioner of Police is also empowered to appeal to the Board concerning points of law raised in the findings of disciplinary tribunals. The Board may confirm the finding, recommend that the matter be referred back to the Tribunal for rehearing or make any other appropriate recommendation.

An Appeal Board hearing an appeal against a Tribunal decision is required to report its findings to the Commissioner (or Minister in the case of a Commissioned Officer) who may make an appropriate order but not impose a penalty more severe than that originally recommended.

Commissioners' accountability

Just as other ranks are held accountable under the various statutory provisions stemming from their respective Acts, so too, are chief officers. The various statutes contain a number of provisions concerning the appointment, dismissal and authority of police commissioners, see Table 6.1.

CHAPTER 21

DIRECTORY OF SELECTED POLICE AND POLICE RELATED INSTITUTIONS IN AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND

The previous chapter briefly outlined a number of police and associated organisations. This chapter merely comprises a listing of selected police and police related institutions throughout New Zealand and Australia. Many sub units of police agencies achieve a high public profile in their own right and, so, a number of sub units are included along with their parent bodies.

This chapter is far from comprehensive and those bodies not included but which feel they should be are invited to contact the senior editor with a view to rectifying such omissions in future editions.

Readers interested in directories relative to police elsewhere in the world may refer to several compilations. LEAA compiled a comprehensive ten volume account of American police agencies in its criminal justice agencies series. With respect to the United Kingdom, the Police and Constabulary Almanac, published annually by Security Gazette is most helpful. International Security Directory, also published annually by Security Gazette, contains selected international listings of police agencies.

Three other well known sources are:

- * CRAMER James
1968 Uniforms Of The World's Police
- * DOREY MA, SWIDLER GJ
1975 World Police Systems, A Factual Text
Boston, MA: Northeastern University Press
- * INGLETON RD
1979 Police Of The World
London: Ian Allan Ltd

Care should be exercised in respect of all such directories as some organisations are presented as police organisations when in fact they are not.

NEW SOUTH WALES

Minister	Telephone : (02) 271381
Ministry of Police and Emergency Services	Telegraph :
121 Macquarie Street	Telex : AA 71438
<u>SYDNEY</u> NSW 2000	
Commissioner	Telephone : (02) 20966
Commissioner's Office	(02) 3390277
14-24 College Street	Telegraph : NEMESIS,
<u>SYDNEY</u> NSW 2000	SYDNEY
GPO Box 45	Telex : AA 24256
<u>SYDNEY</u> NSW 2001	AA 20585
Secretary	Telephone : (02) 2678311
Police Association	Telex : AA 24551
16th Floor	
Town Hall House	
456 Kent Street	
<u>SYDNEY</u> NSW 2000	
PO Box Q 283	
Queen Victoria Building	
<u>SYDNEY</u> NSW 2000	
Police Board	Telephone : (02) 2331477
Level 3	Telex : AA 176899
2 Bligh Street	POLBRD
<u>SYDNEY</u> NSW 2000	
PO Box R256	
Royal Exchange	
<u>SYDNEY</u> NSW 2000	
Director	Telephone : (02) 2648669
Bureau Of Criminal Intelligence	(02) 20966
Remington Centre	
169 Liverpool Street	
<u>SYDNEY</u> NSW 2000	
Disaster and Rescue Branch	Telephone : (02) 3390277
113 Campbell Street	(02) 20966
<u>SURRY HILLS</u> NSW 2010	

NEW SOUTH WALES

Federation Of Police-Citizens Boys Clubs Telephone : (02) 20966
 Remington Centre
 169 Liverpool Street
SYDNEY NSW 2000

Internal Affairs Branch Telephone : (02) 2193241
 Police Headquarters (02) 20966
 14-24 College Street
SYDNEY NSW 2000

Police Tribunal Of New South Wales Telephone : (02) 2315344
 Mena House
 225 Macquarie Street
SYDNEY NSW 2000

Secretary Telephone : (02) 6824255
 NSW Police Historical Society ext 56
 PO Box 274
MERRYLANDS NSW 2160

Recruiting Branch Telephone : (02) 2193943
 Police Headquarters (02) 20966
 14-24 College Street
SYDNEY NSW 2000

Prosecuting Branch Telephone : (02) 2648150
 Remington Centre (02) 20966
 169 Liverpool Street ext 3090
SYDNEY NSW 2000
 GPO Box 7029
SYDNEY NSW 2001

Training Development & Examination Branch Telephone : (02) 3390277
 Police Headquarters
 14-24 College Street
SYDNEY NSW 2000

NEW SOUTH WALES

Traffic Branch
Police Headquarters
14-24 College Street
SYDNEY NSW 2000

Telephone : (02) 3390277
(02) 20966

Technical Support Branch
113 Campbell Street
SURRY HILLS NSW 2010

Telephone : (02) 3390277
(02) 20966

Planning and Research Branch
Remington Centre
169 Liverpool Street
SYDNEY NSW 2000

Telephone : (02) 3390277
(02) 20966

Police Department Employees Credit
Union Ltd
Level 14, Aetna Life Tower
Hyde Park Square
SYDNEY NSW 2000

Telephone : (02) 2677800
(02) 20966
ext 3581

Police Communications Section
113 Campbell Street
SYDNEY NSW 2000
GPO Box 7029
SYDNEY NSW 2001

Telephone : (02) 3390277
(02) 20966

Officer in Charge
Police-Aborigine Liaison Unit
Remington Centre
169 Liverpool Street
SYDNEY NSW 2000

Telephone : (02) 2193759

Librarian
Police Headquarters
14-24 College Street
SYDNEY NSW 2000

Telephone : (02) 3390277
(02) 20966

NEW SOUTH WALES

Public Relations Branch
Police Headquarters
14-24 College Street
SYDNEY NSW 2000

Telephone : (02) 2193211
(02) 20966

Superintendent in Charge
Criminal Investigation Branch
Remington Centre
169 Liverpool Street
SYDNEY NSW 2000

Telephone : (02) 2648218
(02) 20966

Police Academy
1 McDermott Drive
GOULBURN NSW 2580

Telephone: (048) 214399

VICTORIA

Minister
 Ministry of Police & Emergency Services
 Old Treasury Building
 1 Treasury Place
MELBOURNE V 3002

Telephone : (03) 6519111
 (03) 6511334
 Telex : AA 32636

Chief Commissioner
 Commissioner's Office
 380 William Street
MELBOURNE V 3000
 GPO Box 2763Y
MELBOURNE V 3001

Telephone : (03) 3203333
 Telegraph : CHEFPOLICE,
 MELBOURNE
 Telex : AA 30717

Secretary
 Police Association
 43 McKenzie Street
MELBOURNE V 3000

Telephone : (03) 6622433
 Ansafon : (03) 6622339
 (03) 6622657
 (03) 6622487

Librarian
 Police College
 'Airlie'
 260 Domain Road
SOUTH YARRA V 3141

Telephone : (03) 265682

Editor
Police Life
 380 William Street
MELBOURNE V 3000

Telephone : (03) 3203247

President
 Victoria Police Legacy
 Police Legacy Office
 326 William Street
MELBOURNE V 3000

Telephone : (03) 3291617

Director
 State Forensic Science Laboratory
 193 Spring Street
MELBOURNE V 3000

Telephone : (03) 6622488
 (03) 6621018
 (03) 6621492

VICTORIA

Police Credit Union Cooperative
326 William Street
MELBOURNE V 3000

Telephone : (03) 3204444

Police Association Club
43 McKenzie Street
MELBOURNE V 3000

Telephone : (03) 6621533

Police Academy
View Mount Road
GLEN WAVERLY V 3150

Telephone : (03) 5669566

Police College
'Airlie'
260 Domain Road
SOUTH YARRA V 3141

Telephone : (03) 265682

Director of Research
Ministry for Police and Emergency Services
Old Treasury Building
1 Treasury Place
MELBOURNE V 3002

Telephone : (03) 6512328

Crime Prevention Bureau
7 Alfred Crescent
NORTH FITZROY V 3068

Telephone : (03) 4897686

QUEENSLAND

Minister
Land Administration Building
130-148 George Street
BRISBANE Q 4000
PO Box 168
North Quay
BRISBANE Q 4000

Telephone : (07) 2218344
Telex : AA 41412

Commissioner
Commissioner's Office
30 Makerston Street
BRISBANE Q 4000
GPO Box 1440
BRISBANE Q 4001

Telephone : (07) 2266001
Telegraph : VEDETTE,
BRISBANE
Telex : AA 40337

General Secretary
Police Union
268 Roma Street
BRISBANE Q 4000
PO Box 2
Roma Street
BRISBANE Q 4000

Telephone : (07) 2296722

Librarian
Police Academy
Rudd Street
OXLEY Q 4075

Telephone : (07) 704057

Police Academy
Rudd Street
OXLEY Q 4075
PO Box 136
CORINDA Q 4075

Telephone : (07) 704057

Police College
7 Laurel Avenue
CHELMER Q 4068

Telephone : (07) 320431

QUEENSLAND

Police Complaints Tribunal
Treasury Building
Queen Street
BRISBANE Q 4000

Telephone : (07) 2246774

Queensland Police Club
32 Makerston Street
BRISBANE Q 4000

Telephone : (07) 2213687

Queensland Police-Citizens Youth
Welfare Association
30 Makerston Street
BRISBANE Q 4000

Telephone : (07) 2215137
(07) 2218235

Queensland Police Credit Union Ltd
217 North Quay
BRISBANE Q 4000

Telephone : (07) 2294544

Queensland Police Legacy Scheme
268 Roma Street
BRISBANE Q 4000

Telephone : (07) 2299941

WESTERN AUSTRALIA

Minister	Telephone : (09) 2221507
Minister for Police and Emergency Service,	Telex : AA 93780
Local Government	PRMWA
8th Floor, Oakleigh Building	
22 St George's Terrace	
<u>PERTH</u> WA 6000	

Commissioner	Telephone : (09) 2221424
Commissioner's Office	Telegraph : GALUP, PERTH
2 Adelaide Terrace	Telex : AA 92145
<u>EAST PERTH</u> WA 6000	

General Secretary	Telephone : (09) 3255633
Police Union	
246 Adelaide Terrace	
<u>PERTH</u> WA 6000	
GPO Box K880	
<u>PERTH</u> WA 6001	

Federation of Police and Citizens'	Telephone : (09) 2221029
Youth Clubs	
3rd Floor	
190 Hay Street	
<u>PERTH</u> WA 6000	

Police Prosecuting Branch	Telephone : (09) 4252480
30 St George's Terrace	
<u>PERTH</u> WA 6000	

Police Academy	Telephone : (09) 2717477
2 Swanbank Road	
<u>MAYLANDS</u> WA 6051	

Police Widows Guild	Telephone : (09) 3255633
c/- Police Union	
GPO Box K880	
<u>PERTH</u> WA 6001	

WESTERN AUSTRALIA

Police Families Advisory Council
 c/- Police Union
 GPO Box K880
PERTH WA 6001

Telephone : (09) 3255633

Police Recruiting Branch
 Ground Floor
 190 Hay Street
PERTH WA 6000

Telephone : (09) 2221579

Water Police
 Barrack Street
PERTH WA 6000

Telephone : (09) 3253140

Community Affairs
 Police Headquarters
 2 Adelaide Terrace
EAST PERTH WA 6000

Telephone : (09) 2221529

Police Traffic Branch
 Wellington Street
PERTH WA 6000

Telephone : (09) 2221111

Western Australian Police Union
 Cooperative Credit union Society
 246 Adelaide Terrace
PERTH WA 6000
 GPO Box K880
PERTH WA 6001

Telephone : (09) 3254400

Retired Police Officers' Association
 c/- Police Union
 GPO Box K880
PERTH WA 6001

Telephone : (09) 3255633

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

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Coop Building
90 King William Street
ADELAIDE SA 5000

Telephone : (08) 2121644
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Commissioner's Office
Tara Hall
202 Greenhill Road
EASTWOOD SA 5063
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Telegraph : SPHYNX, ADELAIDE
Telex : AA 82124 SLSAP

Secretary
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27 Carrington Street
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Bureau of Criminal Intelligence
Central Police Headquarters
1 Angas Street
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GPO Box 1539
ADELAIDE SA 5001

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Police Credit Union
17 Carrington Street
ADELAIDE SA 5000

Telephone : (08) 2124007
Telex : AA 89356 PACUSA

Drug Squad
Central Police Headquarters
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GPO Box 1539
ADELAIDE SA 5001

Telephone : (08) 2181690

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

Complaints Investigation Section
Second Floor
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ADELAIDE SA 5000
GPO Box 1539
ADELAIDE SA 5001

Telephone : (08) 2236179

Police Club
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ADELAIDE SA 5000

Telephone : (08) 2123055
(08) 2126886

Officer in Charge
Community Affairs and Information Service
2nd Floor
Wright Street
ADELAIDE SA 5000

Telephone : (08) 2181212

Librarian
Police Headquarters
1 Angas Street
ADELAIDE SA

Telephone : (08) 2181212

Crime Prevention Squad
Central Police Headquarters
1 Angas Street
ADELAIDE SA 5000
GPO Box 1539
ADELAIDE SA 5001

Telephone : (08) 2181404

Police Academy
Strathfield Terrace
LARGS BAY SA 5016

Telephone : (08) 2481111

South Australian Police Historical Society
Hindmarsh Police Station
187 Port Road
BROMPTON SA 5007

Telephone : (08) 464402

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

Retired Police Officers' Association Inc Telephone : (08) 2123055
 C/- Police Association
 27 Carrington Street
ADELAIDE SA 5000

Organisational Services Telephone : (08) 2748543
 Police Headquarters
 Tara Hall
 202 Greenhill Road
EASTWOOD SA 5063

Rape Enquiry Unit Telephone : (08) 2181615
 Central Police Headquarters
 1 Angas Street
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 GPO Box 1539
ADELAIDE SA 5001

Major Crime Squad Telephone : (08) 2181326
 Central Police Headquarters
 1 Angas Street
ADELAIDE SA 5000
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ADELAIDE SA 5001

STAR Force Telephone : (08) 2181429
 Police Barracks
 Port and Gaol Roads
THEBARTON SA 5031
 GPO Box 1539
ADELAIDE SA 5001

TASMANIA

Minister of Police	Telephone : (002) 389201
1 Collins Street	Telex : AA 58155 TASMA
<u>HOBART</u> T 7000	

Commissioner	Telephone : (002) 381101
Commissioner's Office	Telegraph : TASPOL, HOBART
80 Elizabeth Street	Telex : AA 58021
<u>HOBART</u> T 7000	
GPO Box 308C	
<u>HOBART</u> T 7001	

General Secretary	Telephone : (002) 343733
Police Association	
31 Warwick Street	
<u>NORTH HOBART</u> T 7002	
GPO Box 1299N	
<u>HOBART</u> T 7001	

Superintendent	Telephone : (002) 477100
Police Academy	
South Arm Road	
<u>ROKEBY</u> T 7019	

Librarian	Telephone : (002) 477100
Police Academy	
South Arm Road	
<u>ROKEBY</u> T 7019	

Public Relations Bureau	Telephone : (002) 381101
80 Elizabeth Street	
<u>HOBART</u> T 7000	

Tasmanian Police Association Credit	Telephone : (002) 343817
Union Cooperative Society Ltd	
168 Collins Street	
<u>HOBART</u> T 7001	

NORTHERN TERRITORY

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DARWIN NT 5790

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Commissioner
 Commissioner's Office
 Berrimah Police Complex
WINELLIE NT 5789
 PO Box 39764
WINELLIE NT 5789

Telephone : (089) 223344
 Telegraph : POLENT, DARWIN
 Telex : AA 81290

Secretary
 Police Association
 18 Smith Street
DARWIN NT 5790
 GPO Box 2350
DARWIN NT 5794

Telephone : (089) 818840

Police Training Centre and Barracks
 Cavenagh Street
DARWIN NT 5790

Telephone : (089) 811688

Police-Citizen's Youth Club
 Smith Street
DARWIN NT 5790

Telephone : (089) 811179

Police Station
 Parsons Street
ALICE SPRINGS NT 5750

Telephone : (089) 501211

Chief Inspector
 Community Policing Unit
 Berrimah Police Complex
WINELLIE NT 5789

Telephone : (089) 223573

AUSTRALIAN CAPITAL TERRITORY

Minister
Department of Special Minister of State
West Block
CANBERRA ACT 2600
Telephone : (062) 726751
Telex : AA 61705

Assistant Commissioner
GPO Box 401
CANBERRA CITY ACT 2601 (subordinate to AFP direction)
Telephone : (062) 497444

Secretary (ACT)
Australian Federal Police Association
217 Northbourne Avenue
TURNER ACT 2601
Telephone : (062) 474125

PA Credit Union Cooperative Ltd
Bunda Street
CANBERRA CITY ACT 2601
Telephone : (062) 473522

Police Training College
WESTON ACT 2611
Telephone : (062) 870211

NEW ZEALAND

Minister of Police
Office of the Minister of Police
Executive Chambers
Parliament Buildings
WELLINGTON

Telephone : 749107
Telex : NZ 3441

Commissioner
Commissioner's Office
180 Molesworth Street
WELLINGTON
Police National Headquarters
Private Bag
WELLINGTON

Telephone : 749499
Telex : NZ 3550
Cable : MOMEN,
WELLINGTON

National Secretary
New Zealand Police Association
1st Floor, Princess Towers
180 Molesworth Street
WELLINGTON
PO Box 12344
WELLINGTON

Telephone : 720198

Coordinator, Media Relations
Media Liaison Office
Police National Headquarters
Private Bag
WELLINGTON

Telephone : 749556

Curator
New Zealand Police Centennial Museum
New Zealand Police College
Private Bag
PORIRUA

Telephone : 370139

Librarian
New Zealand Police College
Private Bag
PORIRUA

Telephone : 370139
ext 822

NEW ZEALAND

Manager
Police and Families Credit Union
1st Floor, Princess Towers
180 Molesworth Street
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WELLINGTON

Telephone : 720198

Commandant
New Zealand Police College
Private Bag
PORIRUA

Telephone : 370139

Secretary/Director
New Zealand Police Staff Benevolent
and Welfare Fund
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180 Molesworth Street
WELLINGTON
PO Box 12344
WELLINGTON

Telephone : 720198

Secretary
NZ Police officers' Guild
PO Box 693
WELLINGTON

Telephone : 723000

Secretary
International Police Association
PO Box 30840
LOWER HUTT

Telephone : 663319

Secretary/Organiser
Police Council of Sport, Inc
New Zealand Police College
Private Bag
PORIRUA

Telephone : 370139

MISCELLANEOUS

Provost Marshal - Air Force
 Department of Defence (Air Force Office)
 Russell Offices E-4-27
CANBERRA ACT 2600

Telephone : (062) 654233

Director of Military Police/
 Provost Marshal Army
 Campbell Park Offices CP4-6-09
CAMPBELL ACT 2601

Telephone : (062) 663883

Secretary
 Association of Australasian and
 Pacific Area Police Medical Officers
 Police Surgeon's Office
 376 Russell Street
MELBOURNE V 3000

Telephone : (03) 6620911
 (03) 6671586

Management Committee of Commissioners
 Australian Bureau of Criminal
 Investigation
 GPO Box 1396
CANBERRA ACT 2601

Telephone : (062) 475777
 Telegraph : ABCRIM,
 CANBERRA
 Telex : AA 61509

Executive Director
 Australian Crime Prevention Council
 PO Box 147
BROADBEACH Q 4217

Telephone : (075) 355327

Commissioner
 Australian Federal Police
 GPO Box 401
CANBERRA ACT 2601

Telephone : (062) 451211
 Telegram : CHIEFPOLICE,
 CANBERRA
 Telex : AA 62004

Australian Police College
 Collins Beach Road
 North Head
MANLY NSW 2095
 PO Box 168
MANLY NSW 2095

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MISCELLANEOUS

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MELBOURNE V 3001

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ext 5289

AFP Liaison Advisory Committee
For The ACT
GPO Box 401
CANBERRA ACT 2601

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Australian Police Ministers Council
c/- Department Of The Special Minister
Of State
West Block
CANBERRA ACT 2600
Locked Bag 2
Queen Victoria Terrace ACT 2600

Telephone : (062) 702211
(062) 702761
Telex : AA 62183

Superintendent
Christmas Island Police
Central Police Station
CHRISTMAS ISLAND
Indian Ocean

Director Of Public Prosecutions
PO Box E370
Queen Victoria Terrace ACT 2600

Telephone: (062) 705666

International Criminal Police
Organisation
National Central Bureau of Australia
GPO Box 806
CANBERRA ACT 2601

Telephone : (062) 716490
Telex : AA 62640

MISCELLANEOUS

President
 Australian Section
 International Police Association
 174 Scarborough Beach Road
SCARBOROUGH WA 6019

Chairman
 National Crime Authority
 9th Floor
 Westfield Towers
 100 William Street
SYDNEY NSW 2001
 GPO Box 2528
SYDNEY NSW 2001

Telephone: (02) 3582488
 Vocabex : (02) 3583948

Director
 Police National Research Unit
 33-37 Franklin Street
ADELAIDE SA 5000
 GPO Box 2047
ADELAIDE SA 5001

Telephone : (08) 2125311
 Telex : AA 87342

Director of Naval Police
 Department of Defence (Navy Office)
 Russell Offices D-14-13
CANBERRA ACT 2600

Telephone : (062) 653597
 Telex : AA 87342

Secretary
 Police Federation Of Australia and
 New Zealand
 43 McKenzie Street
MELBOURNE V 3001

Telephone : (03) 5804258

CHAPTER 22

POLICE OFFICERS MURDERED OR WOUNDED BY GUNSHOT OR BOMB BLAST IN THE COURSE OF DUTY

Police officers are occasionally assaulted in the course of their duty. Unfortunately, detailed data in respect of minor assaults are not available across all jurisdictions. There is, however, a general impression at large among operational police officers that levels of violence against them are increasing. To give some idea of the frequency of minor assaults on police officers, in South Australia in 1970 there were 176 recorded assaults on police. In 1980, the figure had risen to 628. In Tasmania in 1974, there were 87 recorded assaults on police and in 1980, 161.

In those areas in which drunkenness has been decriminalised or a de facto policy of not arresting drunks is followed, there is some hope that the level of "minor" assaults on police officers will reduce, as alcohol is frequently associated with such violence.

The numbers of police officers wounded by gunshot or bomb blast in Australia between 1964 and 1983 are shown at Table 22.1. There are indications of increased frequency of such events in New South Wales, Victoria and, to a lesser extent, in Western and South Australia. On the other hand, such attacks are increasing at a lesser rate than increase in agency size. However, an important qualification needs to be borne in mind. These data give no indication of the number of shots actually fired at police officers but which missed their target. There is a body of opinion in the eastern states, especially in Queensland, which holds that shooting at police officers is on the increase.

Rates of police woundings over the 20 year period per 100,000 of agency as well as annually are shown below at Table 22.2.

TABLE 22.2

POLICE OFFICERS MALICIOUSLY WOUNDED BY GUNSHOT OR BOMB
BLAST IN THE COURSE OF DUTY: AGENCY BY ANNUAL RATE BY
RATE PER 100,000 OF AGENCY SWORN STRENGTH, 1964-1983

rate	NSW	V	Q	WA	SA	NT
annual	1.20	1.40	0.15	0.40	0.30	0.25
agency	15.73	23.21	4.37	20.27	13.71	71.59

Source: Australian Institute Of Criminology

TABLE 22.1

POLICE OFFICERS MALICIOUSLY WOUNDED BY GUNSHOT OR BOMB BLAST IN THE COURSE OF DUTY, 1964 - 1983

agency	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	total
NSW	1	0	2	2	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	5	1	4	0	2	1	24
V	0	4	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	2	3	1	2	1	2	2	0	4	2	28
Q	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
WA	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	1	1	8
SA	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	1	0	0	0	1	6
T	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NT	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	5

TABLE 22.3

POLICE OFFICERS MURDERED IN THE COURSE OF DUTY, 1964 - 1983

agency	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	total
NSW	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	3	1	0	1*	0	0	1	1*	0	1	0	0	0	10
V	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	4
Q	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1#	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
WA	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	3
SA	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
T	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NT	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NZ	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3

run down by motor vehicle

+ stabbed

* bomb blast/mine

The numbers of police officers deliberately killed by whatever means in the course of their duty in New Zealand and Australia over the period 1964 to 1983 are shown at Table 22.3. Fortunately, frequencies show no signs of significant increase in any jurisdiction. But, again the table does not reveal the near misses. New Zealand Police consider the formation of armed offender squads to be an important factor in the low police murder rate in that country over the last two decades. Rates of police murders over the 20 year period per 100,000 of agency sworn strength as well as annually are shown below at Table 22.4.

TABLE 22.4

POLICE OFFICERS MURDERED BY ANY MEANS IN THE COURSE OF
DUTY: AGENCY BY ANNUAL RATE BY RATE PER 100,000 OF AGENCY
SWORN STRENGTH, 1964-1983

rate	NSW	V	Q	WA	NZ
annual	0.50	0.20	0.20	0.15	0.15
agency	6.29	3.32	5.83	7.60	3.95

Source: Australian Institute Of Criminology

These areas of police occupational health and safety require close monitoring and analysis. In particular, there is a great need for officer survival specialists to analyse police operational homicides and serious woundings with a view to amending recruit instruction and procedural guidelines where necessary. Most police agencies have improved their injury reporting systems in recent years.

The woundings referred to in this chapter outnumber murders by roughly three and one half to one. In both cases a loose association is evident between number of events and size of agency. The rate of murders has decreased although frequencies remain fairly consistent. The growing number of woundings of police officers combined with the possibility of increasing armed attacks upon them is reflected in the creation of specialised police paramilitary and armed offender units.

When police officer shootings and bombings only are ordered by jurisdiction, the result is as shown at Table 22.5 below.

TABLE 22.5

POLICE OFFICERS MURDERED OR INJURED BY GUNSHOT OR BOMB BLAST:
YEAR BY JURISDICTION BY ANNUAL AVERAGE BY RATE PER 100,000
OF POLICE POPULATION, 1964-1983

Year	NSW		V		Q		WA		SA		NT	
	K	I	K	I	K	I	K	I	K	I	K	I
1964	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1965	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1966	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1967	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
1968	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
1969	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1970	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
1971	3	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1972	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
1973	0	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1974	1	0	0	2	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	0
1975	0	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1976	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
1977	1	1	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	2	0	2
1978	1	5	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1979	0	1	1	2	0	0	2	3	0	1	0	0
1980	1	4	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1981	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1982	0	2	1	4	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
1983	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0
total	10	24	3	28	3	3	3	8	0	6	0	5
	34		31		6		11		6		5	
annual average	1.70		1.55		0.30		0.55		0.30		0.25	
rate per 100,000	21.4		25.7		8.7		27.9		12.7		71.6	

CHAPTER 23

CRIMINAL IDENTIFICATION

Garry Hannigan
Senior Constable
Queensland Police

Scientific detection

Police scientific personnel in the various states and the Northern Territory have a responsibility for collecting exhibits from scenes of crime or serious accident, recording scenes by photography and associated activities. Exhibits collected are taken to appropriate laboratories. Certain work such as handwriting, document examination and ballistics are mostly handled by police technicians but exhibits requiring professional examination are generally handled by pathologists or forensic scientists of one sort or another, according to their field of expertise. Each police force has access to forensic science laboratories. The Victoria police department is the only one to possess its own comprehensive laboratory, although the status of the FSL was subject to review at the time of going to press. Laboratories are mostly attached to government departments such as the Health Department or to universities. Thought is also being given to the establishment of forensic sciences institute to act as a central resource for police and other agencies. There seems little merit to such a concept as the pressing need is to upgrade resources acting in direct support to police within States.

State forensic chemistry and physical sciences personnel conduct scientific investigative work on behalf of police. The sorts of materials commonly subjected to scientific examination are numerous, including: (1) alcohol in tissue fluids, (2) flammable materials and accelerants, (3) trace elements, (4) glass, paint and miscellaneous materials, (5) human and animal hairs, (6) natural and synthetic fibres, (7) explosive residues, and (8) documents, paper, ink and printing.

Forensic medicine sections of the various state government departments carry out research in the following disciplines in support of police investigations:

- * forensic pathology
- * anatomical pathology, ie, autopsy service
- * histopathology
- * toxicology
- * haematology
- * serology and immunology
- * microbiology including virology

- * parasitology and protozoology
- * human and animal hairs
- * anatomy including histology
- * radiology
- * odontology
- * psychiatry.

The various police agencies mostly seek outside assistance from other bodies in respect of:

- * botanical specimens, including wood
- * geological, including mineralogy and soil
- * precious stones and jewellery
- * art objects and paintings
- * entomology
- * accident dynamics
- * materials failure.

The wide range of forensic science resources utilised by police outside their own structures should not be taken to indicate that little scientific work is undertaken by police officers. In addition to the scientific duties already listed, police officer technicians in most forces undertake duties in respect of the following:

- * scene of crime examination
- * mapping and illustration
- * terrestrial photogrammetry
- * fingerprint examination and classification
- * physical matching and comparison
- * toolmarks, footprints and other impressions
- * firearms and ballistics
- * bombs and explosive devices
- * document examination
- * handwriting examination

- * typewriting, painting and cheque writing
- * counterfeit and forgeries
- * paper examination
- * laundry and dry cleaning marks
- * breath analysis.

There are more than 45 laboratories used by police throughout the country in the different fields of science. Some of these sections are regularly consulted by police, while others, such as certain university departments and organisation in private industry, are called upon but rarely.

New South Wales

In New South Wales, the Scientific Investigation Section of the Technical Support Branch (which also includes communications) comprises crime scene units, ballistics unit, document examination unit, a photographic unit and a mapping and photogrammetry unit. There are five suburban scientific investigation groups in Sydney, which together with the Sydney section cover the entire metropolitan area. Scientific investigation staff are also posted to 15 country centres throughout the state. Productivity data of the Sydney crime scene unit for the calendar year 1981 give an idea of the volume of work involved:

* scenes of crime and serious occurrence attended	1,340
* restorations of identification symbols	140
* photographic exposures	18,948
* terrestrial photogrammetry scale plans	331
* conventional scale plans	63
* court cases attended by unit staff	137

Victoria

Victoria Police rely on the Forensic Science Laboratory for scientific support. Some 52 police officers and 58 public service officers staff the Laboratory. Laboratory personnel have encountered a growing demand for drug analysis as persons experiment with an increasingly wide range of plant growth containing small amounts of drugs. The need to determine the drug content (including alcohol) in a growing number of sexual assaults and from car drivers has increased an already heavy case load considerably. The laboratory's case load record for calendar 1982 provides some indication of the volume of work involved:

* Exhibits received :

. biology section	4,727
. applied science unit	1,242
. drugs unit	7,565
. alcohol unit:	
- screening samples	19,416
- drivers' samples	3,917
. document examination	7,212
. firearms section	1,936

* Assignments :

. field investigations	972
. photographic section	7,768
- negatives	126,471
- prints	319,335

* Drug analysis:

. cannabis quantitations	197
. cases completed	1,307
. items analysed	7,565

Queensland

In Queensland, major police technical support units are placed in the department's Technical Services Section. Units include document examination section, fingerprint bureau, firearms section, photographic section and the scientific-ballistic section.

During the 1982-1983 financial year, technical personnel undertook the following workload:

* documents examined	23,000
* photographs taken	18,832
. prints made	148,344
* ballistics examinations	207
* scientific examinations	1,043
* fingerprints received	30,136
* fingerprint identifications	14,136

Western Australia

The Western Australian police scientific branch contains sections devoted to : (1) fingerprints, (2) criminal records, (3) video, (4) documents, (5) photography, (6) warrants, (7) hazardous devices, and (8) ballistics. Workload statistics for 1981-1982 included:

* fingerprint examinations	12,087
* documents examined	307
* photographic field assignments	3,958
* hazardous (bomb) incidents attended	26
* firearms examinations	2,390

South Australia

The Technical Services Division of South Australia Police covers the fields of (1) fingerprints, (2) laboratory, (3) photography, (4) ballistics, (5) crime scene examination, (6) questioned documents and (7) breath analysis. Selected workload statistics for the Division for the year 1982-1983 were as follows:

* fingerprints received (sets)	14,857
* laboratory, exhibits received	2,537
* black and white photographs printed	153,833
* firearms investigations	79
* bomb disposal calls	31
* crime scenes examined	17,322
* documents examined	3,436
* breathalyser tests	5,330

Tasmania

Tasmania Police operates a Scientific Bureau, comprising (1) photographic, (2) fingerprint, (3) photogrammetry, (4) questioned document, and (5) ballistics sections. Bureau workloads during the 1982-1983 reporting year included:

* photographic field assignments	2,950
. prints processed	163,000
* plans prepared	76
* documents examined	3,136
* photokits	20
* firearm examinations	42
* fingerprints received	3,495
* fingerprint identifications	1,996

Northern Territory

The Northern Territory forensic science section includes: (1) a laboratory, (2) ballistics section, and (3) photographic studio. Fingerprints are the responsibility of the Information Bureau. Forensic workload during the 1982-1983 reporting year included:

* crime scenes attended	255
* photography jobs	2,000
* fingerprints received	7,981
* fingerprints identified	5,113
* blood samples tested	276
* visits to scenes of crime	863

Australian Capital Territory

The ACT Scientific Investigation Branch's workload for the 1983-1984 reporting year included:

* scenes attended	2,454
* photographs produced	65,938
* ballistics examinations	91

Police dogs and kennels

Several police forces employ dogs in their efforts to identify offenders (see Table 24.1). Dogs, mostly donated, are owned by the various agencies and handlers are sworn police officers. The growing illegal use of explosives and massive upsurge in illegal drug dealing has led to the training of selected police (and other agencies, eg, Customs) dogs to detect

explosives or drugs. Other duties involving dogs include tracking offenders, searches for wanted and missing persons, suppression of violence and security of premises. In calendar 1981, for example, police dogs in Victoria were responsible for performing:

* scenes searches	584
* raids, <u>etc</u>	58
* disorders	12
* narcotics searches	210
* explosives searches	88
* tracking runs	675

Dog teams were involved in the arrest of 225 offenders, 59 being in relation to narcotics.

In Queensland, the Dog Squad has grown substantially in recent years. During the 1982-1983 reporting year selected workload figures showed:

* school patrols	13,723
* suspects located	665
* drug raids	486
* tracking runs	834
* arrests	74

TABLE 23.1

POLICE DOGS: BY AGENCY

agency	dogs
NSW	9
V	15
Q	21
SA	12

Source: Police department annual reports

CHAPTER 24

AUSTRALIAN FEDERAL POLICE *

The Australian Federal Police (AFP) which incorporates members of the former ACT Police Force and Commonwealth Police Force formally began operations on 19 October 1979. On that date the Australian Federal Police Act 1979 was proclaimed.

Events leading to AFP formation

On 1 March 1978 the federal government commissioned former London Metropolitan Police Commissioner Sir Robert MARK to report to the Minister for Administrative Services on the organisation of police resources in the federal area. In his report Sir Robert declared there was 'no choice but to create a new force that incorporated the ACT and Commonwealth Police Forces as soon as reasonably possible...'. This recommendation was accepted by the government in July 1978.

Incorporation of former Narcotics Bureau

On 6 November 1979 following the major recommendation of the interim report of the Australian Royal Commission of Inquiry into Drugs (conducted by Justice WILLIAMS) the government announced that the Narcotics Bureau would be disbanded; staff were transferred to the Office of the Australian Federal Police from the Department of Business and Consumer Affairs on 7 November 1979. Following an amendment to the Australian Federal Police Act 80 former Narcotic Bureau members were laterally transferred to ranks within the AFP on 24 June 1980. Former Bureau staff not appointed to police ranks continued to perform intelligence, policy and administrative support tasks in the office of the Australian Federal Police.

Functions

The statutory functions of the AFP are prescribed at s.8 Australian Federal Police Act 1979:

- (a) the provision of police services in relation to the Australian Capital Territory;
- (b) the provision of police services in relation to:
 - (i) laws of the Commonwealth.
 - (ii) property of the Commonwealth (including Commonwealth places) and property of authorities of the Commonwealth; and
 - (iii) the safeguarding of Commonwealth interests; and
- (c) to do anything incidental or conducive to the performance of the foregoing functions.

Further to these statutory functions, in July 1980 the then

Minister for Administrative Services, who at that time was the Minister responsible for the AFP, conveyed to the Commissioner a charter detailing the objectives, priorities and capabilities seen by the Government as needing to be pursued by the AFP.

Agency objectives were prescribed as follows:

* Policing in the Australian Capital Territory

This includes the investigation of crimes and police offences, including drugs (whether imported or not) under the ACT criminal law; counter terrorist operational police action in the ACT; crime intelligence in support of investigation of ACT crimes and of Special Branch and counter terrorist action; maintenance of public order and keeping the peace - demonstrations, processions, etc; traffic laws and public order on the roads

* Investigation of crimes under Commonwealth criminal law and, in conjunction with State Police and Customs, investigation into organised crime (under both State and Commonwealth laws insofar as this activity is incidental to or conducive to the performance of the statutory functions of the AFP)

This includes the investigation of crimes under Commonwealth law, including in respect of imported drugs; crime intelligence and imported drug intelligence in respect of crimes under Commonwealth criminal law. Investigation by the AFP as an individual force where Commonwealth criminal law alone is involved; in conjunction with Customs, Tax, Foreign Exchange and Immigration Officers and, in conjunction with State and overseas police, where law in addition to Commonwealth law is involved - particularly for stamping out criminal conspiracies in the area of organised crime, and especially in trafficking in narcotics - including participation in Australian Bureau of Criminal Intelligence and joint task forces. This is a peculiarly federal type of investigation role, and one where the AFP is the Australian police force particularly well placed to give a lead

* General policing duties in relation to VIPs

This includes protection of the Governor-General, the Prime Minister, Ministers, MPs, Diplomats, air staff and public at international and major airports; sole counter terrorist operational police action in the ACT and supportive counter terrorist role to State police in the States

- * Provision of police officers by secondment to Island Territory Police, eg, Norfolk Island and Christmas Island.

- * Leadership in supporting or coordinating services for the states

Training for higher officers through the Australian Police College; forensic science research program; international liaison through Interpol Bureau for Australia and overseas liaison officers

- * Coastal surveillance

Agency priorities were prescribed as follows:

- * Investigation of crime under Commonwealth criminal law and in conjunction with State Police and Customs investigation into Organised Crime (under both State and Commonwealth laws) and policing of the ACT
 - This includes action against organised crime, including drug trafficking, in conjunction with other Commonwealth agencies and where appropriate with State police. Emphasis is to be placed on the development of crime intelligence to enable law enforcement action to follow and on active participation in the Australian Bureau of Criminal Intelligence and joint task forces
 - Investigation of crimes, police and traffic offences, and other Territorial criminal law in the ACT and crimes under Commonwealth criminal law
- * Upgrading the effort against illegally imported narcotics to combat the increased illegal drug threat, in conjunction with Customs and State police
- * Counter terrorist operational capability and alertness in the ACT and for containment in support of State police for major airports, consulates, VIP's (federal and international)
- * Maintenance of public order and keeping the peace in the ACT including for VIPs in the ACT and provision of police officers for Norfolk and Christmas Islands.
- * Leadership in supporting or coordinating services for the States in relation to Interpol, and other overseas liaison, Australian Police College, and Forensic Science research.
- * Guarding of security risk Commonwealth property.

In meeting these priorities the Government would see the AFP giving less emphasis to some of the traditional policing efforts of the former police organisations which it replaced. For example, guarding of low priority Commonwealth property and investigations into minor social security and health offences, as distinct from major frauds and conspiracies. The question of protective security of Commonwealth property is already under interdepartmental study and correspondence has been sent to the AFP dealing with Social Security, Health Insurance and National Health legislation matters. Also, as an overriding priority, is the need for high level attention to high standards of recruiting, training, placement, supervision and development of excellence in all the police tasks and objectives of the AFP.

Structure

Upon the proclamation of the Australian Federal Police Act members of the former ACT and Commonwealth Police Forces were appointed to the two components which constitute the AFP - 1,134 to the General Police Component and 1,443 to the Protective Service Component. As their nomenclature would suggest the General Police Component are vested with the full police powers by virtue of the AFP Act whilst the Protective Service Component has limited police powers especially within the ACT. The Protective Service Component provides security at high risk Government establishment. A review has been conducted on the requirement of the AFP to continue this service. For functional reasons Australia is divided into eight geographic regions which closely follow State boundaries the regions and respective States/Territories being:

- | | |
|-----------------------------|--------------------------------|
| * ACT Region | - Australian Capital Territory |
| * Southern Region | - Victoria |
| * Central Region | - South Australia |
| * Western Region | - Western Australia |
| * Tasmania Region | - Tasmania |
| * Eastern Region | - New South Wales |
| * Northern Region | - Queensland |
| * Northern Territory Region | - Northern Territory |

Approved strengths of the various regions are shown at Table 24.1.

The Commissioner of Police is responsible for the general administration and control of the operation of the Australian Federal Police. He is assisted by two Deputy Commissioners and four Assistant Commissioners. One Deputy Commissioner is in command of the Investigations Department and the other the Command Executive. The four Assistant Commissioners have responsibility for:

TABLE 24.1

AFP APPROVED STRENGTHS, BY REGION, 1984

region	general duties	protective services	total
Central	88	110	198
Northern Territory	48	13	61
Northern	147		147
Western	90	14	104
Eastern	370	133	503
Southern	311	174	485
Tasmania	21		21
ACT	1,243	162	1,405
Cyprus	21		21
Overseas	14	30	44
total	2,353	636	2,989

Source: AFP

* Training Department

* Personnel and Services Department

* ACT Region with additional Region responsibility for uniform policing in Southern, Central, Western and Tasmania Regions

* Eastern Region with additional responsibility for uniform policing in Northern and Northern Territory Regions.

Investigations Department

Due to the complexity of, and an increase in, crimes coming within the national sphere this department is under the command of a Deputy Commissioner. The department is responsible for the collection of intelligence relating to, and investigation of crimes against laws of the Commonwealth and the Australian Capital Territory. Table 24.2 depicts crime statistics (excluding ACT) for 1982-83. Included in its charter is responsibility for planning, development, direction and coordination of criminal investigative police for the AFP.

Listed below are some of the areas within this Department with brief descriptions of their functions:

Drug Operation Branch - responsible for the development of policies, administrative procedures, controls for the enforcement of laws against the illicit drug trade, involving drug importation and trafficking and the distribution of operational intelligence. To achieve this purpose the branch, in conjunction with regional drug units, work in close cooperation with the Australian Customs Service.

National Criminal Investigation Branch - this is a new body which when fully established will monitor and coordinate investigations into major crime thus allowing the investigational officers to devote themselves to a single task of investigation. Events have shown that breaches of the law relating to the Banking (Foreign Exchange) Regulations and Crimes Act 1914 especially in what is termed "laundering of money" have been committed by persons with access to vast resources, expert advice and within an entanglement of corporate structures thus requiring a high level of commitment from both staff and management.

Medifraud - in close consultation with officers of the Department of Health and Attorney-General the AFP has implemented new procedures into Medifraud and over servicing by members of the medical fraternity. Included in these procedures are specialist training of detectives for such investigations plus the creation of a national task force to assist Regions with some major investigations.

Special Prosecutor - the establishment of the Office of the Special Prosecutor has resulted in the deployment of AFP members to that office to assist in the investigation of tax evasion matters (bottom of the harbour schemes) arising from the Costigan Royal Commission. Special teams are established in Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane, Perth and Canberra and work in close liaison with officers of the Taxation and Attorney-General's Department.

Bureau of Criminal Intelligence (BCI) - responsible for gathering criminal intelligence information, the maintenance of database functions and requirements, coordination and evaluation of intelligence operations, cooperation with the Australian Bureau of Criminal Intelligence and analysis of strategic intelligence related to the Commonwealth's responsibilities in countering organised crime and drug trafficking throughout Australia and overseas. The section is focussing its attention and resources on organised crime in the national context. Drug trafficking and international movements of major crime figures are principal objectives and the widening of international law enforcement links and the appointment of AFP overseas liaison officers have further enhanced the BCI's intelligence gathering and operational capabilities.

Overseas Liaison Officers Coordination Unit - situated within the BCI this Unit, in conjunction with the Drug Operations Branch, has responsibility to:

- * maintain and coordinate Australian Federal Police international enforcement efforts against drug trafficking and organised crime

- * supervise AFP liaison officers at overseas posts.

Currently the AFP has liaison officers stationed at Bangkok, Kuala Lumpur, Djakarta, Los Angeles, London and New Zealand.

The Unit is also responsible for following up enquiries from AFP Regions and, when requested, Australian Bureau of Criminal Intelligence, combined AFP State/Territory Drug Units, Joint Task Forces and State Police Forces.

Special Investigations Branch - this Branch operates on the "target concept of investigation" and has the charter of gathering intelligence information on specific organisations or individuals suspected of being involved in organised crime in relation to Commonwealth laws. It employs both investigative and surveillance skills. The Branch is also required to liaise with overseas law enforcement agencies in relation to known criminals travelling to or from Australia.

Special Intelligence Branch - assumes responsibility for investigations and the collation of information regarding offences involving persons or property of members of Federal Parliament, foreign diplomatic missions, consular posts, Commonwealth and foreign VIPs and Commonwealth premises. It also provides support for general policing operations, particularly in the Australian Capital Territory.

Special Projects Branch - is directly responsible to the Deputy Commissioner (Investigations) for Australian Federal Police functions under the provisions of the Telecommunications (Interception) Act 1979.

All operations related to the import and export of narcotic goods are subject to the provisions of the Act and supervision by the Commissioner.

Training Department

The Training Department, commanded by an Assistant Commissioner, has responsibility for all training activities. It is responsible for identifying the most effective course design and management techniques available and, in collaboration with operational departments and, as directed by the Commissioner, conduct ongoing reviews to identify the training needs of the AFP.

The Department encompasses:

- * Recruit Training - responsible for all recruit training for Protective Services and General Policing components including retraining for transfer to General Policing duties. A recruit course consists of 20 weeks duration and is conducted at the AFP College, Weston, in the Australian Capital Territory

- * In-Service Training - responsible for developing and conducting all forms of specialised training within the AFP. As well as providing courses for detective training, accident investigation and crime scene examinations, the Branch has input into other areas of training, eg:
 - surveillance instruction
 - organised crime
 - lectures for the Operations Training Branch
 - intelligence analysis
- * Operations Training - specialised counter terrorist training and courses concerned with police operations, such as public order, disasters and emergencies
- * Command/Management Training - responsible for the education and development of sergeants and officers to higher command in changing sociological, technological and economic environment
- * International Police Training - conducted under the auspices of ADAB; this Branch conducts courses in all facets of policing and which are specifically designed for officers of the Royal Papua New Guinea Police Constabulary
- * Driver Training - conducts a variety of specialist driver training courses as well as intensive training for the operation of special purpose vehicles. The Unit provides a direct service to the public within the ACT by way of motor cycle riding courses and lectures on defensive driving and road safety
- * Promotion Examination Branch - administers the Promotion Qualifying Examinations and Senior Constables Proficiency Examinations in accordance with the requirements of the Examination Committee and Examination Board of the AFP. It is necessary for members desiring promotion to pass examinations for the ranks of Senior Constable, Sergeant, Station Sergeant and Commissioned Rank
- * Recruitment Branch - during the year 1982-83, 2267 applications were received by this Branch, of which 335 people were appointed to the AFP.

Apart from local procedure courses and some Protective Service Courses conducted with regions, all training is conducted within the Australian Capital Territory at either the Australian Federal Police Training Academy, Barton, or the Australian Federal Police Training College, Weston.

Personnel and Services Department

Within this Department, which is commanded by an Assistant Commissioner, are three Divisions namely Personnel, Technical and

Scientific Services and Logistic Services. The national welfare service is also administered by this Department.

Personnel Division - this Division is responsible for the development and deployment of police personnel. To achieve this it is divided into three functional branches namely:

- * Deployment Branch - responsible for the efficient and effective deployment of members. Functions within this responsibility include transfer, promotion selection, resignations and retirements
- * Development Branch - responsible for the Personnel Assessments Scheme, career path planning, career counselling, career development including the identification of members to undertake in-service or external training courses
- * Establishments Branch - responsible for processing submissions for variations to the establishment and for maintaining an efficient vacancy control system.

Technical and Scientific Services Division - this Division covers a variety of support services which are divided into Branches and Directorates:

- * Electronic Services Branch - staffed by police and public servants the Branch is directly responsible for the evaluation, purchase, installation, logistics and maintenance of AFP radio communication and general electronic equipment. It is continuing research into problems associated with voice security on communications networks. On behalf of the Interstate Police Communication Coordination Committee, the Branch is preparing a publication on common standards, which will ensure a high level of system and equipment compatibility between Federal and State Forces
- * ADP and Police Systems Branch - responsible for the development implementation of automatic data processing systems and maintenance of a computer complex. A review has been conducted of existing computer systems with the view of making them more efficient and productive and a revision of the AFP and ABCI versions of criminal intelligence. This will provide more effective use of the AFP and ABCI data bases concerning information on criminal behaviour
- * Scientific Research Directorate (SRD) - as the use of sophisticated technology is becoming more a part of modern policing the SRD is developing and providing a range of high level scientific techniques for forensic applications in support of police operations. Resulting from this research program the SRD's scientific minicomputer is now being fully applied to image enhancement techniques and to other areas such as storage, retrieval and transfer of fingerprint images

via the standard telephone network. Other areas of which regular operational use is now made are:

- remote sensing
- arson detection techniques
- forensic odontology.

The SRD is also administratively responsible for the Document Examination Bureau located in Sydney and the Neutron Activation Analysis Section located at Lucas Heights, South Sydney. By the unique method of analysing spectra this Section has been of considerable assistance to State Police Forces.

Logistic Services Division - this Division was created to provide logistic support services for AFP operations. It includes the National Transport Branch, Information Branch (Crime) Building and Property Branch, Uniform and Equipment Branch and the AFP Library.

Welfare Staff - the Welfare staff comprises:

- * Welfare Adviser - who is a Public Service appointee, responsible for the guidance and counselling of members, coordination of welfare policies, the dissemination of information on welfare matters and for providing training courses for Regional Welfare Officers and other police officers
- * Seven Regional Welfare Officers - who are AFP members and undertake welfare officer roles in addition to the normal police duties

ACT Region

This Department, under the control of an Assistant Commissioner, has responsibility for all police functions within the Australian Capital Territory including Jervis Bay. The Assistant Commissioner has the additional overall responsibility for uniform policing duties in Southern, Central, Western and Tasmania Regions. It is in essence a State Police type role and provides a full range of traditional type police services. Throughout the year 1982-83, 14,060 criminal offences involving \$7,224,194 were reported with the ACT. (Table 24.3 shows crime statistics for the Territory during 1982-83).

Administration Department

This Department has three main areas of responsibility - policy coordination, administrative support and media information and liaison. It is under the command of the Chief Executive Officer who is administratively responsible for Public Service support staff.

Command Executive

The position of Deputy Commissioner, Command Executive, was created in 1983 to provide balance and improved oversight and supervision of the following areas:

- * Internal Investigations Division - this Division is necessitated by the statutory requirements of the Complaints (Australian Federal Police) Act 1981. It is responsible for investigating complaints against police by members of the public and also similar matters reported internally. The Division is required to advise the Commonwealth Ombudsman of complaints by members of the public and for the adequacy of its investigations.
- * Special Policing Division - the charter for this Division involves less conventional and routine services, such as complex planning and preparation for special circumstances where high risk may be involved, eg, Commonwealth Games. It also provides a full time comprehensive watch on counter terrorist doctrines, the planning and conduct of witness protection operations, personal protection of the Governor-General, Prime Minister and other VIPs and the provision of search, rescue, diving and water police resources to the ACT.
- * Australian Bomb Data Centre - responsible for the collection, collation and dissemination of data gathered within Australia and overseas concerning explosives or incendiaries. On behalf of all Australian police forces the centre coordinated the attendance of police students at eight Improvised Explosive Devices courses conducted by the Department of Defence.

Cyprus Contingent - The AFP continues to maintain the Australian Government's commitment to the United Nations Peacekeeping Force in Cyprus. Currently there are 21 officers performing duty with UN.

A number of other areas fall within the responsibility of the Deputy Commissioner (Comex).

Discipline Unit - is responsible for the following functions:

- * institution of disciplinary proceedings in matters referred to it by IID
- * liaison with and instruction of the Deputy Crown Solicitor's Office when representing the Commissioner in discipline proceedings before the AFP Disciplinary Tribunal
- * adjudication of disciplinary briefs.

Planning and Research Bureau - is responsible for the following functions:

- * maintenance of statistics on reported crime
- * liaison with the Australian Law Reform Commission and research of proposed amendments to legislation or new legislation
- * socio-legal research.

Legal Drafting Unit - is responsible for the following functions:

- * research and development of policies arising from administrative law
- * preparation of general orders and instructions.

Freedom of Information Branch - is responsible for the following functions:

- * action on all requests made of the AFP under the Freedom Of Information Act 1982.

Australian Police College, Manly, NSW - is responsible for the following functions:

- * administration of the APC on behalf of the Board of Control.

Interpol Bureau - the AFP provides the Australian National Central Bureau of the International Criminal Police Organisation in Australia for all Australian Police Forces. The Bureau's activities include the collection of documentation and information relating to international law enforcement and the interchange of information with other national central bureaux.

Future role of AFP

Government initiatives have a significant bearing on the future role of the AFP. Removing of most of the guarding function (Protective Service component) in 1984 facilitated a shift in emphasis and attention to the community policing role in the ACT and national and international roles in federal crime prevention and detection.

Another area of Government activity relevant to the future role of the AFP, is the question of self government in the ACT. Current arguments indicate a range of options for future policing of the Territory. Such options include the continuation of the existing system, a contractual based system similar to the Canadian model or return to an independent ACT police force.

TABLE 24.2
FEDERAL CRIME STATISTICS (EXCL ACT), 1982 - 1983

offense (a)	offenses reported or becoming known (b)	unfounded reports (c)	cleared- no further action (d)	cleared, arrest (e)	cleared, prosecution (f)	completed, not cleared (g)
Aircraft:						
- Flying	18		16	1	11	19
- Safety	17		3	6	5	10
- Hijack/Bomb Threat	7		1		1	4
- Other Offenses	17		5	5	6	4
Australian National Railways:						
- Safety	49				2	15
- Traffic	25					14
- Ticket	1			1		
Assault:						
Commonwealth Officer	18		1	8		4
- Police	46		2	13	17	1
- Other	2				1	1
Bankruptcy:						
- Obtain Credit	128		10	26	49	32
- Carry on Business	108		2		102	3
- False Records/Accounts	36		4	3	19	5
- Fail to Comply with Direction	8		2		4	2
Behavior Offences	34		6	11	11	7
Bigamy	39	1	19	5	2	14
Branch Bond/Recognisance	21		4	12		3
Branch Copyright	444	1	21	54	461	6
Bribery	7				1	1
Commonwealth Officer:						
- Seek Bribe	2				2	
- Disclose Information	18		2		6	
- False Record/Alter Record	9		1		8	

(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	(f)	(g)
Migration	8			13	2	
Navigation	5			1	1	
Obscene Phone Call/Mail	23		6	5	1	17
Passports:						
- False	7		2	5	5	1
- Alter	1			1		
- Forge	8		2		2	2
Perjury	10		5	2	10	2
Impersonate:						
- Commonwealth Officer	12			2	6	
- Police	8		1			7
Prohibited Export		2		4	1	
Prohibited Import	77		24	43	1	3
Prohibited Immigrant	879		32	888	1	59
Property Damage:						
- Commonwealth	177		14	13	11	75
- Other	9			1	1	1
Quarantine Offences	4		2	2		
Receive Money						
Stealing:						
- Commonwealth Property	893		107	93	136	711
- Other Property	16		6	5	8	2
Tax Avoidance	2				2	
Trespass	93		8	21	15	23
Other Offences	42		16	13	13	9
total	24,950	75	4,121	8,165	4,056	10,280

Source: AFP

(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	(f)	(g)
Conciliation & Arbitration	14			27	1	
Conspiracy	36		11	16	3	4
Counterfeiting						
Currency:						
- Take Excess from Australia	15		5	2	3	65
- Export	23		3	10	6	3
Defence	2		1			1
Electoral:						
- Fail to Enrol/Vote		159				
- Dual Voting	3		1	1		1
- Neglect Official Duty	8		2	1		1
Escape Lawful Custody			1			
False Application	1				1	
False Claim for Money/Benefit	383	14	110	39	251	6
False Declaration	104		13	53	15	4
False Documents	41		25		7	14
False Representation	11					
False Statement	1,609	2	64	250	789	110
Family Law	3				1	1
Foreign Incursions	6			3		
Fraud:						
- Cheques	12,593	42	2,619	803	877	7,722
- Other	6,750	15	780	5,727	1,125	1,295
- Official Insignia	1			3		
Hinder/Mislead Officer	10		2	4	5	
Incite/Urge Commission of Offence	2			1	2	
Intercept Phone Message	7				8	

TABLE 24.3

ACT CRIME STATISTICS, 1982 - 1983

offense	offenses reported or becoming known	value of property involved	unfounded reports	offenses, cleared by charge	offenses, clear- otherwise
Murder	2			1	1
Manslaughter M/V	1			1	
Culp drive (death)	2			2	
Culp Drive OGBH	5			5	
Assault OGBH	4			3	
Assault OABH	98		1	59	5
Assault other	253			172	12
Robbery	56	32,674	1	20	
Extortion	1			1	
Rape	8			5	
Indec Assault "M"	10			8	
Indec Assault "F"	31			16	1
Indecent Exposure	118		1	11	1
Carnal Knowledge	5			5	
Buggery	2			1	
B & E Dwelling	1,212	591,971	11	186	5
Larceny Dwelling	260	139,505	5	53	4
B & E Shops	637	304,302		80	7
B & E Others	1,441	452,431	2	142	7
Larceny M/V	691	1,438,353	32	109	3
Larceny Bicycle	1,011	166,897	28	16	5
Larceny Bicyc. Parts	28	1,561	1		
Larceny from M/V	804	183,404	6	49	1
Larceny M/V Parts	670	58,512	2	33	
Trespass	123			38	1
Larceny general	2,192	558,061	31	154	8
Attempted Larceny	57			9	
Receiving	11			11	
Unlawful possession	31			31	
Shopstealing	759	52,553		549	126
Larceny Building Materials	104	75,292	6	2	1
Fraud, forge, false Pretences	822	191,608	1	406	18
Misappropriation	278	49,467	1	254	6
Behav Indecent, etc	7			2	
Language Indecent, etc	3			2	
Drugs, use, possess	98			98	
Drugs, possess for supply	27			27	
Malicious damage	1,733		4	139	20
Arson	23			5	1
Gun Licence Ord	57			46	1
Miscellaneous Ord	163	2,244		85	2
Telecom & Postal Acts	190	589		3	4
Stock Theft	32	21,945	4	1	
total	14,060	7,224,194	137	2,477	240

Source: AFP

CHAPTER 25

ROYAL AUSTRALIAN CORPS OF MILITARY POLICE (RACMP)*

History and background

Australian Military Order 268, dated 13th June 1916, includes the order 'the Military Police of the Australian Imperial Forces (AIF) will hereafter form a Corps...'. Such was the founding of the Royal Australian Corps of Military Police (RACMP). The single most important reason for the Army having a police agency is to assist in the maintenance of discipline.

The RACMP presence is determined by the spread of the Army throughout the states and territories. To simplify administration of its units the Army has divided Australia into Military Districts, which equate generally to state boundaries. In each state capital city (including Darwin) there is a Military District Headquarters. The task of Military Districts is to administer and/or support Army units in transit or located in their area of responsibility.

Except for the 1st Military Police Company and the Army Special Investigation Branch (SIB) Unit (both of which are mentioned later) military police units belong to and are directed by a Military District Headquarters.

Superimposed on this administrative system are three functional commands:

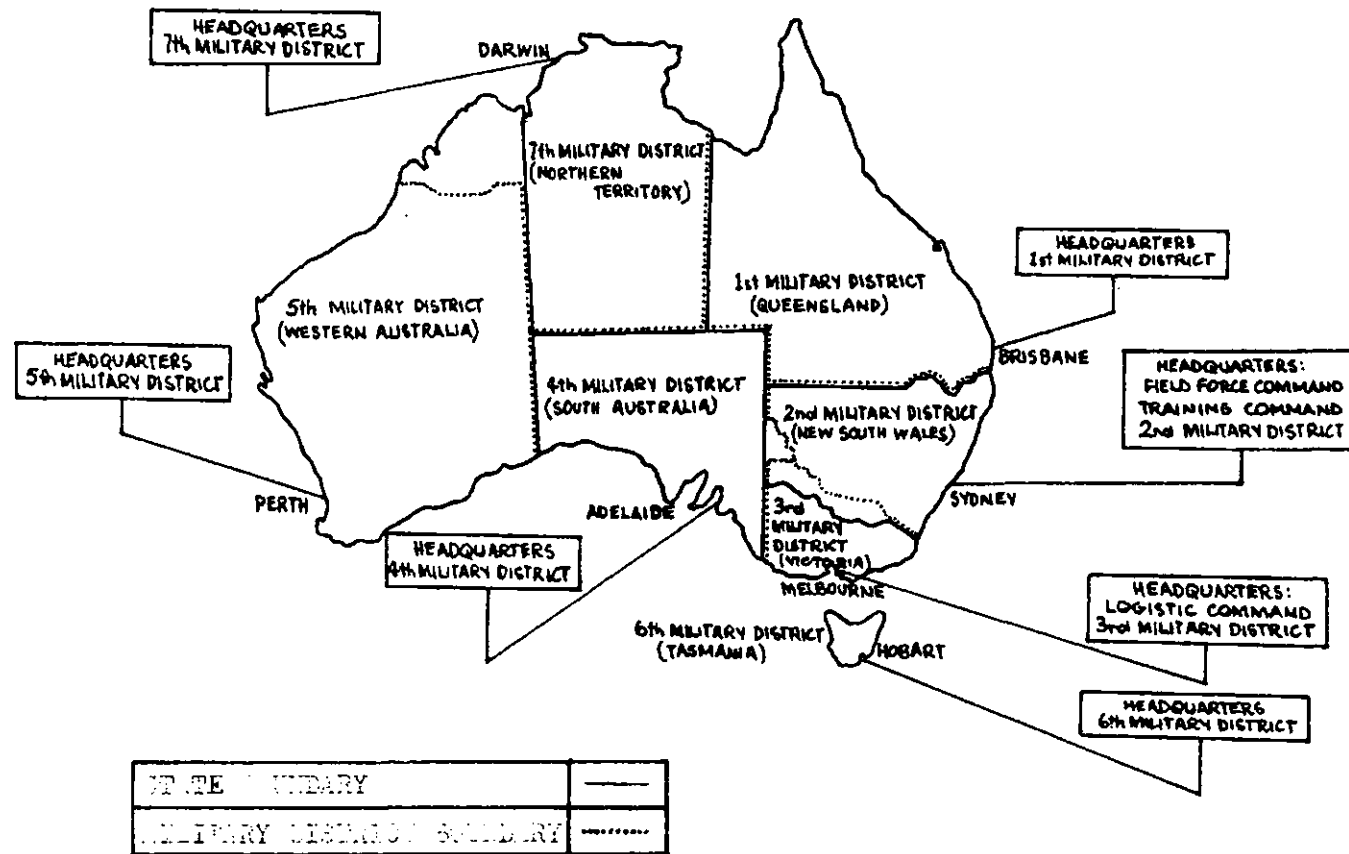
- * Field Force Command. Headquarters Field Force Command is located in Sydney and controls the "teeth" or the fighting elements of the Army. They include armoured, artillery and infantry units.
- * Logistic Command. Headquarters Logistic Command is located in Melbourne and controls the supply and transport units necessary to support the fighting elements of Field Force Command.
- * Training Command. Headquarters Training Command is located in Sydney and controls all of the Army's training establishments and schools (except for the Royal Military College, Duntroon).

A map showing the Military Districts and the headquarters of the three functional commands is at Figure 25.1.

The Army as a whole essentially consists of two elements:

- * Chapter contributed by Military Police.

FIGURE 25.1
MILITARY DISTRICTS & FUNCTIONAL COMMAND HEADQUARTERS



- * the Regular Army - made up of full time soldiers which provides an operational force and a base for expansion in time of war
- * the Army Reserve - made up of civilians who devote a significant amount of their time outside of their normal working hours to be trained as soldiers.

The RACMP is made up of both Regular Army and Army Reserve soldiers.

Organisation

The Director of Military Police/Provost Marshal - Army (DMP/PM-A) is head of the RACMP and is responsible to the Chief of Army Personnel (Major General rank) for the technical control of the Corps. Provost Marshals on the staff of military district headquarters (except the 6th and 7th Military District) are responsible for providing professional and technical advice to their commander on the range and extent of tasks which military police units may be required to undertake.

There are military police units and elements of the Army SIB Unit located in each Military District except the 7th Military District. Troop concentrations in the 7th Military District are not significant enough to warrant a full time military police presence. Military police assistance is able to be provided on short notice (usually from the 1st Military District) if requested.

The Military Police School and the 1st Military Corrective Establishment (for servicemen held under arrest or under sentence) are both located at Ingleburn, NSW.

Military Police units conform to structuring common to the Army, viz, companies, platoons and sections. The principal components of a military police company are the headquarters and operations centre, an administrative platoon and operational military police platoons. All companies (except 1st Military Police Company) are decentralised to provide military police in areas of significant troop concentration.

The 1st Military Police Company is centralised in Brisbane, Queensland and commits manpower in support of the 1st Division or elements of the 1st Division as they train in different areas of Australia. The 1st Division is the largest operational fighting formation in the Australian Army and is a part of Field Force Command. The 1st Military Police Company belongs to and is directed by Headquarters, 1st Division. It is the only military police unit in the Army dedicated to supporting the Army's fighting elements on a full time basis in training for war.

The 2nd, 3rd, 4th and 9th Military Police Companies are responsible for the Army's day to day peacetime policing requirements.

The Army SIB Unit is primarily responsible for the prevention, detection and investigation of crime within the Army. The unit is analogous in many ways to civil police detectives so far as responsibilities are concerned. Plain clothes and unmarked cars are common to SIB operations.

The 1st Military Corrective Establishment is the only long term holding facility or gaol in the Army. It accepts soldiers under arrest or under sentence from within the Sydney area and accepts soldiers under sentence from within elsewhere in the 2nd Military District and from other Military Districts so long as they have more than seven days to serve on arrival.

The Military Police School is responsible for formal military police training of all members of RACMP. The Military Police School also contributes to the formulation of doctrine which provides the basis for training.

An outline organisation of RACMP Units is at Figure 25.2.

Establishment

The RACMP has a Regular Army establishment for 33 Officers and 377 other ranks. The Army Reserve element of RACMP has an establishment for 21 officers and 242 other ranks.

The ratio of military police to soldiers in the Regular Army is 1:86. In the Army Reserve the ratio is 1:121.

Details of the rank structure within RACMP is shown in Table 25.1 (Regular Army) and Table 25.2 (Army Reserve).

Command

It was mentioned in the opening paragraphs that military police units generally belong to and are directed by a Military District Headquarters except for the 1st Military Police Company and the Army SIB Unit.

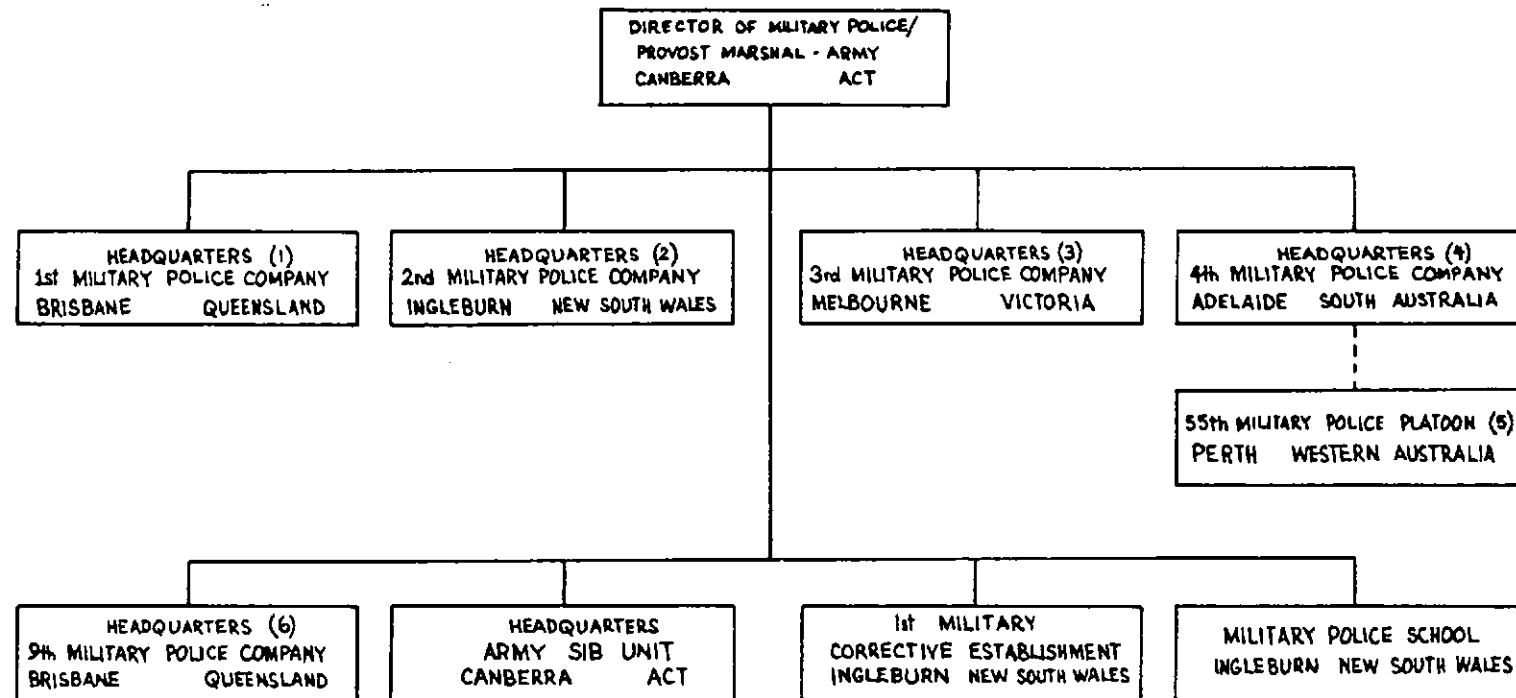
The 1st Military Police Company is a unit of Field Force Command and belongs to and is directed by Headquarters, 1st Division.

The Army SIB Unit has its headquarters in Canberra and works directly to Army Office. The unit has elements located in all Military Districts (except the 7th Military District) who work for and are administratively supported by their local Military District Headquarters.

The 1st Military Corrective Establishment is located at Ingleburn, NSW, and belongs to Headquarters, 2nd Military District.

The Military Police School is also located at Ingleburn, NSW and although it is located in the 2nd Military District, the school belongs to and is directed by Headquarters, Training Command.

FIGURE 25.2 - OUTLINE ORGANISATION OF RACMP UNITS



Note: 1. Support the 1st Division.

2. Supports the 2nd Military District (New South Wales). Sub-units located at Ingleburn, Randwick, Singleton and Kapooka (near Wagga Wagga).

3. Supports the 3rd Military District (Victoria). Sub-units located at Melbourne, Puckapunyal, and Bandiana (near Albury/Wodonga). Also responsible for support to the 6th Military District (Tasmania).

4. Supports the 4th Military District (South Australia).

5. Supports the 5th Military District (Western Australia).

6. Supports the 1st Military District (Queensland). Sub-units located at Indooroopilly and Townsville.

Table 25.1 - RACMP ESTABLISHMENT RANK STRUCTURE - REGULAR ARMY

UNIT	RANK	LIEUTENANT COLONEL	MAJOR	CAPTAIN	LIEUTENANT	WARRANT OFFICER 1	WARRANT OFFICER 2	STAFF SERGEANT	SERGEANT	CORPORAL	NON RACMP	TOTAL	
												OFFICERS	OTHER RANKS
DIRECTORATE OF MILITARY POLICE		1	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	2	2
1st MILITARY POLICE COMPANY		-	1	2	3	1	4	-	6	56	7	6	74
2nd MILITARY POLICE COMPANY		-	1	1	2	1	5	-	7	51	14	4	76
3rd MILITARY POLICE COMPANY		-	1	2	1	1	5	-	7	43	13	4	69
4th MILITARY POLICE COMPANY		-	1(1)	1	-	1	3	-	4	16	2	2	26
9th MILITARY POLICE COMPANY		-	1(2)	1	1	-	2	-	5	36	7	3	52
ARMY SIB UNIT		-	1	4	-	4	6	6	23	10	1	5	52
MILITARY POLICE SCHOOL		-	1	3	-	1	3	2	2	-	8	4	16
1st MILITARY CORRECTIVE ESTABLISHMENT ⁽²⁾		-	-	1	-	1	-	-	4	1	2	1	8
TOTAL		1	8	15	7	11	28	10	58	215	55	31	377
HEADQUARTERS FIELD FORCE COMMAND		-	1(4)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
HEADQUARTERS 3rd MILITARY DISTRICT		-	1(5)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
TOTAL		-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-

- Notes: 1. Also performs the duties of Provost Marshal, 4th Military District.
2. Also performs the duties of Provost Marshal, 1st Military District.
3. As a tri-service facility 1st Military Corrective Establishment has the following additional staff:
Royal Australian Navy: Chief Petty Officer - 1
Petty Officer - 4
Leading Seaman - 9
Royal Australian Air Force: Corporal - 4
4. Provost Marshal, Field Force Command and 2nd Military District.
5. Provost Marshal, 3rd Military District.

Table 25.2 - RACMP ESTABLISHMENT RANK STRUCTURE - ARMY RESERVE

UNIT	RANK	MAJOR	CAPTAIN	LIEUTENANT	WARRANT OFFICER 1	WARRANT OFFICER 2	STAFF SERGEANT	SERGEANT	CORPORAL	TOTAL	
										OFFICERS	OTHER RANKS
1st MILITARY POLICE COMPANY		-	1	2	1	1	1	2	25	3	30
2nd MILITARY POLICE COMPANY		-	1	3	1	2	-	4	45	4	52
3rd MILITARY POLICE COMPANY (1)		-	2	4	1	3	-	6	66	6	76
4th MILITARY POLICE COMPANY		-	1	2	1	2	-	4	48	3	55
ARMY SIB UNIT		-	1	-	1	3	3	14	3	1	24
TOTAL		-	6	11	5	11	4	30	187	17	237

HEADQUARTERS 1st MILITARY DISTRICT	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
HEADQUARTERS 2nd MILITARY DISTRICT	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
HEADQUARTERS 3rd MILITARY DISTRICT	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
HEADQUARTERS 4th MILITARY DISTRICT	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
TOTAL	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	-

Notes: 1. Includes 66th Military Police Platoon, Hobart (Captain x 1, Lieutenant x 1, Warrant Officer Class 2 x 1, Sergeant x 2, Corporal x 21)

Function

The primary requirement of the Australian Army in a peace time environment is to train for war. The primary requirement of RACMP in a peace time environment is to provide guaranteed military police support to the Army generally while continuing to train for allotted RACMP roles in war. In war, military police functions are achieved by providing commanders and their staff with specialist support from military police units deployed throughout combat areas in which Australian troops are operating, to rear areas outside of combat zones.

Role and tasks of RACMP

The role of RACMP is to provide Army formations and units with specialist military police support.

It is usual for military police to be engaged in traffic control, physical security, crime prevention and the maintenance of discipline to some degree whatever circumstances are prevailing. In operational theatres or combat zones military police tasks include:

- * advice to commanders and staffs on military and civil police matters
- * traffic control
- * assistance with local defence of headquarters, installations and vulnerable points
- * assistance with physical security of military installations and property, military ports, rail centres, depots and terminals
- * ceremonial escorts and protective security of civilian or military dignitaries
- * light protection for convoys and security escort for weapons and ammunition
- * assistance with civilian refugee control
- * assist and control soldiers who become separated from their units
- * assistance with control and evacuation of prisoners of war
- * 24 hour patrolling of areas frequented by Australian troops whether on or off duty
- * prevention, detection and investigation of crime
- * investigation of military traffic accidents

- * investigation and apprehension of soldiers absent without leave and deserters
- * control and administration of detention facilities
- * exchange of police information with Service, Allied Forces, Civil Police authorities and other law enforcement agencies
- * assistance to civil authorities in the event of natural disaster or civil emergency

In peacetime situations military police are usually engaged in the following tasks:

- * mobile patrols of civilian areas frequented by soldiers
- * traffic control within military areas and occasionally beyond these areas, as directed by local commanders
- * limited assistance with physical security of military installations and property but not under circumstances which duplicate a service provided by any other agency
- * traffic control and liaison with civil police in respect of ceremonial parades and military funerals
- * vehicle/motor cycle ceremonial escort for civilian or military dignitaries
- * security escorts for special tasks such as transport of weapons and ammunition
- * military prisoner escorts
- * crime prevention, detection and investigation of serious offences within the Army
- * operation of military detention centres
- * investigation and apprehension of soldiers absent without leave
- * investigation of military traffic accidents
- * liaison with civil police authorities including civil record checks of applicants for the Army
- * assistance to civil authorities in the event of natural disasters/civil emergencies as directed by the formation commander.

General equipment

The Australian Army's principle of equipment standardisation applies equally to military police. The military police role does not demand specialised major items of equipment, though some minor items of specialised equipment are being acquired.

Vehicles. Military police operating in the peace time role have the same 4 cylinder sedans that are issued to other units of the Army as General Duty Vehicles. Modifications to these vehicles are limited to the fitting of flashing lights (and sirens) and military police identification markings. Military police also have Suzuki GS 650 cc motorcycles with similar modifications.

The 1st Military Police Company (operating in its peace time role of training for war) is issued with standard Army 3/4 ton Landrovers and Suzuki 250 cc Trail Bikes, with military police identification markings but excluding flashing lights and sirens.

Small Arms. Military police units are issued with small arms common to the Australian Army. While weapon training is a continuing activity within military police units it is unusual for military police to carry arms in a peace time situation. Presently military police units, except the 1st Military Police Company, are issued with Browning 9 mm Self Loading Pistols (SLP), 7.62 mm Self Loading Rifles (SLR) and 9 mm F1 Sub Machine Guns (SMG).

The 1st Military Police Company are issued with the 9 mm SLP, 5.56 mm M16 Rifles and 7.62 mm Bren Light Machine Guns (LMG).

Communications. With the exception of the 1st Military Police Company it is usual for military police units to carry commercially manufactured vehicle mounted radios tuned to local state police frequencies. In some units this is supplemented by a direct military police radio link from the military police unit headquarters to military police vehicles in the local area and portable two way radios on a military police frequency.

The 1st Military Police Company is issued with military tactical radios; high frequency for long range communications and very high frequency for short range communications. These radios can be carried by soldiers in a back pack or can be mounted in vehicles. The radios may also be fitted with a scrambling device for communications where secrecy is necessary.

Specialised Equipment. The impending introduction of the Defence Force Discipline Act (DFDA), to replace Australian Military Regulations And Orders (AMR&O), will require military police to secure and operate 'special to police' equipment. The most significant items are:

- * Sound Recording Equipment. The equipment is required by the Army SIB Unit for the sound recording of police interviews with suspected persons. The requirement is written into the DFDA which adopts those provisions of the proposed Criminal Investigation Bill (relating to the investigation by members of the Australian Federal Police of offences against the laws of the Commonwealth and of the ACT) as they relate the admissibility of confessional evidence.

- * Speed Measuring Radar. The introduction of electronic speed measuring devices will serve to update existing methods and will simplify reports for military speeding offences.

Evaluation of these items is continuing with the aim of having the equipment introduced into service before December 1984.

Military police units, and in particular the 1st Military Police Company, are issued with military signposting equipment. This equipment consists of lightweight aluminium pickets, plastic signs (utilising symbols, numbers and directional arrows) and illuminated route and defile markers, all of which are used to mark military routes for convoy movement, troop deployment and resupply routes. Illuminated route markers are small directional arrows illuminated by Beta Lights (a luminous light source) which are used for night signposting especially where vehicles are moving tactically under blackout conditions. Although this equipment is designed to be used in operational or combat areas it is used extensively by RACMP in the present peace time situation.

Uniforms. Members of the RACMP dress in the basic khaki coloured uniforms of the Australian Army. They are distinguished by a scarlet beret worn by all ranks, and white web belts worn by other ranks when on patrol or ceremonial duties. Military police also wear a 'MP' armband when on patrol duties. Metal shoulder titles with the letters 'MP' are worn on the epaulette of shirts, or on shoulder boards for officers. The 1st Military Police company and military police working in an operational setting or combat area wear Army protective dress, otherwise known as 'Jungle Greens' or 'Disruptive Pattern Field Dress'.

Conditions of service, recruiting and salary

Service with RACMP is voluntary and this differs with most other Corps in the Australian Army to which officers and men may be posted or seconded.

RACMP obtain officers from the Royal Military College, Duntroon; the Officer Cadet School, Portsea; officers transferring from other Corps and Officers promoted from the ranks. Specialist Corps training for Officers includes attendance at a Regimental Officers Basic Course conducted at the Military Police School, Ingleburn, while selected officers may attend Detective Training Courses conducted by the Victoria Police Force. The Regimental Officers Basic Course is designed to impart an understanding of military police functions and tasks and to suit the officer for his first posting in RACMP. All RACMP officers attend structured military administration and tactics courses along with other Australian Army Officers during their career.

Soldiers applying for service with RACMP must have served a minimum of 12 months full time duty in the Australian Army. Other selection criteria are:

- * be at least 19 years of age
- * be not less than 172 cm in height (160 cm for females)
- * possess a suitable record of conduct, both civil and military
- * possess a minimum education standard which equates to about Year 9.

Selected applicants attend an eight week Military Police Basic Course at the Military Police School. The course aims to give students a basic grounding in military police tasks and procedures and qualifies the student for promotion to the rank of Corporal. Successful students are required to complete a Driver/Motorcycle Training Course at the School of Army Transport, Puckapunyal. Promotion to the rank of Corporal and posting to a military police unit follow. Attendance at further work oriented and promotion courses at the Military Police School and the Land Warfare Centre, Canungra qualify the military police Corporal for further promotion.

RACMP members who apply to join the Army SIB Unit are required to undergo about nine months training. The training includes a SIB Preliminary Course at the Military Police School, followed by six months on the job training and assessment. The SIB Preliminary Course teaches applicants the procedures necessary to undergo training and assessment for SIB duties. The assessment period is followed by a SIB Qualifying Course also conducted at the Military Police School. The course qualifies applicants as designated investigators within RACMP. Successful students are posted to SIB units throughout Australia. Investigators are also expected to qualify at a civil police detective training course later in their career.

To broaden the job and service experience of officers and other ranks of the Army (including members of RACMP) a system of non-Corps postings is utilised. This involves the posting of members to positions throughout the Army which are not oriented towards a specific Corps. The positions are generally administrative (usually at Army Office in Canberra or on a functional command or military district headquarters) or instructional (at Army Schools or training establishments) or may be with Army Recruiting Staff.

RACMP utilise non-Corps postings and military police are found throughout the Army serving in these positions.

The same conditions of service apply to RACMP as for other members of the Australian Army.

Soldiers are entitled to 20 working days leave (with pay) each (financial) year. A leave bonus of 17.5% of pay for leave entitlement is payable once each year up to a maximum of \$346.10 (calculated annually on average weekly earnings for each financial year).

Other leave available to the serviceman is:

- * Short Leave - up to 3 days may be approved in any week at the discretion of the member's unit commander
- * Compassionate Leave - up to 7 days compassionate leave may be approved by the member's Officer Commanding for such things as a death in the member's family, birth of member's children or removal of effects on postings
- * Furlough/Long Service Leave - each soldier accrues and entitlement to long service leave of 3 months per 10 years service on a pro-rata basis.

A salary scale of all ranks within RACMP is at Table 25.3.

TABLE 25.3

ANNUAL SALARY (ON PROMOTION) BY RANK

rank	salary	specialist rate
Lieutenant Colonel*	\$36,156	
Major	\$31,488	
Captain	\$25,244	
Lieutenant	\$21,393	
2nd Lieutenant	\$20,087	
Warrant Officer Class 1	\$27,796	(Investigator - \$27,796)
Warrant Officer Class 2	\$25,298	(Investigator - \$25,298)
Staff Sergeant	\$23,019	(Investigator - \$23,019)
Sergeant	\$20,304	(Investigator - \$21,391)
Corporal	\$19,219	(Investigator - \$19,761)

- * The rank of Lieutenant Colonel does not attract a service allowance. Remaining salaries include a service allowance of \$2,715.

Allowances in addition to salary for which RACMP qualify:

Uniform Maintenance Allowance

Officers - \$350 per annum

Senior Non Commissioned Officers - \$260 per annum

Other Ranks - \$215 per annum.

The allowance is paid for the upkeep of uniforms. Soldiers receive an initial free uniform issue but are responsible for subsequent replacements.

Field Allowance

All Ranks - \$320 per annum.

The allowance is paid to those members (usually members of the 1st Military Police Company) who spend much of their time on Army exercises.

Summary

The RACMP provides a unique police service to the Army in peace and war. The structure and size of the Corps is influenced directly by the structure and size of the Army at large.

While many of the tasks undertaken by military police may be seen as similar to tasks undertaken by other police organisations and law enforcements agencies, the role of military police is inherently different. Any Army is geared for war, and military police are a part of that effort.

CHAPTER 26

ROYAL AUSTRALIAN NAVY * NAVAL POLICE BRANCH

History

In Australia, in 1913, the then Federal Minister for Defence approved the formation of a Naval Dockyard Police Force to guard naval stores in Sydney, New South Wales, on the handover of the relevant stores depots to the Royal Australian Navy by the Royal Navy. For many succeeding years, members of the Naval Dockyard Police Force in New South Wales and Victoria were sworn in as Special Constables of the Police Force of those States. However, in 1923, to give the force wider powers, members were transferred to the Naval Auxiliary Forces and became members of the Permanent Naval Force and were given ranks relative to those of the seagoing forces.

The duties of the Naval Police Force have expanded over the years to such an extent they now perform their duties in a number of the Royal Australian Navy's commissioned and most of the non-commissioned naval establishments, such as the major dockyards and armament depots. In 1972, the title of the branch was changed to Naval Police, which reflected more accurately the expanded duties undertaken by the Branch as a whole.

A large number of civilian as well as Service personnel are employed in areas of Naval Police responsibility, particularly in the major dockyards, and in order that the interests and property of the Commonwealth of Australia may be protected to the full, all members of the Naval Police Branch have been given the following statutory powers of search, detention and arrest under the Naval Defence Act 1910 (as amended).

Naval Establishment Regulation 101

- 101.(1) For the purpose of ascertaining whether an offence is being or has been committed or attempted at any naval establishment, a member of the Naval Police, may, without a warrant, detain and search any person who is in a naval establishment, or any bag, parcel, vehicle or other receptacle which is in, or is being conveyed into, or out of a naval establishment, or any ship, boat or aircraft in or alongside or in the vicinity of a naval establishment.
- (2) If a member of the Naval Police has reasonable grounds to believe:
- a. that any person has committed, or attempted to commit, any offence in a naval establishment; and

- b. that proceedings against the person by summons would not be effective, he may, without a warrant, apprehend the person and deliver him into the custody of the civil authorities to be dealt with according to law.

(3) For the purpose of this regulation, 'Offence' means an offence against the common law (of England), the Naval Defence Act 1910 (as amended), the Control Of Naval Waters Act 1918, (as amended), the Commonwealth Crimes Act 1914 (as amended), or any other Act relating to Naval establishments or Australian Commonwealth Government property generally.'

Paragraph 5 of the Naval Defence Act 1910 (as amended) defines a Naval establishment as follows:

'Naval establishment includes any Naval College, Naval Instructional Establishment, ship, vessel, or boat, used for services auxiliary to naval defence and any dock, shipyard, foundry, machine shop, work, office or establishment used in connection with naval defence.'

Duties and responsibilities

Naval Police (NP) are employed primarily for the prevention and detection of crime and for the protection of life and property and related tasks in naval dockyards, non-commissioned naval establishments, such as naval stores complexes, including armament stores establishments, some sensitive naval and Defence establishments, and, under certain circumstances, Her Majesty's Australian Ships and commissioned establishments. In furtherance of these roles the following tasks are some of those undertaken by the Naval Police:

- * guarding or assisting in guarding designated naval establishments, including internal security patrols within those establishments, and for the provision of mobile land and water patrols in designated areas of naval concern
- * providing fire protection through:
 - . advice to Administrative Authorities, eg, Area Commanders, Commanding Officers of commissioned establishments and Officers-in-Charge of non-commissioned establishments, and
 - . carrying out fire protection duties in naval dockyards and designated non-commissioned and commissioned naval establishments
- * investigating the more serious breaches of security in Her Majesty's Australian Ships and naval establishments when specifically directed by Administrative Authorities

in accordance with the instructions contained in certain Security manuals applicable to the Royal Australian Navy

- * investigating offences committed by any person in non-commissioned naval establishments
- * investigating, on request, the more serious offences committed in Her Majesty's Australian Ships and commissioned establishments; (Investigating minor disciplinary matters in HMA Ships and establishments is not a function of the Naval Police Branch)
- * participating in drug education programs, involving all ranks and branches of the Royal Australian Navy
- * making the necessary arrangements for the issue and control of naval identity cards
- * advising visiting warships on customs regulations, the authority of Local (State and Federal) and Naval Police, liquor, drug and driving laws
- * investigating the whereabouts and initiating recovery action for absentees from the Royal Australian Navy and from foreign visiting warships on request and arranging for their disposal
- * coordinating Naval Shore patrols from HMA Ships and visiting warships when necessary
- * establishing liaison with Commanding Officers of HMA Ships and naval establishments and State and Australian Federal Police to ensure the serving members of the Royal Australian Navy and personnel from visiting warships held in the custody of state or Australian Federal Police are returned to naval custody as soon as practicable
- * providing armed escorts as required for paying officers in designated non-commissioned naval establishments

Note: Naval Police are not normally armed, however, a quantity of 9 mm Browning Automatic pistols are maintained in most areas where Naval Police are required to carry out certain functions such as the one mentioned in the immediately preceding item. Included in a Naval Policeman's compulsory kit are a baton (night stick) and whistle.

Naval Police rank structure

The naval Police Force or Branch is the only Australian Service Police Branch which uses civil police rank titles. The Naval Police rank structure is shown in comparison with the relative Royal Australian Navy Ranks:

<u>Naval Police Rank</u>	<u>Relative Royal Australian Navy Rank</u>
** Chief Superintendent	Captain (Special Duties)
Superintendent	Commander
Chief Inspector	Lieutenant Commander
Inspector	Lieutenant
Sub Inspector	Sub Lieutenant
Warrant Officer	Warrant Officer
Sergeant	Chief Petty Officer
Senior Constable	Petty Officer
Constable	Leading Rank
Recruit Constable	Able Rank

Note ** - The rank of Chief Superintendent was introduced into the Naval Police Branch of the Royal Australian Navy during 1980. To date there have been no promotions to the rank and the current complement structure of the branch does not make provision for a Chief Superintendent billet.

Currently the Senior Naval Police Officer is a Superintendent and his title is Deputy Director Security - Naval Provost Marshal. A second Superintendent billet exists and he occupies the Senior Naval Police Officer billet in the Naval Support Command, located in Sydney, New South Wales, where the largest number of Naval Police are employed.

Deputy Director Security - Naval Provost Marshal. The Deputy Director Security - Naval Provost Marshal is responsible to the Deputy Chief of Naval Staff, a Rear Admiral, for the following:

- * organisation of the Naval Police Branch
- * advice on all matters pertaining to the Naval Police
- * coordination of Naval Police activities
- * procedures relating to recovery and escorting Royal Australian Navy absentees and extended absentees and absentees from visiting Naval forces
- * operation of the naval Police Central Records System, based in Sydney, NSW
- * operation of the Central Warrants System

- * coordination of issue of Royal Australian Navy, naval identity cards and maintenance of a photographic index
- * coordination of Naval Police drug education programs.

Senior Naval Police Officer

The Senior Naval Police Officer in Charge of Naval Police in New South Wales, Victoria and West Australia are also posted as the Deputy Naval Provost Marshal for their respective areas. They are responsible to the appropriate Australian naval authority for:

- * implementation of police, provost and fire prevention/protection policies as laid down by the Australian Department of Defence (Navy Office)
- * administration of Naval Police activities, including the movement of Naval Police in their area of responsibility
- * the technical efficiency of Naval Police under their control for all operations undertaken by them
- * maintenance of information input to the Naval Police Central Records System
- * liaison with Commanding Officers of HMA Ships, commissioned establishments, and Officers-in-Charge of non-commissioned naval establishments in their area on Naval Police matters
- * measures for the prevention of crime and detection of offenders in the areas for which Naval Police are responsible
- * the maintenance of local liaison with officers of Australian Federal Police, State or Territory Police, Army and Royal Australian Air Force Service Police and Commonwealth/State Departments concerned with Security and Law enforcement.

In some areas, where no commissioned Naval Police Officer is borne, the Senior Naval Policeman is responsible to the local Naval Authority or Commanding Officer of a ship or establishment for such of the above tasks as are applicable. Additionally, the Senior Naval Police Officer or Senior Naval Policeman, where no Officer is borne, is responsible for advising Commanding Officers of local commissioned establishments and ships, and the Officer-in-Charge of non-commissioned naval establishments in relation to:

- * bomb threats including provision of assistance to Explosives Ordnance Demolition Teams in the cordon and evacuation of areas as may be necessary
- * orders and instructions for the implementation of fire safety exercises, including the use of portable fire fighting appliances, evacuation and warden procedures

- * the attendance by naval personnel at drug education programs arranged by Naval Police.

Recruiting and selection criteria - conditions of service

All Naval Police are recruited from the Royal Australian Navy, Royal Navy, Royal Marines or Royal New Zealand Navy. Female members are recruited from the Womens Royal Australian Naval Service. The reason for this policy is twofold. Firstly, each recruit will have completed Service Basic Training and as such, is used to the discipline and routine of a Service way of life. Secondly, each recruit will have a good working knowledge of a Naval Service and in particular will be reasonably familiar with naval ships and establishments.

Entry into the Naval Police Branch is by one of two methods:

- * by transfer from another branch of the Royal Australian Navy, or the Womens Royal Australian Naval Service, providing the applicant has completed a minimum of 3 years naval service after attaining the age of 18 years and by satisfying certain other purely Service criteria
- * by any of the personnel mentioned in the immediately preceding paragraph reentering the Royal Australian Navy or the Womens Royal Australian Naval Service from shore, providing they have not been discharged from naval service in excess of 5 years and prior to discharge they had completed a minimum of 3 years service after attaining the age of 18 years.

Note: In both methods the applicant must have attained the minimum rank of Able Seaman or Senior Wran before he or she will be accepted for service in the Naval Police Branch.

Suitability assessment

All applicants for service in the Naval Police are interviewed by an Officer or non-commissioned officer from the Naval Police Branch, or a suitably briefed member of another branch of the Navy, a Naval Psychologist, and if considered necessary, a Naval Social Worker. Since Naval Police duties consist primarily of shiftwork and involve regular contact with Service and civilian personnel including the general public, the prime factors influencing a candidates suitability will include:

- * qualities of tact, discretion and initiative
- * honesty, loyalty, sobriety, etc.

Medical fitness

Applicants for service in the Naval Police must be able to satisfy the medical standards set for serving members of the Royal Australian Navy or the Womens Royal Australian Naval Service.

General

The conditions of service for all Naval Police are exactly the same as they are for all other members of the permanent naval forces. This includes promotion, leave, postings, medical and dental care for the member, pay and pension entitlements, etc, etc.

Training

As soon as practicable after reentry or transfer to the Naval Police Branch, candidates undergo the Naval Police New Entry course at the Naval Police School, Garden Island, New South Wales. The course is of eight weeks duration and is followed by six months On Job Training, during which a Task Book is to be completed. Certain other Service criteria, has to be met before final acceptance and promotion or recategorisation to the rank of Constable. The majority of Police courses are conducted at the Naval Police Training School, including an Investigators course of ten weeks duration. However, because the Naval Police have a joint responsibility for security and Fire Protection, certain other courses conducted by civilian organisations are attended by Naval Police, including an advanced firearms course with the New South Wales Fire Brigade. Naval Police also attend courses run by the Australian Federal Police and other State Police forces in addition to attending certain Naval Courses at Naval Training establishments.

Transport and communications

All Naval Police are required to hold current Service and Civilian drivers licences. Naval Police in the various Australia-wide commands are equipped with the appropriate types of transport to serve the needs of command. In the larger Naval Commands, the type of transport provided for Naval Police use includes, sedans, lock up Patrol Vehicles, Fire Tenders and Fire Utility vehicles and Ambulances. The latter are not supplied to Naval Police, but all Naval Police must be able to drive an ambulance in an emergency. Naval Police are also required to man and operate portable trailer fire pumps and salvage pumps. Most Naval Police vehicles are fitted with two-way VHF or UHF radio for communication with each other and the various base stations. Portable handheld transceivers in the VHF and UHF Frequency ranges are also in use by Naval Police on a 24 hour a day basis. In some States, the Naval Police radio network includes crystalisation with the local State Police Radio network.

Naval Police serve in all mainland States of Australia with the exception of South Australia. Provision is made on an 'as required' basis, for Naval Police to go to any part of the Commonwealth for Investigational purposes. Naval Police have also travelled overseas on some occasions, including to the United Kingdom, Singapore and Hong Kong and on one occasion to Hawaii. Naval Police also carry out investigations on sea going Royal Australian Navy Warships, travelling in the ship for the duration of the investigation.

Naval Police dog handlers

A small group of Naval Police who have volunteered and have been selected are trained as Naval Police Dog Handlers. The training for Dog Handlers is conducted by the Royal Australian Air Force, who are the single Service Managers for all Service Dog Handlers. Currently all Naval Police Dog Handlers are employed at the Naval Air Station in Nowra, New South Wales on Security Guard duties. However, Naval Police Dog Handlers may be employed in other Royal Australian Navy establishments in the future.

Salaries

The following salary scales for members of the Naval Police Branch were correct as at 13 April 1984:

<u>Rank</u>	<u>Annual Salary</u>
Recruit Constable	\$14,983
Constable	16,504
Senior Constable	18,132
Sergeant	22,583
Warrant Officer	25,081
Sub Inspector	22,683
Inspector	25,190
Chief Inspector	28,773
Superintendent	36,156
Chief Superintendent	41,802.

Uniforms

Naval Police uniforms generally follow the same patterns as those worn by other members of the Royal Australian Navy and the Womens Royal Australian Naval Service. However, Constables wear a Petty Officer style uniform, notwithstanding that they are of equivalent rank to Leading Seaman.

Further differences in uniform between Naval Police and other Naval personnel may be seen in the fact that members of the Naval Police Branch wear silver insignia, buttons and lace, in lieu of gold. Also, the traditional Naval white summer uniforms are replaced by khaki, which is considered more suitable for security and fire protection duties. Black caps are worn instead of the familiar white Naval pattern. Lastly, Naval Police may be identified by a distinctive breast badge.

In certain circumstances, members of the Naval Police Branch may be required to perform duties in plain clothes.

PART II

POLICE HISTORY OF AUSTRALASIA

Introduction

As a general proposition, the police enterprise has been sadly neglected by New Zealand and Australian social historians. In recent years, however, a welcome growth of interest in the phenomenon has occurred in both countries. Whilst it cannot be said that present efforts in themselves constitute the basis for a new historical sub-discipline, it is fair to say that the embryo of such a sub-discipline is currently forming.

For those already involved in the field, the recent growth in activity is most welcome, providing promise of a productive and useful future.

A commissioned three volume history of police development in New Zealand is presently being written by Richard Hill and Graeme Dunstall. This major work will be released in 1986 in time for the NZ Police Centennial. A steering committee is currently planning a major police-public celebration of the centenary between July and October that year.

Across the Tasman Sea, three police departments have either serving or former members preparing force histories, ie, Bob Haldane in Melbourne, Bob Clyne in Adelaide and Bill McLaren in Darwin. The Queensland police department is considering authorising the writing of a Force history and, in New South Wales several major police historical projects are in preparation. In Tasmania the police department's librarian, Darcy Erwin, is working on a comprehensive history of police on the island. Further evidence of the burgeoning interest in police history is the creation in recent years of police historical societies in Sydney, Melbourne and Adelaide.

Despite these promising developments there remains a great need for discursive works, such as The Blue Parade by Thomas Repetto, and more scholarly analyses from a range of perspectives, such as Big City Police by Bob Fogelson and City Police by Johnathan Rubinstein.

One of the major inhibitions applying to the writing of police history has been the reluctance of police authorities to open their files to interested historians. It is no accident that the current burst of activity has occurred in very large part through the emergence of serving police office historians, such as Sherwood Young in New Zealand and Bob Haldane and Bob Clyne in Australia. Even so, bitter complaints were heard from one historian at a recent seminar attended by criminal justice researchers concerning obstructions placed in his way by the police department of his state. Hopefully, as history becomes seen more and more within the police community as a valuable and respectable undertaking, resistance to the demands of responsible researchers will reduce.

The detailed accounting of the rise and fall of all the various bodies that have contributed to public security in all its varied forms over the years throughout New Zealand and Australia will be attempted in future editions of Police Source Book. The more modest aim of the present edition is to provide a brief chronological record of police events in New Zealand and Australia. Progress to comprehensive historical accounts will inevitably be incremental.

Dates of origin of major extant police agencies are shown at Table 1.1.

Table 1.1

MAJOR POLICE AGENCIES IN AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND:
YEAR OF ORIGIN

agency	year of origin
South Australia Police	1838
Victoria Police	1853
Western Australia Police	1861
New South Wales Police	1862
Queensland Police	1864
New Zealand Police	1886
Tasmania Police	1899
Northern Territory Police *	1911
Australian Capital Territory Police **	1927

* continuity broken 1926-1931

** independent status ceased 1979

AUSTRALIA

Police and policing in Australia have their origins in the three independent British settlement initiatives undertaken in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. Those initiatives were based on Sydney Cove (New South Wales) 1788, Swan River (Western Australia) 1829 and Adelaide (South Australia) 1836. Subsequent population expansion stemming primarily from those centres not only populated the hinterlands of those points of initial settlement but also distant areas later to become separate settlements and colonies in their own right, *ie*, Norfolk Island, Tasmania, Victoria and Queensland. In all cases, albeit briefly in the case of South Australia, early police organisation was "eighteenth century" English in style. Over time, though, each polity adopted "nineteenth century" forms of police organisation in common with the rest of the English speaking world. The early development of police in New Zealand was not greatly dissimilar to that in Australia, with the exception that the military prowess of the Maoris led to the creation of Armed Constabularies prior to the establishment of a national police agency.

In many ways the most significant point of police origin was Sydney, not only because it was the first but because, in the early days of Australia's European settlement, the colony of New South Wales covered not only the area occupied by the present day state of New South Wales but that of the present day states of Tasmania, Victoria and Queensland, the Northern Territory and the external territory of Norfolk Island as well. The colonial government (and police authority), in response to increases in population and special needs which emerged from time to time, permitted the creation of numerous (and mostly) small police bodies throughout the vast region. The largest and most significant of these bodies, at least until 1862 when all police bodies in New South Wales were consolidated, was that of Sydney - the seat of government.

The bare bones of the move to colonial centralisation throughout the nineteenth century and the emergence of a modern police service in the twentieth are presented here on a jurisdiction by jurisdiction basis. The police historical literature is unfortunately small, but there are refreshing indications of a mini boom occurring. Hopefully, this growth will compound until satisfactory levels of coverage and analysis are achieved.

Fortunately, police have never been used in a nation building role in Australia, such as has occurred in Southeast Asia. Partly as a result, there has been little stimulus to occupational introspection to date. The fact that the police occupation is achieving a mid life crisis in the federation of Australia is partly due to the lack of past concern with such matters. It may be that the current growth of interest in police history will mature too late to assist in the resolution of current problems. But, hopefully, it will in future help to create a sense of occupational destiny in the different states that is lacking at the present time.

New South Wales

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The majority of persons put ashore at Sydney Cove in the weeks following 26 April 1788 were convicts under sentence. Three companies of Marines accompanied them as a security force. Little police provision was made at the outset, other than the appointment of magistrates, a Provost Marshal and a Constable. Marines proved less than effective in their security role during the early months of settlement, especially at preventing nocturnal thieving from vegetable gardens and, it was decided in August 1789 to increase the 'police' establishment by appointing a Night Watch comprising 12 of the best behaved convicts. For a while at least the Watch was effective and Governor Arthur Phillip was ecstatic but rapid turnover of personnel resulted in loss of effectiveness and, in the longer term, the Watch's performance seems to have been limited. The settlement was divided into four districts, with three Watchmen assigned to each. One of the three divisional Watchmen was made responsible for the other two, while Henry Keeling was appointed Principal Watchman. Although operating largely nocturnally at first, the divisions were intended to be actively patrolled. Watch boxes did not appear in Sydney for several decades.

Watchmen received accommodation, rations and clothing only and were subordinate to the Deputy Judge Advocate (who inter alia was the effective chairman of the Sydney bench). Faithful performance of duty was rewarded with early emancipation. As a matter of practice, and although a convict Principal Watch Officer was appointed, the Watch was controlled during its formative years by the Provost Marshal who acted as the Judge Advocate's personal assistant in matters pertaining to law and order. The office of Provost Marshal was part of the civil establishment.

The style and structure of Sydney's 'police' in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth century was similar in many respects to the police concept operating in London at that time. Conflicting references to 'police' by contemporary colonial officials suggest considerable conceptual confusion. Sometimes such utterances clearly referred to issues of public peace and hygiene. Other references suggested allusion to organised bodies of police employees as proposed in William Pitt's illfated London and Westminster Police Bill 1785 or, even, as operating in Dublin under the provisions of the Dublin Police Act 1786.

As time passed and areas surrounding Sydney were explored and then settled Constables, some of them freemen, were appointed in outlying regions. In larger towns Constables were appointed who operated throughout the 24 hours.

Governor Hunter attempted to upgrade Sydney's police in 1796 by insisting on improved performance and adherence to regulations as well as stiffening convict Watchmen and Constables with a leavening of elected freemen Constables. Elected Constables operated at night in company with regular officers. Their duty mostly involved sitting in watch houses, thereby hopefully reducing abuses practised by regular officers, such as releasing arrested persons without proceeding to a charge and extorting money from prisoners. Out on their beats, Constables' main duty was to call the time hourly throughout the night as best they could. Elected Constables were required to serve for one year. The elected Constable scheme fell into disuse after about three years.

Judge Advocate David Collins directly controlled Sydney's police until his departure from the colony in August 1796. Hard working Henry Brewer, the original Provost Marshal, died just prior to Collins' sailing for England. From then until 1800, with the appointment of Surgeon John Harris to the bench, the Constables and Watchmen seem to have operated under the control of the Chief Constable and individual members of the Sydney bench. Harris, an extremely active man, quickly and firmly took control of police as Collins had done. However, he led an eventful life, being removed from the bench on several occasions. Thus, although he did not leave the colony until 1809, he was as often off the bench as on it. Even whilst off the bench, though, he was active in police affairs and did not hesitate to take command of Constables at times of major incident, such as the sadistic murder of Constable Luker in 1803.

It was not until Surgeon D'Arcy Wentworth devised a new Sydney police scheme for Governor Macquarie in 1810 that the second major reform of Sydney's police was attempted, with a body of full time Constables being formed. This Sydney police force, still operating under the direction of a magistrate, was divided into five districts, each with a Watchhouse. The scheme bore similarities to both the contemporary situation obtaining at London's Bow Street police office and the recommendation of the 1875 London and Westminster Police Bill. The scheme commenced 1 January 1811 and on 29 December D'Arcy Wentworth was formally nominated magistrate responsible for police; he was styled Superintendent of Police. The title was bestowed in the sense of an appointment rather than a rank. The system, with D'Arcy Wentworth at its head, operated for almost one and one half decades.

By the end of Macquarie's reign, Sydney's police strength was 58 subordinate officers. Wentworth was severely quizzed by Commissioner JT Bigge during his inquiry into the administration of justice in New South Wales. It is clear from the tone of Bigge's report that he was not well disposed toward the Irish born Police Magistrate. Apart from a brief recess in 1821-1822, Wentworth served until his 'final' retirement in 1825. Wentworth was succeeded as Police Superintendent by Captain FN Rossi, a Corsican possessing imperial army service. Rossi's terms of office, 1825-1827 and 1827-1833, were marked by great intrigue and public dislike of the magistrate but, considering the financial

constraints under which he was forced to operate, it can be said that his administration was sound. One of the great grievances among artisans, labourers, ticket-of-leave men, etc, who roamed the colony at that time, was that if picked up in the interior on suspicion of being an absconding convict, they were forced to walk all the way to Sydney, often tied to a trooper's stirrup iron, to appear before Rossi, who was the official identifier of such persons. If innocent, the suspects were then released in Sydney and had, should they wish to return to the interior, to walk all the way back.

Commissioner Bigge recommended to the Home Government that a centralised police establishment be created but both Governors Bourke and Darling postponed implementation of such a scheme so that Captain Rossi never commanded more than the Sydney Police, although he was permitted to correspond directly with magistrates operating in the interior.

The first reference to a detective in New South Wales occurred in 1827. Constable Chapman, formerly of the Lumber Yard, was appointed Runner at the George Street police office. Much of his time was spent conducting inquiries in the interior on behalf of Sydney based authorities. He was, in effect, the first Special Branch operative.

In rural areas of New South Wales, Constables were appointed by local Justices and from 1810 onward remained accountable to the particular bench by which they were appointed. They became known as bench police, or more colloquially, 'benchers'. Police districts for much of the Middle District of New South Wales were promulgated in 1835 and by 1851 totalled 50; 26 of these districts were located beyond the boundaries of formal settlement.

The inability of infantry to cope with Aboriginal 'outrages' in rural districts and the lack of cavalry in the colony led to the creation of what was known as the Military Mounted Police. This body, which operated only within the boundaries of location, existed from 1826 to 1850. Its origin stemmed from clashes between Aboriginals and settlers in the Bathurst District in 1824.

The force was manned by military volunteers, mostly infantrymen possessing equestrian experience. They remained as supernumeraries on battalion rolls but were transferred when their regiment left the colony unless they desired to depart with it. At its zenith in 1839, the force comprised nine commissioned officers, one Sergeant Major and 156 NCOs and Private soldiers. Military Mounted Police operated in both the Middle and Port Phillip Districts. Major centres were Goulburn, Bathurst and Maitland. The southern, western and northern roads from Sydney to those towns respectively were patrolled by the Military Mounted Police. By 1849, the decision had been made to do away with the Force and, at the end of 1850, it was formally disbanded. During its earlier and more energetic years the Military Mounted Police played an important role in combating outlaws and Aboriginals in the interior in addition to keeping main routes reasonably safe for travellers.

A distinct Water Police body commenced at Sydney in 1830. It led a chequered career, being sometimes under the control of the Police Magistrate and at other times under its own Water Police Magistrate. It was eventually merged with Sydney Police in 1850 in the course of an attempted district wide consolidation of police services.

To cope with problems occurring beyond the boundaries of location, a small Border Police body was raised under the Crown Lands Unauthorised Occupation Act 1839 but was disbanded in 1846 following sustained criticism from squatters. This body comprised a number of military NCOs and subordinate military prisoners operating in both the Middle and Port Phillip Districts. Its major function was to maintain peaceful relations between settlers and Aborigines. In fact, it was often employed to punish Aborigines for outrages committed by them. The force operated in small detachments each under the direction of a Crown Lands Commissioner.

A short while prior to the disbandment of the Border Police in 1846, a Native Police body was established. It, too, operated mainly beyond the boundaries of location, mostly beyond the Dumaresq River and was eventually taken over by the Queensland colonial government. The Native Police Force continued as a discrete police body until its eventual demise at the end of the century.

Sydney's police force (84 strong) was placed on a statutory basis in 1833, with the passing of the Sydney Police Act 1833. The new legislation was patterned to a considerable extent on London's Metropolitan Police Act 1829. Although still comprising many convict and emancipist officers, Sydney's police force had begun to develop more professionally by this time, even though still under the command of a magistrate. In an attempt to improve the quality of police officers, the first of several groups of recruits consisting of former London policemen arrived in 1834. They were mostly too old to be of much operational use, but they did represent a useful addition of decent, law abiding citizens to the town and port of Sydney.

Henry Wilson replaced Rossi as head of Sydney's Police. Wilson had some understanding of the organisation of London's police and attempted to pattern Sydney police officers in the same mould. Wilson relinquished office in 1839, following complaints of impropriety. By the time of his departure from office, Sydney's police strength had grown to 128 employees.

Wilson was eventually replaced by William Augustus Miles, rumoured to be a son of King William IV. Miles had worked with the English and Wales Constabulary Commission which submitted its report to Westminster in 1839, although he had not personally served as a police officer. Miles slavishly followed London police practices, even having Sydney's Constables attired in buttoned tailcoats. As was the case with his predecessors, Miles was unable to avoid bench duties.

In 1842, Sydney was incorporated and the police was one of the functions taken over by the new city fathers. However, they

soon found that while the government was agreeable to ratepayers financially supporting police services, it was not prepared to let the Council control the management and operation of the force. This unhappy arrangement only lasted a couple of years before lapsing.

By 1846, there were still a few former convicts employed as police officers and a considerable turnover of staff was also still evident. Some idea of the unsuitability of many members and the unattractiveness of the job is provided by the following data: between January 1844 and 30 June 1847 out of an establishment of about 100 members, 82 were dismissed - mostly for drunkenness, 83 resigned and five died, making a total of 170 mutations.

Miles was removed from the office of Sydney's Police Magistrate in 1848 on grounds of misbehaviour. He was quickly followed by Captain Joseph Innes and Captain Edward Day, both of whom were also removed from office for misbehaviour.

On 1 October 1850, the Police Regulation Act 1850 was passed. The statute's introduction followed wild rioting in Sydney on New Year's Eve, in the face of which police had been quite helpless. This statute placed the police of the entire colony subordinate to an Inspector General of Police, under whom was to be a Superintendent of Police for Sydney, five Provincial Inspectors plus subordinate ranks. The new organisation bore obvious similarity to the Royal Irish Constabulary. The Water Police was also incorporated and a body of mounted police was raised. Judicial and administrative functions of the chief of police were finally severed and John McLerie, former adjutant and paymaster of the Mounted Police, was appointed Superintendent of Sydney's police.

Also in 1850 there commenced the Mounted Road Patrols. Initially, the body was set up to patrol the Great Western Road between Parramatta and Bathurst. But, by 1852, the Patrol had been extended to the Southern Road, between Sydney and Goulburn. This body achieved a substantial reputation for effectiveness and remained in existence until the 1862 consolidation.

The new police statute commenced 1 January 1851, with William Spain, a solicitor, as Inspector General of Police. Spain resigned a year later after being severely criticised for administrative laxity. He was replaced on 1 January 1852 by William Colbourn Mayne.

It was learned in 1852 that the British government had disallowed the 1850 police statute and the Inspector General's domain shrank to the County of Cumberland plus the Mounted Police. The discovery of gold in 1851 made it difficult to retain police officers in Sydney but the authorities declined to increase police salaries. Instead, the recruitment of officers from Britain and Ireland was recommended. Recruitment in Britain was undertaken and personnel were contracted for three years service on consideration of a free passage. Many of these men arrived on the Bangalore and for years later, overseas recruited police officers were disparagingly referred to within the police force as 'Bangalore' men. Some of them rose to high rank. Complications

arose with recruited police officers arriving on the Exodus, when some of their number refused to serve claiming breach of contract. Two Constables were charged in court but the charges were dismissed. Thereafter, the officers who arrived in that group were known as the 'Israelites'.

Discovery of gold led directly to a need for order maintenance on the goldfields as well as escorts for gold shipments. As a result, a Chief Gold Commissioner was appointed with authority inter alia to form a body of mounted police for service on the goldfields. Chief Gold Commissioner John Richard Hardy started with a Force of 12 men mostly drawn from members of the old Military Mounted Police. The Force made its first appearance at Ophir in June 1851. As the goldfields increased in number other Commissioners were appointed, each with a small detachment of Gold Police. The force never grew to any size and when the focus of gold seeking shifted to the Victorian fields it grew even smaller. In 1859, its remaining members were assigned to the road patrols.

William Mayne resigned his police position in 1856, being replaced by John McLerie.

Wild riots at Lambing Flat goldfield in December 1860 taxed the government's law enforcement capacity to the limit and rekindled the government's determination to consolidate police services. The passing of the Police Regulation Act 1862 achieved that end. The present police department of New South Wales dates from that time.

The Chief of Sydney's Police Force, John McLerie, was appointed Inspector General of the new body. McLerie served until 1874 when he was replaced by Edmund Fosbery. Fosbery had served for some years as Secretary of Victoria Police prior to taking up a similar position with New South Wales Police. By 1874, Fosbery had served with New South Wales Police, firstly as a civilian Secretary and, then, with the rank of Superintendent, for 12 years. He was the grandfather of well known Sydney radio personality 'Andrea'.

The new police force entered almost immediately into a greatly embarrassing era in which 'bushrangers' dominated newspaper headlines for well over a decade. The limited success of police in coping with these bandits, despite many acts of individual heroism by police officers, ensured a poor reputation for the department for many years. The time of the bushrangers eventually passed and the department settled down to a lengthy period in which standards slowly improved but little growth took place. For instance, between 1862 and the end of the century the strength of the Criminal Investigation Branch rose only from 12 to 15 members.

In 1862, the new police force was given Carters' Barracks as a depot. The police depot remained at that site until 1904, when it was assigned to the construction of Central Railway Station. After several years at the showground, a new depot was opened in Bourke Street, Redfern.

The period between 1862 and the turn of the century was

marked by two technological developments of note from the police perspective, at least in the metropolitan area. The introduction of the telephone in 1896 and the bicycle also in the 1890s meant considerable changes in urban mobility. Even so, the horse remained king and it was many years after 1862 before the last of the 'benchers' retired. Some rural Constables either declined to join the new police body in 1862 or were, for one reason or another, rejected. Accordingly, a considerable number of new recruits were accepted at all levels in the years immediately following 1862. These men were a mixed bunch, and while many served honourably and effectively for many years there was a substantial element of 'no hoppers' and persons possessing "influence" who entered the Force at all levels and remained therein to its detriment.

The department's first annual report was published in 1873.

In 1874, first year Constables earned £183 per annum, Sergeants 3/C £247 per annum and Inspectors 3/C £324 per annum.

By the time of the first Broken Hill strike in 1892, however, the Force had established its own identity and cohesion, and was in every respect a state body. The calibre of police officer sent to the Silver City for the duration of the strike was far higher, for example, than that sent to the Lambing Flat goldfield some 30 years earlier.

In 1893, first year Constables earned £268 per annum, Sergeants 3/C £330 per annum and Inspectors 1/C £408 per annum.

Thus, although still technologically backward, New South Wales police had by the turn of the century developed into a body recognisable today as a Police Force.

Edmund Fosbery's retirement in 1904 was prefaced by the repeal of the 1862 police regulation statute, which was replaced by the Police Regulation Act 1899. This statute, much amended, remains in force. Fosbery was succeeded by Thomas Garvin (1904-1910) and EC Day (1911-1915). Day was the first New South Wales police officer to rise through the ranks to the office of Commissioner. Unfortunately, he suffered poor health and was forced to retire prematurely. He was in turn replaced by the Metropolitan Superintendent, James Mitchell.

In December 1905, the eyes of the western world focused on Sydney in respect of the Burns-Johnson world heavyweight boxing championship. The fight was stopped by police in order to save Burns from serious injury. The Police Inspector in question was James Mitchell, who became Inspector General ten years later. Police were responsible for supervising all professional boxing matches and these responsibilities were minutely detailed in Police Rules.

The decade and a half immediately prior to World War I largely socially stable from the police viewpoint, apart from a number of major labour upheavals, including the second Broken Hill strike of 1909, the most momentous in the state's history. Motor vehicles were appearing in the streets of major towns in

significant numbers by 1907 but it was not until 1914 the police department obtained its first vehicles, two motor cycles, although it had operated government vehicles for several years earlier. That purchase started the decline of the department's mounted branch which, to that time, had maintained dominance in the organisation much to the annoyance of foot police. Little love was lost between the two branches of the force. A majority of appointments to commissioned rank were taken from the mounted branch - which is how the expression 'getting the whip' originated. Mounted officers contemptuously referred to their dismounted colleagues as 'footpads' and 'splodgers'. World War I economies prevented rapid growth of the department's transport fleet and, even by the mid twenties, only 13 four wheeled vehicles were held by police. Numbers doubled from 66 in 1929 to 140 in 1939. It was not until 1947 the vehicle fleet was to again grow at such a rate.

Following experimentation by Victoria Police with mobile radio in 1923, Inspector General Mitchell formed an embryo wireless branch. Extended testing was quickly undertaken by a group of dedicated police wireless enthusiasts and by September 1924 mobile radio telephony was being tested. The four (later five) CIB Patrol Cars were soon wireless equipped.

Divisional patrol cars were introduced in Sydney in 1926, with nine vehicles being assigned to the metropolis's principal stations. The number had doubled by 1930, with the cars being equipped with PD plates. They were mostly Austin 12 hp and Morris Cowley Tourers and were used for general duties patrol. In 1930, the Metropolitan Superintendent proudly reported that divisional cars 'enabled police to rush to the scene of reported disorders or crime and effect arrests before offenders could escape'.

It was not until 1915 and World War I that the police service began to expand and specialise under the guidance of Inspector General James Mitchell. War time conditions severely changed metropolitan life, with marked increases in crime, vice and welfare problems. One organisational response to these problems was the creation of a female police unit. The first two female officers were Lillian Mary Armfield and Maude Marion Rhodes. The latter officer resigned after a brief period but Lillian Armfield headed the Women Police Section until her retirement in 1949. Female strength at the time of Sergeant Armfield's retirement was 33. Owing to her being over the maximum permissible age for recruitment, Lillian Armfield and all who served under her were classified as Special Police Officers. Thus, although New South Wales can claim to have hired the first female police officers, South Australia can claim to have appointed the first female officers possessing regular police officer status.

The availability of motor vehicles to police starting in 1915 and radio some years later revolutionised police mobility and communications. These two innovations, together with the introduction of the telephone, did more to change police organisation and operational performance than any other factors. The department was fortunate in having an outstanding head, James Mitchell, during those critical years during which so many social, technological and political changes took place.

It was in 1915, too, that police training was placed on a sound footing. Prior to that time both mounted and foot recruits had to spend two or so weeks at the Depot, performing drill and fatigues. They were then assigned to divisions where they then learned their new job. Formal recruit training programs were not only prepared but were adhered to. These programs quickly improved over time and shortly thereafter divisional training was formalised, with probationary Constables attending lectures weekly. In association with those initiatives, Police Rules were substantially updated and promotion exams were introduced - much to the dissatisfaction of some members.

In 1916, First year Constables earned £330 per annum, Sergeants 3/C £419 per annum and Inspectors 1/C £504 per annum.

The Police Association of New South Wales formed in 1920 with the support of Inspector General Mitchell and the Chief Secretary. Employee morale had been low for some time as a result of numerous grievances. Constable Bertram Fortescue, the son of a police Sergeant, was elected inaugural Secretary of the Association. Mitchell assigned him the photographic dark room at police headquarters as an office. The Association's first annual conference was held in 1921 and, shortly after, Fortescue resigned from the department to become fulltime Secretary. Commissioned police officers were moved by the sight of their subordinates holding an industrial council to form their own union in 1921. The Association's early years were relatively quiescent but relations between the Association and Department deteriorated sharply in the late 1930s. In 1942, a massive rupture occurred when the Association's entire executive committee was posted to the country. The resulting furore only terminated when the Premier overruled the Commissioner and ordered the banished officers to return to Sydney. Shortly after, the Commissioner moved to Canberra as Director General of Security but lasted there less than a year. His absence from Police Headquarters for that period, however, was sufficient to allow the organisational climate to reduce to more acceptable levels.

James Mitchell undertook a comprehensive overseas trip in 1927 that resulted in the creation of the Drug Squad. The following year, Inspector William John MacKay was sent on an overseas trip also. Mitchell wanted MacKay to succeed him as Commissioner of Police and saw such a journey as an ideal grooming exercise. Upon his return, MacKay submitted more than 20 proposals for reform; many of which were immediately accepted. They formed a blueprint for the development of the Force for over a decade. In the event, MacKay did not succeed Mitchell but remained as head of CIB until being appointed Metropolitan Superintendent in 1932. As head of CIB, MacKay followed Mitchell's lead and created a number of specialist squads, commencing with the Consorting Squad in 1929.

The years between the two world wars were traumatic for both New South Wales society and its police agency. In the operational realm, the aftermath of the International Workers of the World trials lasted until 1920, to the not inconsiderable discomfort of police. However, by 1920 the threat of one big Union had receded and sly grogging, illegal gaming and

prostitution began to emerge as major problems. The 1920s and early thirties were the era of police agents and under cover police officers such as Frank Fahy and Joe Chuck made their reputations as masters of disguise. The twenties also saw the rise of a number of nationalist organisations in the eastern states and, early in 1931, the New Guard emerged. James Mitchell retired in 1929, being replaced by WH Childs, a more conservative administrator. With the election of a left wing Labor government in New South Wales late in 1930, right wing resentment became intense, especially in the New Guard.

Police salaries between the wars moved very little and, during the height of the Depression (as did the pay of many others) police pay actually reduced. In 1919, a first year Constable's daily rate rose from 11s to 13s 5d per day. The following year it rose again, to 14s 7d per day. Another rise occurred in 1924 when the daily rate increased to 14s 7d. Another increase of 6d per day was granted the same year. In 1927, Constables received 16s 7d per day. Fifteen years later, in 1942, it had risen to 18s 1d per day. Little wonder that employee dissatisfaction with wages was evident throughout these years.

The Depression resulted in an unfortunate additional task being placed upon country police, ie, the processing of food relief applications. The move was prompted mainly by government sentiments of economy, although it was realised local police were able to distinguish between the needy and those not in need. In the cities police were obliged to evict persons from dwellings under the Landlord and Tenant Act 1899. Both these responsibilities led to bad publicity and attacks upon police. A serious attack on police officers at Bulli in May 1931 resulted from client dissatisfaction with relief measures. In Sydney, celebrated encounters between police and tenants refusing to be evicted occurred, also in 1931, at Bankstown and Newtown. A total of 16 police officers were injured.

The New Guard was based on a returned servicemen membership. The Guard swore loyalty to the sovereign and vowed it would assist police in the event of a community led uprising. Many police officers were returned servicemen and the sentiments of loyalty expressed by the New Guard must have been attractive to them. As the New Guard grew in numbers and prominence, the Lang Labor government became concerned and directed police to take a stronger stance. Commissioner Childs was bypassed by Premier Lang who went direct to the head of the Criminal Investigation Branch, William John MacKay. MacKay had a reputation as a ruthless troubleshooter who had tamed both the toughs of East Sydney and the miners of Rothbury. MacKay promised to break the New Guard given sufficient support. A complex series of following events culminated, with the celebrated Harbour Bridge opening, at which the ceremonial ribbon was slashed by Francis de Groot of the New Guard, and the dismissal of Lang in 1932. MacKay dominated the Force and cajoled his subordinates into opposing the New Guard at every opportunity and the New Guard's eventual decline was in no small way attributable to MacKay's strong minded opposition. Childs was replaced as Commissioner by MacKay in 1935.

Bill MacKay quickly set his seal firmly upon the department and did not slacken it until his death in 1948. A great innovator, MacKay introduced a number of specialist CI squads, upgraded the CIB generally, challenged the power of the Police Association, created the Boys Club movement, initiated Cadet recruitment, instituted rural patrols together with many other initiatives. He also created the Military Police Intelligence section, which was made responsible for alien registration and internment in New South Wales at the outbreak of World War II.

By the time World War II commenced the New South Wales Police Department was relatively well trained and equipped, despite the stultifying effects of the Depression years and their concomitant financial restrictions. It compared favourably with overseas police agencies such as Liverpool and Boston. Police continued to operate efficiently during the war years. The presence of large numbers of Commonwealth and American armed services personnel in the state, especially in and around Sydney, placed a huge additional workload on the depleted agency.

Recruiting, which had reduced considerably during the Depression years stopped entirely for the duration of World War II. The depot was handed over to military personnel, mostly provost corps. Large concentrations of servicemen were accommodated in areas adjacent to Sydney and a strong military police presence was necessary. A particularly strong affiliation developed between American provost personnel and police wireless branch. Petrol shortages greatly reduced police mobile patrols and US army provost mobile patrols netted in on the police network. They were always ready to end civil police assistance and were liberal with radio spare parts which were virtually unobtainable outside the defence forces.

The end of World War II saw an effective but understaffed Police Force which had suffered not only from an almost total lack of recruits for the war period but also the loss of a large number of younger men who had been allowed to enlist in the armed forces and many of whom did not stay long after returning to the Police Force.

A massive but only partly successful recruiting campaign was undertaken. Recruit training facilities and course content which had received little attention during the Depression and war years were revised and improved. By the 1950's, training in New South Wales Police was again comparable with major overseas agencies.

The strength of the Police Force and staff shortages constituted an ongoing source of problems and conflict between the Police Association, the police administration and the government from that time until the present. The introduction of a five day 40 hour week for police employees from 1 August 1947 was not accompanied by an additional infusion of members to compensate for the fact that the 4,500 members of the force suddenly were available only five days each week instead of the previous six which laid the foundation for rostering problems which still exist.

Social and economic byproducts of World War II included a flourishing black market and an increase in vice activities. Some senior members of the force at that time and in succeeding years felt the seeds of significant police corruption were sown as a result of these occurrences. The corruption was not confined solely to the police force but is said to have included other government agencies and institutions, lawyers, politicians and others. No single agency has investigated the numerous allegations of corruption made between 1945 and peaking in the late 1970s. Certainly, the 1974 inquiry into organised crime in clubs indicated that all was not well but, little concrete action or reform flowed therefrom. Subsequent scandals involving police officers, a magistrate and politicians have for the most part also passed with little significant remedial action being taken. One exception was the 1982 demotion of a Deputy Commissioner to the rank of Sergeant (First Class) as a consequence of irregularities said to have been committed by him.

MacKay was succeeded as Commissioner of Police by James F Scott who consolidated his predecessor's recruiting program. Post World War II recruiting was slow and it took some years to reach the authorised establishment. After two recruit classes at the Bourke Street Depot, training was moved to a former RAAF base at Penrith, where it remained until the mid-1950s, when it was relocated to the Bourke Street Police Depot. Recruit training at this establishment, renamed the NSW Police Training Centre, was on a day class basis and facilities were far from satisfactory when compared with other police training establishments.

A Royal Commission sat in 1949 to investigate alleged malpractice in the liquor licensing industry which resulted in some police officers being disciplined and, ultimately, a number of changes being made to the Liquor Act 1912.

Scott suffered from recurrent ill health and was succeeded in 1952 by Colin John Delaney who served for 10 years as Commissioner. Delaney had the good fortune to rule during a period of relative social harmony even though the crime rate rose alarmingly. He made several unsuccessful attempts to change the promotion system by promotion of selected individual members but on each occasion the Crown Employees Appeal Board upheld the appeals of those passed over.

Whilst relations with the Association were fairly good, Delaney found himself at loggerheads with the Association over a number of years in the area of discipline, particularly with regard to off duty and nonwork related behaviour. He also defended the government's efforts to increase police strength against a gradually rising tide of criticism by the Association.

Considerable adverse publicity was received by the police force during the middle years of his rule involving serious allegations of a tow truck racket, allegations by a member of the Legislative Council regarding the involvement of police officers in the death of a man and, of course, the Royal Commission into the circumstances surrounding the arrest of a person named Studley-Ruxton.

Whilst Delaney was personally highly respected, he failed to combat malpractices which had become well established, including payoffs to police officers from prostitution and gaming interests. In the view of some observers both within and close to the force these and other malpractices became more deeply established throughout the sixties and on into the early seventies.

In August 1960, Norman Thomas William Allan was appointed Deputy Commissioner and from that date until his retirement Delaney delegated more and more duties to his Deputy so that by the time he retired in February 1962, Allan was the obvious choice as successor. On 27 February, Allan was formally appointed Commissioner of Police.

The centennial year of the New South Wales Police was 1962 and the week 6-13 May was set aside as Centenary Week. Numerous public events marked the occasion, including church services, parades and a civic reception.

The relative placidity of Delaney's term of office was replaced by an eventful decade experienced by his successor.

Allan's ten years in office saw the emergence of the great social issues of the late sixties and seventies - the Vietnam moratorium protests, Aboriginal Rights, Womens Liberation, Abortion Law Reform, relaxation of censorship which, whilst a long way off when he took office, burst on the New South Wales scene in quick succession accompanying the sudden and massive break with traditional values by young people; all of which placed great strains upon the police force in the field of order maintenance.

Additionally, changes in community attitudes were reflected in members of the police force and in a growing dissatisfaction by the Police Association with a lack of progress towards industrial rights and freedoms enjoyed by most other groups of workers.

Early in his rule Allan established a pattern of unsatisfactory relations with the press which dogged him for the remainder of his service. A series of much publicised events served to seriously embarrass him in the press.

The first was the furore over illegal gambling at Broken Hill, traditionally a city where such gambling had flourished for many years for a number of reasons, including its isolation and the power of local trade unions. Despite all the evidence and common knowledge of its existence, Allan reported to the Government that there was no illegal gambling in the city. Public ridicule in the press followed.

Early in 1963, the still unsolved riddle of the deaths of a man and woman known as the 'Bogle-Chandler' case occurred. A month after their deaths Allan took personal charge of the unsuccessful investigation. Few other criminal cases have attracted such sustained and widespread attention.

The Police Driver Training School, St Ives, opened in 1963.

Over succeeding years there were a number of well publicised cases involving allegations of police brutality or corruption in which Allan defended his men strongly and resisted efforts to change methods of investigating complaints against police.

In 1964, ten New South Wales police officers were seconded to Cyprus to work with UNCIVPOL. Such detachments occurred until their termination in 1975.

In 1965, female police officers were accorded regular as opposed to Special officer status and were admitted to the Police Superannuation Fund. The Police Prosecution Section was established as a separate unit, distinct from CIB in 1965.

In 1967, the Federation of Police-Citizens Boys Clubs celebrated its 30th anniversary.

Commissioner Allan's much publicised behaviour, late in 1968, in relation to the manner in which he took charge of a hostage situation involving an offender named Mellish, which culminated in him handing over to Mellish a rifle and later taking part in a marriage ceremony between the hostage taker and his victim's girl friend, was derided by the press both inside and outside Australia and lost him the respect of many police officers. The Police Association passed a censure motion and a deputation from the Association met with the Premier to protest Allan's behaviour.

In September 1968, following allegations of police involvement in a protection racket for prostitution and criticism of the delay in Allan's finalisation of reports on a number of matters, he was called before Cabinet at Parliament House and after a two hour grilling by Cabinet on issues such as police corruption, prostitution and drug trafficking, convinced Cabinet that a public inquiry was not necessary. Shortly afterwards, he challenged the Leader of the Opposition to a public debate on his allegations outside the protection of Parliament.

Allan clashed with the Police Association over a number of issues during his career, ranging from an accusation that he did not support a salary application to public disputes concerning police equipment and uniform. The most frequent cause for disagreement was his steadfast refusal to support the Association's claims that there was a serious shortage of police officers.

In his last years of office, because of the increasing pressure by the Association for the extension to police of industrial conditions enjoyed by other workers in areas such as paid overtime and penalty rates, it became necessary for the police administration to set up an Industrial Branch to handle problems of an industrial nature which until then had been primarily dealt with by the Commissioner or his senior officials.

From the original Industrial Officer has developed a large industrial and staff section to provide specialist support to the police administration.

In 1971, the New South Wales Police obtained a Univac 9400 computer, making it the first police force in Australasia to do so. It has maintained its leadership in the application of computers to administrative and operational needs ever since. An unfortunate consequence of computer application to crime statistics occurred in late 1971, when it was discovered that computer compiled crime data were inconsistent with earlier manually collated data. Commissioner Allan declined to acknowledge the possibility of defective statistics being produced by the department. Detective Sergeant (First Class) Phillip Arantz, who had been involved in researching an automated crime data collation system for the force, saw the issue as a matter of important public principle. He revealed the actual situation to the press and an uproar developed. Arantz was dismissed after earlier having been temporarily placed in a psychiatric institution. This particular tactic was widely seen as an attempt to discredit Arantz and caused considerable public disquiet. Arantz's appeal against dismissal was rejected and successive government officials have declined to reinstate him. The matter has now achieved the status of a major instance of denial of natural justice and is cited in public administration circles.

The decade following Allan's departure from Police Headquarters saw three Commissioners of Police, ie, Fred Hanson (1972-1976), Merv Wood (1976-1979) and Jim Lees (1979-1981). None of these officers were greatly reform oriented and, accordingly, certain structural problems within the organisation persisted. Eventually, the government decided to implement major reform from without.

Early in his term of office Hanson decided to implement changes to the promotion system to Inspector rank in an attempt to lessen the importance of seniority in such promotions. His actions caused considerable protest from the Police Association and it was left to Deputy Commissioner LF Newman, to negotiate with the Association on the introduction of a system of staff appraisal and an acceptable appeals system to effect the changes desired by government and the police administration. He also introduced the hotly debated Merit Rating Scheme. The Crime Intelligence Unit, later to be designated Bureau of Criminal Intelligence, was established in 1973.

In 1973, the Police Association created a Women's Police Branch but, despite the objections of female officers, the Association closed the branch in 1981. That same year policewomen were designated detectives.

A major review of police district boundaries commenced in 1974, concluding the following year. In January 1974, first year Constables received \$5,136 per annum in salary and Sergeants 3/C received \$7,484 per annum.

In 1975, the Government referred the question of whether police employees or employers should have increased access to the Industrial Tribunal to the President of the Industrial Commission. After a lengthy hearing at which the police administration strongly opposed any further access, the President recommended the

granting of greater access to the Industrial Tribunals on industrial matters.

In 1976, there was a change of government and the new Labor government legislated for greater access to the Industrial Tribunals for Police and also for a new promotion appeal system which accompanied changes in the criteria for promotion to commissioned ranks.

Relations between Commissioner Wood and the Police Association were far from happy, particularly over the problems which arose with the new promotion appeals system.

On 18 January 1977, the Granville railway disaster occurred. During the ensuing 48 hours more than 200 police officers were involved in rescue operations. The event was without doubt the greatest single disaster encountered by police and the way it was handled brought great credit upon the Force.

In the middle of 1979 following allegations of widespread police corruption, Wood unexpectedly retired and the Premier announced the appointment of a Supreme Court judge to conduct an inquiry into New South Wales Police Administration.

Mr Justice Lusher produced a report which recommended far reaching changes to almost every aspect of the administration of the Force. Many of the recommendations have been or are in the process of being implemented.

In 1979, first year Constables were paid \$13,445 per annum and, Sergeants 3/C were paid \$18,475 per annum.

New South Wales was not exempt from the campaign to reform police complaint procedures that arose in the 1960s. A State Ombudsman was appointed in 1974 with authority to investigate inter alia complaints concerning police administration. Disputes between the Ombudsman and successive Police Commissioners as to the Ombudsman's authority resulted (in part) in the passing of the Police Regulation (Allegations of Misconduct) Act 1978. Under this statute, actions of police employees are also subjected to the Ombudsman's aegis.

It was also in 1978 that the Privacy Committee examined criminal records and Special Branch records. The Committee's reports contained criticism of record keeping practices and access controls. Those criticisms were for the most part accepted and appropriate reforms implemented.

One police officer was killed and two others were seriously injured following a bomb explosion in Sydney, in the vicinity of the Hilton Hotel, on January 1978.

External upgrading of departmental computer facilities was undertaken in 1978. Warrants were placed on computer file and a criminal names index microfiche was introduced. Terminals were supplied to more than 40 locations.

The year 1978 also saw female police officers fully

integrated on the department's seniority list.

The two major events of the police year for 1979 were the reintroduction of a Dog Squad and the purchase of two force helicopters.

In 1980, the State Emergency Services and Civil Defence Act 1972 and Police Regulations Act 1899 were amended with the result that control of SES and CD in New South Wales passed into the hands of the Commissioner of Police.

Substantial reform of the law regulating conduct in public places in 1980 created widespread police rank and file dissatisfactions. Mass meetings of police employees were held at several centres in order to vent their indignation. No direct industrial action was taken by police employees but their morale suffered markedly during the year.

Cecil Abbott took over the Commissioner's baton in 1981 and it was in his term of office the Government commenced its reform initiatives which stemmed in part from the Lusher Inquiry into the police administration which had advocated a Police Commission to overview certain of the Police Force's affairs due to perceived shortages of senior management talent. That recommendation was introduced in November 1983 following sustained public criticism of the force.

The growing workload of operational police officers in NSW was highlighted in 1982 when the Police Association resorted to a massive publicity campaign in an effort to persuade the government to employ more police officers. The Association claimed the force was understrength by a staggering 4,000 positions. The Government denied the claim, asserting the number of positions needed was far fewer. During this period it became evident the Police Minister was exercising a far greater role in the conduct of the force's affairs than had ever previously been the case. This shift in balance of power from Commissioner to Minister has continued.

At the 1982 Sydney Biennale art exhibition Vice Squad officers seized a painting judged by them to be offensive. The painting was allegedly returned at the direction of the Police Minister, an action that provoked strong rank and file objections and was considered ultra vires by some commentators. The Police Association queried the power of either the Commissioner of Police or the Minister to direct a police officer in the execution of his duty. This sensitive problem concerning the original authority of Constables was unsuccessfully referred to litigation where the Supreme Court ruled the subject was too wide to be considered.

A major operational success for the Police Force commenced in 1982 with its Random Breath Testing program designed to identify intoxicated drivers. Significant reductions in road traffic fatalities resulted.

In 1983, a limited system of decentralisation was introduced in which Districts were made more accountable for local policy and administration. Vicarious liability by government in respect of police officers had heretofore existed only in respect

of employee actions and services provided under emergency conditions. S.8 Law Reform (Vicarious Liability) Act 1983 changed this situation by admitting total crown liability in respect of the tortious actions of its police employees.

Although New South Wales police has achieved considerable improvement in both operational and policy areas in recent years, the view persists in some quarters that the growing complexity of society, and limited resources associated with limited administrative capacity, has resulted in a perpetual firefighting approach to many administrative problems that presently precludes the possibility of longer term effectiveness. This sentiment is thought to be the basis of the government's approval of positional appointments within the force, an administrative innovation of historic proportions. This particular reform commenced 1984. Other major events of 1984 included the creation of a Police Board, the opening of the Police Academy at Goulburn on 1 May, the advertising of the position of Commissioner overseas and the assigning of police investigators to the Ombudsman's staff.

An important operational initiative occurred in 1984 with force approval of a comprehensive command and control electronic system for installation in the Metropolitan Police Area. Implementation should be complete by 1987.

In May 1984, first year Constables received a base wage of \$17,535 per annum and Sergeants 3/C received \$24,097 per annum, whilst first-year Inspectors 3/C were in receipt of \$34,358.

In August 1984, Executive Chief Superintendent John Avery was appointed Commissioner of Police. Commissioner Avery was selected from an open list of candidates including overseas aspirants.

Chief Officers of the New South Wales Police from inception to the present include:

John McLERIE	1862-1874	NTW ALLAN	1962-1972
EW FOSBERY	1874-1904	FJ HANSON	1972-1976
Thomas GARVIN	1904-1910	MT WOOD	1976-1979
EC DAY	1911-1915	JT LEES	1979-1981
James MITCHELL	1915-1930	CR ABBOTT	1981-1984
WH CHILDS	1930-1935	John AVERY	1984-
WJ MacKAY	1935-1948		
JF SCOTT	1948-1952		
CJ DELANEY	1952-1962		

Victoria

Robert Haldane
Senior Sergeant
Victoria Police

On 14 September 1836, the New South Wales Government Gazette announced the appointment of Captain William Lonsdale of the 4th (or King's Own) Regiment, as Police Magistrate for Port Phillip and the appointments of Robert Day as District Constable and James Dwyer and Joseph William Hooson as Constables. These men sailed from Sydney to Hobson's Bay aboard HMS Rattlesnake and commenced duty in the District of Port Phillip on 1 October 1836. They were the first policemen in a small settlement that was later proclaimed the town of Melbourne. As well as the three policemen, Lonsdale's party included soldiers and surveyors and his instructions were to 'preserve law and order, to protect the natives, to collect revenue and to survey land to be sold'.

Policing arrangements in the young settlement were beset by troubles from the outset and frequent changes in personnel occurred due to corruption, drunkenness and inefficiency. Lonsdale's small force of Constables were paid 2s 3d per day each and in 1838 he equipped them with staves and a uniform of plain blue jacket with round metal buttons, red waistcoat and blue or white trousers according to the season'. In the same year the Sydney Police Act 1833 was extended by proclamation from Sydney to Melbourne, to check annoyances such as discharging firearms, using indecent language and working on Sundays and, in the following year, Lonsdale prepared the first set of rules for the management of the Port Phillip Police.

As the population of the District steadily increased so, too, did the number of police, and stations were opened at Geelong and Portland. Policemen at these centres performed a wide variety of duties, including work as census collectors and slaughterhouse inspectors and they were responsible as much for public health and public revenue matters as they were for maintaining law and order. In 1839 a Committee of Inquiry warned against deploying policemen on extraneous duties but it was advice that was not heeded and the range of extraneous appointments and duties was added to so that they eventually numbered in the hundreds.

During the late 1830s and throughout the 1840s policing arrangements throughout Victoria were added to in ad hoc fashion so that a number of separate and distinct police forces existed. Each of these operated independently with its own source of funding and there was no communication or cooperation between the disparate forces. The main force, with upwards of 40 men was the Melbourne and County of Bourke Police which was largely funded and controlled by the Corporation of Melbourne. From 1836 to 1850 this force was headed by a motley series of District and Chief Constables, who were sometimes corrupt, often drunk and generally inefficient. The men under their command were of similar ilk and in appearance were said to resemble Falstaff's Troop 'with shocking bad hats, seedy and threadbare clothes, some with caps, and most of them with trousers of various hues, in various states

of dilapidation'. There were no mounted men in Melbourne police and officers were known to travel up to 150 miles on foot in pursuit of offenders. This was rare, however, as Constables could earn more money closer to home in special rewards paid for killing unregistered dogs. Work in the Melbourne force was of low status and the pay even lower. Constables were paid less than day labourers on the roads and former convicts were actively recruited as detectives because of their assumed knowledge of the criminal classes.

In addition to the Melbourne force, each of the rural benches of Magistrates commanded a Chief Constable and a small force of troopers and there were specific forces operating throughout the Port Phillip District, such as the Native Police, Mounted Police and Border Police.

In 1837, Lonsdale established a Native Police Corps; a mobile force of Aborigines, equipped as police and led by European officers. By this means it was hoped to minimise confrontations between Aborigines and settlers and provide a ready force for admonishment should depredations occur. Christian LJ De Villiers was appointed Superintendent on a salary of 100 pounds a year with rations and Constable Edward Freestun was appointed as his assistant. They hired a number of Aborigines and established a camp at Narre Narre Warren near Dandenong. The Aboriginal police were provided with European style clothing and food but were not paid as police. A series of administrative troubles beset the group from its inception and after a number of leadership wrangles the Corps was disbanded early in 1839. The Corps under De Villiers was not credited with being efficacious as an arm of the district constabulary, apart from some success by Aboriginal members of the Corps in tracking offenders. Of greater importance is the actual formation of the Corps as an innovative facet of the development of police services in the Port Phillip District. It was an ambitious scheme, not previously implemented in New South Wales, yet established by Lonsdale only 12 months after his arrival in Port Phillip and set against a background of abysmal failures in the use of European settlers as police officers. Lonsdale's concept met with greater success when the Native Police Corps was re-established in 1842 by Superintendent Charles Joseph La Trobe. An enlarged corps was formed under the command of Henry Edward Pulteney Dana and his unit achieved considerable success before finally disbanding in 1852.

In 1838, a detachment of mounted police was posted to Port Phillip. These police were headquartered in Sydney under the command of Major Nunn and were in fact soldiers drawn from infantry regiments serving in the colony. Commanded by army officers they were amenable to military law and drew military pay and rations. Initially, the detachment posted to Melbourne comprised one sergeant and six troopers but within a year, mounted police in the District numbered 29 men, comprising the Mounted Police Fifth Division. These troopers were pioneers who established themselves in five parties on the line of route from Port Phillip to the Hume River. It was intended they serve to secure the road from Melbourne to Sydney and for this purpose police camps were located at Geelong, Melbourne, Goulburn River,

Broken River and Hume River. At locations such as Broken River (Benalla) the Mounted Police were the first semblance of permanent European settlement and they were followed by surveyors and settlers who transformed the police camp and country around it into towns like Benalla. In many respects the mounted police were akin to the Irish Constabulary and as an armed patrolling force were effective in apprehending bushrangers and runaway convicts. They also worked for the benches of civil magistrates, serving summonses, executing warrants and escorting prisoners.

In 1839 another force of police was introduced into the Port Phillip District when it was declared the ninth district for the purpose of administering An Act Further to Restrain the Unauthorised Occupation of Crown Lands, and to provide the means of defraying the Expense of Border Police (2 Vic 27). To give effect to this statute there was formed yet another autonomous police force: the Border Police. Intended 'to prevent the aggressions, which in the absence of legal control, have invariably been found to occur between the Aboriginal inhabitants and the settlers', the Border Police was a corps of mounted police comprised entirely of well conducted prisoners of the Crown. These men worked primarily in remote and outlying areas under the control of the District Commissioner for Crown Lands. The Commissioner responsible for Port Phillip was Henry Fysche Gisborne and his men, like others in the Border Police were unpaid and worked only for rations and clothing. Such a system was not designed nor intended to attract the most capable and honest of men. Reports of Border Police committing outrages against Aborigines were frequent and squatter Edward Curr described one case where Border Police shot and killed a fleeing Aborigine who was not an offender but a reluctant police guide. In another instance, three Border Police troopers were tried for murdering two Aborigines. Such behaviour on the part of Border Police was yet another setback in efforts to police the Port Phillip District. The formation of the Border Police added to the array of police authorities and uniforms within the settlement and did little to enhance the collective image of the diverse groups labelled "police": an inappropriate generic description that was applied to no less than seven independent bodies comprised of Aborigines, free settlers, emancipists, prisoners and soldiers.

It was not until 1850 and the appointment of Evelyn Percy Shirley Sturt as Superintendent commanding police in Melbourne and the County of Bourke that meaningful reforms were introduced. Sturt was an educated man of upper class background and he at once sought to properly equip and clothe his men. His was not an easy task however as drunkenness in the police ranks was endemic, there were no entry standards, no training, and Constables came and went in the fashion of day labourers on the roads.

By the end of 1850, the population of Port Phillip had increased to 76,000 and development of the colony as a whole was gathering momentum. On 1 July 1851, Victoria separated from New South Wales and almost simultaneously gold rushes began at several locations in Victoria. The discovery of gold brought with it many problems for police. A number of police officers resigned their positions and joined the rush to the goldfields to seek their

fortunes, leaving the depleted ranks to cope with the flood of goldseekers pouring into Victoria. In the first 12 months after gold was discovered the population of Victoria doubled and in the period 1851-1854, the population of Melbourne increased four-fold. Police problems were exacerbated by the fact that nearly all the fortune seekers were able bodied males, hell-bent upon seeking gold.

The social upheaval and developments of this era found the various police bodies in Victoria unable to cope with demands for their services. Not only were police resources spread too thinly but, there was a total lack of co-ordination between the several police authorities in the Colony. The situation was conducive to crime and lawless behaviour on a wide scale and the manifestation of these problems prompted the formation of a Government Select Committee to report upon the state of the Victoria police. One of the most important witnesses was Sturt whose basic proposal, ultimately implemented, was for 'Police to extend over the whole colony, directed by one Chief, and having all the material of a well organised Department'. The Committee fully concurred with this proposal and the primary recommendation of their Report was for the organisation of such a force.

On 8 January 1853, an Act for the Regulation of the Police Force came into operation. The enactment of this legislation formally established the framework of the Victoria Police Force as a single, statewide entity. The Act marked a milestone in the history of policing in Victoria and ushered in a new era of police administration and organisation. For the first time, conditions for appointment, removal and qualifications for Constables in the Victoria Police were decreed by law. The Police Regulation Act 1853 laid the cornerstone for the future development of the Victoria Police and indeed the expressed hope of the 1852 Select Committee has been fulfilled in the development of the Victoria Police Force '... a Force ... effective in organisation and discipline to carry the Laws into execution and afford protection and security to Life and Property'.

Upon enactment of the 1853 police statute, steps were taken to unify control of the police and, on 3 January 1853, William Henry Fancourt Mitchell was appointed as the first Chief Commissioner of Victoria Police. A native of England, he was then aged 42 years and had resided in Victoria since 1842 at Barford station near Kyneton. Prior to his residence in Victoria, Mitchell had held a number of public administration positions in Van Diemen's Land, including that of writer in the Office of the Executive Council.

Vested with the task of reorganising the previously disparate and autonomous bodies, one of Mitchell's first tasks was to oversee the appointment of police officers for the colony. On forming the Victoria Police Force, all members of the various pre-existing bodies willing to accept reappointment were enrolled without the necessity for other qualification or examination. On 1 January 1853, the population of Victoria was estimated to have been marginally above 168,000 and with a force of 875 men Mitchell was working a police to population ratio in the region of 1:200.

He described this figure as being 'inadequate to the wants of the Colony' and within six months increased his force by 46, giving him a total of 1,589 men and an estimated police to population ratio of 1:100. Mitchell had more men at his disposal than did Commissioners early in the twentieth century, serving a population in excess of one million people.

Part of the increase in the size of Mitchell's Force, albeit numerically nominal, was due to the arrival of the 'London Fifty'. On 9 May 1853, Inspector Samuel Freeman, three Sergeants and 50 Constables of the London Police, arrived in Melbourne. They were volunteers who had responded to requests for police, made by a committee of colonists from Victoria to the Secretary of State for the Colonies. The colonists had asked for 50 men from the Irish Constabulary but were provided with the London Fifty instead. Reaction to the importation of English police was mixed and Mitchell was one of many people who openly expressed a preference for the Irish policing model and wanted men from the Irish Constabulary. Notwithstanding such desires the London police made their mark in Victoria and Freeman, in particular, was instrumental in reforming the beat and supervision systems in Melbourne.

In addition to this recruiting measure, the force under Mitchell continued the cadet scheme that was begun in 1852 by Superintendent Sturt of the City Police. The scheme was designed to attract men of high calibre to the force, and though 244 men joined, misapprehensions about promotions caused the system to be abandoned in 1854. It had by then largely served its purpose of providing the force with officer material and some evidence of its success is found in the fact that in 1900 both the Victorian and New South Wales police forces were commanded by men who started their police careers as Sturt's cadets.

One unit formed within the force in 1853 was a quasi-military mounted patrol, modelled on the Irish Constabulary. Its one big difference, however, was that its members were equipped with a second uniform and detailed to work as firemen should an alarm of fire be raised in the city. Decked in black leather helmets, with red shirts bound in black, those troopers not on police patrol responded to fires with their own horse drawn fire engine.

Mitchell did not stay long with the force he helped to found and one of his last acts was to commence publication of a weekly Police Gazette. First published on 30 December 1853 the Gazette has chronicled police events in Victoria ever since.

At the beginning of 1854 Mitchell left the force to embark on a long and successful political career and was succeeded by his assistant, Captain Charles MacMahon. MacMahon was an Irishman and former soldier, whose only police experience was the year he spent under Mitchell as Inspector of Police in Melbourne. MacMahon took command during difficult times and under his command the size of the force increased to 1,639 men. Due perhaps to his army background MacMahon applied excessive militaristic ideology to the force and was criticised publicly and often for placing undue

emphasis on military drill, discipline and ranks.

The criticism of MacMahon and his force reached its peak in 1854 when police combined with troops to attack and overrun the miner's stockade at the Eureka gold diggings. As a result of the Eureka rebellion, a number of miners were charged with high treason but were acquitted at subsequent court proceedings. The events surrounding Eureka proved an additional burden upon the young force striving to develop public esteem in a society born out of convict stock. Although the vast majority of the Government force at Eureka was made up of soldiers, the presence of police at the uprising was to bring forth much public indignation.

In 1856, MacMahon prepared the first Manual Of Police Regulations For The Guidance Of The Constabulary Of Victoria. This comprehensive code of over 100 pages was the forerunner of today's Standing Orders and covered almost every facet of police activity.

After several turbulent years MacMahon was succeeded as Chief Commissioner by Captain Frederick Charles Standish, on 30 August 1858. Standish, like both his predecessors, lacked previous police experience but brought with him to the force the benefit of a liberal education and experience in the Royal Artillery. When Standish assumed command the force numbered 1,260 men located at 194 stations.

Standish commanded the force until 1881 and had the unenviable task of leading the force through the administrative troubles of the 1860s and the outrages of the Kelly era in the 1870s. During the early years of his leadership he embarked upon policy of decentralisation and between 1858 and 1861, almost 40 new police stations were opened throughout the colony, including the first police station and barracks to be erected at Russell Street. The development of the force during this period did not go untroubled and during the period 1861-1863, several Select Committees inquired into the Victoria Police, particularly into the policies and practices pursued by Standish.

Under Standish's command preferential treatment was given to Irish recruits, particularly those who had served with the Irish Constabulary and by 1874, 82 per cent of a force of 1,060 men were Irish born and almost half had served with the Irish Constabulary. Another legacy of the Standish era was a lack of police training. Several attempts were made by politicians and government officials to have policemen trained but Standish always refused, expressing the belief that 'a policeman is born not made'.

In 1873 Standish sent a small party of his men to protect Chinese strike breakers at Clunes. It was the first time in Victoria that the police had openly intervened in an industrial dispute between employer and employed, and the fact that they so clearly sided with capital against labour brought forth rebuke from the government and the press.

This incident foreshadowed a period of high activity and instability for the force, that peaked during the hunt for the Kelly gang. On 26 June 1880 Ned Kelly was run to ground at Glenrowan and after trial was executed in Melbourne on 11 November 1880. The capture and conviction of Kelly did not ease the problems confronting Standish and his force, and the ghost of Kelly was to haunt the force in the form of a Royal Commission, appointed 7 March 1881.

The Royal Commission Report contained criticisms of Standish and certain of his officers and, the force as a whole was criticised because of maladministration and demoralised performance in the field. Many of the recommendations contained in the Report were acted upon and Standish was subsequently replaced as Chief Commissioner by Superintendent Hussey Malone Chomley.

The appointment of Chomley marked a milestone in the 29 year history of the force, as he was the first Chief Commissioner of Police to have been a serving policeman. Chomley joined the force on 21 September 1852 and progressed through all ranks from Cadet to Chief Commissioner. He brought to the position 30 years experience as an active police officer, and the value of this experience was reflected in the efficient and understanding manner in which he headed the force. Vested with the task of implementing many changes as a result of the Royal Commission, he gained the respect of all parties with his fair and reasoned conduct.

Two major changes implemented by Chomley as a result of the Commission's work were the merging of the autonomous detective force with the general police force and the introduction of promotion examinations. The detective branch merger took place in 1883 and was the genesis of the criminal investigation branch. The new plainclothes branch was far more accountable than the old detective force and was open to all policemen, not just a favoured few. Men in the new section were required to keep a diary of their duties, to account for all their dealings with informers and to co-operate fully with general uniform police.

These developments were followed in 1884 when on 10 January an examination was held for promotion to the rank of sergeant. This was the first such examination in the history of the Force and was followed later by an examination for promotion to officer rank. The examinations showed early promise and were regarded by many observers as evidence that police in Victoria were throwing off the illiterate, inebriate and inefficient image with which they had been labelled since the gold era.

Chomley's term of office was marked by an absence of major problems and under his command two ideas were implemented that served to enhance his image as an administrator keen to improve the efficiency and morale of the Force. In 1891 the Victoria Police Band was formed and has continued ever since as a valuable public relations medium. The second morale boosting innovation was the introduction in 1899 of a special award for bravery which is now known as the Valour Award.

Two other important developments of the Chomley era occurred in 1888. The first was the publication by Senior Constable John Barry of the Victorian Police Guide. A comprehensive work of 226 pages, it was the first work of its kind published in Victoria and remained in use for a quarter of a century.

The second development of that year occurred in spite of strong and vocal opposition from Chomley and others and that was the extension of the right to vote to policemen. Chief Commissioner MacMahon was instrumental in having his force disenfranchised in 1854 and their continued disenfranchisement was urged by Standish and Chomley, until community pressure forced the passing of the Police Enfranchisement Act 1888.

Chomley remained in command until 1902 when he was succeeded as Chief Commissioner by Thomas O'Callaghan. The appointment of O'Callaghan followed the precedent set by Chomley: O'Callaghan had progressed through the ranks of the Force and had been a policeman for 35 years. He was a prominent detective, well known throughout Victoria, but his administration faltered under the scrutiny of a Royal Commission in 1906. The Commissioners felt O'Callaghan's administration had many blemishes and even though he was criticised for not retiring at age 60 he remained in command for several more years. The Commissioners had recommended that entrance examination standards be raised, and that recruits be instructed in their duties, as well as undergoing systematic drill, first aid testing, wrestling, swimming, rowing and a musketry course. The force was entering a new era and in later years formal training was to develop from these recommendations into an integral part of equipping recruits for police service. O'Callaghan made a substantial personal contribution to new training methods by completely updating and rewriting the Police Guide. Under his command, the force first began to use fingerprints for criminal identification in 1903.

On 1 March 1910, the Motor Car Act and Regulations came into operation and the Force became the single statewide authority for licensing drivers, registering motor vehicles and enforcing all the provisions of both the Act and Regulations. It was a responsibility that not only burdened an already undermanned force but one that irreversibly altered the relationship between policemen and the ever increasing motoring section of the community.

During the first four months the Motor Car Act 1910 was in operation, the force registered 2,645 motor vehicles and licensed 3,204 drivers. By the end of 1911 those figures had grown to 4,844 registered vehicles and 5,935 drivers and within a decade they had raced to 29,354 vehicles and 34,236 drivers.

O'Callaghan retired on 31 March 1913 and was succeeded by Alfred George Sainsbury, another serving policeman. Sainsbury commanded the police during the war years of 1914-1918 and during this time the force was given responsibility for a wide range of extra Commonwealth duties including alien registrations, internments, the investigation and arrest of military deserters,

passport inquiries, naturalisation inquiries, amusement and betting tax investigations, maternity allowance inquiries and inquiries relating to soldiers' allotments to dependants.

In addition to such routine matters some members of the force worked with the Military Intelligence Section on surveillance, translating and field investigations, while others performed police duty with the Australian Expeditionary Forces in Egypt and England. The Australian Secret Service which was founded during the war in 1916 was based in Melbourne and was staffed with Victorian detectives.

All of these duties served to heighten the national consciousness of the State's police and proved beyond doubt that police were capable of fulfilling both a local and Commonwealth role.

Although the war effort occupied a great deal of Sainsbury's attention it was during his time that the force first experimented with and made extensive use of bicycles, motor cycles and motor cars.

In 1917 the decision was made to allow women to enter the force and from a long list of applicants two were selected. On 31 July 1917 Mrs Madge Connor and Miss Beers were sworn in as Victoria's first policewomen. They had no uniform, no power to arrest and in a force of 1600 men were a token presence. It was to be many decades before women in the force gained full equality with their male colleagues but Connor and Beers, aided by the war, pressure from the Trades Hall Council and women's groups, and the precedent set in New South Wales, commenced the continuum.

An equally important development of that year was the formation of the Victorian Police Association on 10 May 1917. Moves to form such a union were first begun in 1903 but were repeatedly stifled by O'Callaghan and Sainsbury in league with conservative governments. Early efforts to form a union were not totally in vain, however, as the government sought to buy industrial peace by fixing the retirement age at 60, granting two pay increases, and granting police one rest day each month. The monthly rest day introduced in 1913 gave the police a total of 12 rest days and 17 days recreational leave each year.

On 1 March 1919, Sir George Charles Thomas Steward was appointed Chief Commissioner. Steward had been founding director of the Australian Counter Espionage Bureau in 1916 and was a man with a long and distinguished career in the civil service, including service as Under-Secretary in Tasmania and private secretary to the Australian Governor-General. He was the first Chief Commissioner since Standish to be appointed from outside the force and his appointment offered a great deal of promise. Unfortunately, he died suddenly, on 11 May 1920, before he could bring his considerable administrative and military experience to bear on the force.

On 2 September 1920, Major General Sir John Gellibrand succeeded Steward as Chief Commissioner. Gellibrand was a graduate of the Royal Military College at Sandhurst, with a distinguished Army record. He brought with him valuable command experience but was frustrated in his efforts to improve the force by government budgetary constraints.

After taking command Gellibrand reported that the force of 1,738 officers was more than 250 under strength and was suffering from a lack of planning. The ratio of 116 police per 100,000 of population was well below the national average of 133 per 100,000. There were only two policewomen when Gellibrand felt there was 'work for at least twenty' and the firearms and ammunition on issue to the force dated back to 1887. Of particular concern to Gellibrand was the fact that his men held several hundred outside appointments, ranging from meteorological observer to Governor's Orderly, at a time when pressure of work forced many of them to forgo rest days and resulted in the accumulation of 1,600 unused rest days. Gellibrand tried to introduce the principles of military planning and management into the force but, needed government funds to do so. The government was intractable and its apathy ultimately forced Gellibrand to resign.

The government indifference that led Gellibrand to resign continued and was to confront Alexander Nicholson when he took command on 8 February 1922. Nicholson was a career policeman whose service was largely spent in the rural district of Ballarat and he was appointed Chief Commissioner by the Chief Secretary and Minister responsible for the police who was his local member of parliament. After Steward and Gellibrand, Nicholson was a case study in mediocrity and his appointment spanned the most volatile and disruptive era in the history of the Force. In 1923, large sections of the force took part in the only police strike in the history of the Victoria Police and as a result 636 of a total strength of 1,808 were dismissed or discharged for refusing duty. The events of 1923 culminated in another Royal Commission into the Victoria Police Force and it emerged during this time that the force was almost the only one in the federation without a pension scheme, the police to population ratio of 1:902 was the worst on the mainland, expenditure per head of population on police was the lowest in the federation, and work conditions in Victoria languished behind those in New South Wales where police not only received 3s 6d per day more than their Victorian counterparts but also enjoyed 28 days annual leave and two Sundays off each month, compared to Victoria's 17 days leave and one rest day a month.

Events surrounding the strike dominated the police scene of the era and obscured the fact that several important developments took place while Nicholson was in command. This era saw the appointment of the first four women sworn in as Constables and the full implementation of wireless patrol police vehicles.

Nicholson saw out the traumatic series of events surrounding the police strike and later resigned, to be succeeded as Chief Commissioner, on 1 September 1925, by Brigadier General Thomas Albert Blamey. Under Blamey the force was reorganised and

several reforms were instituted, including decentralisation of the women police and Criminal Investigation Branch, further development of the Wireless Patrol, formation of the Highland Pipe Band and formation of a Shrine Guard.

Blamey succeeded in bolstering the image of the force and improving efficiency following the strike. Unfortunately, his tireless and unstinting efforts were often daunted by reactionary police and hostile newspapermen.

Blamey was militaristic in his approach to police administration and was a stern disciplinarian with little time for police associations wanting to share in the decision making process. In 1930 he was successful in having the police association declared illegal and disbanded it by transferring its key figures to the remotest corners of the State. A more subdued association was soon reformed but Blamey had made his mark.

Much to the chagrin of some members, Blamey experimented with promotion by merit and at every turn was criticised by a press keen to see his demise. The press waited patiently, and their opportunity came in 1936 when Superintendent John O'Connell Brophy, of the Criminal Investigation Branch, was shot in unusual circumstances. In an error of judgment Blamey sought to suppress the full facts of the incident. His efforts to conceal the truth inflamed the publicity given to the shooting and resulted in a Royal Commission. As a result of the Royal Commission, Blamey later resigned.

Blamey was followed as Chief Commissioner by Alexander Duncan who was appointed on 7 February 1937. Duncan had been a Chief Inspector in the London Metropolitan Police and prior to his appointment in Victoria, had in 1936 inquired into and reported to the Government concerning the administration of the Victoria Police Force. Duncan was an innovative administrator who, like Blamey, was often criticised by reactionary members. Under Duncan the Force was reorganised and its efficiency greatly enhanced, particularly with respect to criminal investigation and service to the public. Like some of his predecessors, Duncan was to find his task not all plain sailing. World War II placed increased burdens upon the workload of police, whilst at the same time depleting its ranks and draining the supply of recruits. During the war, the Police Communications Center was the ARP Control Centre for Victoria, and all precautionary air raid warnings issued in Victoria were transmitted through it. In addition, police controlled lighthouses around the coast and armed Services police units were all linked with police communications. Wartime demands such as these necessitated special measures and, in July 1940, the Police Auxiliary Force was formed as a national security measure. In Victoria it comprised 2,500 men over military age, who were sworn in throughout the State and attached to police stations. They were issued with a badge, baton, arm band, books of instruction and a note book, and received a comprehensive course of training in police and air raid precaution work. In addition to the men, some 200 young women were sworn in as members of the Women's Police Auxiliary Force and another 50 were appointed for full time duty as car drivers, clerks, telephonists

and the like. The Auxiliaries, as they were called, performed a most useful service and released a number of male members for active police duty.

After the war the police force returned to full peace time police operations. Widespread advertising served to bolster the police ranks with returned servicemen and the force was quickly back to full operational strength. In 1945 and 1946, a new police uniform, incorporating a lapel fronted tunic, to be worn with collar and tie and cloth cap, was gradually phased in. Simultaneous with the changes in headgear, the force for the first time adopted the use of an official badge, incorporating the service number of the wearer. In 1946, Duncan also created a Public Relations Office and a Press Bureau. These appointments recognised the need to maintain close affinity with the media and to foster good public relations and in furtherance of these aims Duncan published an annual report; the first Chief Commissioner in over seventy years to do so! The year 1946 was also the one in which the system of granting Victoria Police officers one day off duty in every seven was implemented. This change eased the work strain on police but necessitated an increase of 380 men in the police strength to compensate for the reduced number of days worked.

In 1946, when Duncan published his first annual report, the actual strength of the force was 2,188 and the police to population ratio 1:737. There were 388 police stations in Victoria and the force used 132 motor vehicles and 101 troophorses.

Duncan, an accomplished police administrator who made a great contribution to the Victoria Police Force, retired in 1954. He was followed into the role of Chief Commissioner by Major General Selwyn Havelock Watson Craig Porter, who commenced duty on 1 January 1955. Porter had no previous police experience but was a distinguished public administrator with an excellent army record. Like his predecessor he proved adept at innovation and strove to improve the image and efficiency of the Force. During his first year in office he introduced the Chief Commissioner's Certificate as an award for sustained good service. In May the Police Life news magazine was first published and the first squad of 27 junior police trainees commenced training at the Police Depot. The advent of junior police trainees heralded a new era in police recruiting and training, and led to the development of an extensive system of police cadet training. It was also in 1955 that new efforts were made to curb the road toll. The Vehicle Safety Testing School was opened under the leadership of First Constable Arthur Mason, and during the same period the force instituted the Courtesy Squad, to promote goodwill between motorists. 1955 also saw the Force for the first time adopt stratosphere blue as the uniform colour for all police vehicles.

The years of Chief Commissioner Porter's command were marked by innumerable new concepts and changes. In 1956 he gained approval to introduce a Police Reserve comprised of retired Constables and First Constables who rejoined the force to relieve younger members for active duty. In 1957 the Accident Appreciation Squad was formed and, on 1 August of that year, Dr John Birrell was appointed as Police Surgeon. The following year

the Police Officers' College at 'Airlie', South Yarra, was opened and for the first time in the history of the force senior police were given training in a range of management subjects to prepare them to manage a force of thousands with a multi million dollar budget. It was an innovation that was long overdue and was belated recognition of the urgent need of the force to professionalise its approach to policing. Significantly, every Victorian Commissioner since Porter has been appointed from within the force and has been an 'Airlie' graduate.

Porter died in office during 1963 and was succeeded as Chief Commissioner, on 15 October 1963, by Rupert Arnold. Arnold had served in the force since 1924 and after the appointments of Blamey, Duncan and Porter, was the first Chief Commissioner for almost forty years to have risen through the ranks. Arnold had a good knowledge of the requirements of the force and implemented a number of changes, including the appointment of Assistant Commissioners and the introduction of the Boat Squad. It was during Arnold's term as Chief Commissioner that the Victoria Police Force first selected personnel to participate in peace keeping duties on the island of Cyprus. The force supplied members for a number of years and each contingent was to play a significant role in the prevention of civil disturbances in that country.

Arnold was followed to the post by Noel Wilby, who was promoted to Chief Commissioner on 1 February 1969. Wilby was another policeman who had served the force for many years, and it was with the benefit of his experience that in 1970, he oversaw the phasing out of the Wireless Patrol and the introduction of the Crime Car Squads.

Also in 1970, Wilby formed an Information Systems Division to develop police computer operations. During October and November 1971, extensive trials were undertaken with the object of demonstrating some of the advantages of a computer in a practical police environment. The trials involved the recording and checking of stolen vehicles and during the four week trial period recoveries of stolen cars increased by 241 per cent.

Illness interposed into the career of Wilby, and on being declared medically unfit on 12 May 1971, he left the force. His term of office as Chief Commissioner was a brief one that reduced the level of his impact upon the force. During his term of office, Sir Eric St Johnston, formerly Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Constabulary for England and Wales, arrived to enquire into all aspects of policing in Victoria in a manner similar to the inquiry of Chief Inspector Duncan in 1936.

The St Johnston Report was formally presented to the government on 22 February 1971, and with its publication a new era of development and change began for the Victoria Police. The recommendations contained in the Report were far reaching and Inspector John Ronald George Salisbury was appointed head of the new Inspectorate and Future Plans, which was given the task of implementing the St Johnston recommendations. On 11 October 1971, Reginald Jackson was appointed Chief Commissioner and was to

head the force during the period when these changes were implemented. The St Johnston Report contained in excess of 180 recommendations and one of the most fundamental was that which called for the reorganisation of the State's police districts. In March, 1971, the force was reorganised into six departments; Crime, Operations, Traffic, Services, Personnel and Administration. The first five were headed by an Assistant Commissioner: the Administration Department is a public service group headed by a civilian Director of Administration. Though these changes had an important impact upon the Force, many other developments were implemented by Jackson and his administration during the period 1971 to 1977.

An Internal Investigations Bureau was established, and this was soon followed by the establishment of a Computer Systems Division, Dog Squad, and Police Air Wing.

On 18 March 1975, Barry Watson Beach was directed, by Order in Council, to inquire into allegations against certain members of the force. One hundred and thirty one complaints were received by the Board and adverse findings were reached against 55 police officers. However, no member of the force was convicted of a criminal offence as a result of the Inquiry.

On 13 June 1977, Sinclair Imrie Miller was appointed to succeed Jackson. Like his three immediate predecessors Miller was a serving policeman with a record of sound service in the force. Born at Flemington, Victoria, on 13 October 1926 he later attended Melbourne Boys' High School. From 1945-1947 he served as a trooper in the AIF with the First Armoured Car Squadron and then, on 5 November 1947, joined the Victoria Police Force. He has held a number of appointments within the force, and has been Officer in Charge of the Gaming Branch, Vice Squad and Detective Training School. In 1967 he was awarded a Churchill Fellowship to study detective training in the United States of America, France and the United Kingdom. Whilst in America he attended the 79th Session of the Federal Bureau of Investigation National Academy; the first Australian to attend the national course. On 1 January 1971, he was awarded the Queen's Police Medal and that same year attended the Senior Command Course at 'Bramshill', the British National Police College. Following this extensive overseas training, he was appointed Assistant Commissioner (Operations) on 11 October 1971 and, Assistant Commissioner (Crime) on 19 November 1976, from which position he was promoted Chief Commissioner.

The force under Miller's command has seen many changes including the appointment of an additional Assistant Commissioner and the formation of a Research and Development Department, the appointment of a Police Psychologist and an Industrial Liaison Officer, the purchase of a police helicopter, the expansion of the Bureau of Criminal Intelligence, the introduction of task force policing, and the greatly increased use of new communications and computer technology.

The force has also exercised new initiatives in the field of community relations and major activities which have proven successful on a large scale include the Safe House and

Neighborhood Watch Programs and Police-Community Involvement Program. These innovations, coupled with the redeployment of Crime-Car Squad and Community Policing Squad personnel have resulted in a return to the notions of traditional community-police co-operation.

In 1980 the force formulated an Organisational Philosophy suited to the 1980s and beyond. The tenets espoused therein are nevertheless largely traditional and the concluding paragraph reflects in cogent form the enduring reasons why the force was first formed 'a visible Statewide service, around the clock, offering assistance to citizens in genuine need of help, whatever the cause. The Victoria Police Force exists to provide an effective, professional service to the people of Victoria, in the fields of crime, traffic, public order and social welfare'.

Chief Officers of the Victoria Police from inception to the present include:

WHF MITCHELL	1853 - 1854	Alexander NICHOLSON	1922 - 1925
Charles McMAHON	1854 - 1858	TA BLAMEY	1925 - 1937
FC STANDISH	1858 - 1881	Alexander DUNCAN	1937 - 1954
HM CHOMLEY	1881 - 1902	SHWC PORTER	1954 - 1963
Thomas O'CALLAGHAN	1902 - 1913	Rupert ARNOLD	1963 - 1969
AG SAINSBURY	1913 - 1919	Noel WILBY	1969 - 1971
GCT STEWARD	1919 - 1920	Reginald JACKSON	1971 - 1977
John GELLIBRAND	1920 - 1922	SI MILLER	1977 -

Queensland

Garry Hannigan
Senior Constable
Queensland Police

The explorer Oxley's discovery of the Brisbane River and his subsequent favourable report on Moreton Bay led the New South Wales government to establish a Queensland settlement. On 10 September 1824, the new colony's first settlers, about 40 convicts accompanied by a detachment of troops sailed from Sydney on the Amity arriving at Redcliffe. Settlement was made in the area which now encompasses the City of Brisbane. Until 1842, when the civil government began to function, the enforcement of law and order in the districts within reach of Brisbane was the sole responsibility of the various Military Commandants:

Captain Millar	1824-25
Captain Bishop	1825-26
Captain Logan (57 Regt)	killed 1830
Captain Clunio (17 Regt)	1830-35
Captain Fyans (4 Regt)	1835-37
Major Cotton (28 Regt)	1837-39
Lieutenant Gravatt	1839
Lieutenant Gorman	1839-42 (Resigned)

In 1842, Dr Simpson, Chief Commissioner of Crown Lands, assumed control from Lieutenant Gorman while awaiting the arrival, on 14 November, of the Shamrock conveying Captain JC Wickham. Wickham was appointed the first Police Magistrate, having under his control a Chief Constable and five constables and being responsible for the Moreton Bay area.

Mr F Walker took over this position in 1848 and Mr G Murray, in the position of Chief Magistrate of Brisbane, followed from 1860 to 1864.

While the scene in the main settlement of Brisbane appeared to be orderly, this was not the case in the outlying districts. In 1833, there were 1,128 bond male and 30 bond female convicts in the Brisbane settlement. By 1837, there was a total of 300; with convictism eventually ending in 1839. Continued decline of the convict population was marked with an influx of stockmen with drays, flocks and herds. These settlers were attracted by the prospect of riches to be obtained from new pastures and quickly settled the outlying districts of the Darling Downs, the Logan and Albert areas, and the Upper Brisbane and Burnett Valleys. It was from these areas that there continued to arrive in Sydney news of outrages by natives and, on the other hand, rumours of atrocities by squatters.

On 14 February 1839, New South Wales Governor, Sir George Gipps, opened an extraordinary session of the Legislative Council of the Colony. A Bill which came to be known as the 'Squatting

Act' was eventually enacted on 22 March 1839. The legislation, among other provisions, gave authority for the proclaiming of border districts adjacent to and beyond the limits allocated for location; for the appointment of a Commissioner (being a Justice of the Peace) in each border district and a Border Police force under orders of and attached to the Commissioner of each border district. Until 1844, Border Police ranks were largely composed of former military convicts.

On 20 June 1846, each Commissioner was directed by a confidential circular from the Colonial Secretary's office to discharge such men of the Border Police as were in receipt of pay from the Government. A discretionary power was left with each Commissioner to retain 'until further orders' a portion of these men, not exceeding one half, where any collision had lately taken place or might be apprehended between the white population and the aborigines. After the disbanding of the Border Police, the policing of the districts of Moreton Bay, Darling Downs as well as districts later proclaimed, was left to small groups of Constabulary. This situation paralleled that in rural New South Wales. Each group of constabulary was attached to a Court of petty sessions. During the period up to 1848 five districts were proclaimed in what is now known as Queensland: (1) Moreton Bay, (2) Darling Downs, (3) Maranoa, (4) Burnett, and (5) Wide Bay.

On 17 August 1848, a Native Mounted Police Force was established. Frederick Filibuster Walker was appointed Commandant of the Corps. The body was raised for the protection of settlers of the Condamine and Burnett districts against raids by Aborigines. Walker's second in command was Lieutenant Marshall. It was hoped the force would not only check the collisions between the white inhabitants and Aborigines but also attempt to introduce more civilised habits among the native tribes. Aboriginal troopers were all recruited in New South Wales, it was believed they would not desert as they were so far from home. It was also considered they would not become friendly with Queensland Aborigines because of tribal differences. Despite these efforts police officers never trusted their Aboriginal troopers. When in company, troopers were required to ride in front and they were never issued with revolvers.

In 1848, the Police Act Amendment Act (11 Vic 44) was passed giving country towns a police force each but, as there were no Police Magistrates available, Justices of the Peace were given Police Magistrate powers. Authority was given to Justices to attest police within their respective jurisdictions. By this time Courts of Petty Sessions were being held at various places throughout the territory, ie, Moreton Bay, Ipswich, Cressbrook and Darling Downs. Police officers appointed under this statute had authority only within the particular districts in which they were appointed.

In 1850, a statute (14 Vic 38) was passed whereby a Constabulary was established and placed under the direction of an Inspector-General of Police.

In 1853, a number of other statutes were passed further extending powers of police in Queensland. On 19 August, Act

17 Vic 30 was passed giving police authority to act in any part of the colony. Another Act, 17 Vic 30, passed on 24 October 1853, made provision for the enlistment of police officers in England and Ireland for duty in the colony. Recruits were provided free passage out, and could bring their families free of charge. The Act also provided a penalty of six months detention for desertion or insubordination.

On 6 June 1859, it was announced Queen Victoria had issued Letters Patent establishing a new Colony, naming it 'Queensland'. Queensland separated from New South Wales on 10 December 1859. A proclamation, dated 24 December 1859, stated inter alia that laws in force at the time of the proclamation were to be continued except in so far as they were varied or repealed. At the time of separation the population of the Colony of Queensland was 23,520 persons with one third resident in Brisbane. There was no railway or telephone line, one formed dirt road and bullock wagons were still the major means of transport.

During 1860-63, George Murray, Acting Police Magistrate, was appointed to take charge of police forces in Brisbane. He is said to have carried out his duties as head of the police force very efficiently, despite criticism and charges of cruelty. On 13 January 1860, Edric Norfold Vaux Morrisset was appointed Inspector General of Police for Queensland. There was, however, no uniform control over police throughout the colony. Morrissett had three lieutenants, 11 second lieutenants, nine sergeants and 120 troopers under his direct control. Members were uniformed in dark green trousers complete with red stripes, dark green shirts and black caps with red bands.

The police force of Queensland as a colony-wide force was established on 1 January 1864, following proclamation of the Police Act 1863. Officers already in the force became Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors. Qualifications for joining were swimming, fighting, scouting and reading. Much of the preparation and planning of the new force was stimulated by the Governor, Sir George Bowen.

The population of Queensland at the time was approximately 61,647 and the police force numbered 150, ie, one police officer for every 409 people.

The first Commissioner of Police was David Thompson Seymour, a native of Ireland. He had been for some time Aide de Camp to Governor Bowen. The Act of 1863 provided the Queensland Police Force with a Commissioner of Police 'who shall under the direction of the Colonial Secretary be charged with the superintendence of the police force, including the native police'.

It was the Governor's responsibility, with the advice of the Executive Council, to appoint Inspectors and Sub Inspectors who were subject to the control and authority of the Commissioner of Police. He was respectively charged with 'the government, direction and superintendence, of the Police Force stationed within the districts to which they shall be respectively assigned'.

Police Magistrates originally served as Inspectors of Police but this system was abolished on 24 June 1870. Thereafter, commissioned officers were promoted from the ranks. There were two classes of Inspector - first and second class. Distinction between the ranks was roughly accorded with the importance of the district to which they were attached and to length of service.

Inspectors enjoyed wide powers within their districts. The Commissioner relied almost entirely on reports submitted by the various Inspectors when considering questions of promotion.

There were three classes of Sergeant, ie, Senior Sergeant, Sergeant and Acting Sergeant. Senior Sergeant was the highest rank of non-commissioned officer, while Acting Sergeant replaced the rank of Senior Constable in 1896. The lowest rank in the force was that of Constable. Shortly after the rank of Senior Constable was abolished Commissioner Parry-Okeden introduced what he described as a 'new distinction', that of First Class Constable. Such a person was a man of long service and whose record manifested good conduct. The length of service usually amounted to approximately 12 years and a small allowance of sixpence a day was paid.

The Commissioner of Police possessed under the legislation the right to appoint Sergeants and Constables to any vacancies which occurred, although it remained the exclusive right of Parliament to increase numbers in the force. The establishment was fixed annually in the estimates. The Commissioner was subject to the Colonial Secretary and possessed no power of dismissal without the approval of that Minister.

At the time of its formation the force was divided into districts. It was a general rule that each district was controlled by an inspector who would act as the liaison between his district and the Commissioner in all matters.

From the outset, the colony was divided in four police divisions, each being assigned police detachments. The northernmost police station at the time was Bowen and furthest west was Roma. Native police detachments farthest to the north were at Bowen and those farthest west were at Warrego River.

Commissioner Seymour employed a system of designating each district with a letter of the alphabet. The districts did not remain fixed and unaltered, though. They varied in the sense that certain towns were occasionally reassigned to different districts and, as settlement advanced, this requirement necessitated the reallocation of district boundaries. The most significant departure from the norm was the creation of the Criminal Investigation Branch as a sub-district in 1898.

The detective force had been instituted in 1864 under the control of Sub-Inspector Lloyd, a former Victoria Police officer. Commissioner Parry-Okeden decided it would be more efficient if the detective force was reorganised and made into a district branch. Inspector Urquhart was placed in charge.

By 1874, the colony of Queensland comprised 48 police districts which were grouped into nine Inspector's areas. From 1875 onwards, detachments of native police were progressively replaced by European police officers assisted by trackers.

Salary

Salary was the most frequently voiced grievance of police officers from the outset of the force. The most significant factors influencing resignations were poor pay and conditions. The validity of the complaint can be seen in the disparity in salaries paid to prison warders and police officers in 1910. A prison warder after four years service was paid £120 per year for salary, £36 per year as a maintenance allowance and a uniform valued at seven pounds, making a total of £163. A Police Constable after the same length of service received £122 per year for salary and £18 per year ration allowance for a total of £140.

With respect to superannuation, there was a big disparity in what police in Queensland and New South Wales received. A Constable after 30 years service received £63 14s 7d per year, whilst his New South Wales counterpart received £136 17s 6d. Disparity in the superannuation of Sergeants was even more pronounced. A Sergeant in Queensland after 30 years service received £67 1s, while New South Wales Police Sergeants received £182 10s 0d.

Hours

Police officers worked seven days a week. The only rest day was the granting of every second Sunday. One shift was worked per day and was of nine hours duration.

Leave was granted infrequently. For example, Patrick Short who became Police Commissioner in 1925 had no leave from 1907 to 1915. The long periods without leave was blamed for many health problems of police. Of the 146 police officers who retired between 1901 and 1910, 77 applied to be examined by the Medical Board and were subsequently certified as unfit for further service. In addition, 33 were ordered to go before the Medical Board and were also classified as unfit for further service.

Gold

Queensland, like the other eastern colonies, had gold discoveries. The discovery of gold whirled Queensland into a social and economic revolution. Some of the effects of that revolution are recorded below.

The Clermont gold escort murder

The murder of two police officers by the Gold Commissioner, Thomas John Griffin, of the Clermont gold escort is one of the most notable events in Queensland history.

Originally, a member of the Irish Constabulary and subsequently a member of New South Wales Police, Griffin was appointed in 1863 to be the Gold Commissioner and Police Magistrate at Clermont. For four years he occupied this position and then, following a public petition, he was demoted to the position of Assistant Gold Commissioner stationed at Rockhampton.

In November 1867, it was found Griffin had murdered the gold escort, Constables John Francis Power and Patrick William Cahill. He was tried in March 1868 and, upon his conviction, was hanged.

It seems Griffin had previously misappropriated monies entrusted to him by Chinese miners who threatened to expose him. To settle his debt with the Chinese, he stole £270 before the escort left Rockhampton and paid them. Thereupon he shot the escort and hid the remainder of the £4,000. An eternal optimist, he attempted to bribe the warders before his execution. Subsequently, the money was found.

Miners riot at Charters Towers

Men sought quick fortunes on the gold fields in ways other than goldmining. One such was a Charters Towers butcher named Trevethan who held a monopoly of meat supplies. When he raised the price of his already costly meat there was an ugly reaction by miners.

On the night of 2 November 1872, a mob of drunken miners pulled down Trevethan's shop and were arrested and locked up by police.

This action by police provoked others and later that evening an armed mob of hundreds of miners moved on the jail and confronted the authorities, demanding the release of the prisoners.

So dangerous was the situation that a special dispatch was sent to Ravenswood, from which location Gold Warden Hill with five police officers left immediately for Charters Towers. The mob dispersed after substantial bail was offered by a character called Roaring Annie who conducted one of the notorious 'grog shanties'.

However, on 4 November when the court assembled in a local public house, some 3,000 rioters assembled to demand their own justice on Trevethan, who was to give evidence.

It seems that prompt action by police prevented Trevethan being lynched by the mob. As it was, he drew his revolver and firing point blank at the crowd, wounded three of them. The famous Roman Catholic Bishop Quinn exhorted the mob to order.

Trevethan was surreptitiously smuggled out of Charters Towers and when the angry mob found their quarry had escaped, they went on a rampage in the town. A large contingent of police was dispatched from Brisbane to arrest the ring leaders.

The incident indicates police were concerned about maintaining justice, although they won no respect from the mob by their action.

Race trouble on the fields

All gold fields were plagued by white-Chinese conflict. However, in many places, Chinese fought amongst themselves and added a further dimension to law and order problems.

The Palmer River goldfields became the battle ground for severe fights between the Cantonese and Macao Chinese. It is estimated there were approximately 8,000 of them in the late 1870s. They formed rival camps carrying out their own ideas of justice and made life extremely difficult for the handful of police stationed in that area.

Strikes and lock outs

During the period under consideration there were a number of serious strikes and lock outs in all the eastern colonies which almost developed into civil war. The shearers' strikes of 1891 and 1894 and the Brisbane general strike of 1912 are among the better known but, are merely high points of a disturbed era in labour relations. The period culminated in the notable Bolshevik riot of 1919.

These years witnessed the birth of the socialist movement, the struggle between capital and labour ending in victory for the conservatives. They also were years when left wing thinking bit deeply into the minds of radical intellectuals.

The strikes involved workers of many industries - shearers, miners and seamen. Through all the variations of particular issues, the struggle was essentially between employers' insistence on 'freedom of contract' and the union demand for the 'closed shop', ie, for collective bargaining by the union on behalf of all workers. In all cases the unions were defeated and obliged to return to work on the employers' terms.

The position of police with regard to strikes was unenviable since they were in fact standing between two extremes - the strikers on the one hand and the employers on the other. Police were open to accusations and complaints from all sides. In addition, police were encumbered in a number of strikes by 'specials' - civilians sworn in specifically for service during emergency. These 'specials' were particularly despised by the strikers and this hatred was often generalised to regular police personnel.

Perhaps the most serious incident of the Shearers' Strikes occurred at the Coomb-Martin Station on 24 July 1894. There was a dispute between shearers and pastoralists over the signing of an agreement. Anticipating trouble a party of police appeared on the scene. The Longreach Central Standard claimed 'police appeared on the scene armed as if in time of riot...all the policemen carried a rifle and a revolver...police panicked using rifle butts'.

Prior and Ashford, two prominent unionists, took up positions on each side of the station and attempted to dissuade the men from signing. In the midst of the confusion Ashford was shot. Sub-Inspector Carr felled two men, one of whom was Prior and, seeing a revolver on the ground, arrested Prior. Ashford, however, accused Carr of having used the revolver and the unionists became threatening. Carr gave his revolver to Sergeant Malone to ascertain whether a shot had been fired from it. The newspaper correspondent claimed that Malone was asked if Carr was under arrest, to which Malone replied, 'Yes, I am in charge here now'.

Malone later admitted that he said Carr was under arrest but claimed he did so merely to placate the unionists. He further claimed that he had Carr escorted to a nearby shed by two Constables for the Sub Inspector's own protection.

The result of the trial held in Rockhampton before Judge Real was that Prior was convicted of shooting with intent to do grievous bodily harm. He was sentenced to six years penal servitude.

A further outcome of the case was the conviction of four of the witnesses for the defence for perjury and their imprisonment for various terms. A libel case, Carr v Telegraph, arising out of the same disturbance resulted in a victory for the plaintiff, damages £50.

Police initiated their own inquiry and Commissioner Seymour, in a telegram to the Colonial Secretary, asked for Inspector Carr's transfer and Sergeant Geraghty replaced him at Longreach.

Generally, police action in strikes seemed not to be based on general rules. However, on 22 February 1909, Commissioner Cahill issued a memorandum which laid down explicit rules for police action during a strike. The rules were addressed to Inspectors in Charge of Districts:

...In dealing with strikers, you must be guided by the general principle that a man on strike unless and until he becomes a law breaker, is in no different position as far as police are concerned, to any other citizen - he is amenable to and under the protection of the law just as he was before he went on strike - no more, no less.

It is therefore necessary that, while taking every precaution, ordinary prudence would dictate to prevent breaches of the peace, to protect property and preserve public order, police should refrain from all action of an irritating nature, such as an unnecessary display of strength, hasty arrest or unduly rough handling of men who may be only boisterous and unruly without a dangerous degree of disorder.

Nevertheless, there is to be no weakness in dealing with actual or definitely threatened breaches of the law. Precipitate action is to be avoided and patience is to be exercised, but when action becomes necessary it is to be taken, promptly and firmly.

The great strikes sparked off intense debate on the matter of the role of the state. Doctrinaire thinkers like William Lane and many workers believed that government had intervened in the strikes out of a 'conspiracy' with the capitalists and that the government had provoked lawlessness by design through the wholesale arrest of union officials. This, they argued, was a tactic to enable the government to use force to destroy the unions. On that other hand, Sir Samuel Griffith vehemently argued strikes were organised attempts to override the reign of law and order and accused the organisers of 'irresponsible tyranny'. He emphasised it was the duty of every civilised government to secure the freedom of its citizens.

The general strike of 1912 is one of the most significant aspects of Queensland history. According to leading Queensland historian, Alan Morrison, it 'almost entirely paralysed a capital city and was one of the few such strikes the world has known'. The population of Brisbane at the time was 140,000.

The dispute arose initially out of the attempts by employees of the Brisbane Tramway Company to organise a union - attempts which were strongly resisted by the manager of the Company, Mr Badger.

The dispute first involved police on 15 January 1912, when unionists were given the choice between wearing a union badge or working. Most of the unionist chose the former with the result that no trams ran after 7 p.m. each night.

The same night a crowd estimated at 10,000 appeared in Market Square (now King George Square) to hear speeches from federal and state Labour members and from union leaders, and on the following nights other large meetings took place in the Square, and at various parts of South Brisbane and at Red Hill.

However, on 30 January, during a procession, there were some serious incidents and a shot was fired near North Quay. The government then decided to grant no further permits for processions and issued a 'proclamation entirely prohibiting them'. Special Constables were recruited from both city and country.

The government thus placed police in a serious position. It seemed inevitable unionists would attempt a procession. They did so on the next day, later to be known as 'Black Friday'. Clashes during the procession were fierce and batons were used freely by the police and mounted police were employed to break up groups of demonstrators. Stones were thrown, placards were used as weapons and when a procession of women became caught between police and the demonstrators, the women used their hat pins on the police horse. Commissioner Cahill was thrown from his horse which had been pricked by a hat pin; although some believed his misfortune the result of bad horsemanship.

Subsequent meetings by unionists revealed bitter feelings toward police. In fact, on 6 February, union leader Collins told a meeting outside the Trades Hall:

You need not trouble about that legalised butcher, Commissioner Cahill, as he had enough to think about concerning the women and children that they (the police) so brutally maltreated on Friday.

Denham the Premier, at a public meeting at Corinda in 1915, referred to the 1912 strike, claiming 'that he and not Major Cahill was responsible for all the action to suppress it'. However, he also said that he gave the Commissioner power 'to act promptly without his instructions if he considered the exigencies of the case warranted it'.

It would appear then that Cahill acted with the support, if not under the express directions, of the government rather than completely on his own initiative as some critics would have it.

There was such rancour about the strike that the 1912 election was fought on the question of law and order. Premier Denham was returned with an increased majority.

Of significance is the Address in Reply by the Deputy Leader of the Labor Opposition, EG Theodore:

Men who are dissatisfied and have come to the conclusion that the ordinary methods of improving their conditions for securing redress of their grievances are not suitable to the occasion have to resort to other means, even to violence.

He claimed government, and certainly police, should not have interfered as the strikers were, on the whole, orderly.

There was an exceptionally nasty situation on 23 March 1919 when police clashed with marching unionists who were protesting against continuance of the War Precautions Act 1914.

The march was to begin at the Trades Hall and end with a meeting at the Domain. During the march red flags were unfurled and when the marchers reached their destination they found a line of police and mounted men in front of closed gates.

Tempers simmered and that night a meeting was held at William Street, North Quay and, as word of the red flag incident spread, a crowd of some 5,000 people assembled. A large proportion of the crowd, who were returned soldiers, marched to the Russian Headquarters in Merivale Street, South Brisbane, shouting 'Down with the Bolsheviks'. As they approached the club they were met with a volley of bullets from some 60 Russians positioned inside the club. The returned soldiers, on the advice of police, eventually dispersed. However, next day there was an 'anti-Russian' demonstration and clash with the police in which 14 police, four returned soldiers and one civilian were bayoneted, bludgeoned or shot. The injured included FC Urquhart (Commissioner of Police) and Mr Archdall (Chief Police Magistrate).

An anti Bolshevik Society was formed and demonstrations of

up to 20,000 occurred almost daily for two to three weeks. Public houses were made to close at 2 p.m. one day because of the situation.

Rallies of returned men were held in several places throughout Queensland. A demonstration in Parliament was directed against EG Theodore (later to be Labor Premier) who was pro-left. The Trades and Labor Council stood behind the Russians as well, as did the AWU. Soldiers claimed police took sides with the Bolsheviks.

Royal Commissions, 1889 and 1899

In 1889, a Royal Commission was held into Public Service conditions generally. Matters relevant to pay, marriage, transfers and promotions as they affected police were discussed.

The Royal Commission's ruling on pay was:

Very strong and united efforts have been made by the men from every district to secure our recommendations for increased pay, in conformity with that ruling in New South Wales which is about one shilling per day in excess of the Queensland rate. Upon close examination, the delegates failed to give any substantial reason in support of their demands, beyond the fact that the neighbouring colony pay the higher rate.

The Commissioner proposed the following with respect to the length of service before a man could marry:

Married men though perhaps on the whole more reliable and steady than single men, are not so readily available for transfers and with our recommendation for residence allowance, they will be a greater expense to the department. We therefore recommend that the present term of two years for permission to marry be extended to three years.

This proposal was adopted and later extended to four years. Commissioner Parry-Okeden justified this extension before the 1899 Royal Commission 'because of the large country we have, and...the fact that we have not the barracks for married men. There is also the expense of moving them about. It impairs the mobility of the Force'.

This new regulation remained in force until November 1915 when it was ruled that permission to marry 'will be granted to Constables when one year has elapsed from the date of their enrolment in the force'. The matters relative to transfers and promotions have been discussed elsewhere.

The Commission also recommended that clerical work be carried out by trained police officers, who were subject to police discipline and discretion, rather than by salaried clerks not so restrained and influenced.

Another recommendation was that a pass in a prescribed examination in Police Duties was a prerequisite for promotion to the rank of Sergeant.

Within ten years another Royal Commission was held. This time it was charged with an inquiry into the constitution, administration and working of the Criminal Investigation Branch and the general organisation, control, discipline and efficiency of the Force.

The inquiry concentrated on 'such evidence as would tend to show whether the police force was in such a state of organised efficiency so to successfully cope with heinous crimes following in quick succession'.

The crimes referred to were the death of Stephen Hill, a boy aged 16 years, the Gatton murders and the Woolloongabba house fire.

Stephen Hill left his home in Nundah on 10 December for his destination, Goodna. He was reported missing on 14 December. His body was found in scrub at Oxley on 7 January 1899. It appears police refused to believe in the possibility of mishap, preferring to think that the boy had run away from home. The finding of the Commission was that the boy's father was 'bandied about from police office to police office'.

The Gatton murders are still widely discussed. On 27 December 1898, the bodies of three members of the Murphy family (Michael 29, Norah 27, and Helen 19) were found in a paddock one and one half miles from the township of Gatton.

The chain of incidents which led to public reaction began when the local Sergeant arrived at the scene of the crime without his notebook. He then left the scene of the crime without taking adequate precautions against sightseers obliterating any tracks that may have been there. The Sergeant then attempted to despatch an urgent telegram from the Gatton railway station but was informed that the police had no authority to send urgent telegrams. The Sergeant was unaware of a regulation which gave police such authority.

The telegram was not delivered to Police until 12.32 p.m. and remained unopened until 9 a.m. the following morning. However, a Constable Murphy, a brother of the victims, received a telegram at 12.30 p.m. and reported the matter to the CIB.

The Commission reports thus:

Inspector Urquhart (Head of CIB at the time) had knowledge about a quarter to 10 o'clock that a telegram had been received by Daniel Murphy containing news of the murders, and was content to let the matter rest, as there was a rumour that the matter was a hoax. At 1.15 p.m., Sub-Inspector White had definite information about the murders, though not official, but did not take any action. At a quarter of 3 o'clock, Inspector Urquhart had returned to his office but did not ask specifically about the rumoured

murders, although he did ask casually if anything had come in. About a quarter past four o'clock, Inspector Urquhart had definite information about the murders but not official, but did not take any action. He then went immediately to the Chief Inspector's house and informed him. It was now nearly 5 o'clock. About 6 o'clock Inspector Urquhart came into town and about 9 o'clock he informed the Commissioner through the telephone. The Commissioner ordered him to take two men and proceed to Gatton. He did not leave until half past 7 o'clock next morning, although there was a train at midnight.

Such ineptness must surely indicate the inefficiency of the organisation of police in dealing with major crimes. The training of the Gatton Sergeant must have lacked important ingredients if he could make so many mistakes.

Urquhart claimed that if he had intervened and the telegram had proved to be a hoax he would have been reprimanded. The Commission's finding on this was, 'If this statement is correct, we think it shows the existence of a rotten system'.

The Royal Commission of 1899 revealed that detectives were given little opportunity to learn about their work from published material since those in charge were apparently not interested in providing literature.

The Commission also uncovered nasty disputes within the CIB. It criticised Urquhart and recommended that he be removed and serve in a different district.

The government, as a result of these findings, tried to secure a Scotland Yard man to take charge of the CIB. Such a man was not found and Urquhart was permitted to retain his position. Later, he became Commissioner of Police.

The Great Depression

Although, thanks to the sugar industry, the full severity of the great depression was never felt in Queensland, the state coffers were nevertheless as sadly lacking in funds as were those of other states. The biggest deficit in state funds was recorded in 1931-2 when the figure of £2,075,180 was recorded.

The Moore government, bound inextricably to a deflationary policy in an endeavour to balance the budget, made loan money almost impossible to obtain and, as well, taxes were raised. The basic wage was reduced and public servants were removed from the jurisdiction of the Industrial Court. As well, an additional tax of 3d in the pound was levied for unemployment relief.

Public works were undertaken by government departments and local authorities under the Relief Work Scheme, thus providing work for about 5,000 men for an average rotation period of 12 weeks in each case. Relief was provided for married men with

families and single men with dependents if they could not be accommodated under the above scheme. Work was provided for them in proportion to the number of dependents (single men over 18 were not included) and they were expected to work for the local authority of the district in which they resided.

Unemployed single men were provided with a 5s substitute ration while they travelled in search of work, whilst unfit individuals received sufficient rations to keep them and their dependents alive.

It is not surprising in these conditions to find employment at a premium. This economic situation had a big impact upon the police force as entry to it became very competitive. Candidates for entry were required to sit an educational test in English, arithmetic and geography at approximately seventh grade standard. In preparation for these examinations some candidates went to night school, whilst others attended special day classes in Brisbane conducted by a former Inspector of Schools, John George. It was not unusual for a person to be successful in these examinations and still be rejected by the police department. Physical size was an important criterion in selection.

This system of entry by examination resulted in the implementation of a new scheme whereby youths who desired to seek a career in the police force were engaged as police cadets in their eighteenth year. The initial group numbered 25, some of whom possessed the Senior Public Certificate. Cadets were involved in clerical duties and were attached to Headquarters, the Criminal Investigation Branch and the Traffic Branch. They were instructed in shorthand, typewriting and Italian. On reaching twenty-one years of age, cadets were sent to the police depot as recruits. After successfully completing the required training, they were sworn in as Constables.

The depression spawned small crimes as men desperate for food killed cattle and sheep. However, one of the most significant small crime features was 'jumping the rattler' as men moved from town to town in order to obtain their rations. It became common practice for these 'hobos' to be caught near a police station where there was a friendly police officer who made certain that their appetites were satisfied. On the other hand, there were some police stations which never had better vegetable gardens or bigger firewood heaps.

In these desperate years some police officers won the undying respect of many a man in need. Sergeant 2/C CSP McCarthy, stationed at Nambour between 1928-1935, so won the affection of relief workers at that place that when he left they presented him with a gold watch purchased by money which they could ill afford.

The next period of note within the development of the police was that which spanned the Commissionership of CJ Carroll, 1934 to 1949. Carroll was regarded as having mechanised the force with the introduction of motor cars, motorcycles and bicycles for general police use. In conjunction with the use of cars for

patrols, during the financial year ending 1935, the use of radio was introduced with receivers installed in three cars. The Force operated a part time wireless station for broadcasting of messages to the cars.

Ballistics, preliminary forensic chemistry and scientific photography

Following an upgrading of the forensic ballistic capacity of the CIB in 1938 a scientific section was formed. By 1941, it could boast examination of documents and handwriting by means of ultra violet rays and microscopy.

War time

World War II saw police take on an additional role. Air Raids Precautions organisations were formed and the task of organising and training Air Raid Wardens was given to the police. There were 32,000 in the state. Police strength was increased by 90 men to cope with the task.

Post-war

1950 saw the introduction of the Queensland Police Citizens Youth Welfare Association. This scheme still exists. It was modelled on the Federation of Police Citizens Boys Clubs of New South Wales. Both boys and girls aged between 10 and 25 years could enrol and partake in the physical and recreational activities offered. The objectives of the Association are to improve individual physical fitness, provide facilities for the pursuit of sport, and encourage interest in culture.

Another innovation introduced into the Police Force which was directed at youth was the establishment of the Police Juvenile Aid Bureau. It was established on 14 May 1963 by Commissioner FE Bischoff. The original objective of the Bureau was to concentrate on young people who had not as yet appeared before a court and been convicted and young people who could possibly - in the absence of outside help and guidance - be potential juvenile delinquents and, eventually, serious criminals. The Bureau, although closed down for a short period during the early 1970s, still exists with those objectives.

The next most significant period of the Police Force encountered was that surrounding the Royal Commission Inquiry into rumours of police misconduct in relation to the National Hotel. This inquiry was conducted in 1964 and surrounded allegations of misconduct on the part of certain police including Commissioner Bischoff. No action was taken against any police officer following the Report being handed down by the Inquiry.

1968 saw Brigadier McKinna conduct an inquiry into the Queensland Police Force. His findings which came to be known as The Report on Administration, Inquiry into the Queensland Police Force, was never published. However, it is believed the Report recommended the recruitment of an outside Police Commissioner. In 1969 RW Whitrod, former Commissioner of the Commonwealth Police Force and Royal Papua New Guinea Constabulary, was appointed Acting Commissioner. He was sworn in as Commissioner in 1970.

Whitrod's term of Commissioner marked one of the most colorful periods in the modern history of the police department. He attempted, to use his words, to 'bring the force out of the dark ages'. He introduced new uniforms, a system of mobile patrols of the larger urban centres from a centralised base station and the use of in-service training courses.

Whitrod also introduced a semi-academic study course for police. The course, known as the 'Police Arts and Science Course', included subjects such as social psychology, criminology and law. It was taught at Colleges of Technical and Further Educations and was to be made compulsory if an officer desired to be promoted.

A system of investigating police by means of a specialised squad known as the Internal Investigation Squad was also established. The state was divided into a series of Police Regions. This was effected by an Order in Council dated 28 January 1971. Regions were known as:

- * Brisbane Police Region
- * Southern Police Region
- * Central Police Region
- * Northern Police Region.

A regional Superintendent was placed in charge of each Region. Each Superintendent had a series of Inspectors under his direct control. Although the number of Regions has since been increased to seven, the organisational principle remains.

1975 saw the introduction of a Police Air Wing. The Air Wing was equipped with two fixed wing aircraft and staffed by police officers possessing appropriate flying skills. The Wing was closed down in 1983.

1975 saw a series of startling allegations made against the conduct of police involved in a SP Betting Case in the Southport Magistrates Court. So serious were the allegations of misconduct levelled against police that two inquiries resulted.

The first was an inquiry conducted by two senior police officers from Scotland Yard. They completed a not yet disclosed report known as the Report of Inquiry into Allegations of Police Misconduct in Relation to SP Bookmaking at Southport, in 1977. No action was ever taken in respect to recommendations and findings believed made in the report.

The second inquiry was the committee of Inquiry into the Enforcement of Criminal Law in Queensland. The report was released in 1977. It was compiled by a Supreme Court Judge, Barrister at Law and a retired Police Chief Superintendent. No action was taken over the recommendations and findings of the report.

1976 saw the resignation of Commissioner RW Whitrod. During his term in office Whitrod experienced strong resistance

both from the rank and file, his officers and the Executive of the Queensland Police Union of Employees. The Whitrod resignation was perhaps precipitated by the government's appointment of Inspector TM Lewis, a relatively junior Inspector to the rank of Assistant Commissioner against his advice. This officer was to replace Whitrod on his resignation as Commissioner and still serves in that position today.

The Lewis period has been relatively uneventful except for perhaps one significant change.

In 1982 the state government introduced what has come to be known as the Police Complaints Tribunal. The Tribunal was established as the result of massive public pressure being placed on the government surrounding allegations of police corruption and coverups. The Tribunal consists of three persons (a District Court Judge as Chairman, a magistrate and the General President of the Police Union), and is designed to hear and investigate all allegations of misconduct on the part of police.

Chief officers of the Queensland Police from inception to the present include:

DT SEYMOUR	1864-1895	Patrick GLYNN	1955-1957
WE PARRY-OAKDEN	1895-1905	TW HAROLD	1957
WG CAHILL	1905-1916	FE BISCHOFF	1957-1970
FC URQUHART	1917-1921	RW WHITROD	1970-1976
Patrick SHORT	1921-1925	TM LEWIS	1976-
WH RYAN	1925-1934		
CJ CARROLL	1934-1949		
John SMITH	1949-1959		

Western Australia

Val Doherty
Sergeant 2/c
Western Australia Police

Police commenced, in the eighteenth century sense of the term, shortly after the founding of the Swan River colony in June 1829. By December of that year Governor James Stirling had appointed Justices of the Peace for Fremantle, Perth and Canning together with three Constables at Fremantle, six at Perth and three at Guildford. Although appointed to office, the Constables followed their normal pursuits, only acting as police officers when called upon, eg, process service. This style of operation, similar in style to the practice in rural England, at that time, was adequate to the early circumstances of the settlement. The tiny colony's first Sheriff and High Constable was AH Stone.

Increasing friction between settlers and Aborigines eventually resulted in the establishment of a body of Mounted Police designed inter alia to maintain peace between the fighting parties. On 14 July 1834, Captain TT Ellis was appointed Superintendent of Mounted Police. A Superintendent was also appointed at Albany, it being the government's intention to appoint a Principal Superintendent, along with three Superintendents of Station, four Head Constables and 12 Constables.

On the first encounter with Aborigines at Pinjarra of the new Mounted Police Force, also known as the Enrolled Force, a Captain Ellis was stabbed to death. He was succeeded by Superintendent Norcott. By 1837, a combination of apathy, lack of finance and a marked reduction of hostilities between Aborigines and settlers, saw the Mounted Police reduced to only three members. Within the various townships, of course, policing was performed by local Constables (whose precise titles varied somewhat but whose functions were roughly similar), subordinate to local Justices, and who continued to act on a fee basis when called upon.

Perth reached the stage in 1840 where it required a fulltime salaried police officer. Accordingly, on 2 April, John Chipper was appointed Constable and Bailiff. Outside Perth, relations between settlers and Aborigines remained poor and the government established a "Native Police" at York. Three mounted men were appointed together with John Nicol Drummond.

In preparation for the introduction of convict transportation to Western Australia a police ordinance was enacted in 1849. The statute did not provide for a centralised body but, rather, authorised the appointment of sworn Constables at various towns; although it was made clear in the ordinance that Justices and Constables were expected to service the countryside adjacent to the respective townships.

In August 1851 a public meeting was held in Perth demanding

the establishment of a police force rather than the collection of independent Constables then responsible for policing the town. There were at this time a number of police bodies in the colony, including a Water Police at Fremantle and the small Mounted Police which continued to patrol rural areas.

Early in 1853 the government considered co-ordinating the various township police and other bodies. It appointed a Superintendent of Police who was made responsible for all subordinate police officers throughout the colony. The nexus between Justices and local Constables was severed, thereby bringing Western Australia's police organisation into the nineteenth century. All members were placed on a full time and salaried basis. To improve the standard of criminal investigation, two detectives were recruited from England, arriving in January 1854. Police continued to operate in a loosely co-ordinated manner for the next eight years. In fact, local ties remained strong and despite the existence of Superintendents possessing statewide authority *de facto* unification was not achieved.

Police strength in the Colony in 1854 was shown as:

Superintendent Mounted	1
Deputy Superintendent Mounted	2
Deputy Superintendent Foot	1
Sergeants Mounted	6
Constables Mounted	23
Constables Foot	24
Native Constables Mounted	23
Native Constables Foot	1

Apparently, these police arrangements did not meet with universal approval. On 20 June 1855, the Inquirer launched a scathing attack on the costs of police. That attack stated inter alia:

We now possess a force of about 50 men costing the enormous sum of £2,000, or about £134 per head.. We should like to have analysed this cost, but from want of details are unable to do so further than remark that the Commissioner costs the public £600 per annum, and is, we have always maintained, an unnecessary appointment...

Rising crime in Western Australian society, no doubt flowing in part from the convict pressure, reached a stage in 1861, that the government looked to strengthening and upgrading the police service. Accordingly, the Police Ordinance 1861 was passed, which provided for unification in practice and removed all vestiges of localism. Thus, although the Ordinance of 1853 had broken in principle at least the old eighteenth century style of police and policing, the further refinement of the 1861 Ordinance was necessary to adopt structures to an increasingly urban and criminal society. It is from 1861 the present police department of Western Australia is considered to date.

In the first few years of its existence, the new police

force developed little and it was not until the appointment of Superintendent MS Smith in 1871, that sustained development commenced. The title of Chief Officer was changed from Superintendent to Commissioner in 1871.

When Smith came into office, Western Australian police strength comprised: (1) one Superintendent, (2) one Inspector, (3) five Sub Inspectors, (4) eight Sergeants, (5) five Corporals, (6) 44 First Class Constables, (7) 44 Second Class Constables, and (8) 37 Aboriginal Constables. Dating from 1867, the colony had been divided into five districts, each under the command of a Sub Inspector. These divisions were centred at Perth, York, Bunbury, Albany and Champion Bay.

Criminal investigation commenced as a specialty in the new Police Force on 1 January 1874, with the appointment of Sergeant T Rowe as a detective. Two years later a second member was assigned to the same duties and the branch started to grow, albeit slowly. The Police Gazette was inter alia placed under the direction of the new branch.

The year 1877 saw a demand by the Legislative Council for greater economy in the conduct of the police. To comply with the government's directive, the Superintendent reorganised the department into four territorial districts, ie, Roebourne, Northern, Central and Southern. Central district was placed under the personal control of the Superintendent in order to save the salary of an Inspector.

Uniforms were not worn by police officers until 1880, when rules were issued covering dress and insignia. Each rank was assigned a badge. These ranks with the exception of Corporal (replaced by First Class and Senior Constables), have continued in use. The growing size and complexity of the police department has resulted in the introduction of additional rank titles.

The mid eighties saw a massive spread of Europeans throughout the colony aided in part by the discovery of gold in the Kimberleys; the under resourced police force was sorely taxed in attempting to meet the demands placed upon it.

The Police Act 1892 was designed to update the 1861 statute, adding to police powers but retaining much of the earlier administrative detail. As Western Australia's population grew and the mobility and number of criminals grew also, the police force was forced to consider methods of criminal identification. After rejecting the Bertillon system as being too complex, it was finally decided to use fingerprints as the primary means of identification, although photography was also extremely used. The force's fingerprint collection commenced in 1903.

Bicycles were introduced in 1897 in suitable areas, being cheaper and more efficient than horses. Horses, nevertheless, remained an important form of police bush transport for several decades. Even in 1928, when Mount Hawthorn police station was opened, applicants were required to be capable bushmen and equestrians.

On 15 March 1898 all members of the police force were issued personal numbers to assist in regulating the seniority promotion system. At first the numbers were worn on uniform caps. They were removed from caps in 1903 and relocated on members' tunics instead. Numerals are still worn today.

One rest day per month was granted members in 1907, to be taken if reasonably possible on a Sunday. This concession on the part of the government did not satisfy all members, however, and in 1910 a petition was submitted on behalf of 130 police officers to parliament. The ranks of second and first class Constable were abolished and a new pay scale demised. Pay for Constables ranged from 7s 6d to 9s per day for Constables according to service. Corporals received 10s per day. Commissioned officer pay rates gazetted in 1911, ranged from £250 - £310 per annum for sub Inspectors, and from £310 to £350 per annum for Inspectors.

However, even largesse on such a scale was insufficient to satisfy members and they decided to form a Police Association. Its formation was approved by the Colonial Secretary early in 1912. This employee body was only the second of its kind to be formed within the federation.

The years 1913 to 1915 saw considerable improvements made in personnel methods by Commissioner Robert Connell. Recruiting practices were refined and recruit selection boards were established in 1913, as were promotion examinations the following year. By 1915, recruits were receiving formal training in law, report writing, life saving, first aid and self defence.

As happened in the eastern states, World War II brought about considerable social trauma. As a result, two female Constables were recruited in 1917. Both members were full Constables rather than Special Constables, the status accorded Women Police in New South Wales for many years.

The Western Australia police department was among the first to utilise motor vehicles. Its first vehicle, a 20hp Ford, was purchased in 1910 and its second, a 30 hp Talbot, in 1914. These vehicles were only employed on urgent duties and working police officers still relied on their feet, horses or bicycles. A 'paddy wagon' was obtained in 1927 and the CIB received its first vehicle in 1928. Unfortunately, the detectives' car was not fitted for wireless.

It was not until 1920 that metropolitan traffic control was assigned to the police department. A traffic branch was formed the same year in order to effectively undertake the new responsibility. Drivers' licences were introduced at the same time.

Radio communications were investigated in 1924 but were rejected on the grounds of cost and limited utility. The department's vehicle fleet remained miniscule and the bicycle continued to be the main form of urban police transport. In rural locations, the horse remained supreme. However, those Constables owning their own car were compensated by a mileage allowance when using their vehicle on the department's behalf.

Conditions of service remained poor, however. It was duly on 1 January 1924 that members were granted a second rest day per month. In 1926, only the police of Western Australia and Tasmania remained without a superannuation fund. However, a Police Appeal Board was established in 1926, following submissions on the subject by the Police Association.

The tragic murders of Inspector JJ Walsh and Sergeant AH Pitman, in Kalgoorlie, startled Australia in April 1926. Both police officers were members of the Gold Stealing Branch and highly respected. A national subscription was raised on behalf of their dependents.

The discovery of the charred remains of Aborigines in the Kimberleys led to the establishment of a Royal Commission in 1927, for it was alleged police officers had taken part in the killing of Aborigines whilst investigating stock losses. The commission's report found there was insufficient evidence to definitely establish the identity of those responsible for the killings.

Police concern at the lack of control over the licensing and regulation of firearms led to the decision by government in 1930 to make the Police Department responsible for issuing Gun Licences.

During the depression years, the police department was hard hit. Stores and equipment were in short supply, wages were reduced and vacant positions went unfilled. No members were laid off, though.

Mobile communications finally arrived with purchase of two Bentleys in 1930. The vehicles, capable of speeds of 80 mph, were fitted with morse transmitters and receivers. Communication with Roe Street police station was by means of a relay through AWAs Applecross Wireless Station. By 1933, detectives were stationed at Victoria Park, Subiaco, North Perth and Leederville. In 1937, the department's contract with AWA expired and thereafter it satisfied its own radio needs.

A cadet entry system was introduced in 1934. Applicants between the ages of 16 and 17 years and likely to eventually meet the physical, mental and moral standards necessary for entry at the age of 21 years were accepted for training. In-service training was commenced in 1938.

With the growth of motor vehicle ownership, the road toll rose rapidly. One tactic employed by the department was the introduction of a school lecturing section. In 1936, the Traffic Branch assigned two officers to visit schools and instruct children in road safety matters. Motor cycles also went into service in the form of road traffic patrols in the metropolitan area. Police motor cyclists were supported by a small fleet of radio equipped cars. The Commissioner of the day associated two major correlatives of motor vehicle accidents as speed and alcohol consumption.

The Superannuation and Family Benefits Act 1939 (commenced July 1939) provided police superannuation for the first time in Western Australia.

World War II saw further economic restraints forced upon the police department. Vehicle fuel restricted police mileage significantly and recruiting all but ceased. Work loads, especially in the liquor and licensing fields grew, and grew quickly.

Despite the shortages that occurred so comprehensively during the war years, police officers were granted one day off per week as from late 1943.

A Royal Commission was conducted into certain aspects of the police department's administration in 1949 but the Commissioner found allegations of incompetence were ill founded.

The 1950s saw gradual but constant improvement in the Force's equipment. The vehicle fleet grew, even country detectives being assigned one utility at each station. Previously, detectives attending calls had either cycled or used public transport when available. Radio communications were improved with the introduction of VHF equipment.

During 1958, the police working week was reduced from 48 to 40 hours.

Further gains in police education were made in 1963 when in-service courses covering law, criminology, police administration and public relations were introduced in conjunction with the Education Department. The following year promotion courses commenced.

Communications were further upgraded in 1968 with the introduction of hand held radios for use by beat Constables.

The mid 1970s saw a spate of inquiries into police conduct. Three Royal Commissions investigated allegations of police brutality toward Aborigines at Skull Creek, near Laverton, police involvement with organised prostitutes and matters concerning the alleged unlawful arrest of a person. Only in respect of the Laverton inquiry were criticisms of police held to be valid.

From 1 June 1975 until February 1982, the traffic function was performed by a body known as the Road Traffic Authority. Field staff were assigned police officers, although a totally separate body had been originally intended. The status quo was regained in 1982, when the RTA was dissolved.

Female police were integrated with males in mid 1976, and female detectives were appointed the previous year.

Police and Citizens Youth Clubs are sponsored by the police department but, only to the extent of officers being posted to individual clubs in order to direct their administration. Since their inception in 1940, the clubs have spread throughout the state, now having approximately 13,000 members. The latest initiative in this respect is the creation of a camp (Camp Mornington) at the Old Mornington Mill townsite.

In 1975, in an effort to create greater understanding between Police and Aborigines, an Aboriginal Police Aide Scheme was started. An initial intake of eight Aborigines was inducted and commenced a course of studies at Derby, graduating on 9 July 1975. There are now some 35 Aboriginal Police Aides employed by the police department, their main duties are to police Aboriginal communities within their patrols. They are also available to be called on for other duties at the discretion of Officers in Charge of Police Stations. The scheme is considered highly successful.

Since the opening of the new Police Headquarters building in East Perth in 1975, police communications in Western Australia have increased enormously. The Police Communications Network now covers the entire state from Wyndham to Esperance and from Rottnest to the Warburton Ranges. It also links with other state police networks.

Chief police officers in Western Australia from 1861 until the present include:

William HOGAN	1861-1866	John DOYLE	1946-1951
RH CRAMPTON	1866-1867	TA ANDERSEN	1951-1958
GEC HARE	1867	JM O'BRIEN	1958-1965
RH CRAMPTON	1867-1871	RT NAPIER	1965-1971
MS SMITH	1871-1887	ALM WEDD	1971-1975
GB PHILLIPS	1887-1900	GOA LEITCH	1975-1981
FA HARE	1900-1912	John PORTER	1981-1985
Robert CONNELL	1912-1933	Brian BULL	1985-
WA DOUGLAS	1933-1934		
David HUNTER	1934-1945		

South Australia

Robert Clyne
Constable
South Australia Police

Formation

The colony erected on the southern shores of Australia in December 1836 was to be a unique experiment in colonisation, modelled on views propounded by Edward Gibbon Wakefield while languishing in a British gaol. Based on a self-supporting system, special features included the selection of emigrants, the ready availability of land and labour, and the exclusion of convicts.

The Utopian society which the emigrants set forth to found was to be free of all the social injustices and failings of English society. As well, model race relations with the indigenous people were to be established. A system of policing, outside the parish constable tradition, appeared unnecessary: indeed, irrelevant.

Participants in this venture brought with them not only grand schemes and high ideals, but also an inherent feeling of insecurity. Such feelings are perhaps understandable for the emigrants sailed for a land that few Europeans had seen before, thousands of miles from their homeland and where the convicts they sought to exclude with almost religious zeal were their nearest neighbours. As well, the experiment might fail.

However, the colonists soon found that crime in their special community did exist. And worse, while they could blame much of the crime rate on 'overland importations' from the penal colonies, it soon became evident that the selected emigrants were just as adept at breaking the law. Race relations too, deteriorated rapidly to such an extent that by 1841 what would be best described as a state of war existed between the colonists and natives along the overland route from New South Wales near the Murray and Rufus Rivers. That the settlers succeeded in establishing the first organised police force in Australia is a tale as bizarre in the telling as that of the experiment in colonisation itself.

The position of Constable was never popular and the first Governor, John Hindmarsh, was left lamenting that he was unable to find a suitable person to act in this office. After all, the colonists had sought to improve their lot in life, not to act as police or gaolers of their fellow travellers. But a modest system of policing was required to service the usual needs of society and within two weeks of Proclamation a High Constable was appointed. He was amply armed with three braces of pistols, ammunition and three swords.

From the outset, the administration of the colony was beset with duality and confusion between the Governor and the Resident Commissioner. This saw the two embroiled in bitter feuds, particularly as the latter controlled much of the colony's finances. There was also duality and confusion as to the proper

method of enforcing the law. That is, whether this was a military function, ie, to be performed by the Marines who accompanied Hindmarsh, or a civil role through the employment of Constables.

In their struggle to create the new order the emigrants demanded that the government provide them with adequate protection, although protection from what nobody was too clear. The natives, initially at least, were found to be friendly and inoffensive. The emigrants' insecurity soon focussed clearly on new arrivals from the penal settlements, a class which they accused of undermining their endeavours.

The emigrants were the 'legitimate' settlers. They had been the ones who had taken the gamble to come to South Australia, who had been screened and approved of, and who had arrived by ship. It was the presence of an 'illegitimate' class which provoked intense hostility. This class consisted of runaway convicts, ticket-of-leave men, absconded sailors or labourers who had been 'tainted by convictism'.

Rumours swept the colony that hordes of bushranging desperadoes were infesting the hills around Adelaide waiting to sweep down on the fledgling settlement. This fear of the illegitimate became the preoccupation of the emigrant and remained throughout the nineteenth century. It led directly to the establishment of an organised police force. Hindmarsh took for granted that its urgent necessity would not be challenged and any expenditure incurred was money well spent.

The Resident Commissioner, James Hurtle Fisher, was however of a different mind and flatly refused to release any funds for such a move. Hindmarsh, used to feuding with Fisher, was undaunted and went ahead and established a police force, announcing its formation on 28 April, 1838. He appointed Henry Inman in command and designated him Inspector.

Not being a penal colony, the settlers would never allow themselves to be policed by the military and a professional police force was an exciting innovation. The force which Hindmarsh established consisted of 20 men; ten foot and ten mounted. It was modelled on the London Metropolitan Police, with some modifications, such as the mounted police, and had colony-wide jurisdiction. Inman had complete control initially and was answerable only to the Governor. To finance his initiative, Hindmarsh side-stepped Fisher and drew a bill on the Lords of the Treasury in London.

In his rush to establish the police force, Hindmarsh had drafted no legislation or gazetted any instructions or guidelines to determine its role, or any appointments. Inman's own appointment was not gazetted until 12 July 1838, the same day Hindmarsh departed for England on the Alligator with his troops following his recall.

With the departure of Hindmarsh and his small body of Marines, the insecurity of the settlers was heightened by the publication by Acting Governor Stephen of an Extraordinary Government Gazette which called attention to the unprotected state

of the colony and the continued refusal of Fisher to provide funds for the police. A special meeting of the colonists was called at which they expressed general condemnation of Fisher as well as a strong aversion to amateur Watchmen or dilettanti militia. It was left however, to the Acting Governor to pay for the cost of the police from his own pocket.

The survival of the police force being settled, Inman set about establishing police outposts around Adelaide to protect settlers against the alleged influx of illegitimates. A cordon of police stations soon ringed the settlement at Gawler, Wellington, Mount Barker, Willunga and Encounter Bay. The preoccupation with the illegitimate problem provided a useful lever to increase the size of the force.

Inman exercised considerable influence and appointments and dismissals were often arbitrary. However displeasure was expressed when it was learnt that Inman had appointed two escaped convicts and the Acting Governor demanded the gazetting of all future appointments. The price of freedom for the two convicts was that they were permitted to remain in their chosen occupation provided they serve for one year without pay. After all, who better to screen new arrivals to the colony!

Inman's managements of the police force continued unconstrained until the arrival of the new Governor, George Gawler. One of Gawler's first acts was to draft a Police Bill which was gazetted in September 1839. Although this bill was subsequently disallowed it at least gave some legitimacy to the exercise. Gawler also appointed a Board of Police Commissioners in December which saw the ordinary duties of the police pass under the daily superintendence of the Board's Chairman, Colonial Secretary Robert Gouger. Along with Gouger, the Board consisted of Advocate General Robert Bernard, Major Thomas O'Halloran and Mr John Walker. The Board was abolished in mid 1840 following the dismissal of Inman for dishonesty. Former Board member O'Halloran was appointed sole Commissioner of Police in its place.

Inman, who later returned to England where he became a Minister of Religion, was not the only officer in charge of the police force to be dismissed. This dubious distinction was also to befall: Alexander Tolmer, 1853; P Egerton Warburton, 1867; and Harold Salisbury, 1978.

It was left to Gawler's successor, Governor George Grey to redraft the Police Bill which finally received consent providing as it did for a far more modest police force than had hitherto existed. He also had the onerous task of saving the colony from economic ruin and looked first at the large and expensive police force. From a force of approximately 130 men, he reduced its strength by 50 and its former annual budget of £16,000 by £7,000. To reassure the nervous populace he supplemented these drastic reductions by requesting a detachment of troops which arrived from Tasmania in October 1841. The detachment, which consisted of 84 men, remained in the colony until 1846. Apart from one excursion against the natives near Port Lincoln, where they were found to be quite useless and guaranteed the future of the police for such exercises, the troops were never used in a police role.

Governor Grey set the pattern for tight fiscal and political control over police, a pattern which continued to the present. Following responsible government in South Australia in 1856, control of the police has been vested in the Chief Secretary where it has remained. The first Premier of South Australia, Boyle Travers Finniss, was the third Commissioner of the Police, being appointed in 1843.

Chief officers of South Australia Police from inception to the present include:

Henry INMAN	1838-1839	TN EDWARDS	1917-1920
Board of Commissioners	1839-1840	Raymond LEANE	1920-1944
TS O'HALLORAN	1840-1843	WF JOHNS	1944-1950
BT FINNISS	1843-1847	IB GREEN	1950-1957
GF DASHWOOD	1847-1852	JG McKINNA	1957-1972
Alexander TOLMER	1852-1853	HH SALISBURY	1972-1978
PE Warburton	1853-1867	LD DRAPER	1978-1982
George HAMILTON	1867-1882	JB GILES	1982-1983
WJ PETERSWALD	1882-1896	DA HUNT	1983-
LG MADLEY	1896-1909		
WH RAYMOND	1910-1917		

Tasmania

Darcy Erwin
Librarian
Tasmania Police

The origins of an organised police force in Tasmania may be traced to the arrival of Lieutenant Governor David Collins at Hobart in 1804. Collins brought with him a body of civilians known as the Night Watch which had been formed at the settlement in Port Phillip Bay to protect 'persons, property and peace of the Colony'. While in Port Jackson, Collins had also been the key person in the formation of the all Convict Night Watch in August 1789.

After two years, the Hobart Night Watch was disbanded due to its ineffectuality and replaced by Military Patrols.

At Port Dalrymple (Launceston) which was then separately administered, the Lieutenant Governor appointed Thomas Massey as Chief Constable with three subordinate Constables on 19 November 1804. By 1812, Port Dalrymple had become a dependency of Hobart Town, and in 1815 all police personnel were placed under the control of Adolarius Humphrey who was appointed Police Magistrate.

During these early years, police arrangements were fragmented and poorly recorded, traditional Constables being appointed as subordinates to magistrates. These men consisted largely of convicts as recruits of good character were difficult to obtain.

In 1825, Lieutenant Governor Arthur appointed 30 convicts as Constables, very much in the New South Wales tradition. These men were responsible for policing Hobart. The following year, Arthur formed a Field Police designed to hunt the numerous escaped convicts. Arthur was to place considerable emphasis on the role of police, having commented that, 'there was no Branch of the Public Service more deficient than police'. Being conscious that he supervised a colony which was in effect an island penitentiary with an ever increasing population of convicts, he recommended that the colony be divided into nine Police Districts with headquarters at Hobart and District headquarters at Launceston, New Norfolk, Oatlands, Campbell Town, Norfolk Plains, Richmond, Bothwell, Brighton, Great Swanport and Georgetown. For each district a Police Magistrate was to be appointed, subject to the control of the Chief Police Magistrate at Hobart.

The controls instituted by Arthur were to remain virtually unchanged in the colony until the advent of responsible government in 1856. In the following year the Municipal Police Act 1857 transferred the charge and control of the Police Forces in the city of Hobart and town of Launceston to the respective councils. Each were required to appoint and maintain a sufficiently strong force to protect the public. Both were to be under the supervision of an Inspector of Police stationed at Hobart.

Gradually the other municipalities adopted this scheme after the passing of the Rural Municipalities Act 1858.

This is a development of particular interest as it was diametrically opposed to the developmental path adopted earlier in New South Wales. Where no municipal authority existed, the areas were policed by the Field Police who remained under the control of the Colonial Government. These were shortly after renamed as 'Colonial Police'. To ensure the maintenance of proper standards among local police agencies, the colonial government required the head of the Colonial Police to act also as Inspector of Municipal Police.

The Police Act 1865 provided for the creation of Police Districts as well as creating a wide range of police offences, similar to those created in London, Sydney and Perth. The Colonial Police was renamed yet again. This time its nomenclature was Territorial Police.

Campbell Town was the last of the 21 Tasmania municipalities to establish its own police agency, in 1866. The colonial government was therefore financially responsible only for the 92 member territorial police, members of which were stationed at Hobart, Kingborough, Huon, Selby, George Town, Port Sorell, Horton and Great Lake.

Understandably, the existence of two separate bodies of police led to a certain amount of dissension that has been referred to in a number of official reports. Essentially, there was a general understanding that each would not interfere with the operations of the other, but the situation as it existed was one of the factors which would inevitably play its part in the argument for a centralised police force.

The issue of centralisation itself may be traced back as far as 1854, when Chief Police Magistrate Francis Burgess, commenting on the Report of a Board of Inquiry, envisaged some form of central control in the not too distant future. Other Inspectors of Police also favoured the disbanding of municipal forces, commonly referring to the injustices created by the differences in pay scales among the various forces. Although this inequity was remedied by colonial subsidisation by 1890, the struggle for centralisation continued until 1898 with the passing of the Police Regulation Act. After years of heated discussion, centralisation was achieved finally without debate, and was seen by the Mercury as, '...a necessary prelude to a reform of a thorough character in local government'.

Although the Police Regulation Act 1898 came into force on 1 January 1899, the change was not immediate. The 21 municipal police forces and eight Territorial Police Districts remained in existence for a number of years. George Richardson, the first Commissioner under centralisation, saw the reduction in the total number of Districts to 14, a reduction in the number of Superintendents, and an overall lowering of the strength of the force from 270 to 246.

During the next six years, little seemed to have changed, despite the process of unification which had begun with virtually no preparation or planning. The increasing inefficiency of the new administration, and the resultant press and public pressure, culminated in a Royal Commission to inquire into the organisation and administration of the Police.

The recommendations of the Commission of 1906, although influencing later developments, were in no way radical. Of interest was the observation that a Commissioner of Police should possess such qualities as, '...a wide and practical knowledge of police work...with a clear perception of the essential features of a sound system of general organisation and administration'. Not only was this a pertinent comment in the light of the lack of experience of George Richardson, but a criterion which was adhered to in the choice of Colonel JEC Lord as his successor.

After 14 years as a clerk in the office of the Inspector of Police, Lord was now to embark on a career in the highest position of the Police Service for the next 34 years.

Upon Lord's assumption of office, Tasmania was divided into five police Districts, each under the command of a Superintendent. District Headquarters were located at Hobart, Launceston, Deloraine, Zeehan and Devonport. The 232 police employees in 1908 performed their duties on foot, on horse back and on bicycles. Bicycles were introduced in 1904 as a means of police transport.

Police in Tasmania, as in most other states, were required to act as motor vehicle registrars, once cars started appearing. By 1919, the police department still had no vehicles of its own, but agreed to pay a mileage allowance to officers using their own motor cycles on duty. In 1935, a breakthrough was made when the department purchased 84 motor cycle outfits. Even in 1940, the department possessed only one four wheeled vehicle.

A Fingerprint Bureau was erected in 1904 at Hobart Gaol. The police department did not utilise this new form of criminal identification until 1912. Personnel were sent to Sydney for training.

At Commissioner Lord's retirement in 1940, Tasmania possessed three police districts, their Head Stations being at Hobart, Launceston and Burnie. The Northern District, headquartered at Deloraine was abolished in 1925, its stations being divided between the North East and North West Districts.

In the period which followed, reform was slow to arrive. Employee discontent was high and, as a consequence, a board of inquiry was formed in 1949 to examine the causes of dissatisfaction among members. The Police Association presented members' views to the inquiry, most of which were accepted as reasonable. A new Commissioner of Police, MT Dowling was appointed and changes flowed fairly quickly. Police wireless cars were provided, salary and allowance increases were approved, and a review framework was established. A Police Radio Branch was formed in 1950.

Other mid twentieth century reforms included further refining of police organisation, positive promotion of public relations, formation of a search and rescue squad in 1960 and the setting up of Police Boys' Clubs.

With sophistication came corruption and in 1955 Alexander Mitchell Duncan, Victoria's former Chief Commissioner of Police, was appointed to inquire into all aspects of crime investigation by the Tasmania CIB. One result of the Duncan inquiry was to create a CIB directly answerable to a Detective Superintendent. The CIB was established in 1904 but had never achieved complete control over its own destiny. A Detective Superintendent had been appointed in 1951, but he only had charge of Hobart detectives. Another of the report's recommendations to be actioned was the provision of detective training. In support of CIB upgrading, the Commissioner considerably augmented the department's forensic science section.

The mid sixties saw the creation of a police Public Relations Bureau. It was during these years that a growing sophistication became evident in the Tasmania police department, which was previously regarded as rather provincial by other police agencies. The late sixties and early seventies saw a substantial building program and a massive upgrading in both recruit and in-service training facilities and content. The traffic specialty was acknowledged as an administrative district. In 1972, the new appointment of Chief Superintendent was created to help standardise procedures throughout the state and assist in co-ordinating the multi-faceted administrative innovations being attempted.

Other initiatives of the period included the establishment of a Crime Prevention Bureau in 1966, a Drug Bureau in 1970, and a Planning and Research section in 1971.

Unlike most agencies which had implemented cadet schemes in the 1930s, Tasmania commenced cadet recruitment in 1971. An initial course of 26 cadets were inducted into a two-year course which, when successfully completed, led to appointment as a Constable at the age of nineteen.

The collapse of a portion of the Tasman Bridge at Hobart on 5 January 1975, resulted in one of the most traumatic periods in that city's existence. The rapidly implemented and skilfully executed emergency traffic planning introduced to offset the loss of access by the city's two halves to each other brought great public goodwill to the police department.

An important milestone was reached with the building of a modern Police Academy situated at Rokeby in the south of the state, which was officially opened in March of 1976.

Chief officers of the Tasmania Police from inception to the present include:

GF RICHARDSON	1899-1905	MT DOWLING	1949-1952
JEC LORD	1906-1940	WJ DELDERFIELD	1953-1965
(war service)	1916-1919	PW FLETCHER	1965-1974
WG OAKES	1940-1944	EV KNOWLES	1974-1977
H HILL	1944-1949	MJ ROBINSON	1977-

Northern Territory

Between 1863 and 1910, the Northern Territory was governed by South Australia. From 1865 to 1869 a small body of Constables were employed at Escape Cliffs, the scene of the Territory's first major settlement attempt. These men, although they comprised a body of peace officers rather than being just a collection of individuals, also performed many other tasks such as caring for stock and exploring. They were subordinate to the Government Resident who was also the magistrate. Escape Cliffs was abandoned in 1869 and its personnel dispersed. A detachment of South Australian police arrived at Palmerston (now Darwin), the successor location to Escape Cliffs, in January 1870. South Australian police personnel undertook the Territory's policing needs for the next 40 years. Eventually, however, the South Australian government felt it could no longer bear the administrative costs involved. Thus, in January 1911, the federal government assumed responsibility for the huge but sparsely populated region. A new police body, the Northern Territory Mounted Police, was formed to replace the withdrawn South Australian police employees. South Australian police officers already serving in the Territory were given the opportunity of changing over to the new force. In 1926, the Northern Territory Police Force (the 'Mounted' had by then been dropped from the title) was split into two discrete organisations. The Central Australia Police was based on Alice Springs and the Northern Australia Police was based on Darwin. The inappropriateness of such division was eventually recognised and the Northern Territory Police Force was reconstituted in 1931. During 1928, Mounted Constable William George Murray investigated the murder of a dingo trapper, and shortly after, an attack on a station owner. In the course of his patrols an unconfirmed number of Aborigines were shot and killed. A federal inquiry was conducted into the affair in 1929 and the shootings were held to have been justified.

The police force continued, terribly under-financed and short of members, until World War II hit Darwin. Despite tremendous difficulties, the force attracted some outstanding men to its ranks, some of whom became extremely widely known. Either through their own writings or the writings of others, such as Hugh Clarke and Ion Idriess, the names of Vic Hall, Tom Turner, Ted Morey and Jack Stokes became household names throughout Australia. Such men epitomised the romance of the outback to city dwellers.

The Commissioner of the Northern Territory Police was the Administrator. Day to day management of the force was conducted by the senior police officer, as Inspector. Later, the rank was increased to that of Superintendent. It was not until 1964 that the chief police officer of the Territory was granted the rank of Commissioner of Police.

Early in 1942, Darwin was bombed and later evacuated. The Northern Territory was placed under military control and the police force was reduced greatly in numbers. It was not until 1945 and the cessation of hostilities that the force again started to develop.

After the cessation of hostilities, civil administration was re-established and a police service again provided in Darwin. A number of pre-war officers resumed service and others were recruited but numbers remained low for many years.

The Police Association re-formed in 1946 and commissioned officers organised several years later. Development was slow and even by 1972, the force's strength was only 281 police officers. Commissioner JG McKinna of South Australia conducted an inquiry into the Northern Territory Police Force in 1973 with respect to its legislation and administration, including strength. He submitted a lengthy report making many recommendations for reform across a wide range of matters. The report provided a partial blueprint for the agency's development.

The two post World War II events that rate pre-eminently in the Northern Territory Police Force's collective consciousness are undoubtedly the occasion when Mrs Petrov was removed from Russian custody by police officers at Darwin airport in 1954 and Cyclone Tracy in 1974. Rarely has a police agency been taxed as were Darwin police officers during and immediately after the latter tragic event. A third event which attracted a great deal of criticism to the forensic investigation capability of the force involved the so called 'Lindy Chamberlain' case in which a baby was allegedly killed by a dingo at a camp site in August 1980, not far from Ayers Rock. The subsequent trial and appeal aroused worldwide interest.

During the first part of 1975, Northern Territory Police Force was removed from the control of the federal Attorney-General's department to a newly created federal department of Police and Customs. That ill-advised amalgamation was quickly abolished due to a change of federal government. Later in 1975, the force was placed under the aegis of the Department of the Northern Territory. From 1 January 1977, control was passed to the Legislative Assembly of the Northern Territory.

The change to internal self government for the Northern Territory resulted in a new and dynamic Commissioner of Police, Ronald McAulay, being recruited and a comprehensive reorganisation was commenced. The reorganisation included the creation of northern and southern Commands, each under the direction of an Assistant Commissioner. Other rank recruitment had been emphasised for some years and by mid 1979, force personnel strength stood at 692 members. Training facilities and content were also upgraded. The force also moved to a new legislative basis with the commencement of the Police Administration Act 1979.

Police aides were introduced in the financial year ending mid 1981 and the scheme has continued ever since.

The rapid growth of the Territory's population following self government resulted in an overall growth in crime and public order offences generally. A strong emphasis on improving investigation management had positive results in improving the quality of criminal investigation overall. Motor vehicle accidents and public order offences also continued at a high

level, principally due to high alcohol consumption. A stringent Crimes Act was legislated in 1983, designed in part to deter alcohol related offences.

Prior to the appointment of Clive Graham, the office of Commissioner of Police was held by the Territory's Administrator.

Commissioners of the Northern Territory Police Force include:

Clive GRAHAM 1964 - 1966

SJ BOWIE 1966 - 1967

WJ McLAREN 1967 - 1978

Ronald McAULAY 1978 -

Australian Capital Territory

The area now occupied by the Australian Capital Territory belonged to New South Wales until it was ceded to the federal government on 1 January 1911. However, it remained to be policed by New South Wales police officers until 27 September 1927. On that date, Sergeant Philip Cook, who had spent the previous five years at what is now known as the suburb of Fyshwick, and ten Peace Officer Guards, were sworn in as inaugural members of the Federal Capital Territory Police Force. The new police body was enacted by the Police Ordinance 1927 and was commanded by Major HE Jones. Jones was also head of the Commonwealth Investigation Branch and was previously a member of the federal Special Intelligence Bureau created in 1917. The authorised establishment provided for one Sergeant 1/C, two Sergeants 2/C and 15 Constables.

Earlier in 1927, police officers from all states but Queensland were in Canberra for the opening of federal parliament on 9 May. Inspector WJ MacKay of New South Wales Police, commanded the composite force. Huge crowds had been expected for the event, but in fact, very few appeared. Thus, the visiting police officers enjoyed an undemanding stay in the 'bush capital'.

The Sydney Morning Herald described the new federal capital as 'a place to delight clergymen and put policemen out of practice'. It is true the policing demands of Canberra were not heavy, but the large number of labourers working on the various construction projects required firm police supervision, especially on pay nights.

Federal Capital Territory police officers suffered a reduction of pay as a result of depression induced economies, as did most other workers. Members' concern to restore their lost pay resulted in the formation of the Federal Capital Territory Police Association in 1931. AD Davies was elected inaugural President and Ivan Perriman was appointed honorary Secretary. Charlie Cosgrove, Secretary of the Police Association of New South Wales, assisted in drawing up a constitution for the new Association which had only 20 members.

A Constable was permanently stationed at Jervis Bay in 1933, as it grew in popularity with holiday makers. Australian Capital Territory Constables were routinely seconded to Norfolk Island Police from 1933 until 1946.

In 1943, Colonel HE Jones relinquished the position of Chief Officer of Australian Capital Territory Police and was replaced by a Northern Territory police officer, Robert Reid, who took up duty as Inspector in charge of Australian Capital Territory Police on 14 July 1943. He was finally approved as Chief Officer on 11 December the same year. Colonel Jones remained as Director of the Commonwealth Investigation Service and Superintending Officer of the Peace Office Guard.

During the war years Australian Capital Territory police officers and other agents under the command of Colonel Jones were employed in enforcing national security regulations, including

Sydney to prevent distribution of a particular edition of the Sydney Morning Herald, much to the irritation of New South Wales Police Commissioner MacKay.

Slowly the Territory's dependence on New South Wales institutions decreased. New South Wales judges ceased to visit Australian Capital Territory in 1945 and New South Wales Magistrates (who visited fortnightly) removed Canberra from their circuits the following year. But, some NSW legislation remains still, including the Crimes Act 1900.

Constable BA Rochford (a former Northern Territory police officer who eventually retired as Deputy Commissioner) was appointed the Territory's first plainclothes Constable in 1945 and Sergeant D Mackay was made officer in charge, Plainclothes Branch in late 1946. The branch was renamed as Detective Branch some time later. Another personnel appointment of interest was the recruitment of the Territory's first policewoman in 1947.

A Police Arbitral Tribunal was created by legislation in 1947 to hear and determine all matters relating to the remuneration and terms and conditions of Australian Capital Territory police officers.

In 1955, Chief Officer Reid retired, to be replaced by Senior Inspector Edward Richards, who was appointed Commissioner of Police.

It was not until January 1956, that a Traffic Branch was established in Canberra, under the command of an Inspector.

In 1957, Australian Capital Territory police strength was still only 55 officers, but over the following decade, it grew a staggering ten-fold. Commissioner Richards was briefly replaced by Senior Inspector LW Powley in 1966. But the same year Inspector RA Wilson, of South Australia Police, took over as Commissioner. Roy Wilson commanded the Australian Capital Territory Police Force during the disruptive period of 1975 when the government of the day tried to place it within an abortive body to be known as the Australia Police within a Department of Police and Customs. Wilson retired in 1977 and was replaced by his deputy Reginald Kennedy. Kennedy remained as Commissioner until the Australian Capital Territory Police Force was absorbed by the Australian Federal Police in late 1979.

Chief officers of Australian Capital Territory Police from inception until its takeover include:

HE JONES	1927 - 1943
Robert REID	1943 - 1955
Edward RICHARDS	1955 - 1966
LW POWLEY	1966
RA WILSON	1966 - 1977
Reginald KENNEDY	1977 - 1979

NORFOLK ISLAND

The origins of the police function on Norfolk Island go back to the late eighteenth century when convict Constables under the direction of a Provost Marshal were appointed. One of the early Constables of Norfolk Island, was John Harris. Harris played a leading role in the establishment of the Sydney Nightwatch. In December 1791, Lieutenant Governor King issued a general order detailing the duties of both Constables and Watchmen. When the settlement was closed in 1803, prisoners were mostly moved to Van Diemen's Land and some of them were made Constables there in 1804.

During the days of the second penal settlement Constables and Watchmen were again appointed. Alexander Maconachie recorded in 1847 how he organised and motivated his convict Constables. Placed under the direction of two free officers, Maconachie interestingly saw his Constables as members of an organisation rather than as a collection of individuals. The job was a dangerous one with several Constables being killed in the execution of their duty and many wounded over the years.

Once convicts were finally removed from the island and it was handed over to the Pitcairners in 1856, a single elected Magistrate was considered sufficient to maintain law and order in the small community but the imperial government became increasingly dissatisfied with affairs on the island, including the amount of unpunished crime.

In 1896, new laws were promulgated and shortly thereafter a mainland Australian was recruited as Sergeant of Police. He did not remain long and after his departure formal arrangements were made for the islanders to police themselves. A paid Constabulary was appointed consisting of a Superintendent, a Corporal and a Constable. This arrangement was not very satisfactory and in 1913 a New South Wales Police Constable, Sidney Charles Werner, arrived to take over the police establishment. The local officers all resigned during the succeeding three years, and from 1916, Werner served alone.

Werner departed the island in 1924 and from then until 1932, island residents were again recruited as police officers. From 1933 until 1940, the Australian Capital Territory Police Force supplied Constables to the island. But from 1940 until the mid 1950s, no mainland contribution was provided. In the mid 1950s, the Commonwealth Peace officer Guard assumed responsibility for law and order on the island and provided officers who served under the Norfolk Island Police Ordinance 1931. The arrangement continued in 1960 when the Peace Officer Guard was integrated in what became known as the Commonwealth Police Force. In 1975, when it was intended that a number of federally funded agencies combine to form the Australia Police, Australian Capital Territory police officers returned to the island. However, with the creation of the Australian Federal Police in 1979, the practice was resumed of seconding federal employees to the island to serve as Norfolk Island police officers.

CHRISTMAS ISLAND *

Don Bosman
Superintendent
Christmas Island Police

Christmas Island, in 1900, incorporated with the Crown Colony of the Straits Settlements. The first 12 Sikh policemen arrived the following year to maintain law and order. By 1940, with the Island population rising to 1,400, Sikh police numbers had increased to 32. Sikhs were also employed by the Phosphate Company as watchmen to protect its property.

The Island was occupied by Japanese military from 31 March 1942 to 24 August 1945. Reoccupation of the Island took place in October 1945 with the establishment of a British military administration. In 1946, with the disbandment of Straits Settlements and creation of the colony of Singapore, the Island became part of that colony and civil authority was thus restored. About this time a police detachment was again stationed on the Island, manned on a rotation basis from the Singapore Police, under the command of a Sergeant, also from that force. They served under the provision of the Singapore Colonies Act. Apparently the Singapore authorities were opposed to the presence of a commissioned officer on the Island. The composition of the detachment is not known but it is doubtful if it ever exceeded section strength as the workload was relatively light.

On 1 January 1958, Christmas Island was removed from the aegis of the colony of Singapore and gazetted a British Crown colony. The Singapore police detachment then consisted of 11 men (Malay and Indian) still under the command of a Sergeant and it remained by agreement. Crown colony status for the Island was a temporary measure only, as it became an external territory of the Commonwealth of Australia on 1 October 1958.

When the Island came under the authority of the Commonwealth of Australia by proclamation on 1 October 1958, the Singapore detachment was seconded to the Australian government with the Official Representative as ex officio Commissioner of Police. The Singapore government was not enthusiastic at having police personnel serve at Christmas Island at a time when it no longer exercised sovereignty over the Island, even though Australia was paying the salaries. The Official Representative (later to be known as the Administrator) on the Island during 1958-1959 recommended replacing the Singapore Police detachment with a small body of highly trained policemen. The idea was never pursued.

Concurrent with the assumption of Australia's sovereignty, the Police Force Ordinance 1958 (since repealed) came into effect.

* The assistance of John Hunt in the compilation of this record is gratefully acknowledged.

Among other things it created a police force for the territory and provided for the appointment of police officers of another country to serve as members of the Island Police. In effect, it conferred on the Singapore detachment the legal powers whilst they served on the Island. They continued to wear Singapore embellishments.

Whilst preparing for the takeover, Australian authorities considered a number of options regarding the recruitment of a Superintendent of Police. Ideas were entertained of recruiting a serving British police officer or a retired policeman. The Commonwealth Investigation Service, later to become an element of the Commonwealth Police Force, was also approached. It was even suggested at one stage, that until a decision could be made, a Singapore police officer should pay periodic inspections to the detachment but this was not found to be practicable.

On 14 October 1958, Aubrey Edward Reynolds was recruited from the New South Wales Police as the first superintendent of Police of Christmas Island.

There are no station records available covering these formative years. The area policed on the Island included the entire 55 square miles. The population at this time totalled 3,000 people, of whom the Chinese community comprised 2,000. Police functions were then, as they are today, many and varied. The Department of Immigration and Customs drew heavily on the police resources as did the policing of health and other ordinances applicable to the Island.

Working conditions were not the best at that time and it is a credit to the serving members who carried out the policing role. Reynolds completed his term of office on 29 January 1960 and seven months later, Inspector R Curtis (on loan from the Royal Papua and New Guinea Constabulary) took over day to day management until 3 February 1961 in the capacity of Acting Superintendent. On 9 March 1961, Inspector Aubrey T Jackson (now deceased), on loan from the Commonwealth Police Force, replaced Inspector Curtis, pending the appointment of a permanent officer.

Superintendent Jackson's term of office was not long (concluded 24 October 1961) but in that short space of time he set about trying to improve the conditions of police employees. Morale was found to be generally low because of the long period of service the members from Singapore spent on the Island, and their feeling of lack of progress at being away from their parent force. During the latter part of 1961, Jackson presented his submission for a proposed new police force and some interesting facts emerged. Physical standard and education were based on Singapore entry level - minimum height 5'4", age 18-25 years, weight 126 lbs and form three education. The police complement was proposed as one Superintendent - European, one Inspector - Chinese or Eurasian, three Sergeants and ten Constables - Chinese or Eurasians, and six Constables - Malay.

Mr Justice Clarke, Judge of the Supreme Court of South Australia and Acting Judge of the Northern Territory and Territory

of Christmas Island, presided over the first sitting of a Supreme Court in the Island's history on the 27 March 1961.

Sergeant A Morley arrived on 24 October 1961, seconded from the Commonwealth Police, to take up the post of Acting Superintendent while arrangements were in progress to appoint a permanent commissioned officer for the Island. A month after he commenced duty a fresh detachment of six Malay policemen under the command of Sergeant Kassim Bin Othman arrived to replace the outgoing detachment which had been on the Island since 1959.

During his one year term of office, it is clear from reports that he was kept very busy on the crime side, predominantly with narcotic offences. It is reported that consumption of opium was heavy in the forties, reached a peak in about 1948 and then began to diminish. Increased police pressure, a more effective recruitment policy by the British Phosphate Commissioners, and an increased fear of deportation, improved social conditions and better educational facilities and most important of all, the non-renewal of contracts of unsatisfactory personnel, were some of the contributing factors to this decline. Nevertheless, policing the narcotic problem was extremely difficult for police as a large section of the community tended to tolerate its use and investigations met a wall of silence and apathy.

Considerable arrests occurred during the middle of 1962 due to police vigilance. The Special Magistrate on the Island deemed opium a problem and cases presented before him were so serious that he meted out some stiff sentences on two drug pedlars - terms of imprisonment of four years. The opium ring endeavoured to organise a strike of Chinese workers, but the married men and non-opium smokers refused to participate and the venture failed. It was considered, at the time, that at least a quarter of the workforce consumed opium.

As a result of appeals, the Supreme Court sat on the Island on 14 July 1962, and Justice EA Dunphy reduced the sentences to six months, the maximum sentence the Island Magistrate could impose at the time. This disparity arose because the Magistrate had operated under an Ordinance which was once in force but had not been extended to the Island beyond 1959. The Island's isolation contributed to the lack of communication in this regard. Before 1962 sentences of imprisonment for periods of one month were served within the territory and in excess of one month in Singapore by agreement with the Singapore authorities. In 1962 the short term sentence that could be served on the Island was increased to six months. It was not unusual for offenders to leave the Island by agreement and at their own request, rather than face a Magistrate at the next available sitting.

In July 1962, Superintendent Morley undertook a recruiting drive in Singapore and selected a number of suitable recruits for the new and independent Christmas Island Police Force. His first term of office (he returned in 1964) came to an end with the arrival of the permanently appointed commissioned officer, Superintendent AL (Jack) Carmichael, on 23 September 1962.

Inspector Carmichael from the Victoria Police was appointed the first permanent Superintendent of Christmas Island Police and it was he who, immediately upon arrival, set about establishing the new force with a fresh intake of recruits. The Singapore detachment departed in November 1962, after the arrival of the first five recruits ending the era of the Singapore detachment on the Island.

With this small complement of members in the force, the workload was heavy and everyone was called upon to do long working hours without overtime. Crime remained comparatively low. It was contended that there was a reduction in the use of opium. A principal in the narcotic ring had been removed from the Island following a court conviction. He had been charged with offering an illegal gratification to a police member. Records seized in a police raid revealed the offender made a net profit of M\$6,000 a month. Corporal A Ng Poh Kok received a mention for rejecting a bribe of M\$1,500 - a commendable act of integrity and loyalty - the sum being an immense amount to a member of the police earning about M\$200 a month.

In April 1963, a serious assault took place adding pressure to the already overworked staff. A European was assaulted in her bedroom at night by a male person of Asian origin. Fingerprints found at the place of suspected entry prompted a scheme to fingerprint all Asians on the Island and by June that year, 850 persons had been fingerprinted. No results of this investigation are recorded. Pilfering on the supply ships was also a constant problem and disputes between the crew members all drew heavily on the police resources.

The strength of the force increased to eleven Constables with two recruiting drives and negotiations were finalised in August to take over the old Asian Teachers' Single Quarters as the Central Police Station, which eventuated on 13 November 1963.

In addition to the success he achieved in developing the Force, Superintendent Carmichael was also instrumental in obtaining improved conditions of service and salaries for the new members of the now autonomous Christmas Island Police. A year after its formation, members were still receiving salaries fixed to the Singapore pay scales. One of the terms of secondment of the Singapore Police detachment to the Island was an agreement not to give salaries and conditions likely to place Singapore Police at a disadvantage.

In May, the Superintendent's term of office drew to a close and he returned to Victoria and served on until his retirement in 1976 with the rank of Deputy Commissioner of Police.

Sergeant First Class Alan Morley, seconded from the Commonwealth Police, returned to the Island as the second permanent Superintendent of Police on 1 May 1964. At that time the establishment was set at one Superintendent and 14 non-commissioned members with the Commonwealth Police chartered to staff the position of Superintendent.

No sooner had he settled in when outbreaks of cholera occurred in Singapore and Sarawak, necessitating a constant vigil on ships to prevent the landing of fresh meat and vegetables. In addition there was also an investigation on board m.v. Trienza into the disappearance of \$3,600 from the purser's safe suspected to have occurred prior to arrival on the Island.

The detection of drug offenders continued relentlessly together with the prevention of poaching of wild pigeons (Wild Animal and Birds Ordinance) and the continuing problem of theft of BPC materials. Three Chinese Secret Societies had formed on the Island and were responsible for some unrest and faction fights and it was necessary to stamp them out or at least significantly curtail their activities. The societies were illegal in Singapore and wanted adherents escaped by taking employment on the island where they automatically continued to promote their respective sections. Members identified each other by secret signs given by hand.

To combat the drug problem the Superintendent mooted the idea, in September 1965, of bringing trained police dogs to the Island. The Commonwealth Police donated three dogs and trained a member of the force at their South Australia Police Dog Training Centre.

On 11 May 1966, Superintendent Morley departed but as a result of his considerable measure of success in the eradication of narcotic extortion, gambling offences and secret society activities, he was nominated for a further tour. However, the Commonwealth Police Commissioner (the late JM Davis) was reluctant to release him again as he would probably have had to forgo promotion to commissioned rank. He is today still serving with the Australian Federal Police (AFP) and at the time of writing holds the rank of Chief Superintendent stationed in Melbourne, Victoria.

Sergeant (First Class) HG Farnsworth assumed the duties of Superintendent at Central Police Station on 3 May 1966, and served three years on the Island.

In 1966 the emphasis on drug detection and apprehension of offenders seemed to disappear and the scene moved to the more common criminal type offences such as theft, assault and the like. Offenders sentenced in the courts for criminal offences continued to lose their employment and were placed on the 'Non Return List' after leaving the Island. A spate of thefts from dwelling houses, an activity hitherto uncommon to the Island, culminated in the apprehension of a number of juveniles ranging between 13-16 years. The inaugural sitting of the newly constituted Juvenile Court took place in January 1969 with six school boys appearing on charges relating to driving a BPC minimoke.

An unusually high number of sudden deaths occurred during this term of office with eight deaths attributed to traffic and work related accidents and six to natural causes.

The Christmas Island Police Force appeared to go through an unsettled time in 1967 with many resignations which initiated

recruiting drives, and the Superintendent is recorded as visiting Singapore in November 1966, May 1967 and June 1968. For the latter recruiting drive, an advertisement was placed in the Singapore newspapers drawing 152 applicants for five vacant positions.

At the time of handing over to his successor in the middle of 1969, the strength of the force was back up to 14 non-commissioned members, and the uniform had been altered to peaked caps, black belts and black shoes.

On 14 May 1969, Superintendent Farnsworth departed on termination of his tour of duty. He returned to the Commonwealth Police and retired two months later. It has since been learned that he passed away some years ago on Norfolk Island. His successor was Sergeant PF Bull from Sydney who arrived on 12 June 1969. Sergeant A Ng Poh Kok supervised the running of the station prior to his arrival.

Apart from traffic violations, thefts from dwelling houses were the most common offences. These increased to disturbing proportions until the arrest of a number of youths aged between 14 and 16 years. They subsequently appeared in Court.

It is opportune to mention that the basis of the territory's legislative, administrative and judicial systems is the Christmas Island Act 1958. Under this Statute the laws of the colony of Singapore which were in force at Christmas Island immediately before the date of Christmas Island's transfer to Australia continued in force and may be amended or repealed by Ordinances or by laws made under Ordinances of the territory.

Federal legislation does not apply to the territory unless expressed to do so. The Christmas Island Act empowers the Governor-General to make Ordinances for the peace, order and good government of the territory. These Ordinances must be tabled in the Parliament of the Commonwealth of Australia and are subject to disallowance in part or whole by either House of the Parliament.

To this end the police in criminal matters operated under the Criminal Procedure Code, Chapter 132 and, Penal Code Chapter 119 of the Laws Of The Colony Of Singapore 1955. The situation has not changed at the time of writing.

Sergeant (First Class) JL Friend arrived on the 20 July 1971 as Superintendent, and departed three and a half years later.

An increase in motor traffic on the Island placed additional pressures on already overtaxed police resources. Traffic fatalities occurred in two train accidents and three road accidents during his service. Other deaths recorded over this period were seven by natural causes and two unfortunate deaths by drowning; a suicide is also recorded.

Superintendent AJ Watt of the Commonwealth Police arrived on board HMAS Melbourne on 5 November 1973, and was flown to the Island by helicopter. The purpose of his visit was to carry out an in depth survey of the operations and conditions of the force.

The 26 page report, referred to later on as the Watt Report, covered every aspect of policing with wide ranging recommendations, many implemented years later. Sergeant WT Riley, also drawn from the Commonwealth Police, performed a period of relief as OIC in 1973.

Monthly station reports show that incidents of criminal and other behaviour were low, especially crimes of a serious nature. Nevertheless, offences of break, enter and stealing, perpetrated on the social clubs and dwelling houses, progressively increased during 1974. Only one sex offence came to light of a male charged for indecent exposure and insulting the modesty of a female (the only charge applicable to indecent assault). The offender required psychiatric treatment and left the Island.

The army titles of Lance Corporal and Corporal were replaced by First Class Constable and Senior Constable in December 1974, and at the time of handing over the station on the 3 January 1975, the force was still three Constables under strength. Prior to his departure on 23 January 1975, Superintendent Friend submitted a proposal for a new establishment consisting of 20 Constables, two Policewomen and five NCO's. Inspector Friend is still a serving member of the Australian Federal Police stationed in Canberra.

Sergeant BL Shoobert was sworn on the 3 January 1975 into the office of Superintendent of Police. In the time that he occupied this post, a period of just under two years, a number of changes took place in the administrative side of the force and also changes in trends of crime and detection.

In late 1975, radio communications were placed on a sound footing with the installation of a VHF base station at the Central Police Station and mobile units in the vehicles. This communication set up included a link with all BPC vehicles operating on an independent channel.

With the police involvement in customs and immigration duties on the Island, members were sent to the Australian Customs Bureau Special Services Section, in Fremantle, Western Australia on a course of instruction. During their stay they were afforded visits to the WA Police Communications Centre, Scientific Section and Traffic Control.

Another recommendation of the Watt Report was the acquisition in August 1975 of a 4.5m police launch with twin 40hp Johnson engines, for rescue purposes and harbour duties.

Sergeant WTF Riley returned to the Island for a second period of relief duty as Superintendent on 3 December 1975, finally leaving the island on 27 January 1976.

In the period under review gambling continued to be a cause of unrest in the community contributing to the majority of assaults and affrays coming to the notice of the police with offenders subsequently being prosecuted before the courts. Thefts

from dwelling houses also continued unabated until early 1976, when once again youngsters of varying ages, between 8 and 13 years, were placed before the Children's Court.

Motor vehicle numbers rose from 434 to 765, an increase of 331 over the two years and traffic accidents followed suit. There were, however, only two traffic fatalities for this period. Nine sudden deaths of natural causes are also recorded.

Prior to Superintendent Shoovert's departure two changes occurred in the administration. Snr Sergeant WO Griffith took up the post of Inspector Training Officer, a recommendation of the Watt Report and the old style khaki uniforms were altered to blue shirts, shorts and stockings. Force identifications numbers were worn on black epaulettes. Inspector KE Moller commenced duties as Superintendent on 23 November 1976.

Criminal acts in the form of industrial sabotage, hitherto unknown to the Island, occurred with heavy field machinery of the Mining Company being the target of attack. Field scrapers were overturned and other acts of tampering with the machines caused engines to seize up. The perpetrators were never prosecuted because of lack of evidence. However, these incidents ceased after certain disgruntled workers left the Island.

The authorised strength of the force had been increased to one Superintendent, one Inspector, two Sergeants, one Senior Constable, three First Class Constables and 12 Constables, on 9 February 1977. Sergeant E Harrison became the first policewoman to grace the establishment of the force. Although at the instigation of the Watt Report, her integration as a woman in an all male force, and the fact that she had come with a senior rank, was a problem from the start. However, her fortitude and cheerful disposition saw her through these early days and she proved her worth especially in the field of lecturing to the school children and organising safety oriented activities. The policewoman Sergeant also has the responsibilities of arranging clearance for all shipping including visiting yachts. Although very time consuming it is an interesting adjunct to her many other duties.

Thefts from dwelling houses resulted in more youngsters appearing in the Children's Court in the latter part of 1977. The following year police, while investigating a break-in of the Hardware Store, detected a further group of four teenagers involved in a wide spread breaking operation that had been aimed at the Settlement shops and the Company Trade Store. Goods recovered valued over \$6,000.

Police involvement in industrial matters came about when its members were obliged to intervene in an unauthorised union meeting in July 1978, which had been promoted by union members opposed to the activities of elected office bearers. A potential riot was defused by positive police action. Superintendent Moller ended his tour of duty on 31 August 1978. His successor Inspector BD Matthews was followed by Senior Sergeant BJ Meade as replacement Training Officer and Sergeant K Byrne as replacement Sergeant.

1 June 1979 brought an important change to the regulations affecting motor traffic on the Island by the introduction of the Motor Traffic Ordinance of the Australian Capital Territory which had been applied to the Island by an Act of Parliament in September the previous year. This change in the traffic laws was brought into effect just in time for at the end of the year there were 896 private vehicles (including motorcycles and trailers) and this increased to 1,322 the following year. A traffic radar 'speedgun' was also introduced at this time.

At the end of March 1979, the industrial scene changed dramatically with disputes raging between the Union of Christmas Island Workers (UCIW) and British Phosphate Commissioners (BPC). Mobile patrols were increased as a precautionary measure and although tension was evident during strike action implemented by the Union, no breaches of the peace were reported.

The disagreement between these parties continued and relationships deteriorated until June when, during arbitration hearings, a spontaneous demonstration erupted and BPC officials were prevented from leaving in their vehicles. Intervention by the police and union leaders saved the day. The escalation of these affairs resulted in police reinforcements from the Commonwealth Police being put on standby in Perth. However, they were never utilised as all parties had reached agreement.

In 1980, sea and rescue facilities were upgraded with the purchase of a seven metre Sharkcat hull powered by twin 175hp outboard motors.

Superintendent Matthews was succeeded at the end of 1980 by Inspector ET Bourke and the Training Officer position filled by Senior Sergeant KE Curnow. Later, policewoman Sergeant Hope commenced duties.

Traffic accidents at this time were occurring regularly, some so serious it was fortunate that there were no fatalities and this necessitated a concentrated traffic patrol program resulting in numerous court appearances.

On the crime scene in December 1981, a suspected arson occurred in the private motor shop and local sporting clubs again became the target of attack with constant breakings and loss of merchandise. Shoplifting and pilfering from ships also became prevalent. By far the most serious crime of this category was the breaking into the Company Trade Store in January 1982. Goods to the value of \$3,000 were stolen. The theft was accompanied by a vindictive act of vandalism with oil poured over the floors and goods in the store. During police inquiries, a search was made at the Waterfall area and a number of goods recovered with the assistance of diving club members. Prime suspects were identified but lack of evidence prevented police from preferring charges. Three months later an act of arson resulted in the police rescue launch being gutted by fire. The boat was a total write off with a loss of \$32,000 including \$5,000 damages to the school building.

Detective Sergeant ED Webster of the Australian Federal Police arrived a week later to assist in the arson investigation. Despite intensive inquiries and a posting of a reward of \$4,000, no information was forthcoming to lead to the arrest of the offender/s. A number of suspects, including recently convicted traffic violators were identified but lack of evidence again barred the way to a successful conclusion of the investigation.

The present writer took over the Superintendent's position on 5 August 1982 and the winds of change had already swept across the mining industry by the time of his arrival. The Mining Company was facing a challenging period trying to maintain traditional markets and developing new ones in a fiercely competitive world market.

The police force could not escape change. A reduction was inevitable and a critical review was undertaken. Further changes of seconded AFP personnel took place with Senior Sergeant LJ Lambert arriving on 26 January 1983 to take over the training position and policewoman KE Burdett to relieve the outgoing policewoman.

By far the most serious disruption to the normally placid Island life-style was the wilful damage of Company vehicles parked in the 'jeep shelter' and the accompanying vandalism carried out on the Company's offices on the night of 11 December 1982. The vandalism directed at the offices of the Mining Company was an entirely new pattern of malicious behaviour and police investigations in this incident met with the usual wall of silence. No doubt its occurrence, at the time of the prevailing industrial unrest, did not help police to gain the support of the community in their investigations to identify the perpetrators.

The Gambling (Clubs) Ordinance 1978, gave legal footing to gambling on the Island, which had not ceased despite constant police patrols and court appearances. On 17 January 1983, a clash between gambling groups occurred resulting in five victims being admitted to hospital with severe wounds.

Apart from the earlier mentioned serious crimes, general crime is virtually unknown and offences of theft from dwelling houses have all but disappeared. Illegal use of Mining Company material bordering on the offences of theft, remains a problem. However, it is a credit to the community that we, on this Island, live today in such a safe environment where one can leave a home unlocked and crimes against the person are a rarity.

The build up of traffic on the Island's few roads continues. As at 30 June 1983 there were 1,070 private vehicles, 421 PMC1, 29 Administration, 81 motorcycles and 32 boat trailers registered on the Island (total 1,633) with a total population of 3,214.

As the Mining Company struggles through the first quarter of 1984 a vast amount of changes are anticipated and redundancies are again occurring. The present strength of the Police Force is 12 members excluding seconded Australian Federal Police personnel.

Sergeant L Ng is the longest serving member having joined in 1962. At the end of this year the force will be reduced to 8 members. The life of the Island's phosphate resources is not expected to continue for more than ten years. Only the future will dictate the next chapter in the history of the Island's police force.

The appointment of Commissioner of Police continues to be held by the Administrator rather than the chief police officer - as is also the case on Norfolk Island.

NEW ZEALAND

Sherwood Young
Inspector
New Zealand Police

The Sydney Police Act 1833 authorised the Governor of New South Wales to appoint Justices of the Peace to execute the duties of Police Magistrates and empowered them to appoint Chief Constables and to swear in Constables. Police Magistrates had full control over their Constables, the power to suspend and dismiss them, as well as to make Regulations.

With the extension of Governor Gipps' Commission (by letters patent of 15 June 1839) to include New Zealand, the law relating to the New South Wales Police had the potential to be applied to New Zealand that year. But New Zealand was a sparsely-settled country with a strongly-armed indigenous population. It remained to be seen whether traditional British concepts of the Constable's office could be readily grafted onto this new Antipodean situation when the time came.

In 1839 Captain William Hobson, RN, had (in England) been appointed Consul for New Zealand, and Lieutenant-Governor of any parts of New Zealand which might be annexed. In Sydney, Hobson appointed Lieutenant Willoughby Shortland, in January 1840, as Chief Police Magistrate in New Zealand to be based at Kororareka (modern-day Russell) in the Bay of Islands, and Benjamin Woods was appointed Chief Constable for Kororareka. Leaving Woods in Sydney (to follow in March) Hobson and Shortland travelled to the Bay of Islands with a Sergeant and four troopers of the New South Wales Mounted Police, arriving on 29 January.

After the signing of the Treaty of Waitangi on 6 February 1840, Hobson sent a combined military and police expedition to Wellington later that year, to assert his authority over the New Zealand Company settlers who had arrived there. In September Hobson began moving his capital to Auckland. By July 1841 the various Police Magistrates had sworn in a total of 57 police, located at Russell, Hokianga, Auckland, Wellington and Akaroa (on Banks Peninsula in the South Island).

In April 1842 the members of the New South Wales Mounted Police detachment returned to Sydney, their horses being auctioned in Auckland. They had not been popular - the settlers seeing them as 'the police of a penal colony' - which New Zealand never became. After the foundation of the second New Zealand Company settlement at Nelson in 1842 this new venture received a major setback. The settlers lost their Police Magistrate (Henry Thompson), Chief Constable, most of the Nelson Police and several 'Special Constables' when they unlawfully endeavoured to arrest the powerful Ngatitōa chiefs Te Rauparaha and Te Rangihāeata in the Wairau Valley in what has become known as the 'Wairau Incident'.

With the outbreak of unrest among the Maoris in the Bay of Islands, during 1844-45, George Grey was despatched from South Australia to New Zealand as Governor. He arrived in Auckland in

November 1845, and in 1846-47 gradually disbanded Hobson's Police Magistrate system, substituting the system he had established in South Australia. This involved setting up an Armed Police Force based on the Irish Constabulary model (responsible to Grey) supplemented by Resident Magistrates who were required to administer the criminal justice system.

On 9 October 1846 an Ordinance to provide for the establishment and maintenance of a Constabulary (or Armed Police) Force was enacted by the New Zealand Legislative Council. This remained the constitutional 'Charter' of the New Zealand Police system until 1867, and was not repealed until the passing of the Police Force Act in 1886. Grey's Colonial Secretary announced that the object of the Ordinance was to organise a force similar to that which had been established in other British colonies. He said that he was aware that 'formerly great prejudice existed against the establishment of Armed Police Forces but experience of the beneficial working of the system in other colonies for the last twenty years had removed all that had been entertained against it'.

Grey's Armed Police Force was organised and drilled on military lines, and made a significant contribution to the military pacification of the colony which was now carried out. With the advent of peace in 1847, however, emphasis became increasingly placed on civil policing. In August 1848, Thomas Beckham was appointed Commissioner of the Auckland Section, and in 1852 Rules and Regulations for the Constabulary Force of New Zealand were published.

Other developments were to change the situation immediately, however. The Imperial Parliament passed the New Zealand Constitution Act in 1852. This statute created six provinces throughout the colony, each in the charge of a Superintendent who was empowered under section 18 :

...with the advice and consent of the Provincial Council thereof to make and ordain all such laws and ordinances...as may be required for the peace, order and good government of such Province, provided that the same be not repugnant to the law of England.

This provision was wide enough to allow for the establishment of Provincial Police Forces and that was what in fact took place, along with the decentralisation of other governmental activities. From 1 September 1853 to 1876 each of the six original provinces (Auckland, New Plymouth and Wellington in the North Island, and Nelson, Canterbury and Otago in the South Island) plus four further provinces created subsequently (Hawkes Bay, Marlborough, Westland and Southland) maintained its own autonomous Armed Police Force.

The Auckland and Wellington Provincial Police Forces initially had a large proportion of Maori members, reflecting not only the multi-racial composition of their populations, but also

the difficulty in attracting suitable recruits from amongst European settlers. Thus, for almost a quarter of a century the control of the Civil Police in New Zealand almost paralleled that of England, with its borough and municipal authorities. Three major factors were to change this situation however - the discovery of gold, the outbreak of war and the trend towards centralism.

Gold in commercial quantities were discovered in Otago in 1861. It was soon obvious that the Otago Provincial Police could not cope, and a request was made to Victoria for a contingent of police, experienced in gold fields policing, to be recruited. Sgt John Branigan, with a handful of volunteers (soon followed by thirty others) arrived in Dunedin in August 1861. Branigan was appointed Commissioner of the Otago Armed Police on 28 August and served as such until 1869. In 1862 the Canterbury Provincial Council also moved to obtain policemen from Victoria. The first contingent, under Sub-Inspector Robert Shearman soon arrived in Christchurch. This foresight was quickly vindicated with the discovery of large amounts of gold in West Canterbury (now Westland) in June 1864. Thomas Broham, then a Sergeant, was sent to Greymouth with two Constables. By 1868 policemen serving in West Canterbury formed the basis of the new Westland County Police Force (which later became the Westland Provincial Police Force) commanded by Broham.

With the outbreak of the New Zealand Wars, which related principally to land-purchasing policies in the North Island, Sir George Grey was brought back to New Zealand in 1861, for his second term as Governor. In an endeavour to provide more autonomy for the Maori population, he divided the "Native portions of the North Island" into twenty Districts, each under the Civil Commissioner. Each District could be divided again:

- * into about six hundreds, from the Runangas of each of which will be selected two persons to represent each hundred in the Runanga of the District, and to act as Assessors or Native Magistrates.
- * a Warden or Chief Police Officer will be appointed to each hundred, with a salary of £30 per annum.
- * five Constables will be appointed to each hundred, with a salary of £10 per annum each and a uniform for each year.

In the event, when appointments were made under this system, its neat organisational theories were abandoned; but 'Native Constables' (in reality responsible to Resident Magistrates) added another dimension to policing policies, which were soon to be even more complicated.

In October 1867, a further enactment, the Armed Constabulary Act, became law. Its empowering provisions differed

in minor but nevertheless important respects, from its parent Constabulary Force Ordinance 1846; with section 4 providing (emphasis added):

It shall be lawful for the Governor to cause a sufficient number of fit and able men whether Europeans or of the Native race to be embodied from time to time to serve as an Armed Constabulary Force who shall be sworn before a Justice of the Peace or other such persons as the Governor may appoint to act as Constables in and throughout the colony for putting down rebellion, quelling disturbances, preserving the peace, preventing robberies and other felonies and apprehending offenders against the peace.

Foremost in the duties of the Armed Constabulary was that of 'putting down rebellion' and it was immediately obvious the 1867 Act was designed to raise a Force the basic duty of which was that of an Army. Indeed, section 3 repealed the Colonial Defence Force Act 1862 which had empowered the Governor to raise a Force 'for the internal defence of the colony'. The Armed Constabulary Act was not to affect the appointment of Constables under the 1846 Ordinance. Instead, it was intended by the government to provide a small colonial para-military police force to help fill the gap left by the withdrawal of British troops. The government felt the provisions of the earlier Ordinance were not sufficient to meet the essentially military duties of the new Constabulary. However, in 1869 the Fox Ministry took office. The new Ministry amended the 1867 Statute to vest some civil duties in the Sergeants and Constables in the force. When not on actual duty, they were at the direction of the Defence Minister to attend court sessions and to obey all summonses and warrants of the courts. The new title of Commissioner replaced that of Commandant and the appointment of the Commissioner of the Otago Provincial Police (Sgt John Branigan) to this post was announced.

By now, too, dissatisfaction with the Provincial system was growing. At the end of June 1870, the Auckland Provincial Police was merged with the Armed Constabulary. It was the colonial government's hope that this would create a precedent to be followed by other provinces and that gradually, all would come under central government control through the Minister of Defence. Strong arguments based on economy and efficiency could be and were made, but provincialism and possibly a desire for an English-styled locally controlled police meant that little progress was made elsewhere. It was left to the forces of centralism to bring about legislated change, with the passing of the Abolition Of The Provinces Act 1875. Under this Act, a colony-wide police system, still under military leadership, was commenced.

The new body which emerged formally on 1 January 1877 (and became fully established by mid year) became known as the New Zealand Constabulary Force, and existed until 31 August 1886. Its initial membership comprised 330 former members of the various

Provincial Armed Police Forces and 582 former Armed Constabulary men. Lieutenant-Colonel Moule, appointed as Commissioner of the Armed Constabulary Force when Branigan died in 1871, now became Commissioner of the New Zealand Constabulary Force. The Force was divided into a Police Branch and a Reserve Branch, with Headquarters at Wellington (which had become the colonial capital in place of Auckland in 1865). The Reserve Branch was described by Moule as 'essentially a Field force which in cases of emergency, would be assisted by the Police Divisions; men for which received training in company, rifle and skirmishing drill before being transferred to the Police'.

Moule resigned on 31 December 1877, to be succeeded by Colonel GS Whitmore, who had been one of the commandants of the pre-Branigan Armed Constabulary of 1867-69. In 1878 all rifles and accoutrements on issue to foot Constables were withdrawn but, Mounted Constables and Detectives remained armed.

The export prices of wool and wheat began to fall in 1878 and by 1880 general reductions in the force commenced. New Zealand's Long Depression (which was to last until 1895) had begun. The Stout/Vogel Ministry took office in 1884 and in July 1885 John Ballance, the new Defence Minister, announced that he intended to introduce a Bill to separate the two Branches of the New Zealand Constabulary Force.

On 18 May 1886, the Colonial Secretary introduced the Police Force Bill and the Defence Bill, which both became law on 1 September 1886. The new police force thus created was responsible to the Minister of Defence, and was still led by a military officer, but was (and continues to be today) generally unarmed. Until 1896, however, recruits for the police were required to be selected exclusively from members of the Permanent Militia (the former Reserve Branch of the New Zealand Constabulary Force) who had served at least 12 months in that body, and had (in theory) to undergo 10 days artillery drill each year at coastal defence forts. Sir George Whitmore, as he now was, remained as Commissioner until January 1887 when he resigned, to be replaced by Major Walter Gudgeon.

The economic depression deepened and retrenchments continued into the 1890s. Lieutenant-Colonel Arthur Hume became Commissioner of Police and Secretary of Defence on 1 July 1890, positions he held until October 1897. By 1897 the system of drawing recruits exclusively from the Permanent Militia had broken down and it became obvious that Justice was the more appropriate portfolio for the administration of the police. This change occurred in October of that year, in conjunction with the appointment of JB Tunbridge, an Officer from the London Metropolitan Police, to the position of Commissioner of the New Zealand Police Force.

A few months later, in February 1898, a Royal Commission was set up. It was charged with examining the general organisation, distribution, control, enrolment, discipline and efficiency of the force. Allegations of a failure by the police

to maintain and enforce the country's laws were also to be investigated. Several factors underlay the appointment of this Royal Commission. There was growing public concern about the administration and morale of the force, several isolated incidents involving the force's good name had occurred, and the question of prohibition had emerged as a major political issue, with numerous allegation of lax policing of the licensing laws.

The police emerged from this examination with credit in their operational role of detecting crime and preserving order, but deficiencies in staffing, supervision, retirement and training were identified. The report of the Royal Commission of 1898 was to be a standard for future administrations to measure themselves by, dealing as it did with the administration of the force from the Ministerial level to members' sobriety and morality. Tunbridge was able to implement many of the Royal Commission's recommendations, but in 1903 he resigned 'because of ill-health' and returned to England. In reality, his resignation had been precipitated by the intervention of Cabinet in Tunbridge's disciplining of staff at Nelson, and Tunbridge had resigned rather than accept this intervention. He had been an outstanding Commissioner.

Tunbridge was succeeded by Walter Dinnie, another Officer from the London Metropolitan Police, who held office from June 1903 to December 1909. His most notable contribution was the establishment and development of the fingerprint section, under his son EW Dinnie. Commissioner Dinnie was faced with Royal Commissions of Inquiry into his administration in 1905 and 1909. In response to the latter Mr Dinnie published a 27 page pamphlet in which he not only endeavoured to rebut the Royal Commissioner's criticism of his administration, but he also, most unwisely, attacked the integrity of the Royal Commissioner.

On 22 December 1909, Sir Joseph Ward, the Prime Minister, announced that it was not desirable that Mr Dinnie should continue in office. Ward therefore made it known that Dinnie's resignation would be accepted, and announced that the Under-Secretary for Justice, Mr FGB Waldegrave, would also act as Commissioner of Police. Waldegrave served in this joint capacity for over two years, until 31 March 1912.

On 1 April 1912, John Cullen (the Inspector in charge of the Auckland district) became the first New Zealand policeman to be appointed Commissioner of Police. This established a cherished principle of the modern New Zealand Police, namely, that the post of Commissioner may be filled by an officer chosen from the police.

A new Police Force Act and Regulations came into effect on 1 March 1913, introducing qualifying examinations for promotion, tighter and more extensive disciplinary provisions, a new pay scale, and new appeal and inquiry provisions. During the debate on the Police Force Bill, the question of whether the government would allow the formation of a Police Association (already

established in the states of Western and South Australia) was raised by the Opposition. The government favored instead membership of the Public Service Association, but any move in this direction had to await other developments.

The Auckland Star of 12 April 1913 carried the article: 'Constables Want a Union to Better Their Life. Surprise Action in Auckland'. The Minister of Justice and the Commissioner of Police both visited Auckland immediately and the upshot was the transfer of numerous members from Auckland to all over New Zealand. The meeting's Secretary was transferred to Greymouth. Shortly afterwards Police Regulations were gazetted providing that:

Every reasonable consideration shall be given to complaints or representations from members of the force, but combinations shall be severely dealt with as being subversive of discipline, provided, however, that nothing in this Regulation shall be held to prohibit members of the Force from becoming members of the Public Service Association of New Zealand.

World War I then intervened, and it was not until October 1918 that a vote on PSA membership was held, which resulted in an overwhelming vote in favour of membership.

The war brought a major change in police responsibilities, including the enforcement of new laws restrictive of personal liberty, guarding numerous installations which were considered vulnerable to sabotage, and the performance of various quasi-military and other functions on behalf of the military and naval authorities. The enforcement of new licensing laws closing licensed premises at 6pm, introduced as a wartime measure (which lasted 50 years from 1917 to 1967), was an additional problem.

Cullen retired in 1916 and was succeeded as Commissioner by John O'Donovan, a particularly fine administrator and police philosopher. A qualified lawyer, he had been the first instructor at the Training Depot set up at Mt Cook in Wellington in December 1898, following the recommendation of the Royal Commission that year.

Frequently during World War I, the Government was asked whether it was intended to appoint women to the police (matrons had been employed as early as 1898), but after making enquiries overseas of forces where women were already employed, the Government decided against their use in New Zealand. This was an innovation that would have to wait until the outbreak of another world war 20 years later.

World War I and its aftermath did introduce two other aspects to police work in New Zealand - the provision of security services and traffic control. In 1920, Commissioner O'Donovan directed that in the four main centres a 'discreet Detective' give his fulltime attention 'to ascertaining to what extent

revolutionary organisations or movements exist, and what revolutionary propaganda is conducted in the Dominion'.

Increasing numbers of motorised vehicles also led to more manpower resources being required to control traffic, in the cities particularly. The main responsibility for traffic breaches (apart from the legal requirement to inquire into fatal motor accidents) increasingly passed to local authorities and the Ministry of Transport from the 1930s but the Police Special Branch (as it had become after World War II) did not relinquish its functions to the Security Intelligence Service until 1957.

O'Donovan retired on 31 December 1921, to be replaced by AH Wright. The police force Wright controlled had a police-to-population ratio worse than that of any of the Australian states. In 1921, it was 1:1318 (compared with 1:787 in New South Wales) and by 1941 it had only improved to 1:1084, (1:744 in New South Wales). This marked disparity continued until quite recently, even when Traffic Officers are included in the New Zealand ratio. It seems to have been almost a matter of pride for governments to have been able to announce how inexpensive it has been to provide policing services for taxpayers in New Zealand, compared with the Australian States.

New Police Regulations passed in 1919 had given Wright 'general control of the Force - subject to the directions of the Minister'. Since then, however, the Police Act 1958, and the Police Regulations 1959 have changed this situation by deleting reference to the 'directions of the Minister'. Section 3(1) of the Police Act 1958 and Police Regulations 7(1) and (2) now make the Commissioner simply responsible to the Minister 'for the general administration and control of the Police' and for causing 'all members of the Police to discharge their duties to the Government and the public satisfactorily and efficiently'. This has made the police unique among government agencies in New Zealand in that the Commissioner has a dual responsibility - he is responsible to the law in matters of law enforcement and to the Minister in matters of the administration and control of the police.

Commissioner Wright retired in 1926 and was succeeded as Commissioner by WB McIlveney, who applied to retire in June 1930 when the Minister appointed a special committee to review his dismissal of a Sergeant from the Force. The Commissioner felt the Minister's action had called into question his administrative judgment and his statutory powers of control. However, the Minister, JG Cobbe, believed that he had made a 'purely administrative direction' and that there was no question of unwarranted political interference. So the government accepted Mr McIlveney's application to retire and neither the Parliamentary Opposition nor the press disputed the government's action. The Under Secretary of Justice, Mr RP Ward, controlled the police during June 1930, until the appointment as Commissioner of WG Wohlmann, the Superintendent at Auckland.

Suggestions made for the formation of a Police Association

Justice, who was made the Controller-General of Police in May 1955 assumed office he was faced with the unsolved problem of the six-day week, earlier retirement and a lack of manpower due to these factors and others such as pay rates. On 21 July 1955, the Report of a Committee to Inquire into the Training of the New Zealand Police was presented, calling upon government and the police administration for early action. Barnett acted quickly across a broad front. A much larger Training School was established, massive recruiting was undertaken (including the introduction of a cadet scheme in 1957), the five-day week was achieved, substantial pay increases were granted and allowances were updated. The groundwork for retirement at 60 years of age was also laid. (This was achieved on 1 December 1958.)

However, in November 1957 the National Government was defeated at the polls. The new Labor Government determined to return the police to the control of a Commissioner promoted from the ranks. Superintendent WS Brown of Dunedin became Commissioner of Police on 7 August 1958. The same year saw a new Police Act passed into law, dropping the expression 'Force'. Henceforth, the agency's title became 'The New Zealand Police'.

Commissioner Brown retired in 1961, and was succeeded as Commissioner by Chief Superintendent CL Spencer from Christchurch. Many of the reforming and modernising moves begun by ST Barnett were achieved or consolidated by Commissioner Spencer, whose term of office, due to end in 1965 was extended by two years to 1967 by the government. In spite of the advances made during the 1960s, however, the environment in which the police had to operate had changed and new challenges were being faced.

From Commissioner Spencer's annual report of 31 March 1966, and from other published figures, a picture of the police at that time can be drawn. There were 2,749 sworn members, 164 civilian employees, 348 police station, 318 vehicles, 54 police dogs, and 132,311 reported offences with a total New Zealand population of 2,677,000 at the latest census. The ratio of police to population was 1:975 (compared with approximately 1:700 in New South Wales including Traffic Police). Detective Superintendent Walton had returned to New Zealand after a study of narcotics enforcement in the United States, to help organise special squads to deal with various forms of vice, including drugs - which were only just emerging as a problem.

During his term of office Commissioner Spencer introduced several specialist sections such as the Youth Aid Section, Vice Squads, Armed Offender Squads, Search and Rescue Squads, In-Service Training staff, the Criminal Intelligence Section, the Welfare Section, Diving Squads and the Crime Prevention Section, but although there had been an urgent necessity to form these sections the police had not requested from the government sufficient additional staff for them. The police administration now had to recognise the importance of long-term planning and policy-making functions, and take appropriate steps to make this a process which could be responsive to the external pressures and controls appropriate in a democracy. In so doing they could

prior to 1935 had failed, and police membership of the Public Service Association had foundered in the 1920s. In the November 1935 general election, a Labor Government was elected to office. This was to make a major difference on the issue.

On 8 August 1936 a deputation of police members met Peter Fraser (Minister of Police), who told them the government would do everything possible to encourage the formation of a Police Association. The Association was incorporated under the Incorporated Societies Act, on 28 October 1936.

Commissioner Wohlmann retired in 1936, to be succeeded by DJ Cummings who remained in office until 1944. DJ Cummings was the first of two brothers to become Commissioner, James Cummings succeeding him from 1944 to 1950. World War II brought the first recruiting of women - 10 were attested in June 1941, from the 150 applications received. In October they were posted to their respective stations (three each to Auckland and Wellington and two each to Christchurch and Dunedin). Initially they were attached to the CIB; policewomen did not appear in uniform in New Zealand until 1952.

Commissioner James Cummings retired in 1950 and was succeeded by J Bruce Young, who had been President of the Police Association as recently as 1943 (before being promoted to Officer rank that year). A National Government had been elected in November 1949 and the Minister of Police was now Mr WH Fortune. But the police were still working until the age of 65 years and still had a six-day week. Recruiting in these circumstances was becoming difficult in a time of full employment.

At the end of 1952, Commissioner Young was seriously ill in hospital and on 22 December the Minister announced the appointment of 50-year-old Sub Inspector EH Compton as the first Assistant Commissioner of Police, to act during the Commissioner's illness. This appointment passed over all the senior officers. On 28 December 1952, Commissioner Young died and on 11 March 1953, Mr Compton's appointment as Commissioner was announced. Promotion by merit seem to have arrived. A little over two years later, however, Compton had retired. On 30 September 1953, an article in NZ Truth made two allegations against Commissioner Compton in regard to telephone tapping by him in earlier years and having work done on his private residence by police employees. By 23 October 1953, Sir Robert Kennedy (a retired Supreme Court Judge) had been appointed as a Commission of Inquiry into these and other matters. Although the Commission found no evidence of grave misconduct by Mr Compton, the government announced on 22 December 1954 that the police would be controlled by a three-man Commission, including the Commissioner as Chairman, and his two Assistant Commissioners as Members. By 19 April 1955, the Prime Minister (who had assumed the police portfolio in October 1953) announced that the Commissioner had asked to retire voluntarily, with compensation.

Yet the issues which led to the Commissioner's retirement were only part of the malaise. When ST Barnett, Secretary of

anticipate social problems and adapt to meet situations before a crisis arose. Chief Superintendent KB Burnside was therefore appointed to head a National Survey Team which worked from 1966 to 1970 on a report to the Commissioner on the following matters:

- * the existing deployment of staff
- * the present staff requirements and those of the future
- * existing procedures
- * building requirements
- * any other matter considered necessary.

Commissioner Spencer retired on 28 May 1967, and was succeeded by Commissioner CG Urquhart. The Survey Team's report coincided with the advent of 'law and order' as an important political issue. Henceforth, to a greater extent than ever before, the police force was able to realise its needs for increased resources. By the time Commissioner Urquhart was succeeded as Commissioner by WHA Sharp on 23 June 1970, many of the changes first hinted at by ST Barnett in the late 1950s were being carried through. The traditional patterns of policing were being changed irrevocably. Many small stations were being closed and new types of radio-controlled, mobile patrols were being introduced that were primarily reactive: that is they responded to calls for assistance and in between calls they were on preventive patrol. Efficiency came to be measured not only in terms of the absence of crime, but also in terms of the speed and effectiveness of the police in responding to calls for assistance. Technological change had in practice altered the police role.

Commissioner KB Burnside succeeded Sir Angus Sharp (who had become the first serving Commissioner of Police to be knighted) in October 1974. By 1976 a new picture of the police and its environment could be drawn. There were now 4,332 sworn members, assisted by 541 civilian employees, working from 253 police stations and 17 patrol bases; nine independently-based Community Liaison Constables, 742 vehicles, 58 police dogs and 223,644 reported offences, from a total population of 3,129,000 at the latest census. The ratio of police to population was now 1:728 (compared with 1:581 in New South Wales including Traffic Police). Since 1966 the population had only increased by 16.9 per cent but reported offending had gone up by 76.6 per cent.

In 1976 the Wanganui Computer Centre was established. This enabled a new system of offence reporting to be instituted, together with the ability to install computer-assisted dispatch systems in several police control rooms. At the same time, Crime Control Units, Diplomatic Protection and Anti-Terrorist Squads, the Terrorist Intelligence Unit and the Bomb Data Centre were also established, pointing to recognition of well-organised criminal activity, international terrorism and the potential danger to

VIPs. However, the police also recognised the importance of its developing social role through the establishment of a Public Affairs element which brought together the sections dealing with crime prevention, youth aid, law related education, community relations and Community Constables.

Commissioner RJ Walton succeeded KB Burnside on 17 May 1978. By the time of his 1983 annual report he could record that there were 5,014 sworn members, 707 civilian employees, 245 police stations, 22 patrol bases and 14 independently-based Community Constables, 923 vehicles, 82 police dogs and 383,841 reported offences, from a total New Zealand population of 3,203,300 at the June 1983 estimate. The ratio of police to population reached 1:677 in 1982.

In his report of 1983, Commissioner Walton also commented on calls for a 'return to community (preventive) policing'. He said that preventive policing was still the dominant thrust of the service, but that it could not receive a greater share of police resources if such a move reduced the capacity of the police to deal with the crime and disorder which threatened the community. The level of crime had shown no sign of abating with a 10.4 per cent increase in violent crime in the past calendar year. It would therefore be quite irresponsible to divert staff from the frontline and thereby expose the public to unwarranted risk.

On 5 November 1983, Commissioner KO Thompson succeeded RJ Walton (who had originally been due to retire in December 1981, but who had responded to a government request to continue for a further two years). Commissioner Thompson was a key member of the National Survey Team. Currently, the Commissioner is supported by two Deputy Commissioners at National Headquarters in Wellington, with Heads of Divisions and Directors of Directorates responsible to them. There are 16 police districts throughout the country, headed by District Commanders ranging in rank from an Assistant Commissioner in Auckland (the largest District) to a Chief Inspector at the smallest district (Greymouth, on the West Coast of the South Island). The New Zealand Police remains a generally unarmed body which is separate in its responsibility for traffic control from the Road Transport Division of the Ministry of Transport, and separate again from the New Zealand Security Intelligence Service. On 1 September 1986 it will complete 100 years of service to the people of New Zealand, one of the few national police services in the western world to complete such a length of service.

Traditional methods involving close personal contact with the community continue to provide the basis for policing in New Zealand. Without modification and supplementation, however, traditional methods could not possibly have coped with the changes that have occurred over the last few decades. The New Zealand Police has endeavoured to spread its resources realistically in order to meet the demands of modern society. They will continue to analyse these demands with a view to planning ahead for future changes, which are inevitable in an advanced and articulate society such as New Zealand's.

The Chief Police Officers of New Zealand.

George WHITMORE	1886 - 1887	DJ CUMMINGS	1936 - 1944
Walter GUDGEON	1887 - 1890	James CUMMINGS	1944 - 1950
Arthur HUME	1890 - 1897	JB YOUNG	1950 - 1952
JB TUNBRIDGE	1897 - 1903	EH COMPTON	1953 - 1955
Walter DINNIE	1903 - 1909	ST BARNETT	1955 - 1958
FGB WALDEGRAVE	1910 - 1912	WS BROWN	1958 - 1961
John CULLEN	1912 - 1916	CL SPENCER	1961 - 1967
John O'DONOVAN	1916 - 1921	GC URQUHART	1967 - 1970
AH WRIGHT	1922 - 1926	WHA SHARP	1970 - 1974
WB McILVENEY	1926 - 1930	KB BURNSIDE	1974 - 1978
RP WARD	1930	RJ WALTON	1978 - 1983
WG WOHLMANN	1930 - 1936	KO THOMPSON	1983 -

Developments Affecting Police

Prime Minister WM Hughes established a Commonwealth Police Force by regulation under the War Precautions Act 1914, in December 1917; under the direction of WJ Anderson. It established branches in Brisbane, Sydney and Melbourne, but quickly withered on the bureaucratic vine and was replaced in November 1919 by the Commonwealth Investigation Branch. Major HE Jones, formerly of the Country Espionage Bureau, was appointed Director of the CIB. Early agents of the CIB were mostly seconded detectives from state police forces. Much of their initial work involved inquiries on behalf of naval authorities, aliens and confidential inquiries. It subsequently became involved in investigating an array of industrial, political and other special interest groups in the community.

Six years later, in September 1925, the Peace Officer Guard was created. This body appears in part to have been a byproduct of the New South Wales Labor government's refusal to permit its police officers to serve process on officials of the Seamen's Union in the course of the Seamen's strike of 1925. The Peace Officers Act 1925 provided for the appointment of Peace Officers. Officers were accorded powers (including common law) of Constables and their oath of office was similar to that of a police officer. Major HE Jones was appointed Superintending Officer. Jones' various CIB deputies outside Canberra were appointed Deputy Superintending officers, so that a single management structure serviced both organisations. The formal role of Peace Officer Guards was later defined as the preservation of peace and good order in or in connexion with:

- * establishments established or purchased or decreed to have been established or purchased in pursuance of specified statutes
- * establishments or places where essential services are carried on, including wharves
- * such other establishments or places as the Superintending Officer directs.

In effect, the statute assigned police powers to security guards.

The advent of World War II saw a massive increase in defence establishments and the Peace Officer Guard grew considerably when it absorbed the Defence Establishment Guard. By 1942, it numbered 2,815 members. War time conditions also meant a return by the CIB to earlier tasks such as alien control.

In February 1941, the Security Service was established with Colonel Longfield Lloyd as its Director-General. Lloyd was also an Inspector of the Commonwealth Investigation Service, succeeding HE Jones as Director early in 1944. The CIB was made responsible for enforcing a ban on the Communist Party of Australia but subsequently reduced in authority and power. In 1944, it was reorganised and relabelled. According to Frank Cain, in the Origins of Political Surveillance in Australia, it became the

federal government's sole investigation body following the merging of the Security Service with it in 1945.

Australian Security Intelligence Organisation (ASIO) was created in March 1949. Later that year, the federal government decided to clearly separate criminal investigation functions from national security functions. Security and intelligence duties were henceforth to be the preserve of ASIO and criminal and confidential investigations were allocated to the Commonwealth Investigation Service.

In 1955, federal cabinet agreed to amalgamate the CIS (approximately 90 members) and Peace Officer Guard (approximately 510 members). Legislation in support of the decision was enacted in 1957, but the Commonwealth Police Act 1957 was not proclaimed until 21 April 1960. The first Commissioner of this revamped public security agency was RW Whitrod. Powers assigned to members of the new body were similar to those of the Peace Officer Guard, but the title of Constable was explicit.

This amalgamation recognised limited career prospects and low levels of competence in both parent organisations as well as the burning desire of many members (some of whom had previously served as police officers) to be formally accorded the status of police officer. It is also the case that both federal bureaucrats and politicians felt it appropriate the Commonwealth government should possess its own 'Police Force'. Police authorities at the time raised no protest. Indeed, the Superintending Officer of the Peace Officer Guard had attended Police Commissioners' Conferences for many years.

By 1973, the performance of the Commonwealth Police Force in its investigative and protective security roles was such that the federal government of the day felt obliged to review the situation. In 1975, a decision was made. At first, it was intended to abolish the body and replace it with a federal investigative agency; an Australian FBI. But opposed forces within the bureaucracy rallied and it was then decided to change the agency's name and permit it to absorb two territorial police agencies so as to legitimise the body as a genuine, ie, functional, police organisation. The body was to be known as the Australia Police. Early efforts to establish the organisation were under way when a change of government occurred. The proposal lapsed, as the incoming coalition government declared it would not agree to such an 'amalgamation'. However, interests within the Public Service continued to press for a relabelled federal police body. The bomb blast outside the Hilton Hotel in February 1978 provided the necessary stimulus and the possibility of a revamped federal police agency. In late 1979, the Australian Federal Police was established by means of the Commonwealth Police Force absorbing Australian Capital Territory Police and some other federal investigators. By that time, Northern Territory had been granted limited self government and its police force was no longer so prone to bureaucratic imperialism, but the inclusion of Australian Capital Territory Police was considered sufficient to justify a police rather than security status for the new body. In fact, Australian Capital Territory Police possessed a discrete functional responsibility for the territory only which does

not flow to the body as a whole. As the Australian Federal Police is for the most part concerned with security and investigation functions, it is more usefully perceived as a public security agency having a small police force under its umbrella, rather than as a police force possessing major security and investigation functions. Some members of the disbanded Federal Narcotics Bureau were subsequently also absorbed by the Commonwealth Police in its new, larger format.

From the late sixties drug trafficking began to assume serious proportions in Australasia and the crime scene, as a result, became larger and more complex as well as violent. In short, a great deal more organisation developed in widespread criminal activities. Police were not ideally structured to cope with this change, and to a degree, were slow to recognise the changing scene and adapt to it. Criminals also became more cautious as well as more difficult to maintain surveillance upon.

Several well publicised murders, ie, Douglas and Isobel Wilson, and Donald MacKay, combined with the arrest of Terrence Clarke in Britain, led to the first of a series of three Royal Commissions (Woodward, Williams and Stewart). These three Commissions revealed something of the tangled web of criminality and corruption that had occurred in most mainland states by 1977, while police agencies were adapting to the new patterns of criminality and devising counter strategies. Further inquiries by the Costigan Royal Commission into the activities of the Federated Ship Painters and Dockers Union and the Stewart Royal Commission into the activities of the Nugan Hand group revealed further areas of criminality, including substantial tax dodging.

While these events were unfolding, the various police Ministers in the federation formed themselves into a Council, known as the Australian Police Ministers' Council, in 1980. The Council's Secretariat is located within the Department of the Special Minister of State. In February 1981, the Australian Bureau of Criminal Intelligence was created, with the various state and territory Commissioners of Police and the head of the Australian Federal Police comprising its board of management. In Northern Territory, Tasmania and Queensland, police formed joint drug enforcement units with personnel of the Australian Federal Police. A national police research unit was formed in 1983.

A puzzling aspect of all these activities and innovations is that the Commissioners of Police did not further develop their own base for joint activity, to the extent combined effort and ventures are necessary. This omission to create an interstate police commission (under whatever label) capable of comfortably accommodating all necessary combined crime control innovations has had the effect of making police more vulnerable to occupational erosion.

Accompanying these various organisational moves was a growing tendency among senior police practitioners and others to favour the concept of 'national' targets and strategies to various criminal phenomena.

The steady expansion of federal interests into what was previously a State's domain was highlighted in the creation, in July 1984, of the National Crime Authority. This shift of function and authority to the centre has gone largely unremarked. One problem associated with these recent innovations, in the long term, concerns possible weakening of police agencies, which would militate against professional development by eroding police function and credibility. Within the federation, only Victoria Police and South Australia Police show significant professional potential at the present time as evidenced by their organisational and operational sophistication; but the current emphasis on centralisation could have the effect of offsetting the advantages presently enjoyed by those two agencies. Across the Tasman, New Zealand Police also possesses considerable potential for professionalism.

New Zealand, being small in both population and land mass, is saved many of the structural problems faced in the federation of Australia. Police in New Zealand have achieved levels of organisational and occupational excellence only approached by Victoria and South Australia Police in the federation to date. New Zealand Police has achieved a sound balance with Customs with respect to drug control. It is noticeable, too, that New Zealand police employees and management are jointly exploring police employee career paths well in advance of most of their counterparts in the federation. In short, the future of police in New Zealand appears relatively bright.

The history of police in Australia was one of gradual consolidation and increasing skills until the early sixties. At that time progress slowed and some occupational confusion became apparent. The social tensions of the late sixties to early seventies and the straitened economic circumstances of the late seventies and early eighties provided a framework in which police development was more apparent than real, ie, a veneer of technical sophistication masked a rigidity of structure and process in some cases. A point has now been reached at which, due to a confluence of technology and political as well as social trends, the developmental process may be slowed even further, or even, in some cases, reversed. That is to say, police organisations may experience functional erosion and de skilling. The present trend to homogeneity, centralisation of exercising of functions and responsibilities which were previously exclusives of police preserves, could well contribute to a broad decline in police effectiveness. How well the police community addresses these problems of the future will in considerable part depend on how well its constituents understand the lessons of the past.

PART III *

LIBRARIES, LITERATURE AND INFORMATION SOURCES

* The cooperation and assistance of police librarians in the preparation of this Part is gratefully acknowledged.

The range of information systems and sources available in support of police officers is considerable. Full utilisation of such resources is, unfortunately, often inhibited by lack of knowledge concerning their availability. This Part attempts to concisely list the various institutions, systems and sources of information pertinent to police in New Zealand and Australia.

LIBRARIES

The various police libraries vary greatly according to size and organisation. Brief details of individual police libraries in Australia and New Zealand are provided below.

New South Wales

Police Headquarters Library

established: 1975

classification: Dewey, 19th edition

location: 3rd Floor, Remington Centre (until Nov-Dec 85,
and then return to College Street)
Liverpool Street, Sydney, 2000

opening hours: Mon-Fri 8.30AM - 4.30PM

Police Headquarters Library is responsible for the co-ordination and development of library services for the NSW Police Department exclusive of the Police Academy. Other branches of the library include film and prosecutions.

There are specialist collections also with Drug Squad, Scientific and Ballistics.

size of collection: Police Headquarters Library 6,000 monographs
Prosecutions 1,000 Monographs

- 2,000 x serial volumes
- 320 x current serial titles
- 50 x microfiche monograph titles
- 4 x microfiche serial titles
- 2 x vertical filing cabinets
 - subject material
- 3 x vertical filing cabinets
 - annual reports
- 170 x films
- 60 x video tapes - U-matic 3/4
- 15 x audio cassettes
- 10 x reels microfilm
 - newspaper clippings.

networks: Central Library belongs to Special Libraries group, Australian Library Association, Criminal Justice Librarians Group.

subject coverage: Police
Criminology
Criminal Law
NSW Statutes

Management
Sociology
Forensic Science
Ballistics

staff: Gary ANDERSON, Librarian
[Tel 339 0277] ext 5081
Norman MARINI, LT/ILL
[Tel 339 0277] ext 5772

services: Reference and Research, ILL, Dialog searching,
Journals Accession List, New Book List, Film
Catalogue and Loans.

Police Academy Library

established: 1 May 1984

classification: Dewey, 19th edition

location: NSW Police Academy,
McDermott Drive, Goulburn, NSW 2580

opening Mon, Tue, Thu 9.00AM - 6.00PM
hours: Wed 9.00AM - 7.30PM
Fri 9.00AM - 4.00PM

The Academy Library is responsible for supporting police education in NSW.

size of As at March 1985, the Academy Library
collection: possessed 23,000 items.

subject Law
coverage: Management
Policing
Communications
Behavioural sciences

staff: Malcolm CRAM, Senior Librarian
[Tel (048) 230247]
Wendy STEPHENS, Technical Services Librarian
[Tel (048) 230394]
Susan SHIBBLE, Reader Services Librarian
[Tel (048) 230394]

services: Reference and research, ILL.

VictoriaPolice College Library

established: 1958

classification: Dewey, 19th edition

location: 'Airlie', 260 Domain Road, South Yarra,
Victoria, 3141.

opening hours: The library is staffed on Mon-Fri from 8.15AM-
4.36PM, but is open to residents 24 hours
every day

size of collection: 4,000 x monographs
752 x serials volumes
80 x serials titles currently retained
62 x microfiche titles
vertical file

networks: The Police College Library is a unit of the
State Library of Victoria
Criminal Justice Librarians Group

subject coverage: Police administration
Business management
Criminology
Biography

staff: Christine PATERSON, Librarian
[Tel 26 5682]
Betty SULLIVAN, library technician
[Tel 26 5684]

services: Reference, ILL, bibliographies prepared,
DIALOG searches arranged, monthly bulletin
circulated (accessions list plus periodicals
list)

comment: A central police library is to be established
at the Police Academy, Glen Waverley.
Projected opening date is July 1985. The
central library will coordinate all library
services for the department. A network will
be formed with the existing Officers' College
and FSL libraries. A similar computer
catalogue is being planned.

State Forensic Science Laboratory Library

established: 1977

classification: Dewey, 19th edition

location: 193 Spring St, Melbourne, Victoria, 3000
 opening hours: Mon-Fri 8.15AM - 4.36PM
 size of collection: 1,428 x monographs
 730 x serial volumes
 105 x serial titles currently received
 390 x microfiche titles
 348 x reports, pamphlets, standards etc.
 networks: Criminal Justice Librarians Group
 subject coverage: General forensic science
 Document examination
 Firearms
 Fire investigation
 Blood grouping
 Forensic medicine
 Alcohol, drugs and driving
 Drugs of abuse (chemistry, analysis and pharmacology)
 Photography
 Trace evidence
 staff: Jane SCHWIND, Librarian
 [Tel 03 6622488]
 services: Reference inquiries, ILL, bibliographies prepared,
 Dialog searches, bimonthly accessions bulletin, journal holdings list.

QueenslandPolice Academy Library

established: 1972

classification: Dewey, 18th edition (expanded in 363 & 364 schedules). Subject headings LC 9th edition; also NCJ Thesaurus.

location: Police Academy, Rudd Street, Oxley, Queensland, 4075

opening hours: The library is staffed on Mon-Fri from 8.00AM-4.00PM but is open until 9.00PM for trainees and departmental members.

size of collection: 11,000 (approx) x monographs (incl some high school material)
 100 (approx) x periodical titles
 230 x audiovisual items
 (videotapes in 3/4" u-matic format, 16mm films, slides, audiotapes, O/L transparencies
 150 (approx) x pictorial items, ie, mounted photographs (historic items, ceremonial, rank structure, drugs, forensic, traffic, other police, library user, etc.
 300 (approx) x microfiche, US monographs, library reference lists, newsclippings
 maps : various
 realia : manuscripts, uniform items and accessories, mostly historic

subject coverage: Police
 Criminology
 Criminal law
 Sociology
 Social problems
 Social conflict
 Applied psychology
 Government
 Forensic science
 Traffic
 Photography
 First aid
 English usage
 Management

staff: Erica BOLT0, librarian [Tel 375 4057 ext 18]
Peter THOMPSON, clerical assistant [as above]

services: Reference, loans (books, pamphlets, audiovisual), bi-monthly current awareness service, bibliographies on request, ILL (all on a statewide basis), library user education

general: Liaison is maintained with the Police Academy's audiovisual production studio, the Legal and Training Section at PHQ which maintains an independent legal collection, State and other government Libraries in the legal and welfare area.

The collection (exclusive of classified items) is used for reference by tertiary students and other researchers only by appointment.

A lengthy library display board together with two cabinets containing pictorial collection and historic realia are maintained.

Hardware facilities for loan include 16mm projectors, slide projectors, cassette players and recorders. A microfiche reader and coin-operated photocopier are also provided. A dry mount press is available for use by library and Academy staff.

Western AustraliaWestern Australia Police Headquarters Library

established: 1977

classification: Dewey Decimal Classification
19th edition

subject Mudge, Charlotte R
headings: Subject headings for criminology
criminal justice and police science collection
Toronto: University, 1977
NCJ Thesaurus, January, 1979
Inhouse subject headings

location: Police Headquarters, 2 Adelaide Terrace,
PERTH, WA 6000

opening Mon-Fri 8.30AM - 4.30PM
hours:

size of (all figures are approximations of unique
collection: titles)
2,300 x monographs
60 x journals
10 x case law
6 x Hansards, statutes, gazettes
210 x atlases and maps
100 x annual reports
15 x conferences
10 x newspapers
500 x pamphlets
general interest publications

subject Police -
coverage: Administration
Equipment and supplies
Fitness and hygiene
Patrol
Survival techniques
Computing
Crime prevention and security measures
Criminal investigation
Criminology
Drug abuse and control
Forensic medicine
Law
Photography
Psychology, applied
Sociology

services: Reference and research, selective dissemination of information, monthly accessions list, bibliographies and reading lists, inter-library loans.

user group: Police department personnel at all times.
Students, public and researchers by appointment only.

Western Australia Police (Traffic Research) Branch Library

established: 1977

classification: Arranged alphabetically by
author/corporate body. Dewey Decimal
Classification for some general material.

subject headings: Highway Safety Research Institute, University
of Michigan Structured Thesaurus

location: 22 Mount Street, PERTH, WA 6000

opening hours: Mon-Fri 8.30AM - 4.30PM

size of collection: (all figures are approximations of unique titles)
1,800 x monographs
50 x journals
100 x standards
130 x microfiche
50 x annual and statistical reports
300 x pamphlets and articles
50 x reference books
10 x parliamentary papers

subject coverage: Motor vehicles
Road safety
Traffic law enforcement
Statistics
Accident research
Vehicle safety

services: Reference and research, interlibrary loans
library accessions list, distribution of
research reports

user group: Police Department personnel, students, public
and researchers at all times.

South AustraliaSouth Australian Police Library

established: 1970

classification: Dewey (18th edition)

subject Library of Congress (modified) and
headings: NCJ Thesaurus

location: Central Police Headquarters, Angas Street,
Adelaide, SA, 5000

postal address: GPO Box 1539, Adelaide, SA, 5000

opening Mon-Fri 8.45AM - 5.00PM
hours: After hours access is available.

size of 2,250 x reference books
collection: 170 x periodicals (current titles)
 100 x microfiche
 Selected clippings from local newspapers
 (from July 1982)

subject Police management and administration
coverage: Patrol organisation and operation
 Criminal investigation
 Forensic science
 Traffic
 Police/community relations
 Criminal law

services: Reference, reading lists (on request), Inter-
library loans, current awareness, including
accessions, lists (monthly)

staff: Ellen van der NOL, librarian
 [Tel 08-2181223]
 Helen FORREST - clerical officer

TasmaniaTasmania Police Department Library

established: 1976

classification: Dewey, 19th edition

location: Police Academy, Rokeby, Tasmania, 7019

nucom symbol: TPD

opening The library is staffed Mon-Thu from 8.00AM -
5.00PM, and Fri from 8.00AM - 1.00PM, and
hours: remains open for the use of staff and trainees
until 11.00PM

size of 3,800 x monographs
collection: 124 x serials
230 x audio-visual (16mm film, videotape-u-
matic, beta and vhs, slides)
120 x photographs and negatives
vertical file and small map collection

subject Corrections
coverage: Crime and criminals
Criminal investigation
Criminal justice, administration of criminal
law
Criminology
Delinquency
Disasters and emergencies
Drugs and Drug abuse
Evidence
Firearms
Forensic science
Law
Law enforcement
Law reform
Management and supervision
Organisation
Police -
Administration
Methods
Operations
Psychology
Science
Sociology
Training and education
Prisons and prisoners
Psychology, social
Public relations
Punishment
Sentencing
Social problems
Victimology
Violence

services: Reference, loans, current awareness, inter-library loans, bibliographical information, literature searches, reading lists and bibliographies, library user education, some historical research, computer database searches by arrangement.

staff: Darcy ERWIN, Librarian (1)
Clerical Assistance (p/t)
Technical Officer a/v (1)

general: The Tasmania Police Department Library is administratively within the Government Library Service section of the State Library of Tasmania, regular liaison being maintained with all State Government Library Services within this network. The library also participates in the Criminal Justice System Librarians' group, meeting with other participants on a national basis every two years, where possible. Although there are no branch libraries, the purchasing and recording of materials for other sections throughout the state, eg, photographic, fingerprints, ballistics, legal office, prosecuting, is centralised.

Australia

Australian Police College Library

established: 1960

classification: Dewey, 19th edition

location: Collins Beach Road, North Head, Manly, NSW, 2095

opening hours: Mon-Fri 8.30AM - 4.30PM
The library supports the training programme of the College.

size of collection: 4,500 x monographs
163 x periodical titles

networks: The library belongs to the Criminal Justice Librarians Group

subject coverage: Police
Criminology
Law
Management
Sociology

staff: Librarian (to be filled)
Sharen PARKER, Library Officer
[Tel 02-9775800]

New ZealandNew Zealand Police Department Library

- classification: Dewey edition for books, LC subject headings. Vertical file material according to library's own headings. Microfiche by NCJ number or alphabetical by title.
- location: Fourth floor, Training Aids Block, New Zealand Police College, Private Bag, PORIRUA. The College is located three kilometres north of PORIRUA on State Highway 1.
- opening hours: The library is staffed on Mon-Fri from 8.11AM-4.30PM but is open to readers whenever the building is open, ie, every day from 7.00AM - 11.00PM
- size of collection: 7,500 x monographs
950 x serial volumes
12 x drawers of vertical file material
110 x current titles received
8,000 x microfiche
- networks: None. Will eventually become part of NZ Bibliographic network.
- subject coverage: Police science and administration
Criminology
Criminal law
NZ laws and statutes
Delinquency
Terrorism
Criminal investigation
Forensic science
Education and training
Weapons and self defence
Management
Photography
Sociology/psychology
- staff: Richard SCHURR, librarian
[Tel 370-139 ext 822]
Maria ANDRE, library assistant
[Tel 370-139 ext 823]
- services: Reference service, subject searches on request. No formal current and overseas service other than quarterly library accessions list incorporating new books and indexed articles. Lockheed Dialog searches arranged through NZ National Library.
- user education programs: Short library orientation tour for new recruit intakes and in-services courses on request.

general: No branch libraries. Administratively responsible to the Director of Training. Departmental library also located in College. All stock is reported in the National Union Catalogue. NZ National Library handles all subscriptions, book orders, overseas payments, etc.

Budgets

Police librarians all receive their funding from government sources. Budget details for the years 1979-1981 are shown in the Tables below. As indicated, only the New South Wales Central Police Library received adequate financial support. As that library services nearly 10,000 persons and receives more references annually than the University of Sydney Law Library, even that funding is far from extravagant.

The erratic nature of some budgets is highlighted in the increase and decrease in New South Wales for 1979 and 1980 respectively. One contributing factor was a special film purchase grant. The Police College Library, in Victoria, was also subject to abrupt fluctuations.

It is observed that police libraries generally expend a smaller proportion of their budgets on services than law libraries. One reason for the differences may be different levels of funding but the proliferation of law serials probably explains the difference more than any other factor as there are few worthwhile police serials available.

Only the New South Wales Central Police Library and the Victoria Police College Library possess library committees. In both cases, the relevant librarian is a member. Other committee members tend to be administrative officers and training personnel.

POLICE LIBRARIES: TOTAL BUDGETS 1979-1981 (excl salaries)

Library	78-79 \$	79-80 \$	80-81 \$	percentage increase	
				79-80 %	80-81 %
NSW Central	58,000	113,468	100,000	96	-12
Q Academy	-	8,570	10,400	-	21
V College	5,269	6,226	6,575	18	6
V FSL	3,065	5,093	7,400	66	45
WA HQ	7,104	9,375	11,501	32	23

Source: Beth WILSON

POLICE LIBRARIES: MONOGRAPH AND SERIAL BUDGETS 1979-1981

Library	monographs			serials		
	78-79	79-80	80-81	78-79	79-80	80-81
	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
NSW Central	13,000	26,304	18,286	20,000	27,264	36,028
Q Academy	-	3,200	4,500	-	1,600	1,600
V College	1,400	2,000	2,500	2,511	3,070	3,000
V FSL	1,500	1,500	2,300	1,490	2,828	3,468
WA HQ	-	5,000	5,000	-	4,000	4,000

Source: Beth WILSON

POLICE LIBRARIES: PERCENTAGE OF BOOK VOTE DEVOTED TO
MONOGRAPHS AND SERIALS 1979-1981

Library	monographs			serials		
	78-79	79-80	80-81	78-79	79-80	80-81
	%	%	%	%	%	%
NSW Central	22	23	18	34	24	36
Q Academy	-	37	43	-	19	15
V College	27	38	38	48	49	46
V FSL	49	29	31	49	56	47
WA HQ	-	53	43	-	43	35

Source: Beth WILSON

POLICE LIBRARIES: BUDGETS FOR BINDING 1979-1981

Library	78-79	79-80	80-81
	\$	\$	\$
NSW Central	-	-	-
Q Academy	-	170	200
V College	272	309	411
V FSL	0	0	1,230
WA HQ	-	1,700	-

Source: Beth WILSON

Beth Wilson commented in her survey of law libraries, all police libraries 'have large numbers of potential users and none are adequately staffed or funded to meet the important tasks required of them'.

Police library collections are observed to be very different from traditional law library collections. Instead of rows of statutes and law reports, the major focus is on monographs, journals and reports. Generally, only small collections of primary law materials are held - most of which pertain to police qua police, training and operations.

LITERATURE

There is substantial literature associated with police in New Zealand and Australia. Listed below are a range of publications, most of which directly or indirectly concern police. In a few cases, such as the publications of the New South Wales Bureau of Crime Statistics and Research, a complete listing of publications is provided for reasons of comprehensiveness regardless of the degree of police relevance involved.

Police related inquiries, reports, etc.

New South Wales

- | | |
|---------------|---|
| 1823 | Report Of The Commissioner Of Inquiry On The Judicial Establishments Of New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land (Bigge) |
| 1835 | Report Of The Select Committee On Police and Gaols (Trood) |
| 1843 | Report From The Select Committee On The Bill To Amend The Water Police Act 1843 (Wentworth) |
| 1844 | Report Of The Select Committee On The Insecurity Of Life and Property (Nicholson) |
| 1847 | Report From The Select Committee on Police (Cowper) |
| 1850 | Police Establishment, Report From The Board Of Inquiry (Hill) |
| 1850 | Report From The Select Committee On Police (Thomson) |
| 1852 | Report From The Select Committee On The Water Police Department (Holroyd) |
| 1852 | Progress Report From The Select Committee On The Police Regulation Bill (Holroyd) |
| 1852 | Second Progress Report From The Select Committee On The Police Regulation Bill (Holroyd) |
| 1852 | Final Report From The Select Committee On The Police Regulation Bill (Holroyd) |
| 1855 | Management Of The Native Police, Report Of Board Of Inquiry, Held at Moreton Bay (Wickham) |
| 1856-
1857 | Report Of The Board Of Inquiry Into Police Matters (Hay) |
| 1856-
1857 | Report From The Select Committee On The Native Police Force (Sandeman) |

- 1862 Report From The Select Committee On Alfred Witts (Garrett)
- 1862 Report From The Select Committee On The Management Of The Central Police Office (Driver)
- 1862 Report Of The Progress Of Formation Of The Police Establishment Since The New Police Act Came Into Formation (McLerie)
- 1891- Report Of The Royal Commission On Alleged Chinese
1892 Gambling and Immorality and Charges Of Bribery Against Members Of The Police Force (Manning)
- 1895- Report From The Select Committee On Dismissal Of
1898 Constable Easterbrook (Fegan)
- 1898 Report Of The Royal Commission Appointed To Inquire Into The Charges Against Senior Constable Quelch (Johnson)
- 1902 Report Of the Royal Commission To Inquire Into A Charge Against Sergeant James Hogg, Of The Police Force (Darley)
- 1918 Progress Report From The Select Committee On the Case Of Mr AL Robertson (Bruntnell)
- 1919 Report Of Police Inquiry (Street)
- 1920 Final Report Of The Select Committee On The Possession Of Firearms (Creed)
- 1920 Report Of Royal Commission Into Trial and Conviction and Sentences Imposed On Charles Reeves et al (Ewing)
- 1931 New Guard Movement, Copy Of Police Reports In Regard To, and Its Objects
- 1935- Report Of the Royal Commission Into Improper Conduct On
1936 The Part Of The Police Force Of New South Wales In Respect Of Activities In Connection With The Suppression Of SP And Street Betting (Markell)
- 1935- Report Of the Royal Commission As To Whether Any Member
1936 Or Members Of The Police Force Of New South Wales Have Accepted Or Agreed To Accept Any Bribe Or Bribes From Any Person Or Persons In Connection With Illegal Betting Or Intended Illegal Betting, SP And Street Betting (Markell)
- 1936- Report Of the Royal Commission Into Allegations Against
1937 The Police In Connection With The Suppression Of Illicit Betting (Markell)
- 1954 Report Of The Royal Commission On Liquor Laws In New South Wales (Maxwell)

- 1974 Report Of The President Of The Industrial Commission Concerning Increased Access (Beattie)
- 1974 Report Of The Royal Commission Appointed To Inquire In Respect Of Certain Matters Relating To Allegations Of Organised Crime In Clubs (Moffitt)
- 1978 A Report On The Summary Prosecution In The Supreme Court Of Corporate and/or 'White Collar' Offences Of An Economic Nature (Court)
- 1978 Special Branch Criminal Records In New South Wales (Privacy Committee)
- 1978 Collection, Storage and Dissemination Of Criminal Records By The Police (Privacy Committee)
- 1978 Interim Report Of The Select Committee Of The Legislative Council On Crime Control (Freeman)
- 1979 Report Of The Solicitor-General Concerning The Prosecution Of Cessna and Milner (Sullivan)
- 1979 The Employment Position Of Women Police In The New South Wales Police Force (Midgely)
- 1980 A Report On A Proposal For A Review Of Some Police Training Programmes (England)
- 1981 Report Of Inquiry Into New South Wales Police Administration (Lusher)
- 1981 Report Of The NSW Committee Of Inquiry Into The Legal Provision Of Heroin And Other Possible Methods Of Diminishing Crime Associated With The Supply Of Heroin (Rankin)
- 1982 Report Of The Tribunal To The Minister For Police Pursuant To An Inquiry under s.45 Of The Police Regulation (Allegations Of Misconduct) Act 1978 Into Certain Matters Relating To Discipline In The Police Force And Mr WAR Allen (Perrignon)
- 1983 Report Of the Royal Commission Of Inquiry Into Certain Committal Proceedings Against KE Humphries (Street)
- 1983 Report Of Auditor-General Concerning Police-Citizen's Boys Clubs (unpublished)
- 1983 Statement By The NSW Police Force To The Select Committee Of The Legislative Assembly Upon Prostitution On The Public Health, Criminal, Social And Community Welfare Aspects Of Prostitution In New South Wales (Day)
- 1984 Report Of The Special Inquiry Into Certain Management Practices Of The TAB (Moore)

- 1984 Report Of The Special Commission Of Inquiry Into Certain Allegations By The Right Honourable Ian McCahon Sinclair (Cross)
- 1984 Report Of Investigation Into Complaint Of Inadequate Investigation Of Complaint Made In Respect Of Supervision Of Parramatta Police-Citizens Boys' Club (Bunt)
- 1984 Report Of Investigation Into Allegation Of Criminal Impropriety Of A Senior Public Servant Made By An Inmate Of The Long Bay Gaol Complex (Pry and Cooke)
- 1984 Tapes and Documents Provided To The Attorney General By The Age Newspaper (Gaudron)
- 1984 Report Into Certain Matters Raised By Mr CR Brieese, Chairman Of Magistrates, Concerning Committal Proceedings Against Mr Morgan Ryan (Gaudron)
- 1984 Report Of The Special Commission Of Inquiry Into Certain Allegations Made By Mr R Bottom (Cross)
- 1984 Report Of The Special Commission Of Inquiry Into Circumstances Surrounding The Early Release Of Prisoners (Slattery)
- 1984 Report Of The Inquiry Held Under Section 475 Of The Crimes Act 1900 Into The conviction Of Lorraine May Price At Central Criminal Court, Sydney, On 2 June 1983, Of Murder (Slattery)
- 1985 Report Of The Select Committee On Prostitution (Rogan)
- 1985 Report Of The Committee On Gaming (Lloyd-Jones)

Victoria

- 1852 Report Of the Select Committee On Police (Snodgrass)
- 1855 Report Of The Commission Appointed To Inquire Into The State Of The Police (Frazer)
- 1857- Report Of The Board Appointed To Inquire Into The
1858 Defalcation Of [JG] McGregor, Late Clerk In The Office Of The Paymaster Of Police (Grimes)
- 1857- Report Of the Select Committee On Captain MacMahon's Case
1858 (Aspinall)
- 1858 Report Of the Select Committee On JG McGregor's Case (Haines)
- 1862 Report From The Select Committee On The Police Force (Frazer)
- 1862 Progress Report Of the Select Committee On Anderson's Purchased Land and Police Reserve, Carlsruhe (Snodgrass)
- 1870 Report Against Mr Cobham, Superintendent Of Police In The Wimmera District (Kay)
- 1874 Report Of the Select Committee Upon Mr Reginald Green (McDermott)
- 1881 Progress Report Of The Royal Commission Of Inquiry Into The Circumstances Of The Kelly Outbreak, The Present State and Organisation Of The Police Force, Etc (Longmore)
- 1882 An Interim Report Of The Royal Commission Of Inquiry Into The Circumstances Of The Kelly Outbreak, The Present State and Organisation Of The Police Force, Etc (Longmore)
- 1883 Special Report Of The Royal Commission On Police On The Detective Branch (Longmore)
- 1883 General Report Of The Royal Commission On the Present State and Organisation Of The Police Force (Longmore)
- 1905- Royal Commission Report On The Victorian Police
1906 (Cameron)
- 1918 Report Of the Board Appointed To Determine and Report Upon The Alleged Misconduct Of Senior Constable Samuel John Hallett and His Dismissal From The Police Force (Anderson)
- 1918- Report Of the Board Of Inquiry Into Certain Charges Made
1919 Against Constable Vivian Fattorimi (Dickson)
- 1925 Report Of The Royal Commission On The Victorian Police Force (Monash)

- 1932 Report Of the Board Of Inquiry Into The Dispersing Of Pedestrians In Flinders Street, Melbourne, On 6 April 1932 (Kelley)
- 1933 Report Of the Board of Inquiry Into Certain Allegations And Complaints Made Against Certain Members Of The Police Force Including The Chief Commissioner Of Police (Kelley)
- 1936 Report Of The Royal Commission On the Alleged Shooting at and Wounding Of John O'Connell Brophy, A Superintendent Of Police (MacIndoe)
- 1936 Interim Report Of Alexander M Duncan, Esq. Chief Inspector Of The London Metropolitan Police, On The Police Force Of Victoria (Duncan)
- 1937 Final Report Of Alexander M Duncan, Esq. Chief Inspector, London Metropolitan Police, On The Police Force Of Victoria (Duncan)
- 1942- Report Of The Royal Commission Appointed To Inquire Into
1943 Certain Allegations Regarding The Administration Of The Licensing Laws Of Victoria (Clyne)
- 1971 Report Of The Board Of Inquiry Into Allegations Of Corruption In The Police Force In Connection With Illegal Abortion Practices In The State Of Victoria (Kaye)
- 1971 A Report On The Victoria Police Force (St Johnston)
- 1976 Addenda To The Report Of The Board Of Inquiry Into Allegations Against Members Of The Victoria Police Force (Beach)
- 1978 Report Of The Board Of Inquiry Into Allegations Against Members Of The Victoria Police Force (Beach)
- 1978 Report Of The Committee Appointed To Examine And Advise In Relation To The Recommendations Made In Chapter 8 Of Volume 1 Of The Report Of The Board Of Inquiry Appointed For The Purpose Of Inquiring Into and Reporting Upon Certain Allegations Against Members Of The Victoria Police Force. Part 1 - Police Procedures Relating To The Investigation Of Crime; Part 2 - Investigation Of Complaints Against Police (Norris)
- 1981 Royal Visit - CHOGM Melbourne, Police Planning, Operations and Security Guide
- 1982 Report On Forensic Science Laboratory (Robinson)
- 1983 Report Of The Board Of Inquiry Into Casinos, 4 vols (Connor)

- 1983 Report To the Committee Of Inquiry, Victoria Police Force, From The Police Education Centre (Rowe et al)
- 1983 Report Of The Board Of Inquiry Into Poker Machines (Wilcox)
- 1983 Report Of The Working Party To Review The Operation Of The Private Agents Act 1966 (Wilson)
- 1985 Report Of The Committee Of Inquiry, Victoria (Neesham)

Queensland

- 1861 Report Of the Select Committee On Native Police Force and The Conditions Of The Aborigines Generally (McKenzie)
- 1897 Report On The North Queensland Aborigines and The Native Police (Parry-Okeden)
- 1899 Report Of The Royal Commission Appointed To Inquire Into The Constitution, Administration, and Working Of The Criminal Investigation Branch Of The Police Force Of Queensland, Etc (Noel)
- 1902 Report Re Anonymous Letter, Purporting To Be A Confession To The Murders Of Constable George Doyle and Albert Christian Dahlke On 30 March 1902 (Urquhart)
- 1908 Rates Of Pay, Etc, In the Police Force Of New South Wales and Queensland, Respectively
- 1917 Report Re Assault On Prime Minister Of Commonwealth At Warwick (Urquhart)
- 1919- Report Of The Royal Commission Appointed To Inquire Into
1920 The Circumstances Surrounding The Incidents Which Took Place At The Lock-Up At Townsville On The Night Of Sunday, 29 June 1919 (Harris)
- 1964 Report Of The Royal Commission Inquiring Into Rumours Of Police Misconduct In Relation To The National Hotel, Etc (Gibbs)
- 1968 Report On the Administrative Inquiry Into The Queensland Police Force (McKinna) (not released)
- 1977 Report Of The Committee Of Inquiry Into The Enforcement Of Criminal Law In Queensland (Lucas)
- 1977 Report Of the Inquiry Into Allegations Of Police Misconduct In Relation To SP Bookmaking At Southport (O'Connell) (not released)
- 1980 Report To The Queensland Government On The Alleged Involvement In The Illegal Drug Trade By Queensland Parliamentarians and Senior Police (Williams)
- 1982 Report Of the Sub-Committee's Examination Of the Report Of Committee Of Inquiry Into The Enforcement Of Criminal Law In Queensland (Cummins)

Western Australia

- 1913 Report Of The Select Committee Appointed To Inquire Into The Retirement Of Captain Hare (Gawler)
- 1921- Report Of the Royal Commission On Arrest On A Charge Of
1922 Insanity, Committal To and Detention In The Hospital For The Insane At Claremont Of Georgina and Thomas Mable (Kidson)
- 1926 Report Of the Select Committee Appointed To Inquire Into the Practicability Of Converting The Police Benefit Fund Into A Superannuation Scheme (Hughes)
- 1927 Report Of the Royal Commission Into the Alleged Killing And Burning Of Bodies Of Aborigines In East Kimberley (Wood)
- 1937 Report Of the Royal Commission Investigating Certain Charges Of Corruption (Hart)
- 1949 Report Of the Royal Commission Appointed To Inquire Into Some Aspects Of The Administration Of The Police Of Western Australia Under The Commissioner Of Police (Book)
- 1975- Report Of The Laverton Royal Commission (Clarkson)
1976
- 1975- Report Of The Royal Commission Into Matters Surrounding
1976 The Administration Of The Law Relating To Prostitution (Norris)
- 1976 Report Of The Royal Commission Into Matters Surrounding The Trial Of Baymis Ugle and Subsequent Investigations Relating Thereto (Virtue)
- 1984 An Overview Of The Functions Of The Western Australia Police Force And Police Department, Phase I Report

South Australia

- 1853 Report From The Board Of Inquiry Appointed To Investigate The State Of Discipline And Efficiency Of The Police Force (Freeling)
- 1866 Report Of Commission Of Inquiry Into the Management Of Police Force ()
- 1872 Report Of Board Of Inquiry Into The Management Of The Metropolitan Police Force (Boucaut)
- 1890 Report On The South Australian Police Force (Peterswald)
- 1909 Report Of The Royal Commission On The Conviction Of Myles Flynn (Downer)
- 1909 Rates Of Pay To Members Of Police Forces (Madley)
- 1925 Report Of The Royal Commission On Port Pirie Police (Halcombe)
- 1925 Report Of The Second Royal Commission On Port Pirie Police (Nesbit)
- 1927 Report Of The Royal Commission On Allegations Of Bribery Against Police Officers (Paine)
- 1927 Report Of The Commissioner Of Police On the Findings Of the Royal Commission Report On Police Bribery (Leane)
- 1933 Report Of The Royal Commission On Betting (Ray)
- 1933 Addendum To Report Of the Royal Commission On Betting
- 1959 Report Of the Royal Commission In Regard To Rupert Max Stuart (Napier)
- 1963 Report Of The Crown Solicitor On The Matter Of Edwin Ross Ives and Others: Criticism Of The Police (Kearnan)
- 1964 Report On The Police Training Academy, Fort Largs
- 1971 Report Of The Royal Commission On The September Moratorium Demonstration (Bright)
- 1971 Report Of Planning Operations (Draper)
- 1974 Criminal Investigation (CLPMRC)
- 1974 Report Of The Royal Commission On The Suspension Of A High School Student (Combe)
- 1974 Report Of the Inquiry Into the Death Of George Duncan (not released)

- 1977 Report Of The Judicial Inquiry Into Files Held By The Special Branch Of The South Australian Police Department (White)
- 1978 Report Of The Royal Commission On The Dismissal Of Harold Hubert Salisbury (Mitchell)
- 1979 Report Of The Royal Commission Into The Non-Medical Use Of Drugs (Sackville)
- 1980 Report On The Dismissal Of Mr HH Salisbury, Commissioner Of Police (Griffin)
- 1980 Report Of The Select Committee Of Inquiry Into Prostitution (Wilson)
- 1981 Review Of Advice Given To the Attorney-General By His Officers On Newspaper Articles Written In The Advertiser By Mr Stewart Cockburn About The Trial and Conviction Of Edward Charles Splatt (Bollen)
- 1981 Report Upon The Matters Referred To In The Series Of The Advertiser Articles By Mr Stewart Cockburn Upon The Trial Of Edward Charles Splatt (Bishop)
- 1984 Report Of The Committee On Complaints Against The Police (Grieve)
- 1984 Strategic Plan 1984 (Hunt)
- 1984 Report Of The Royal Commission Into The Imprisonment Of Edward Charles Splatt (Shannon)

Tasmania

- 1880 Progress Report Of the Select Committee To Inquire Into The Working Of The Police System Of The Colony (Balfe)
- 1883 Intercolonial Police: Correspondence (Number 105)
- 1886 Report Of the Select Committee On Centralisation Of Police (Reiby)
- 1891 Report Of The Select Committee On the Dismissal Of Police Constable Alfred John Jackson (Mulcahy)
- 1901 Report Of The Commissioner Of Police On The Cost Of Police Before and Since Centralisation (Richardson)
- 1906 Report Of The Royal Commission On The Organisation and Administration Of The Police Force (Oldham)
- 1914 Report Of The Select Committee On the Case Of Mr Frederick Pedder, Ex-Superintendent Of Police At Hobart (Blyth)
- 1949 Report Of The Board Of Inquiry Into Police Conditions (Perrin)
- 1952 Certain Allegations Against Officers - Ministerial Statement (Fagan)
- 1955 Report Of The Board Of Inquiry On Allegation Made Against Members Of The Police Force (Little)
- 1955 Report On All Aspects Of Crime Investigation By The Criminal Investigation Branch Of The Tasmanian Police Department (Duncan)
- 1962 Report Of The Select Committee Appointed To Inquire Into Police Matters In Tasmania (Wedd)
- 1962 Report Of The Board Of Inquiry On Disciplinary Action Taken Against Constable James Patrick Dunne, The Arrest Of James Edward Patrick (Turner)

Northern Territory

- 1973 Report Of the Commissioner Appointed to Inquire Into The
Northern Territory Police Force (McKinna)

Australian Capital Territory

- 1976 Extension Of Police Radio Facilities In The ACT
- 1978 Report Of The Select Committee On Police Organisation
(Vivian)

Norfolk Island

- 1975 Norfolk Island Police Force (Rochford)

Miscellaneous

- 1963 Report Of The Royal Commission On Alleged Improper Practices and Improper Refusal To Co-operate With The Victoria Police Force On The Part Of Persons Employed In The Post Master General's Department In Victoria In Relation To Illegal Gambling (Taylor)
- 1973 Report On The Commonwealth Police Force (Milte)
- 1974 Report Of The Committee Of Inquiry On A National Forensic Institute (Clark)
- 1975 Complaints Against Police (ALRC)
- 1975 Criminal Investigation (ALRC)
- 1978 Report To The Minister For Administrative Services On The Organisation Of Police Services In The Commonwealth Area, And Other Related Matters (Mark)
- 1978 Complaints Against Police - Supplementary Report (ALRC)
- 1979 Protective Security Review (Hope)
- 1980 Report Of The Royal Commission Into Drug Trafficking (Woodward)
- 1980 Report Of the Australian Royal Commission Into Drugs (Williams)
- 1981 Operation Of The Drug Treaties Australia 1978-1980
- 1982 Report Of The Royal Commission Into Australian Meat Industry (Woodward)
- 1982 Report Of The Commissioner Appointed To Inquire Into Activities Of The Australian Building Construction Employees & Builders Labourers Federation (Winneke)
- 1982 Reports Of The Royal Commission On The Activities Of The Federated Ship Painters and Dockers Union (Costigan): Interim report #3 (Jan82); interim report #4 vol 1 (Jul82); Discussion Paper (Jul82)
- 1982 Interim Report Of The Special Prosecutor (Redlich) (not released)
- 1982 Prosecution Policy Of The Commonwealth
- 1982-1983 Reports Of the Commonwealth - New South Wales Joint Task Force On Drug Trafficking: vol 2 pt1 (Jun82); vol 3 (Oct82); v4 pt2 (Mar83)
- 1983 Organised Crime (Meagher)

- 1983 Report Of The Royal Commission Of Inquiry Into Drug Trafficking (Stewart)
- 1983 A National Crimes Commission?
- 1983 Transcript Of An Interview With Alexander James Sinclair Conducted At HM Prison Parkhurst, Isle Of Wight, On Friday 24 September 1982 (Stewart)
- 1983 Annual Report Of The Special Prosecutor 1982-1983, 2 vols (Redlich)
- 1983 Review Of Customs Administration and Procedures New South Wales, 2 vols (Mahony)
- 1983 Reports Of The Royal Commission On The Activities Of The Federated Ship Painters and Dockers Union (Costigan) : Interim report #5 vol 1 (Jul83)
- 1983 National Crimes Commission Conference, Record Of Proceedings
- 1983 Human Rights and The Deportation Of Convicted Aliens and Immigrants, Human Rights Commission Report #4
- 1983 Review Of Crimes Act 1914 and Other Crimes Legislation Of The Commonwealth, Human Rights Commission Report #5
- 1983 The Observance Of Human Rights At The Villawood Immigration Detention Center, Human Rights Commission Report #6
- 1983 Special Prosecutor's Office, Report To The Attorney General (Gyles)
- 1983 Royal Commission Of Inquiry Into The Activities Of The Nugan Hand Group, Interim Report #1 (Stewart)
- 1984 The National Crime Authority Bill 1983, Report By Senate Standing Committee On Constitutional and Legal Affairs (Tate)
- 1984 A Review Of Australia's Peacetime Coastal Surveillance and Protection Arrangements (Beazley)
- 1984 Report Of the Matters Affecting The Australian Telecommunications Commission (Telecom) (Vincent)
- 1984 Management Review Of The Australian Federal Police, Report #1 (Farmer)
- 1984 Report Of Special Prosecutor, Ian Temby, QC, Into The Age Materials (Temby)
- 1984 Annual Report Of The Special Prosecutor 1983-84 (Redlich)

- 1984 Special Prosecutor's Office. Report To the Attorney-General (Gyles)
- 1984 Inquiry Into The Circumstances Surrounding The Making Of A Customs Declaration (Black)
- 1984 Medical Fraud and Overservicing. Progress Report (Connolly)
- 1984 Royal Commission On The Activities of the Federated Ship Painters and Dockers Union Final Report, Vols 1-5: Final Report Appendices 1-A, 1-B, 1-C, (Costigan)
- 1984 Royal Commission Of Inquiry Into The Activities Of The Nugan Hand Group, Interim Report #2 (Stewart)
- 1984 Report Of Committee Of Permanent Heads On Allegations In The National Times Of 10 August 1984 (Brazil)

New Zealand

- 1870 Report On Armed Constabulary (Moule)
- 1871 Construction Of Roads By Armed Constabulary (McLean)
- 1878 Report On Charges Against The Police, Gaols Committee (Bowen)
- 1898 Report Of The Royal Commission Appointed To Examine The General Organisation, Distribution, Control, Enrolment, Discipline Of The Police Force ()
- 1905 Report Of The Royal Commission On The Police Force Of New Zealand (Bishop and Poynton)
- 1909 Report and Evidence Of The Royal Commission On The Police Force Of New Zealand (Bishop)
- 1954 First Interim Report Of The Commission Of Inquiry Appointed To Inquire Into Certain Matters Relating To The Conduct Of Members Of The Police Force (Kennedy)
- 1954 Second Interim Report Of The Commission Of Inquiry Appointed To Inquire Into Certain Matters Relating To The Conduct Of Members Of The Police Force (Kennedy)
- 1955 Third and Final Report Of The Commission Of Inquiry Appointed To Inquire Into Certain Matters Relating To The Conduct Of Members Of The Police Force (Kennedy)
- 1955 Report Of Commission to Inquire Into The Prosecution By The Police Of Donald James Raka and Murdoch Campbell Harris (Lason)
- 1970 Special Report Of The Ombudsman Upon Complaints Against Police Conduct (Powles)
- 1980 Report Of The Royal Commission To Inquire Into The Circumstances Of The Convictions Of Arthur Allan Thomas For The Murders Of David Harvey Crewe and Jeanette Lenore Crewe (Taylor)
- 1982 New Zealand Police Functional Review (Hickson)
- 1983 Report Of The Chief Ombudsman On The Investigation Of Complaints Against The Police Arising From The South African Rugby Tour Of New Zealand In 1981 (Laking)
- 1983 Report Of The Royal Commission To Inquire Into Certain Matters Relating To Drug Trafficking (Stewart)
- 1983 Report Of The Commission Of Inquiry Into The Circumstances Of The Release Of Ian David Donaldson From A Psychiatric Hospital and Of His Subsequent Arrest and Release On Bail (Temm)

- 1983 Report Re Paul Chase Shooting (Nicholson)
- 1983 Report Of Police Personnel Policy Committee (Mairs)
- 1984 Report Of the Committee Of Inquiry Into The Riot At
Auckland On 7 December 1984 (Mahon)

Articles

A great number of articles have been written relevant to police, either directly or indirectly. Some are so peripherally relevant to police they do not warrant mention, many others do not warrant mention by virtue of their lack of merit. Many such articles are listed in bibliographies cited later in this chapter.

Below are listed selected articles relating to (or of direct interest to) police in Australia and which are of possible utility to readers. The editors have not refined their selection criteria for articles and it is possible worthwhile items have been inadvertently excluded or otherwise overlooked. Readers wishing to propose items of particular interest for inclusion in future editions are invited to contact the editors.

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 Event Of A State Of Emergency.'
Australian Police Journal,
 v32 #3 (Jul): 131-144

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- 1979 'John Harris, The First Australian Policeman.'
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 v5 Pt 11: 49-66

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- 1973 'Police Attitudes To Deviance In Victoria'
Australia and New Zealand Journal Of Sociology
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- 1981 'The New Zealand System For Dealing With Complaints
 Against Police. A Comparative Evaluation.'
Auckland University Law Review,
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Pacific Defence Reporter,
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- 1970 'The Border Police 1839-1846.'
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 #13: 64-69

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 Victoria 1837-1853.'
Journal Of The Royal Australian Historical Society,
 v57 pt2 (Jun): 113-142

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- 1977 'Police Professionalisation.'
Australian Police Journal,
 v31 #1 (Jan): 28-42

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- 1968 'Australian Attitudes To The Police: A Pilot Study'
British Journal Of Criminology,
 v8 #4: 424-431

CHAPPELL Duncan, WILSON PR

- 1970 'Police In Australia.'
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 v6 #7 (Aug): 99-111

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- 1982 'From Dogberry To Cop Shop.'
Australian Left Review,
 #79 (Mar): 20-27

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- 1983 'We Fight Fires Not The People. The Relationships
 Between The Fire Brigade and Law Enforcement.'
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Male Law Students and Police Trainees in Queensland,
Australia.'
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1971 Police Training

ELLIS KG

1969 Police Training

GILES JB

1971 Training and Operations

GULBRANSEN NS

1973 Crime Intelligence

HORTON JH

1974 Bomb Disposal

KEENE PP

1973 Training/Operations

LEWIS TM

1968 Juvenile Aid

McCONAGHY PD

1975 Portable Radios/Traffic Control

McVEIGH CM

1974 Women In Male Police Duties

MILLER SI

1966 Detective Training

VINEY KH

1974 Police Training

ZAKNICH JA

1976 Detective Training

Police pamphlets and pamphlets pertaining to police

Listed below are pamphlets possessing direct relevance to police throughout Australia and New Zealand.

- 1977 Alcohol and Aborigines
Melbourne: Police Department
- 1948 Be-Anga
Sydney: East Sydney Police-Citizens Boys Club
- 1971 Blue Light 662 0911
Melbourne: Police Department
- BOOTE HE
1917? Set The 12 Men Free
Sydney: Labor Council Committee To Secure A Royal
Commission To Investigate IWW Cases
- 1977 Complaints Against Police
Melbourne: Police Department
- CROWE Cornelius
1921 Policemen and Politicians
Melbourne: Fraser and Jenkinson
- CROWE Cornelius
1907 Serious Tampering With The Course Of Justice
Melbourne: J Ingleson
- FRASER Phillip (ed)
1966 Facts About Anti-LBJ Demonstration
Melbourne: Students Representative Council,
Monash University
- GERAGHTY JM
1967 The Citizen And The Police
St Lucia: Queensland Council Of Civil Liberties
- GIBSON Neil
1933 Jungle Justice: Victoria Police Scandals Exposed
Melbourne: Neil Gibson
- GIBSON Neil
1933 Victorian Police Scandals Exposed
Melbourne

- 1975 Graduates And The Department Of Police and Customs
Canberra: Department Of Police and Customs
- HATCHER IW
- 1983 Policing The XII Commonwealth Games Brisbane 1982
Brisbane: Police Department
- Nd History and Function Of The Queensland Police Force
Brisbane: Police Department
- 1976 History Of The Police In New South Wales
Sydney: Police Department
- 1973 In Step With The Law
Perth: Police Department
- LAWRENCE RM
- 1970 Know Your Policeman
Perth: Police Department
- McWILLIAMS R
- 1936 "Our" Police Force
Sydney: District Committee Of Communist Party Of
Australia
- Nd Northern Territory Police, A Brief History
Darwin: Police Force
- PARKER Heather
- All In The Line Of Duty: Danger and Drudgery On The
Gold Escort Route Adelaide-Mount Alexander, 1852-53
Bordertown: Border Chronicle
- 1968 Police Powers and Citizens' Rights Including Motorists'
Rights
Melbourne: Victorian Council For Criminal Liberties
- 1969 History and Outline Of Victoria Police Force
Melbourne: Government Printer
- Nd Public Relations - Everybody's Job!
Hobart: Government Printer
- 1968 The SA Police Headquarters
Adelaide: Police Department

- 1972 South Australian Police Department, Outline Of The
History and Function
Adelaide: Government Printer
- ST JOHN RJB
1968 The Role Of The Police In Courts
Melbourne: Victorian Council Of Civil Liberties
- SWANTON Bruce
1983 Early Development Of Electronic Communications In The
Police Department Of New South Wales
Canberra: Australian Institute Of Criminology
- SWANTON Bruce
1983 A Chronological Account Of Crime, Public Order and
Police In Sydney 1788-1810
Canberra: Australian Institute Of Criminology
- SWANTON Bruce
1983 The Police Of Sydney 1788-1862
Canberra: Australian Institute Of Criminology and NSW
Police Historical Society
- Nd Tasmania Police ... and Its History
Hobart: Government Printer
- Nd Tasmania Police, Criminal Investigation Branch
Hobart: Government Printer
- Nd Tasmania Police, Uniform Branch
Hobart: Government Printer
- Nd Tasmania Police, Search and Rescue Units
Hobart: Government Printer
- 1975 To Those We Serve
Perth: Police Department
- 1978 Victoria Police
Melbourne: Government Printer

Bibliographies

Bibliographies fall into three major categories:

- * subject bibliographies
- * general library catalogs
- * national bibliographies

Subject bibliographies are merely lists of books published on a particular topic, theme or subject.

General library catalogues serve as comprehensive bibliographies of works in many languages. Some, such as the British Museum's General Catalogue Of Printed Books, also serve as national bibliographies.

National bibliographies are systematic lists of books published in a particular country or in a particular language. An important catalog listing books in English is Cumulative Book Index, A World List Of Books In The English Language.

With today's computerised data bases printed bibliographies are becoming increasingly redundant. However, some produced in recent years are not entirely without utility. It is for this reason the select list of mostly criminal justice bibliographies is shown below:

BECKER HK, FELKENES GT

1968 Law Enforcement: A Selected Bibliography
Metuchen, NJ: Scarecrow Press, Inc

BESTERMAN Theodore

1965 A World Bibliography Of Bibliographies, 4d
(5 vols)
Lausanne: Societas Bibliographica

BRETT DT

1974 'Police Literature.'
Pp 160-176 in M Wright (ed),
Use Of Criminology Literature
London: Butterworths

DAVIS BL

1978 Criminological Bibliographies, Uniform Citations To
Bibliographies, Indexes and Review Articles Of The
Literature Of Crime Study In The United States
Westport, CT: Greenwood Press Inc

Vom ENDE Rudolph

- 1981 Criminology and Forensic Sources, An International Bibliography 1950-1980, 3 v
Munich: Saur

HEWITT WH

- 1967 A Bibliography Of Police Administration, Public Safety, and Criminology
Springfield, IL: CC Thomas

HEWITT WH, NEWMAN CL

- 1970 Police-Community Relations: An Anthology and Bibliography
Mineola, NY: Foundation Press

INTERNATIONAL POLICE ASSOCIATION

- 1968 International Bibliography Of Selected Police Literature
London: M and W Publications (Liverpool) Ltd

MARCUS Marvin

- 1976 Criminal Justice Bibliography
Atlanta, GA: School Of Urban Life, Georgia State University

NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF MENTAL HEALTH

- 1969 Bibliography On The Urban Crisis
Washington, DC: Government Printer

NATIONAL CRIMINAL JUSTICE REFERENCE SERVICE

- International Summaries, 2 v
Washington, DC: Government Printer

PROSTANO ET

- 1974 Law Enforcement: A Selective Bibliography
Littleton, CO: Libraries Unlimited

SELLIN Thorsten, SANITZ LD

- 1963 A Bibliographical Manual For The Student Of Criminology
Hackensack, NJ: National Research and Information Center On Crime and Delinquency

SWANTON Bruce

- 1976 Bibliography Of Police Unions and Police Labor Relations
(indexed)

SWANTON Bruce

- 1976 Selected Bibliography Of Job Satisfaction, Absence and Alienation For Police

SWANTON Bruce

1977 Bibliography Of Stress For Police (indexed)

SWANTON Bruce

1979 Armed Robbery

WHITEHOUSE JE

1980 A Police Bibliography
New York, NY: AMS Press

The following comprehensive list of NCJRS annotated bibliographies is of particular interest and is shown separately (and alphabetically) as an aid to easy reference.

- 1979 Affirmative Action - Equal Employment Opportunities In The Criminal Justice System (NCJ 61834)
- 1979 Alternatives To Institutionalisation (NCJ 58518)
- 1979 Arson (NCJ 58366)
- 1978 Basic Sources In Criminal Justice (NCJ 49417)
- 1979 Bibliographies In Criminal Justice (NCJ 62014)
- 1977 Careers In Law Enforcement (NCJ 42765)
- 1979 Child Abuse and Neglect: A Literature Review (NCJ 62013)
- 1977 Community Crime Prevention (NCJ 43628)
- 1976 Court Reporting (NCJ 36026)
- 1979 Crime and Disruption In Schools (NCJ 56588)
- 1977 Crimes Against The Elderly (NCJ 43626)
- 1979 Criminal Justice and The Elderly (NCJ 55197)
- 1975 Criminal Justice Evaluation (NCJ 25659)

- 1979 Criminal Justice Periodicals (NCJ 57168)
- 1979 Etiology Of Criminality: Nonbehavioral Science
Perspective (NCJ 60117)
- 1979 Female Offender (NCJ 55637)
- 1978 Firearm Use In Violent Crime (NCJ 52677)
- 1978 Halfway Houses (NCJ 46851)
- 1976 International Criminology and Criminal Justice
(NCJ 39235)
- 1978 International Policing (NCJ 46190)
- 1978 Issue In Sentencing (NCJ 47100)
- 1979 Jail-Based Inmate Programs (NCJ 60331)
- 1978 Jury Reform (NCJ 48232)
- 1976 Juvenile Diversion (NCJ 34456)
- 1976 Juvenile Diversion 2d (NCJ 40050)
- 1978 Overcrowding In Correctional Institutions (NCJ 45869)
- 1979 Paralegals (NCJ 57986)
- 1976 Plea Bargaining (NCJ 32329)
- 1976 Police Consolidation (NCJ 34700)
- 1978 Police Crisis Intervention (NCJ 48005)
- 1978 Police Discretion (NCJ 46183)
- 1978 Police Management (NCJ 49699)

- 1978 Police Productivity (NCJ 50501)
- 1979 Police Stress (NCJ 59352)
- 1979 Police Training (NCJ 62012)
- 1978 Police Industries (NCJ 49701)
- 1978 Private Security (NCJ 47367)
- 1975 Prosecutorial Discretion: The Decision To Change
(NCJ 57987)
- 1978 Publications Of NILECJ (NCJ 49700)
- 1979 Publications Of NILECJ - 1979 Supplement (NCJ 57987)
- 1978 Public Defender Programs (NCJ 49096)
- 1976 Recidivism (NCJ 34360)
- 1979 Restitution (NCJ 62011)
- 1978 Speedy Trial (NCJ 48110)
- 1978 Spouse Abuse (NCJ 54427)
- Nd Standards Of Care In Adult and Juvenile Correctional
Institutions (NCJ 61443)
- 1979 Strategies For Reintegrating The Ex-Offender
(NCJ 61571)
- 1976 Team Policing (NCJ 35887)
- 1977 Techniques For Project Evaluation (NCJ 43556)
- 1976 Terrorism (NCJ 34048)
- 1976 Terrorism 20 (NCJ 39646)

- 1977 Terrorism Supplement (NCJ 45005)
- 1979 Variations On Juvenile Probation (NCJ 62010)
- 1975 Victim Compensation and Offender Restitution (NCJ 32009)
- 1977 Victimless Crime (NCJ 43630)
- 1978 Victim/Witness Assistance (NCJ 35886)
- 1977 White Collar Crime (NCJ 42502)
- 1976 Work Release (NCJ 35886)

Topical searchers and topical bibliographies are available from the National Institute of Justice/National Criminal Justice Reference Service. Topical searches are available to foreign clients at a price of US \$7.50 each in the following police categories:

- * Crime Analysis
- * Computer Crime and Security
- * Organised Crime
- * Police Discipline and Internal Affairs
- * Police/Fire Consolidation
- * Police Firearms Training
- * Police Minority Recruitment
- * Police Personnel Selection
- * Police Physical Fitness
- * Police Promotion and Career Development
- * Police Pursuit Driving
- * Police Stress and Stress Management
- * Police Use of Deadly Force
- * Police Work Scheduling
- * Psychological Screening of Police
- * SWAT and Hostage Negotiations.

Topical bibliographies are available to foreign clients at a price of US \$22.50 each in the following police related categories.

Crime prevention:

- * Arson
- * Community Crime Prevention Programs
- * Crime and the Elderly
- * Intrusion Alarms

Dispute resolution:

- * Alternative Dispute Resolution

Police:

- * Police Brutality and Use of Force
- * Police Personnel Selection
- * Policewomen
- * Psychological Screening of Police
- * SWAT and Hostage Negotiations.

General reference

- ADLER JA Elsevier's Dictionary Of Criminal Science
1960 Amsterdam: Elsevier
- BECKMAN E
1979 The Criminal Justice Dictionary
Ann Arbor, MI: Pierian Press
- CRAMER James
1968 Uniforms Of The World's Police
Springfield, IL: CC Thomas
- DOREY MA, SWIDLER GH
1975 World Police Systems, A Factual Text
Boston, MA: Northeastern University Press
- INGLETON RD
1979 Police Of The World
London: Ian Allan Ltd
- KADISH SB (ed)
1983 Encyclopedia of Crime and Justice
New York: Free Press 4 vols.
- MARTIN J Law Enforcement Vocabulary
1973 Springfield, IL: CC Thomas
- National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service
1976 Dictionary Of Criminal Justice Data Terminology, 1d
Washington, DC: Government Printing Office
- NICE RW (ed)
1965 Dictionary Of Criminology
New York, NY: Philosophical Library
- 1972 Police Science Advancement
New York, NY: Arco Publishing Co
- RUSH G Dictionary Of Criminal Justice
1977 Boston MA: Allyn, Bacon
- SALOTTOLOL AL
1976 Modern Police Service Encyclopedia (revised)
New York, NY: Arco Publishing Co
- SWANTON Bruce, HANNIGAN Garry, BILES David
1983 Police Source Book 1
Canberra: Australian Institute Of Criminology

Foreign statistical sources

The following publications provide inter alia statistical data of relevance to police. Most, but not all, are published annually.

Crime and Traffic Enforcement Statistics
Ottawa: Statistics Canada

Crime In India
New Delhi: Bureau Of Police Research and Development

Crime In The US
Washington, DC: Government Printing Office

Criminal Justice Statistics England and Wales
London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office

Criminal Justice Statistics Scotland
London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office

International Crime Statistics
Paris: International Criminal Police Organisation

Juristat Service Bulletin
Ottawa: Statistics Canada

Justice Statistics
Wellington: Department Of Statistics

Murder Statistics Canada
Ottawa: Statistics Canada

Report Of Her Majesty's Chief Inspector Of Constabulary
London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office

Directories

- Nd International Security Directory (irregular)
London: Security Gazette Ltd
- Forensic Science Society
1977 World List Of Forensic Science Laboratories 3d
Harrowgate: Forensic Science Society
- Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
1975 Criminal Justice Agencies (10 vols)
Washington, DC: Government Printing Office
- Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
1976 Directory Of Automated Criminal Justice Information Systems (2 vols)
Washington, DC: Government Printing Office
- MUKHERJEE Satyanshu
1978 A World Directory Of Criminological Institutes
Rome: United Nations, Social Defence Research Institute
- National Bureau Of Standards
1978 Directory Of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice Associations and Research Centers
Washington DC: Government Printing Office
- National Institute Of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice
1978 Directory Of Criminal Justice Information Systems 2d
Washington, DC: Government Printing Office
- National Institute Of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice
1972 An Inventory Of Surveys Of The Public On Crime, Justice and Related Topics
Washington, DC: Government Printing Office
- Police and Constabulary Almanac (annual)
London: Security Gazette Ltd

Australian statistical sources

This publication details Australian criminal justice statistics, such as departmental annual reports, and ABS publications.

- NEUHAUS Deborah
1985 Current Sources Of Australian Criminal Justice Statistics
Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology

Bureau Of Crime Statistics and Research(NSW)

Many of the Bureau's publications are not of direct reference to police in Australia. However, the full list is provided below not only for reasons of comprehensiveness but, because most of the items listed may be of utility to police researchers at one time or another.

Statistical Reports (Series 1)

Drug Offences 1971 (Mar 72)
Aborigines In Prison (Apr 72)
City Drunks - Central Court Of Petty Sessions -
February 72 (Apr 72)
Breathalyser Offences 1971 (Jul 72)
Drunks Who Go To Gaol (Aug 72)
Crime In Our Cities - A Comparative Report (Nov 72)
City Drunks - A Possible New Direction (Feb 73)
Drug Offences 1971 (May 73)
Gun and Knife Attacks (Aug 73)
Breathalyser Offences 1971 (Aug 73)
Petty Sessions 1971 (Nov 73)
Unreported Crime (Mar 74)
Who Are The Victims? (Apr 74)
Safety In The Suburbs (Apr 74)
Drug Offences 1973 (Apr 74)
A Thousand Prisoners (Sep 74)
Crime, Correction and The Public (Sep 74)
Minor Offences - City and Country (Oct 74)
Breathalyser (Nov 74)
Territorial Justice In Australia (Nov 74)
Rape Offences (Dec 74)

Statistical Reports (Series 2)

Accidental Shootings (Apr 75)
Intentional Shootings (May 75)
Drug Offences 1974 and Community Comparisons (May 75)
Jurors (Jul 75)
Domestic Assaults (Sep 75)
Court Statistics 1974 (Dec 75)
Court Statistics 1975 (Feb 77)
Court Statistics 1976 (Dec 77)
Court Statistics 1977 (Nov 78)
Court Statistics 1978 (Feb 80)
Court Statistics 1979 (Jun 81)
Court Statistics 1980 (Nov 81)
Court Statistics 1981 (Dec 82)

Statistical Reports (Series 3)

Intoxicated Persons 1980 (Jun 80)

Statistical Bulletins

Gun Casualties Accidental and Intentional
Adult Offenders Previously Dealth Within Juvenile Courts
Aboriginal People and The NSW Criminal Justice System
Sydney Coroner's Court Statistics 1979
Comparison Of Crime Rates
Elderly Crime
Trends In Violent Crime In NSW 1978
Public Drunkenness Offenders In Country Areas of NSW
Environmental Offences In NSW 1978
Motor Vehicle Theft In NSW
Sydney Coroner's Courts Statistics 1974
Sydney Coroner's Courts Statistics 1975
Sydney Coroner's Courts Statistics 1976
Sydney Coroner's Courts Statistics 1977
Sydney Coroner's Courts Statistics 1978
Sydney Coroner's Courts Statistics 1980
Crime In The Western Suburbs
Sydney Coroner's Court Statistics 1981

Conference Papers

The Work Of The Bureau
Family Violence and The Royal Commission on Human
Relationships
Proposals On Reform Relating To Legal Remedies For Domestic
Violence
Women, Drugs Alcohol and Crime
The Role of Policy and Prison Officers and Education
Program
Methodology For Police Analysis and Research
Statistical Information For Politicians and The Public
The Determination Of Bail
Domestic Violence: Some Factors Preventing Women Leaving
Violent Relationships
Aboriginal Drunkenness and Discrimination

Research Reports

Bail
Armed Robbery
Homosexual Offences
Company Investigation
A Study Of Complaints Against Lawyers

Research Reports continued

Two Studies Of RecidivismPenalties and The Drink DriverDay In Gaol ProgramA Study Of Evidence Presented To The District Court in NSWThe Sydney Drink/Drive Rehabilitation ProgramThe Sydney Drug Diversion ProgramVandalism and Theft

Discussion Papers

Public DrunkennessProstitutionHomosexualityDrug AbuseA Comparison Of The Dutch and NSW Prison SystemsProstitution - A Literature ReviewRiots - A Literature ReviewVictims Of Crime Services

Institute Of Criminology (SU)

Selected proceedings of the Institute's seminars of possible relevance to police are shown below

Selected Proceedings
(ordered chronologically)

Drug Abuse (1968)
Sexual Offences Against Females (1969)
Bail (1969)
Abortion (1970)
Male Sex Offences In Public Places (1970)
Social Defence (1971)
Road Safety (1971)
Armed Robbery (1972)
The Right Of Silence (1973)
Police Questioning and Confessional Statements (1975)
The Protection Of Children (1975)
White Collar Crime, Can The Courts Handle It? (1975)
Motoring Offences (1975)
Treatment Of Children Associated With Crime (1976)
Corporate Crime (1976)
Complaints Against Police (1976)

Office of Crime Statistics (SA)

A complete list of publications of the Office of Crime Statistics is shown below.

Series I: Crime and Justice in South Australia -
Quarterly Reports

- Vol. 1 No. 1 Report for the Period Ending 31st December, 1978
(February, 1979)
- Vol. 1 No. 2 Report for the Period Ending 31st March, 1979
(June, 1979)
- Vol. 1 No. 3 Report for the Period Ending 30th June, 1979
(September, 1979)
- Vol. 2 No. 1 Report for the Period Ending 30th September, 1979
(December, 1979)
- Vol. 2 No. 2 Report for the Period Ending 31st December 1979,
(March, 1980)
- Vol. 2 No. 3 Report for the Period Ending 31st March, 1980
(July, 1980)
- Vol. 2 No. 4 Report for the Period Ending 30th June, 1980
(September, 1980)
- Vol. 3 No. 1 Report for the Period Ending 30th September, 1980
(December, 1980)
- Vol. 3 No. 2 Report for the Period Ending 31st December, 1980
(May, 1981)
- Vol. 3 No. 3 Report for the Period Ending 31st March, 1981
(July, 1981)
- Vol. 3 No. 4 Report for the Period Ending 30th June, 1981
(September, 1981)

Series II: Summary Jurisdiction and Special Reports

- No. 1 Homicide in South Australia: Rates and Trends in
Comparative Perspective (July, 1979)
- No. 2 Law and Order in South Australia: An Introduction to
Crime and Criminal Policy (September, 1979)
- No. 3 Robbery in South Australia (February, 1980)
- No. 4 Statistics from Courts of Summary Jurisdiction: Selected
Returns from Adelaide Magistrate's Court: 1st January-
30th June, 1979 (March, 1980)

- No. 5 Statistics from Courts of Summary Jurisdiction: Selected Returns from South Australian Courts: 1st July-31st December, 1979 (September, 1980)
- No. 6 Statistics from Courts of Summary Jurisdiction: Selected Returns from South Australian Courts: 1st January-30th June 1980 (December, 1980)
- No. 7 Statistics from Courts of Summary Jurisdiction: Selected Returns from South Australian Courts: 1st July-31st December, 1980 (September, 1981)
- No. 8 Statistics from Supreme Court and District Criminal Courts: 1st July 1980-30th June, 1981 (November, 1981)
- No. 9 Homicide and Serious Assault in South Australia (November, 1981)

Series A: Statistical Reports

- No. 1 Statistics from Criminal Courts of Summary Jurisdiction: 1st January-30th June, 1981 (April, 1982)
- No. 2 Crime and Justice in South Australia: 1st July-31st December, 1981 (August, 1982)
- No. 3 Statistics from Criminal Courts of Summary Jurisdiction: 1st July-31st December, 1981 (November, 1982)
- No. 4 Crime and Justice in South Australia: 1st January-30th June, 1982 (February, 1983)
- No. 5 Statistics from Criminal Courts of Summary Jurisdiction: 1st January-30th June, 1982 (September, 1983)
- No. 6 Crime and Justice in South Australia: 1st July-31st December, 1982 (October, 1984)
- No. 7 Statistics from Criminal Courts of Summary Jurisdiction: 1st July-31st December 1982 (December, 1984)
- No. 9 Statistics from Criminal Courts of Summary Jurisdiction: 1st January-30th June, 1983 (January, 1985)

Series B: Research Bulletins

- No. 1 Shoplifting in South Australia (September, 1982)

Series C: Research Reports

- No. 1 Sexual Assault in South Australia (July, 1983)
- No. 2 Evaluating Rehabilitation: Community Service Orders in South Australia (May, 1984)

Series D: Social Issues Series

- No. 1 Random Breath Tests and the Drinking Driver (November, 1983)

INFORMATION SOURCES

Shown below are informative sources of utility to police officers regardless of whether the materials and institutions itemised are in fact of Australian or New Zealand origin.

Guides to the criminological literature

BORCHARDT DH

1976 Australian Bibliography, A Guide To Printed Sources Of Information
Sydney: Pergamon Press

FOX RG

1977 Research Guide To Criminology Material
Canberra: Australian Institute Of Criminology

KINTON JF

1974 Criminology, Law Enforcement and Offender Treatment
Aurora, IL: Social Science and Sociological Resources

MILLER Anne (ed)

Nd Checklist Of Nineteenth Century Australian Colonial Statistical Sources: Censuses, Blue Books and Statistical Registers. Historical Bibliography Monograph #7
Kensington, NSW: Department Of History, University Of New South Wales

O'BRIEN R, SODERMAN J

Nd The Basic Guide To Research Sources
New York, NY: Mentor Books

SWANTON Bruce

1978 Checklist/Guide To Materials and Information For Police Researchers
Canberra: Australian Institute Of Criminology

WHITE SRG, EDWARDS AH

1977 Criminological Materials In The Parliamentary Papers Of Australia and New Zealand From 1901
Canberra: Department Of Law, Research School Of Social Sciences, Australian National University

WRIGHT Martin

1974 Use Of Criminology Literature
London: Butterworths

Periodic reports

Major periodic reports either of direct relevance or general interest to police are listed below.

Annual Report Of The New South Wales Police Department

Annual Report Of The New Zealand Police

Annual Report Of The Northern Territory Police

Annual Report Of The Queensland Commissioner Of Police

Annual Report Of The South Australian Commissioner Of Police

Annual Report Of The Tasmania Commissioner Of Police

Annual Report Of The Traffic Board Of Western Australia

Annual Report Of The Victoria Police Department

Annual Report Of The Western Australia Commissioner Of Police

Australian Federal Police Annual Report

Law and Order (Queensland)

New Zealand Official Yearbook

Official Year Book Of New South Wales

Police Statistics Tasmania

Queensland Year Book

Road Traffic Accidents, Queensland

Road Traffic Accidents, South Australia

Road Traffic Crashes In New South Wales, Statistical Statement (Traffic Authority)

South Australian Year Book

Statistical Review Of Crime (Victoria)

Tasmanian Year Book

Victorian Year Book

Western Australian Year Book

Year Book Of Australia

NB. Researchers, when checking catalogues, should check first for jurisdiction, then organisation, followed by type of publication, eg, New South Wales. Police Department Annual Report.

Abstracting and indexing journals

An abstracting service provides summaries of articles, etc. Such summaries permit researchers to determine the relevance of materials to their needs and thus retrieving in its entirety. Abstracts are usually arranged in broad subject areas and numbered consecutively. A contents list in front displays the subject areas covered by the service and each issue contains a detailed subject and author index. They are mostly cumulated annually.

An index is a systematically arranged list providing sufficient information regarding each item to allow it to be identified and traced. Normally, indexes provide access to periodical articles by means of alphabetically arranged subject headings and are themselves serial publications. Some indexes are massive covering entire disciplines whereas others are confined to single topics.

Listed below is a selection of useful abstracting and indexing journals.

<u>title</u>	<u>frequency</u>	<u>cumulation</u>
<u>Abstracting, CJ Oriented:</u>		
<u>Abstracts on Crime and Juvenile Delinquency</u> [microfiche]	annual	
<u>AGIS - Attorney General's Information Service</u> (federal)	quarterly	
<u>Crime and Delinquency Abstracts</u>	discontinued	
<u>Criminal Justice Abstracts</u> (1970-1979 entitled <u>Abstracts on Criminology and Penology</u> ; 1961-1969 entitled <u>Excerpta Criminologica</u>)	quarterly	
<u>Criminology and Penology Abstracts</u>	bimonthly	
<u>Forensic Science Abstracts</u>	10 <u>pa</u>	
<u>Police Science Abstracts</u>	bimonthly	
<u>Abstracting, general:</u>		
<u>Abstracts For Social Workers</u>		
<u>ANSOL Community Affairs Bulletin</u>	monthly	
<u>Australian Road Index</u>	quarterly	annually
<u>Psychological Abstracts</u>	monthly	
<u>Sociological Abstracts</u>	irregular	
<u>Indexing, general:</u>		
<u>Australian Public Affairs Information Service</u>	11 <u>pa</u>	annually

title	frequency	cumulation
<u>Bibliographic Index</u>	biannual	
<u>Bioresearch Index</u>	monthly	annually
<u>British Humanities Checklist</u>	quarterly	annually
<u>Current Contents, Social and Behavioural Science</u>	weekly	
<u>Index Medica</u>	monthly	annually
<u>Index To Current Information</u>	fortnightly	quarterly, annually
<u>Medical Socioeconomic Research Sources</u>	monthly	annually
<u>Public Affairs Information Service</u>	5 pa	
<u>Readers Guide To Periodical Literature</u>	semi-monthly	
<u>Social Sciences Citation Index</u>	quarterly	annually
<u>Social Sciences Index</u>	quarterly	annually
Indexing, CJ oriented:		
<u>Correctional Literature Published In Canada</u>	annual	
<u>Crime and Delinquency Literature</u>	quarterly	
<u>Criminal Justice Periodical Index</u>	quarterly	annually
<u>Current Australian and New Zealand Legal Literature Index</u>	quarterly	
<u>Current Publications In Legal and Related Fields</u>	10 pa	annual
<u>Document Retrieval Index</u>	annual	
<u>Index To Canadian Legal Periodical Literature</u>	bimonthly	annually
<u>Index To Foreign Legal Periodicals</u>	quarterly	annually, triennially
<u>Index To Indian Legal Periodicals</u>	biennially	annually
<u>Index To Legal Periodicals</u>	monthly	triennially
<u>Index To Periodical Articles Related To Law</u>	quarterly	
<u>Information Bulletin Of Australian Criminology</u>	quarterly	annually

Institutional sources and services

The primary institutional sources of information concerning police are the various police forces, police departments and police ministries or ministries responsible for police affairs. Embassies, consulates and legations are often useful sources with respect to foreign police agencies. Focus here, however, is placed on libraries and archives.

Libraries

Libraries, despite their many shared functions, are of several distinct types. They are classified here as:

- * university libraries
- * State and National libraries
- * specialist libraries
- * government department libraries, including police libraries.

University libraries are located at all universities. In fact, most universities possess a number of separate libraries. Colleges of Advanced Education and Institutes of Technology are included in this category. Some university libraries are specialised, eg, law, medicine, biological sciences, whereas others are of a general nature, eg, undergraduate and main libraries.

As a general rule, persons not accredited with universities are not permitted to borrow from university libraries. In some cases, special permission is required to even read material within the library building. Researchers and others not accredited with a university, but desirous of utilising its library resources, should ascertain local requirements. Inquiries should be addressed to the head librarian in any given institution in the first instance.

State and National libraries are reference libraries, ie, material has to be perused on site. Loans of reference materials, where permissible, are almost entirely restricted to other libraries, ie, inter-library loans. Photocopying and/or microfilming facilities are now universally available in these libraries.

State and National libraries represent an invaluable resource to all police researchers.

Specialist libraries include a mixed bag of both public and private libraries, some of which cater to out-of-house clients and others which are either exclusively or largely designed to support in-house requirements. Examples of specialist libraries are:

- * Supreme court Libraries
- * Law Reform Commission Libraries
- * CSIRO Libraries
- * newspaper Libraries
- * Victorian Historical Society Library.
- * Australian Institute of Criminology library
- * National Police Research Unit Library.

Libraries maintained in Australia by the US Information Service and the United Kingdom High Commission are included under this heading as a matter of convenience.

Government department libraries are those libraries maintained by government departments to support the functions of the host organisation, eg, police department, or attorney general's department. Like universities, government departments sometimes possess more than one library.

Several specialist and public service libraries in the criminal justice field, (including police) have formed their own conference, which meets irregularly. These libraries operate in support of each other, thereby providing an improved service to police researchers.

Archives

Archives are maintained in one form or another by both federal and State governments.

Australian Archives attend to federal and territorial archival needs. In New South Wales, the Archives Office is the appropriate authority concerning archival matters. In Victoria, a similar function is performed by the Public Records Office. In all other States, archive functions are performed under the authority of the State Librarian.

The cities of Sydney and Adelaide have both appointed their own archivists and certain universities, eg, Sydney, ANU, Melbourne and Wollongong have commenced archiving materials. The latter three mentioned, in addition to archiving their own records, are also archiving certain business and union records.

Files and other materials stored by the various archival authorities are subject to a variety of access classifications. Researchers need to acquaint themselves with the regulations applying in the various jurisdictions.

Source materials

Materials capable of providing police and associated researchers with needed data are many and varied. The vast majority of these materials are available in libraries, although only the largest possess them all.

Source materials are of two kinds, those which:

- * contain data
- * list sources of data.

In other words, there are direct and indirect sources. They are discussed here in that order.

Direct sources

Direct sources of interest to police researchers are quite varied. They consist mainly of data compilations that may appear once only, or which are repeated annually. Encyclopedias and inventories, as well as specialist dictionaries, are also included in their number. Some online services contain full text material, eg. CLIRS.

Indirect sources

Indirect sources include the following categories:

- * directories
- * bibliographies
- * abstracts
- * indexes
- * guides.

Certain indirect sources overlap category boundaries and are thus difficult to classify. In some cases, arbitrary selection becomes necessary.

Directories are listings which itemise such things as persons, organisations, and locations. A number of directories are listed in this chapter.

Bibliographies are listings of materials. They may be annotated. A number of general bibliographies of utility to researchers are listed elsewhere in this chapter.

The number of subject specific bibliographies is vast, and even if they were all known, would defy listing here. The erstwhile National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice has produced a large number of annotated bibliographies of utility to police researchers, as has also the Federal Bureau of Investigation.

Other institutions significantly concerned with the production of bibliographies are the library of the Centre of Criminology at the University of Toronto, Canada, and the library of the Institute of Criminology at Cambridge University, England.

Abstracts and indexes are, as previously stated, some of the most important of all sources of information. They both serve roughly the same function, but abstracts tend to be more informative by virtue of their annotation. Lists of both sources, direct and indirect, are shown elsewhere in this chapter.

Guides to the criminological and police literature are not numerous. Sometimes it is difficult to distinguish guides from bibliographies and indexes. However, it is possible to do so with a little forcing and some of the better guides available are listed here.

Services

A number of information services are available to researchers in Australia and overseas. Some are quite general in nature whilst others are restricted to criminal justice matters only.

Information services can be classified as belonging to one or other of two major groups:

- * current awareness services
- * general bibliographical and information services.

Current awareness services

Current awareness services, as the term implies, are designed to keep users abreast of current publications, and/or research, and/or events. Such services are provided either by established libraries or by other organisations possessing a defined information role. These services are provided in two ways:

- * Printed indexes, eg. Information Bulletin of Australian Criminology; Police Digest
- * Online access to relevant databases, eg. NCJRS on DIALOG

The National Library of Australia can provide current awareness services of utility to police researchers for a fee from virtually any databases available on the following networks:

- * DIALOG
- * ORBIT
- * MEDLARS
- * AUSINET

Current awareness services outside Australia and New Zealand

Both Canada and America possess current awareness services of utility to police researchers in the various states and territories of the federation.

CAN/SDI current awareness program is operated by a consortium of five government libraries in Ottawa. Data bases are placed on magnetic tape. User interest profiles are compiled in the normal way and searched accordingly. Printout items are frequently annotated.

Inquiries concerning CAN/SDI should be addressed:

Canadian Institute for Scientific and Technical
Information (CISTI)
National Research Council
OTTAWA KIA 0S2
CANADA

CISTI also operates a program known as CAN/OLE. This service permits on-line searches, both retrospective and current. Fees vary according to the nature of the tapes accessed. The service is nationwide and has been available since 1974.

Abstracting services utilised in the compilation of CAN/OLE include COMPENDEX and INSPEC. The Union List Of Scientific Serials in Canadian libraries is similarly incorporated.

National Criminal Justice Reference Service (NCJRS) is in fact an international clearing house for criminal justice information. It provides a range of services to researchers in relevant fields. Services other than current awareness are dealt with in succeeding pages.

Any individual, agency, or organisation may register for NCJRS services some of which are free. Selected current awareness notifications of materials and events are despatched to users monthly in the publication NIJ Reports/SNI.

Inquiries by researchers should be directed as under:

National Criminal Justice Reference Service
Box 6000
ROCKVILLE MD 20850
USA

General bibliographical and information services

General bibliographical and information services of utility to police researchers readily fall into either of two categories:

- * bibliographic services
- * information services.

Bibliographic services

Bibliographic services of substance are fairly rare and printed forms of bibliographies have largely been superseded by users compiling their own bibliographies by means of online databases.

The Australian Institute of Criminology maintains an Australian criminological database CINCH available on AUSINET. A Database User Guide to CINCH may be requested from:

Librarian
JV Barry Memorial Library
Australian Institute of Criminology
PO Box 28
WODEN ACT 2606
Tel: (062) 822111

Information services

Information services of use to police researchers include the following:

- * AIC
- * ABS
- * CJIS.

AIC, through the medium of the JV Barry Memorial Library, provides limited reference services to librarians and genuine researchers.

ABS is the greatest single repository of raw data in Australia. Amongst other collections, it holds the all important Census data. The ABS has an education and justice statistics section, which is of most interest to police researchers.

For data which are not already publicly available in ABS documents and publications such as survey reports and yearbooks, inquiries should be directed to:

Supervisor
Justice and Other Social Statistics
Australian Bureau of Statistics
PO Box 10
BELCONNEN ACT 2616
Tel: (062) 525155

CJIS is a program of SEARCH Group, Inc, which is sponsored by NIJ. Services provided are based on an index of automated systems. Users' requirements are matched to characteristics of donors in categories such as:

- * system functions,
- * hardware,
- * software,
- * jurisdiction descriptors
- * operational environment
- * on-line vs. batch processing.

Inquiries may be addressed to CJIS as under:

SEARCH Group, Inc
1620 35th Avenue
SACRAMENTO CA 95822
USA

SSDA Data Catalogue is a guide to the social science data holdings of the Social Science Data Archives, the Australian National University. Subject areas covered by the guide include those of interest to police researchers.

On line data bases

Police researchers nowadays engage in a wide range of research, especially with the advent of policy units and an increased emphasis on behavioural perspectives. These and other researchers require access to pertinent computerised data bases and the first step in acquiring that capability is to be aware of the on line data bases, some of which are referred to above. The following Table provides a partial list of on line data bases accessible to researchers in Australia, showing file names, descriptions and other relevant information.

ON LINE DATA BASES

commands	file names and description	coverage updated	
<hr/>			
<u>AUSINET</u>			
<u>Business and Management</u>			
ABIX	Australian Business Index	1981+	monthly
AFRE	Australian Financial Review	1982+	weekly
<u>Indexes and Directories</u>			
ABST	Australian Bureau of Statistics	1964	quarterly
ANBB	Australian National Bibliography	1972+	monthly
APAI	Australian Public Affairs Information Service	1978+	monthly
ATLS	Australian Transport Literature Information System	1981+	quarterly
ARRD	Australian Road Index	1977+	quarterly
DERA	Directory of Education Research and Researchers in Australia	1977	biennial
HDEG	Union List of Higher Degree Theses in Australian University Libraries	1975+	
WEST	WAIT Index to Newspapers	1980+	every 2 months
<u>General</u>			
ARRD	Australian Road Research Documentation	1977	quarterly
IRRY	International Road Research Documentation	current month only	
LASR	Office of Road Safety Retrieval System	1970+	monthly

commands	file names and description	coverage updated
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CLIRSCommonwealth

COMACT	Commonwealth Acts	1901
COMREP	Commonwealth Law Reports	
COMREG	Statutory Rules	
HIGHCT	High Court Judgments	

NSW

DB320	NSW Acts
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Victoria

DB820	Victorian Acts
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Secondary Materials

DB10	Triad Thesaurus
DB83	Legal Service bulletin

EUROLEXLaw

ETS	Council of Europe Treaties	1948+	
CAR	Criminal Appeal Reports	1970+	
CLY/ CL80	Current Law - monthly issue - current yearbooks	1980+ 1977+	
EHRR	European Human Rights Reports	1979+	quarterly
ELD	European Law Digest	1973+	monthly
FTCLR	Financial Times Law Reports	1981+	weekly
FSR	Fleet Street Reports	1963+	fortnightly
	Road Traffic Reports	1970+	
SLT	Scots Law Times	1970+	
	Statutory Instruments - all groups	1981+	

commands	file names and description	coverage updated	
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DIALOG

Current Affairs

410	Chronolog Newsletter - dialog publication online	1981+	monthly
47	Magazine Index - references to popular American magazines	1959-70, 1973+	monthly
111	National Newspaper Index	1979+	monthly
211	Newsearch - daily index of major newspapers	current month only	
170	Online Chronicle - online version of Online and Database magazines	Oct 1981+	bi-weekly
260	UPI News - news stories carried on the United Press international wire - current events	Mar 1983+	monthly
261	UPI News - as above - contains up to 3 months, then transferred to 260	Mar 1983+	daily
167	World Affairs Report - digest of worldwide news, as seen from Moscow	1970+	quarterly

Education and Training

1	Eric - education and training index	1966+	monthly
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Indexes and Directories

88	Biography Master Index - prominent persons from beginning of civilisation to present		periodic
137	Book Review Index - reviews of distinct books and periodical titles	1969+	3 times per year
470	Books in Print - all books currently in print, about to be published, out-of-print books for past 2 years		monthly

commands	file names and description	coverage updated	
35	Comprehensive Dissertation Index - guide to all American dissertations accepted	1861+	monthly
411	Dialindex - collection of the file indexes of all Dialog data bases		
200	Dialogue Publications - facilitates online ordering of Dialog publications		monthly
114	Encyclopedia of Associations - US associations	current	3 times yearly
66	GPO Monthly Catalogue - government publications	Jul 1976+	monthly
166	GPO Reference File - government publications currently for sale, forthcoming or recently out of print	1971+	bi-weekly
426	LC Marc - US Library of Congress catalog	1968+	monthly
234	Marquis Who's Who	current	quarterly
6	NTIS - National Technical Information Service - index to government sponsored research including analyses prepared by federal agencies	1964+	bi-weekly
480	Ulrich's International Periodical Directory - both regular and irregular issued serials	current	monthly
<u>Law</u>			
174	Chemical Regulations and Guidelines Systems - material in effect June 1982	May 1981+	monthly
197	Chemlaw-chemical regulations - current and final	current	irregular

commands	file names and description	coverage updated	
171	Criminal Justice Periodicals Index - covers criminology, criminal law, security systems, corrections, police	1975+	monthly
244	Laborlaw - subfiles include: Labor relations (LR) Labor Arbitration Reports (LA) Fair Employment Practice Cases (FE) Wage and Hours Cases (WH) Occupational Safety and Health Cases (SH) Mine Safety and Health Cases (MS)	1966+ 1969+ 1938+ 1961+ 1972+ 1970+	monthly
150	Legal Resources Index - Index to 660 law journals	1980+	monthly
21	NCJRS - criminal justice and law enforcement	1972+	monthly
243	Patlaw - federal and state court decisions regarding intellectual property	1970+	monthly
<u>Politics and Government</u>			
102	ASI - index to statistical publications of US government	1973+	monthly
101	CIS - Congressional Information Service - index to Congressional working papers	1970+	monthly
135	Congressional Record Abstracts - coverage includes bills and resolutions, committee and subcommittee reports, public laws, communications and speeches	1976+	weekly
20	Federal Index - coverage of proposed rules, regulations, bill introductions, speeches hearings, reports, court decisions etc	1976+	monthly
136	Federal Register Abstracts - coverage of federal administrative and regulatory actions	1977+	weekly
6	NTIS - see Indexes and Directories	1964+	bi-weekly

commands	file names and description	coverage	updated
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Social Science

38	America: History and life - US and Canadian history, area studies and current affairs	1964+	three times yearly
64	Child Abuse and Neglect	1965+	annual
291	Family Resources Database - psychological literature related to the family	1970+	monthly
39	Historical Abstracts	1973+	three times yearly
61	Lisa - Library and Information Science Abstracts	1969+	bi-monthly
49	Pais International - Public Affairs Information Service (PAIS Bulletin and PAIS Foreign Language Index)	1972+	monthly quarterly (FLI)
91	Population Bibliography	1966+	bi-monthly
11	Psycinfo - Psychological Abstracts Information Service	1967+	monthly
7	Social Scisearch - social behaviour and related sciences	1972+	monthly
37	Sociological Abstracts	1963+	5 times annually
93	US Political Science Abstracts	1975+	quarterly

QL SYSTEM

Current Affairs

CNI	Canadian Newspaper Index - guide to contents of 30 major Canadian newspapers and magazines	1977+
CPN	Canadian Press Newstex - total national and worldwide news reports	May 1981+

commands	file names and description	coverage updated
<u>Law</u>		
ACWS	All-Canada Weekly Summaries civil cases	1977+
APR	Atlantic Province Reports - includes decisions from New Brunswick Reports (2d), Nova Scotia Reports (2d), New Foundland and Prince Edward Island Reports	1969+
CCC	Canadian Criminal Cases	1971+
CRR	Canadian Regulatory Reporter	1975+
DLR	Dominion Law Reports - 2d series and 3d series vols 1-117 pt 2	Sep 1955+
FCR	Federal Court Reports	1971+
OGI	Ontario Government Information - programs and services provided by the Government	1978+
RSC	Revised Statutes of Canada - consolidations	yearly
SBC	Statutes of British Columbia - Acts in force to December 31, 1979	1979
SCR	Supreme Court Reports	1867-1980
WCB	Weekly Criminal Bulletin	Oct 1976+
WWR	Western Weekly Reports	1968+
<u>Politics and Government</u>		
HOQ	Hansard Oral Questions - House of Commons, Ottawa	1973+
HWQ	Hansard Written Questions	1973+
SPK	Speakers' Rulings - 50 rulings	Oct 1974- Jun 1976
STO	Standing Orders of the House of Commons	Jan 1976

commands	file names and description	coverage	updated
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Social Sciences

CAIS	Canadian Association for Social Science - papers from 9th Conference, Pointe-au-Pic, Quebec		
COMM	Communications Information - international coverage of aspects of mass communication	1960+	
IBSS	International Bibliography of the Social Sciences	1979+	

SCALE

Law

AATDC	Administrative Appeals Tribunal Decisions	1980-82	quarterly
ACTORD	Current Reprint of ACT Ordinances		irregular
COMACT	The constitution and Acts of Parliament - 1973 reprint and subsequent volumes	1973+	irregular
COMITA	Income Tax Assessment Act - 1936 reprints		irregular
COMREG	Current Reprint of Commonwealth Statutory Rules		irregular
COMREP	Current Reprint of Commonwealth Acts		irregular
DEPTS	History of Departments-administrative arrangements of departments	Dec 1972+	irregular
FEDDEC	Decisions of the Federal Court of Australia	1981,82	irregular
HIGHCT	Commonwealth Law Reports - full text vols 128-145 pt 1; catchwords and headnotes vols 21-23, 27-127	1972-80 1915-17 1919-72	irregular

commands	file names and description	coverage updated
NUMREG	Numbered ACT Ordinances	irregular
PROCN	Date of Proclamation of Acts	Jan 1974- continuously May 10, 1983
RULES	High Court Rules	irregular

SDC ORBIT

Current Affairs

CNI	indexes both national and international news from 7 major Canadian newspapers	1977+	monthly
NDEX	newspaper indexes - general news from 7 major US newspapers	1976+	monthly

Education and Training

Eric	education and training literature	1966+	monthly
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Indexes and Directories

DBI	master index of all ORBIT databases		quarterly
Libcon	monograph literature catalogued by the Library of Congress. Some non-print material	1968	weekly
NCU/CODES	names and addresses of over 300 libraries cited in file CASSI, the Chemical Abstract Service Source Index		as necessary
ORBIT) ORBCHM) ORBPAT)	files designed to facilitate cost effective save and storing of search strategies, as well as housekeeping or non-database specific functions, <u>eg</u> , placing an order on line		

Law

Fedreg	Federal Register Abstracts - includes rules, proposed rules, public law notices, meetings presidential proclamations on a variety of subjects	Mar 1977+	weekly
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commands	file names and description	coverage updated	
<u>Politics and Government</u>			
ASI	American statistics Index - source documents of all social, economic and demographic data collected and analysed by all areas US Government	1973+	monthly
CIS	publications emanating from work of committees etc of US Congress	1970+	monthly
Crecord	comprehensive index of the Congressional Record	1976+	weekly
Fedex	Federal Index - index to information on federal government activities	Oct 1976+	weekly
NTIS	National Technical Information Service - covers government sponsored research	1970+	bi-weekly
SSIE	covers research, in progress or recently completed, which is sponsored by government agencies or other organisations	1978+	monthly
USPSD	United States Political Science Documents - material devoted to political science worldwide	1975+	quarterly
<u>Social Sciences</u>			
Lisa	Library and Information Science Abstracts - world wide coverage	1969+	bi-monthly
Psychabs	literature in psychology and other behavioural sciences	1967+	monthly
SSCI	Social Science Citation Index - references to journal literature in all areas of the social sciences	1977+	weekly

Source: [1983] KEAM Amanda. Data Bases On Line. Canberra: Department Of Attorney-General.

PART IV

ARTICLES

A highly significant dimension of an occupation's development is its literature. Low skill and low responsibility occupations have negligible literature. High skill and responsible occupations have extensive literatures. The police occupation generally has a moderate literature, one that evidences professional potential rather than professional achievement.

The bulk of the police literature is American and British, which fact reflects the police occupational vigour of those polities vis-a-vis other police services. The police literature of New Zealand, as may be seen at Part IV is not large. In very recent years, however, there has emerged a small body of police officers and others closely associated with the police enterprise which shows signs of creating an indigenous police literature. This development requires nurturing and one desirable form of assistance is the provision of publishing media. Only through publication will writers be encouraged and only through distribution will their ideas and information reach those capable of utilising same.

Police Source Book comprises one such vehicle for the products of police writers. The 12 articles appearing in this Part cover a wide range of subjects. All but two possess strong relevance to improved police administration and two provide important directions for police career development. All contribute to police organisational and occupational development.

It is hoped future editions of Police Source Book will be able to publish police articles directed at themes reflecting particular needs within the police community. More immediately, though, the general encouragement of persons to write in the police field is of primary importance.

Persons wishing to contribute to future editions of Police Source Book, whether or not they are serving police officers, should contact one of the editors in the first instance. Preferably, the contact should be made prior to writing so as to ascertain the subject matter is suitable. Generally, articles appearing in Part IV should be original, attributable to individuals rather than institutions and of acceptable quality. Consideration will be given, however, to publishing outstanding material that has appeared elsewhere if further dissemination seems desirable, eg, extracts from theses or large research reports. All police related topics are acceptable as a matter of general policy but preference will be given to research, policy and planning oriented material.

ARTICLE ONE

WILDCAT - THE 1923 VICTORIA POLICE STRIKE

Robert Haldane
Senior Sergeant
Victoria Police

On the night of 31 October 1923 there began in Melbourne, Victoria, what to this day is the only strike by the police in the history of Australia. It was spontaneous and poorly organised industrial action, led by a Constable and initially involving only 29 men from a force of 1,808. It was a wildcat strike.

This paper looks at the events of that strike and discusses why it was a wildcat strike, assuming the nature and proportions that it did. Surprisingly enough, however, the discontent that erupted so openly into strike action on 31 October 1923 can be traced back to 1902 and it is there that we begin.

On 25 November 1902, the Victorian Parliament enacted the Police Regulation Act (#1798) and abolished the police superannuation scheme that had existed since 1873. The enactment was intended to save the Government in excess of forty five thousand pounds expended annually on superannuation payments to police, and 'to place the Police Force in exactly the same position as the rest of the public service with respect to pensions or retiring allowances'.¹ The Public Service Act 1883 had done away with pensions for other public servants but, it was suggested, police were worthy of special consideration as they were engaged 'in a hazardous occupation' in the service of the State. The call went unheeded.²

The amendment of 1902 was a shrewd political exercise because it applied only to men who joined the police force after 25 November 1902.³ Thus, it did not alienate serving members of the force or receive the degree of opposition it otherwise might have. In addition, the Government required all new police recruits joining without pension rights to produce a current life assurance policy as a condition of employment. In doing so, the Government established a dual system whereby police who joined prior to 1903 were fully covered by State superannuation and ancillary benefits, while those who joined after 1902 received only the minimal benefits of a life assurance policy for which they paid themselves.

The importance of this decision made in 1902 did not become fully evident until 1923 when it rose to the fore as a police strike issue. The Monash Royal Commission commented:

...there was a constant and growing agitation among many members of the force for the restoration of pensions... the course which events actually took, shows conclusively that, if pensions had been restored, there would have been no refusal of duty

by any considerable section of the force... it is a matter of surprise and regret that throughout a long series of years successive Governments delayed action which would restore to the Police Force as a whole that wise and prudent security of tenure and provision for old age, upon the basis of which the Force was originally organized.⁴

Certainly, a pertinent observation in light of the fact that when the strike broke, three quarters of the force were non-pensioners and of the 636 strikers only two had a contingent right to a pension.⁵

Pensions were but one aspect of the strike. Another factor was the appointment, on 8 February 1922, of Alexander Nicholson as Chief Commissioner. Nicholson was appointed from within the ranks of the force and at the time of his appointment was 59 years of age, only one year short of the retiring age for senior police officers. Although he had been a member of the force for 39 years and a commissioned officer for six years, his career as a police administrator had been very ordinary and had been mostly spent in Ballarat. Indeed, his affinity with the Ballarat District over many years and his close association with the then Chief Secretary and Minister of Public Health, the sitting member for Ballarat West, Major Matthew Baird, led to suggestions that Nicholson received undue favour in being appointed Chief Commissioner.⁶

Upon being appointed he embarked upon a number of courses which contributed to the events of 1923. His first major change was to abandon the established practice of holding regular conferences with all his Superintendents. He stated, 'I saw very little utility in it' and 'I did not see any necessity for it'.⁷ Thus, his only consultation with Superintendents was on an individual and ad hoc basis and not by way of a conference where knowledge and ideas could be pooled and collectively updated. The Superintendents were next in rank to the Chief Commissioner as he had neither assistants nor deputies. Each Superintendent commanded a police district and they were spread throughout the State with a high degree of autonomy to make decisions. The Monash Royal Commission said of this action by Nicholson and its relationship to the strike:

...we consider it regrettable that such conferences should have been abandoned... (this) is probably the reason why, upon the occurrence of the crisis, on 31 October 1923, he did not call to his assistance, for advice and consultation, several senior officers who were available... The Chief Commissioner had given an order that any man refusing duty should be summarily discharged. It was an order in every way calculated to swell rather than reduce the ranks of the strikers.⁸

Nicholson's second major change was implemented on 14 November 1922, when he appointed four Senior Constables to work in plain clothes and operate in pairs throughout the city and suburbs, supervising men on the beat. These men soon became known throughout the force as 'Spooks' and the nature of their duties

and the men themselves soon caused deep and widespread resentment within the force. Nicholson's reasons for introducing the special supervisors were that there was an urgent need to exercise stricter supervision over the men, and four special supervisors with a roving commission could adequately perform the task instead of appointing 30 sub-officers to perform supervision in the normal manner.⁹

The system of special supervisors was described by the police strikers as 'humiliating espionage', and the special supervisors themselves described in Parliament as, 'pimps', appointed to 'secretly watch and report on constables on duty'. It was a highly emotional issue and one in which the conflict was more one of principle than fact. Of the 636 police who went on strike only 14 had ever been charged by the special supervisors with a disciplinary offence. During the same period 30 of the strikers had been charged by their own local supervisors.¹⁰

Thus, in real terms, the men fared worse at the hands of their local uniformed supervisors than they did from the special supervisors. In view of the fact that no complaint was made by the strikers immediately before, during or after the police strike about conventional supervision methods, their repugnance of the special supervisors would seem to be based not upon the specific content of their work but their existence and mode of operation. On this point it is perhaps important to note that in four of the cases where special supervisors charged men who later struck, the charges related to Constables being abusive or disrespectful to the special supervisors.

This last factor highlights another aspect of the spook issue and that is the men chosen to perform the task. Few could doubt that it would be onerous for any policeman to be directed to work in plain clothes and covertly supervise uniform police who were suspected by their Chief Commissioner of pervasive corruption and inefficiency.¹¹ One would also expect that the police officers chosen to perform this task would of necessity be experienced supervisors, with unblemished records, appointed in circumstance of scrupulous fairness and openness. Instead, Nicholson appointed men who were of mediocre ability and limited experience and included in their number his brother-in-law and another man who himself had been convicted twice with being found drunk on duty; the last occasion being in the year preceding his appointment as a special supervisor.¹² The choice of men for the positions of special supervisors was a constant source of discussion at the Monash Royal Commission.¹³ The character and reputation of one of them was described as being 'very bad' and unfavourable comment was made about the appointment of the Chief Commissioner's brother-in-law. It was also stated in evidence that Constables complained bitterly and daily about the selection and mode of operation of the spooks. On these points the Monash Royal Commission commented:

...however desirable it might have been to exercise more effective supervision over constables on beat duty, it was not judicious to effect such supervision through the agency of men in plain clothes. Anything which is even colourably in the

nature of 'spying' is likely to be repugnant to a body of men... the evidence did not sustain the charge that the supervisors carried out their duties in a harassing manner... it appears to us that on the whole they carried their difficult and disagreeable duties with judgment and restraint.

The selection of one of the Senior Constables to act as supervisor proved to be unfortunate, in as much as he was a brother-in-law of the Chief Commissioner. The choice formed a pretext for adverse comment by the Commissioner's critics.

The Monash Royal Commission acknowledged that a principal ground for attacking the system of special supervision was 'the selection of the supervisors was in some cases injudicious' but, apart from the above observations the Commissioners chose not to comment further on Nicholson's choice of men.¹³

In the events leading up to the strike another significant action taken by Nicholson occurred on 8 February 1923, when he purged the Licensing Branch. On this day he summarily transferred 17 plain clothes licensing police to general uniform police duties, among whom was Constable William Thomas Brooks. Nicholson said of Brooks' transfer:

...from what had come to my knowledge I considered that he was unfit for this class of work... he was very spiteful about it and tried to create a deal of trouble at that time.

It has never been divulged where Nicholson came by his 'knowledge' of Brooks but he did state on oath to the Royal Commission that he did not know Brooks personally. This situation provides a curious paradox, for prior to Nicholson's actions of 8 February 1923, Brooks was a nondescript member of the Licensing Branch, who had never been convicted of a discipline offence and had three commendations to his credit. Since 1918 Brooks had been engaged primarily on licensing duties and, only two months before his summary transfer by Nicholson, had been commended by his Superintendent for displaying zeal and tact in partaking in 846 licensing prosecutions and sly grog cases in twelve months.¹⁴ Indeed, even after his transfer Brooks was again commended for intelligence and perseverance displayed in the arrest of a burglar.

In any event, whether Brooks acted out of spite or for other reasons after being transferred from the Licensing Branch he became a vocal dissident. Early in April 1923, Brooks circulated a petition amongst Constables in the metropolitan area. It was headed 'Comrades and Fellow Workers' and demanded the restoration of police pensions, the immediate withdrawal of the special supervisors and the granting of conditions then enjoyed by police in New South Wales. The petition was never presented and it was never certain to whom it was to be presented but it did receive publicity in the press. This had the effect of establishing Brooks as an unofficial authority figure amongst many metropolitan Constables and precipitated his next conflict with

the police administration. In May 1923, Brooks was summarily transferred 'to Geelong for special work' notwithstanding that he resided at Prahran with his wife and family and had been resident in the city since 1915. At Geelong, Brooks was directed to perform licensing duty at Colac. He refused to perform this work and was charged with the offence of refusing duty but was later acquitted.¹⁵ In the month following the Geelong incident and four months before the police strike, Brooks allegedly told a friend and colleague:

I absolutely refused point blank to do the duty I was ordered to do ... they have not got rid of me yet, and while I am in the job, I will cause a lot more trouble.

Brooks's ire apparently did not mellow over the months and on 31 October 1923, only hours before the strike broke, Brooks allegedly said to another friend and colleague:

I am full of the bloody job right up to here (indicating neck). I cannot stick wearing uniform again.

The veracity of these uncorroborated, hearsay, accounts is not known, but they were at the time accepted by the Royal Commission. That Brooks was acting under a sense of grievance was never in doubt and his Superintendent indicated it was not wholly without reason when he stated:

.... he might have some ground perhaps for thinking that he had been unjustly treated.¹⁶

In any event, all the available documentation shows that Brooks did not assume a position of prominence within the force until his summary transfer of February 1923. From that point on the tempo of his activities increased and ended with the final entry on his record sheet:

A capable and intelligent Constable. Dismissed from the force on 1 November, 1923, for organizing and leading a strike of members of the force.

In addition to the grievances about pensions and special supervisors, Brooks's petition sought improvement of general police conditions in Victoria to a level equal to those in New South Wales. Prior to the strike the Victoria Police Force was grossly undermanned and Nicholson had publicly complained about the lack of police. In fact Victoria then had a police to population ratio of 1:902 which was the worst in mainland Australia and expenditure per head of population on police in Victoria was the lowest in Australia. The practical effect of this paucity of men and funds was that police in Victoria were granted only one Sunday off in every four weeks and only 17 days annual leave. They worked a seven day week of 47 1/4 hours, for which the base pay rate for Constables was twelve shillings a day; five pounds, one shilling and sixpence per week with allowances. This compared to the New South Wales Police Force where police received three shillings and sixpence a day more than their Victorian counterparts, and enjoyed 28 days annual leave and two

Sundays off each month. All States except Victoria provided pensions for their police.¹⁷ Each year, from 1919 to 1923, official representations were made by the Victoria Police Association to the police administration and the Government for additional leave, increased wages, improved working conditions, better barrack accommodation, restoration of pensions, and in 1923, removal of the special supervisors. Although assurances were given and promises made, by the time of Brooks's petition in April 1923, these grievances had not been remedied.

Thus, it was that at ten o'clock on the night of 31 October 1923, Brooks and 28 other Constables took direct and drastic action; they refused to parade for duty until the special supervisors were removed. The effect of this action was immediate and salutary; the system of special supervisors was abandoned and has never been reintroduced. On the morning of Thursday 1 November 1923, the four special supervisors were reassigned to other duties thereby eliminating the single ground upon which Brooks and his followers had refused duty the previous night. Tragically, though, this action by the police administration was kept secret and not communicated to Brooks or the other men. Instead, Brooks was advised by the Government on 1 November 1923, that Cabinet supported the Chief Commissioner: the special supervisors were to be retained and the men were to return to duty unconditionally. The unfortunate outcome of this intractable approach was that at ten o'clock that night Brooks and the same 28 Constables again refused to parade for duty. Their one and only demand was that the special supervisors be removed; an action which had already been taken but which was never communicated to Brooks or in fact made public until it emerged during evidence given to the Royal Commission late in 1924.¹⁸

The reasons why this situation was allowed to develop have never been ascertained. The Officer who directed the special supervisors to cease duty was the Acting Officer in Charge of the Melbourne Police District, Inspector Thomas Kane, and he died on 29 November 1923, prior to the establishment of the Monash Royal Commission. In the absence of Kane, Nicholson's evidence to the Royal Commission on this point was evasive and circumspect; the true facts were never disclosed.

Therefore, on the second night of the strike, Thursday 1 November 1923, the same 29 Constables again refused duty, over a grievance which unbeknown to them had been rectified as a result of their actions the night before. Instead of imparting this information to them, Nicholson and Kane began terminating the police careers of all Constables who refused duty. The first to go was Brooks. He was dismissed on the spot by Nicholson and was followed in succeeding days by hundreds more. When the dust finally settled it was found that two men had been dismissed from the force and 634 discharged.¹⁹

The Victoria Police Strike was a 'wildcat' strike, and this fact contributes to an understanding of why the strike unfolded and assumed the nature and proportions it did. Wildcat strikes have authoritatively been described by Alvin Gouldner in the following way

...wildcat strikes are spontaneous... in almost all instances a wildcat strike presupposes communication and a degree of informal group organization. The strike has some kind of leadership, usually from within the group, and the leaders do some kind of planning, if only but a few hours or minutes ahead.

The ingredients of a wildcat strike were present in Victoria, and the nature of them intensified the propensity of metropolitan police to strike. Additionally, Gouldner cites other criteria which he regards as essential for a wildcat strike to occur and these too were present in Victoria:

The formally dominant union officials have lost power consonant with their positions to other persons in the union ...(and) Workers' aggression is directed at the dilatory manner in which their grievances are dealt with.

Application of Gouldner's wildcat criteria to the Victoria Police Strike discloses two important factors. Firstly, that the strike was in fact a wildcat and secondly, that because it took such a form its planning, organisation, attraction to police and potential extent all had inherent limitations.²⁰

When the strike broke at ten o'clock on the night of 31 October 1923, it was not led by the elected officials of the Victoria Police Association, but by Constable Brooks. Brooks was a member of the Association but was not an elected office bearer. The formally dominant union officials of the Victoria Police Force were the elected office bearers of the Victoria Police Association (VPA). The VPA was the only official industrial advocate of the men and was not affiliated with any other union or industrial group or police unions in other States. VPA disavowed prior knowledge and support of the strike action and throughout urged the striking men to return to work.

Brooks, as self-appointed leader, was so effective in his ascendancy to that position and in the wresting of power from the dominant union officials that as rebel leader he was given an audience at Parliament House with the Premier, the Under Secretary of the Chief Secretary's Department and the Chief Commissioner.

When the strike began it involved only 29 Constables, including Brooks and, of this group, the Monash Royal Commission observed

the majority of whom were young, unmarried constables of less than twelve months service.²¹

It was this group that, at Brooks's instigation, elected him as their leader and then followed his suggestions to refuse duty. It was a spontaneous act and one which to all the participants, other than Brooks, was devoid of planning or organisation. One of the 'famous twenty-nine' claimed the decision to elect Brooks and refuse duty was made only minutes before the 10 pm parade was to commence. The degree of forethought by Brooks will never be known but it is significant

that he chose to lead the strike action on the eve of the Spring Racing Carnival in Melbourne. This was a time when thousands of visitors would be in Melbourne for Derby Day and the Melbourne Cup and when any refusal by a section of the Police Force could be counted upon to receive added publicity and to have increased potential for public impact. Fred Midgley said of the events on that night

It only needed a leader - Brooks himself was a fine feller. I didn't know anything about him till he came on the scene. It was a bit sudden. There wasn't much discussion. It was put on as a surprise but it was very popular. As far as I know the Association were not consulted...

To my thinking back I don't think there'd be anybody (else) that'd have the nerve to start it because you see starting a thing like that he (Brooks) was liable to imprisonment for a hell of a long time. It was a mutiny.

Midgley went on to describe how many of the men were disenchanted with their working conditions. The lack of pensions, special supervisors and low wages, were exacerbated by 'the little needling things', such as deplorable barrack conditions, bad food and unserviceable uniforms. In these things Midgley felt that Brooks had a ready audience

It wasn't home from home ... there were blokes there who were just about had it. They fell in.²²

Thus it was that Brooks gave no advance warning of the strike and when it began, most police leaders and union officials were home in bed. The men initially enlisted for support were both young and inexperienced and Brooks used the issue of 'spooks' as his banner cry. It was an emotive and decisive issue to young men working a beat in the city and one which the VPA had tried unsuccessfully for 12 months to have removed. Hence, Brooks was able to point to a rallying grievance, the spooks, and add weight to his call by showing official intransigence and VPA failure in rectifying the matter.

Present in these things were the elements of a wildcat strike and at the instigation of Brooks the strike broke without warning and quickly spread. Although certain of the strike issues, such as pensions and spooks, had existed as grievances long before Brooks led the strike, this did not detract from the wildcat character of Brooks' action. Essential features of wildcat strikes are their spontaneity, their informal group leadership and the loss of power over the men by formally dominant union officials. The length of time for which grievances had simmered and the festering build up of worker discontent are not factors relevant to the assessment of a strike as a wildcat. The essential focus is upon the strike outbreak, its leadership, spontaneity and aggression. Notwithstanding the 1902 origins of the strike, its outbreak in 1923 was very much wildcat.

In addition to the basic elements of a wildcat strike, Midgley and the Royal Commission both gave a clue as to why the strike took the form it did. Without elaborating on the point, the Monash Royal Commission highlighted as significant the fact that the 'famous twenty-nine' comprised men who were mainly young, single and had less than 12 months service. Brooks himself was an exception to this, being a ten year veteran who had served at stations in the city and the country, and in the Licensing Branch. Midgley was at pains to highlight that many of the men who followed Brooks were disgruntled with life in barracks. They rallied under the banner of spooks but, even without that 'there were blokes there who were just about had it'. These comments are important in explaining the urban nature of the strike because it is known that Brooks aimed his strike recruitment drive only at police in the city and suburbs. During the early hours of 2 November 1923, Brooks fuelled support for his action by personally driving around suburban police stations enlisting men to join the strike and by grossly exaggerating its extent stating, 'all the men at Russell Street are out'. There has never been adduced any evidence to show that attempts were made in the early stages of the strike to notify police in country areas of its existence or to induce them to strike. Indeed, one man sent from Bendigo to Melbourne to act as a strike breaker and subsequently discharged for refusing duty, told the Royal Commission that he first heard of the police strike when he read about it in a newspaper in Bendigo.²³ Police at Ballarat were similarly uninformed of the early strike events and went so far as to elect two representatives to come to Melbourne to ascertain what had happened and report back; consequently no police in Ballarat struck.²⁴

It is reasonable to assume that since Brooks and his followers made no attempt to advise or enlist the support of police in these two large provincial cities, they would not have done so in smaller country locations, particularly those further from Melbourne than Ballarat and Bendigo. This lack of communication by city strikers with police in country areas appears deliberate and is perhaps natural in light of the fact that the strikers used the issue of spooks to rally the men. This was an issue with which few country police were cognisant because the operations of the special supervisors were confined to the Melbourne and Bourke Police Districts.

The importance of Brooks's focus on urban police and its relevance to a wildcat situation is evidenced in the frenetic stages of the strike when he openly canvassed for strikers. As stated previously, the first night saw only 29 city Constables involved, and the second night began with the strike still limited to those same 29 men. From the beginning the movement begun by Brooks gathered momentum but at the end of the second day still comprised predominantly city police. Of the 292 men who joined the strike in those first two days, 280 were from the Melbourne Police District and the remaining twelve were all from suburban police stations in the Bourke District. None were from country areas and it was not until the third day of the strike (2 November 1923) that police from country districts became involved and only then when they were sent to Melbourne to act as strike breakers.

Of greater significance perhaps is the fact that of those first 292 strikers, 40 per cent were single Constables from the Melbourne Police District. This number was significantly out of proportion to their percentage in the force, their percentage of the Melbourne Police District strength and their percentage of the total number of strikers. Proportionately, single Constables in the Melbourne Police District were quickest to rally to Brooks's strike call and by the end of the second day, two thirds of all the single men in the Melbourne District had joined Brooks. On the other hand, only 27 per cent of Constables who were not single, rallied to Brooks in those early stages.²⁵

Thus, it is clear that in the initial stages of the strike, Brooks gained valuable support for his cause from single Constables; indeed of all the single Constables in the Melbourne District who did strike, an overwhelming 84 per cent did so during those first two days. It has been hinted by Midgley and the Royal Commission that these men were ready fodder for a leader such as Brooks and evidence does exist to support this proposition. Although marital status, age and experience do not of themselves indicate a propensity to strike, in the police environment of 1923 they almost certainly had a bearing on it.

At the time of the strike, single men in the Force were compelled to live in police barracks. They had no choice in the matter and although they were 'provided with free quarters, fuel, light and water', they were required to pay 24 shillings and sixpence per week into the mess. Men forced to live in barracks were governed by a strict discipline code which, among other things, forbade smoking, drinking liquor, card playing or gambling but permitted the playing of chess, dominoes or draughts. One regulation provided, 'conversations in relation to nationality, religion or party politics are improper and will not be permitted'. As indicated by Midgley, life in barracks 'wasn't home from home'. These conditions alone were unlikely to have prompted men to strike but they were exacerbated by the official indifference which reduced the life of men in barracks to one approximating squalor. Ablution facilities at Russell Street Barracks were so inadequate that single men went to the City Baths and at their own expense paid for hot baths, whilst the food provided was so bad that at times it was inedible. Indeed, the Monash Royal Commission provided a succinct summary of the squalid conditions in which single police were compelled to live

At the St Kilda Road Depot... The stables appeared to lack nothing essential to the health and comfort of their occupants. In this important matter of accommodation the horses are much better served than the men. Their dwellings are ancient and forlorn... none of the most ordinary comforts or graces of home life are permitted... the walls were bare. No pictures or ornament of any kind was observed. No lockers or other suitable receptacles for the men's belongings were in evidence.

The whole effect was one of repelling cheerlessness, if not of actual discomfort; and we feel very

strongly that such conditions, easily remediable as they are, must make for discontent in any body of men compelled to share them.

If the conditions at the depot were repellant, those found to exist at the station at Bourke Street West were shocking. Neglect was written all over the living rooms and rooms used for administrative purposes. Quite evidently no renovation had taken place for many years. Walls and ceilings ere discoloured and cracked by damp, the ancient wallpapers were mouldy, blotched and torn, boards were decayed and broken... At the back of the building are the sanitary conveniences. They are close to the dining room, and between them and that room stands a shed, which shelters the manure carts used by the street sweepers of the City Council. Their close proximity to such a room is strongly, and rightly objected to by the constables, who are compelled to have their meals within a few feet of the offensive vehicles.

We desire to record our opinion that the residential portion of the Bourke Street West Station, as it now stands, is unfit for human habitation, and that the conditions of life there are such as must inevitably affect the efficiency and esprit of men who are compelled to make the station their home.

Shabbiness and congestion were the features most in evidence when we visited the Russell Street Barracks... The place is out of date as the principal station of the Police Force of a metropolis... Many of the rooms are badly in need of renovation, the walls being discoloured and shabby, while the overcrowding of others is serious enough to constitute a menace to the health of the occupants.

A first essential to a spirit of discipline, a smartness of bearing and a dignity of demeanour, is the environment in which a man has to live and work, and the habits of order, cleanliness, and tidiness which satisfactory conditions engender... The conditions prevailing in those buildings of the Victoria Police Force which inspected were found to be the very antithesis of these.²⁷

Further evidence attesting to the run down state of police buildings at the time of the strike is provided by an examination of Government capital expenditure on buildings and works for police, see Table 1.1.

TABLE 1.1

CAPITAL EXPENDITURE ON BUILDINGS AND WORKS FOR POLICE

financial year	amount spent (£)	% up or down on * strike year
1918-1919	2,892	- 66%
1919-1920	2,879	- 66%
1920-1921	5,752	- 33%
1921-1922	6,681	- 22%
1922-1923	8,597	*base year
1923-1924	20,997	+ 144%
1924-1925	20,109	+ 133%
1925-1926	24,565	+ 185%
1926-1927	31,637	+ 268%
1927-1928	39,292	+ 357%

Victorian Government Expenditure in Division 1 Sub-division 2 - Police buildings. (Includes buildings and works for police, land, furniture, repairs and additions and fencing). (Source: Victorian Parliamentary Papers. Treasurer's Financial Report for years 1918-1919 to 1927-1928).

A study of the Treasurer's Financial Reports shows that the gradual increases in capital expenditure for police during the post-World War I period, and prior to the strike, approximated those for other Government Departments. Significantly, post-police strike spending indicates that police received a far greater share of available funds, not in keeping with earlier proportionate and gradual increases. Tangible evidence for this proposition is provided by the Royal Commissioners who found that in the period between the time of the strike and their visit to Russell Street on 16 October 1924, rebuilding had commenced in the residential quarters. Increased capital expenditure was also provided for such works as the erection of a new Police Depot.

The nexus between such factors as the urban nature of the police strike, single men, barrack conditions, and government spending may not yet be patently clear but the connection is in fact a definite one. The evidence adduced quite clearly shows single Constables comprised a significant proportion of the strikers, that as a group they rallied most quickly to the strike call, that they were compelled to live in barracks and that barracks conditions were not 'home from home' but instead, 'must make for discontent in any body of men compelled to share them'. Such facts on their own would be rather meaningless if only a few single men resided in barracks but that was not the case. Single Constables were present in large numbers and more importantly were located overwhelmingly at the three locations condemned by the Royal Commission; the Depot, Russell Street and Bourke Street West. Seventy-six per cent of all the single constables in the Force were located in only two police districts; Melbourne District and the Police Depot. The remaining 24 per cent were located at stations in other police districts spread throughout the State and at only one of these, Ballarat East, where there

were four single Constables, did the number of single Constables exceed three. Thus, outside the metropolitan area single Constables were spread thinly and housed in circumstances of which neither they nor the Royal Commission have recorded any complaint. This was not the case in the metropolitan area where 62 per cent of all the single constables found themselves living at the three locations which produced the highest numbers of strikers and which ultimately were condemned by the Royal Commissioners.

Table 1.2

DISTRIBUTION OF CONSTABLES x MARITAL STATUS x STRIKE STATUS
AT POLICE DEPOT, RUSSELL STREET AND BOURKE STREET WEST POLICE
STATIONS AS AT 1 NOVEMBER 1923

station	not single		single		total
	loyalists	strikers	loyalists	strikers	
Russell Street	71	68	14	83	236
Depot	24	35	22	45	126
Bourke Street West	17	0	0	26	43
total	112	103	36	154	N=405

$\chi^2 = 48.47$, 1 df., $p > .05$ Highly Significant

Source: Vicstrike Analysis

Table 1.2 indicates an overwhelming and highly significant number of single Constables at the three locations refused duty, whereas less than half of the Constables who were not single did so. These figures give some clarity to the comments of Midgley, who was adamant that life in barracks was a factor contributing to the strike propensity of metropolitan constables. In addition to his other comments he stated

If you was a single man you had to live in barracks.
Things weren't as bad for the married men because
they were allowed to go home.

By the end of the strike, 61 per cent of all the single Constables had refused duty compared with 40 per cent of Constables who were not single. Although single Constables represented only 17 per cent of the whole Force and 21 per cent of all Constables, they comprised 29 per cent of the strikers. More important than their numbers however was their willingness to strike, for in the early stages when Brooks needed support, it was the single Constables in barracks who rallied to his cause; men who were subjected to one grievance that did not exist for men of senior ranks, men who were married or their single colleagues outside the city area.

The subject of city police barracks and the single Constables who lived in them is but one facet of the wildcat nature of the strike. While it helps to explain the significant number of single Constables in the city who quickly rallied to Brooks, it does not account for the 427 striking constables from the city and suburbs who were not single men. These men were not compelled to live in barracks but those of them who were general duties Constables were required to perform beat duty under the scrutiny of special supervisors.

As mentioned earlier, the special supervisors worked only in the city and suburbs and were not a threat to country police. Their primary role was to supervise beat Constables and therefore they did not pose a threat to men above constable rank, or Constables not performing general duties work. The spooks issue was highly emotive and in choosing it as the rallying cry for his strike action, Brooks knew it would appeal to metropolitan Constables. Indeed, 83 per cent of the 885 constables in the Melbourne and Bourke Police Districts were gazetted to general duties positions. It is therefore most significant that of 625 such Constables in the Melbourne District, an overwhelming 70 per cent refused duty. This amounted to three quarters of all non-pensioner general duties Constables in the district. Certainly, an indicator of the appeal to metropolitan Constables of the spook issue as grounds for a strike and also of the restraining influence that pension entitlements exercised over those who had them. Not one general duties Constable in the Melbourne District, who was entitled to a pension, refused duty.

It might be argued that it was the lack of pensions and not spooks. Certainly, there is strong evidence to suggest pension rights restrained those Constables entitled to them from striking. But, there is additional evidence which shows that the duties of Constables and their relationship to the special supervisors did influence the strike decision of non-pensioner metropolitan Constables. Of the 38 Constables in the Traffic Control Section, all of whom were subject to supervision by the special supervisors, all save one refused duty; including the only two strikers who had pension rights. By comparison, three-quarters of the Constables appointed to clerical duties in the Melbourne District remained loyal and only one had the right to a pension; all the Detective Constables remained loyal - none had the right to a pension; the six Constables performing special duties remained loyal - two had the right to a pension; and 93 per cent of the Constables on plain clothes duty in the Melbourne District remained loyal - seven had the right to a pension. Of 109 loyalist Constables in Melbourne District who were not exposed to the special supervisors, only nine per cent were entitled to pensions. The evidence seems clear that notwithstanding the absence of pension rights, Constables in Melbourne District who were not subject to the system of special supervision were far less willing to strike than their general duties colleagues.

The other metropolitan police district embroiled in the strike was Bourke District. Within this district, 93 per cent of those Constables who struck were general duties men and the remaining three were plain clothes men. None of the Bourke District strikers were entitled to a pension. Of the loyalists,

two were clerks, two were plain clothes Constables and the remaining 95 per cent were general duties Constables, 29 of whom were the only Constables in the district with pension rights. Participation in the strike by non-pensioner, general duties Constables in Bourke District was nowhere near as extensive as in the Melbourne District, a point which reinforces the importance of the spooks issue. In Bourke District there were many men who, for all practical purposes, were outside the scope of special supervision. These were the mounted Constables and foot police (particularly at one man rural stations) for whom the spooks held little fear. Indeed, of the 44 one man stations, only one refused duty and, whereas 45 per cent of the foot police went on strike, only 11 per cent of the mounted men refused duty. Like police in the Melbourne District, those in Bourke District considered their pension entitlements first and then assessed the effect of the spooks. The spooks did not supervise mounted men or visit distant one man stations. Consequently, strikers from Bourke District were all non-pensioners, located primarily at suburban stations within ready reach of the special supervisors and on the morning of 2 November 1923, within ready reach of Brooks.

The Monash Royal Commission was emphatic that ...if pensions had been restored, there would have been no refusal of duty by any considerable section of the Force.

Only ten per cent of all the Constables in the Force were entitled to a pension, which means that of all the Constables who remained loyal only 17.5 per cent (144) had pension rights; 82.5 per cent (675) of the loyalist constables were not entitled to a pension. This is not an insignificant number and clearly shows the majority of loyal Constables were not and could not have been actuated by the risk of losing pension privileges.

The actual extent of non-pensioner loyalists belies the implication of the Royal Commissioners' comment above and also raises the question of what then did actuate these men to remain loyal. As already proposed, two key factors of the strike were its metropolitan limits and its appeal to urban general duties constables subject to the system of special supervisors.

The evidence is clear that Constables who were entitled to a pension and Constables stationed in rural areas overwhelmingly remained loyal. Additionally, almost all Constables in urban areas performing duties not liable to the system of special supervision remained loyal. The one category of Constables comprising a high percentage of the strikers was the uniformed Constable in the metropolitan area without pension rights and subject to special supervision. These were the men among whom Brooks actively campaigned for support and who, in the final analysis, provided the backbone of a wildcat strike movement.

Brooks's wildcat movement cost him and 635 other policemen their jobs and only one was to ever again work as a policeman, albeit not in Victoria. Their strike was, however, not totally in vain and those policemen who did not strike derived valuable benefits from the actions of others who followed Brooks along the almost inevitable path to dismissal.

As stated, the first direct result was the abandonment of the system of special supervision, closely followed by the dismissal or discharge of 636 men who were never reinstated. Then, with almost insulting haste the Government rushed through Parliament the Police Pensions Act 1923 (commencing 1 January 1924) and provided all police with pension benefits in excess of anything they had demanded throughout the years 1903-1923. The Government also granted police substantial pay rises, effective from 1 January 1924, which approximated police pay conditions in New South Wales and introduced annual increments of ten pounds for Constables evidencing good conduct.

The ten pound increments were an inducement to forestall further unrest in the Constable ranks and the criteria for establishing increment eligibility were advertised in the Police Gazette. The Government also amended the regulations relevant to promotional exams and reduced the service period for qualification from seven years to two years. Provision was also made for exemption from examinations in special cases. Additionally, in 1924 the Government granted all loyalist police seven days extra leave, then in 1925 extended annual leave for all police to a full three weeks.

These improvements did not attain the levels sought by the strikers but they were the first such improvements in over a decade. Finally, the Government increased expenditure on police buildings by 59 per cent (Table 1) and in the months immediately following the strike, particularly in the post-Royal Commission period, undertook major works by way of renovations to police barracks. If the success or otherwise of a strike can be measured by the improvement in work conditions and wages to ensue therefrom, the success of Brooks's efforts stand out in Australian police history as a monument to change. The strike achieved more in a week than constitutional means had achieved in more than 20 years. However, if termination of employment because of refusal of duty is regarded as failure, then the efforts of the strikers were abysmal. None of them reaped the benefits of their action and all sacrificed their means of support and joined the ranks of the unemployed. Instead of savouring success many of them became embittered and struggled to maintain self esteem in a society that decried their actions and labelled them as 'mutineers' and 'oath breakers'. They stand alone in the history of policing in this country as the only police ever to go on strike.

NOTE: All statistical data in this paper are derived from a computer analysis of the Victoria Police Force as it was at the time of the strike on 1 November 1923. These data are referred to in this paper as Vicstrike Analysis.

ENDNOTES

1. 1902. Parliamentary Debates, Legislative Assembly, v 101, p118 (21 Oct).
2. Ibid, p119.
3. 1902. Government Gazette, p 5060 (31 Dec).
4. 1925. Report Of The Royal Commission On The Victoria Police Force (Monash).
5. Vicstrike analysis.
6. Victoria Police Archives. Record of conduct and service of Alexander NICHOLSON. Registered number 3315, for Nicholson's record. Interview with JN NICHOLSON, son of late Alexander NICHOLSON, 9 December 1980, for Biard connection. Comment by Thomas Sutton STREET, former Constable number 6013, police striker, interviewed on 8 August 1980 re favouritism.
7. Evidence of Chief Commissioner Alexander NICHOLSON. Transcripts of evidence, Monash report, unpublished, Victoria Police Archives, p2388. (Monash transcripts).
8. Monash report, op cit, pp 8,12.
9. Public Record office. Police strike papers. Minute ex Chief Commissioner to Under Secretary, Chief Secretary's Department.
10. Handbill entitled, Police Dispute, Reasons For The Trouble, prepared and circulated by the Police Dispute Committee. Signed WT BROOKS, Secretary, for espionage; [1923] Parliamentary Debates, Legislative Assembly, v 165, p 1807 (1 Nov), for pimps; [1922] Parliamentary Debates, Legislative Assembly, p 3380 (5 Dec), for secretly watching; Vicstrike Analysis for details of discipline offense.
11. Monash transcripts, op cit, pp 2113-2119.
12. Eight special supervisors were appointed by Nicholson. None had led distinguished careers prior to their special appointment. The original four special supervisors were: (1) Senior Constable Thomas William Charles DEELEY, # 4852, (2) Senior Constable William James TAYLOR, # 4717 - brother-in-law of DEELEY, (3) Senior Constable John Patrick SALTS, # 4662, and (4) Senior Constable Alfred George TATCHELL, # 4918. All were appointed on 14 November 1922. These were replaced by: (1) Senior Constable Albert James GUMLEY, # 4800, (2) Senior Constable Alexander William LOVERIDGE, # 4849, (3) Senior Constable Joseph George TEBBS, # 4945, and (4) Senior Constable Frederick Charles MURPHY, # 4925. The first three were appointed 31 August 1923, and the fourth on 23 September 1923. MURPHY had a departmental conviction for drunkenness on duty. Sources: Victoria Police Archives. Records of conduct and service of eight special supervisors, and Monash transcripts, op cit, pp 2155, 2221, 2226, 2238, 2299, 2319, 2349, 2381.

13. Monash transcripts, op cit, passim. Especially during evidence of Senior Constable Edward Francis CUMMINS and Chief Commissioner NICHOLSON; Monash transcripts, p 10, for reputation; Monash report, op cit, p 10 for brother-in-law and quotes.
14. Monash transcripts, op cit, p 2385, for details of purge and transfer of BROOKS; Victoria police Archives. Record of conduct and service of William Thomas BROOKS, # 5944.
15. BROOKS was one of the two Melbourne Police District, # 3 Division, Police Association delegates in 1920-1921 but resigned. His term as delegate was brief and he did not achieve anything of note or a position of prominence. Sources: [1920] Police Journal (V) v 3 # 2 (2 Aug), p 7; [1921] Police Journal (V) v 4 # 5 (1 Nov), p 84. BROOKS never publicly claimed membership of any political movement or party nor has any such movement ever claimed BROOKS as a member.
16. Monash transcripts, op cit, (Westcott), pp 1318-1319, for first quote; Ibid (Lockyer), p 786, for second quote; Ibid (Warren), p 1080, for third quote.
17. 1923. Melbourne Herald (19 Jan), p 7, for complaint; Commonwealth Yearbook 1925, pp 472-473, for expenditure and ratio figures; pamphlet entitled, [1923] Police Dispute, Case For The Men (14 Nov); [1923] correspondence ex Chief Commissioner NICHOLSON to Under Secretary, Chief Secretary's Department re remuneration of Constables and Senior Constables (17 Nov). Police Strike papers. PDF, Public Record Office, for police wages and conditions in Victoria and New South Wales. In fact, Western Australia did not provide police superannuation at that time.
18. Monash transcripts, op cit, p 2872, final address of H SHELTON, counsel for Police Reinstatement Association.
19. 1923. Government Gazette # 50 (13 Dec), pp 732-736, for details of discharges and dismissals.
20. 1954. GOULDNER AW. Wildcat Strike. New York, NY: Harper and Row, pp 90-95.
21. Monash report, op cit, p 10.
22. 1980. Personal communication with Fred MIDGLEY (formerly Constable # 6824, one of the 'famous 29') (29 Apr).
23. Monash transcripts, op cit, (Cahill), pp 117-123.
24. 1980. Personal communication ex Owen Thomas ROBERTS (retired Police Superintendent, one of the loyalist Constables at Ballarat) (Apr).
25. Single Constables comprised: 17 per cent of Victoria Police, 17 per cent of the Melbourne Police District, 29 per cent of all strikers. Source: Vicstrike Analysis.

26. MIDGLEY, op cit.

27. Monash report, op cit, pp 8-9.

ARTICLE TWO

SOME OBSERVATIONS ON POLICE SELECTION METHODS
IN AUSTRALIA

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There is currently a lack of substantive published material on the various issues surrounding the selection of police in Australia. Certainly there is some work of a speculative and impressionistic nature available, but perspectives based upon sound conceptualisation and empirical research are rare.¹ This is a curious lack, given the burgeoning nature of studies into other aspects of policing.² Some might want to argue the area does not warrant close and sophisticated scrutiny but they would be out of step with developments overseas,³ local police expressions of concern,⁴ and initiatives by governments.⁵ Efficient selection logically influences the successful implementation of organisational goals, and it begs more attention than it has received.

The efficient selection of individuals to perform police duties is a difficult process. The introduction of the first modern police force by Robert Peel in 1829 was closely followed by the first modern failure to successfully recruit suitable personnel.⁶ The problems that faced Rowan and Mayne not only remain with us, but have increased both as a consequence of changes in the police role in modern society and because of the reluctance of police administrators to tackle the implications of these changes for improved selection procedures. This article is concerned with outlining some of the reasons for this state of affairs. It does not attempt a comprehensive overview, but rather concentrates on certain conceptual and methodological aspects the writer considers most important and most problematic. Not all readers will agree with the interpretations offered. Much of the selection process is a matter of judgment, and it will come as no surprise that this discussion reflects some personal judgments. Nevertheless, it is hoped the following words will stimulate dialogue on the vexing issue of police selection.

The need for review

The selection process is only one aspect of the acquisition of new personnel for police service. Prior to selection is the recruitment process, whereby the potential recruit population is attracted to apply for police service. The dynamics of the recruitment process are vital to selection success or failure and they warrant full attention. However, they are less amenable to direct departmental influence than the selection process itself, and will be mentioned only in passing. At the other end of the acquisition continuum lies the job placement process. While this is crucial to efficient management generally, it need not primarily concern us here; as they are currently constituted,

police departments in Australia recruit personnel for constabulary or general duties and the issues surrounding job placement do not arise in the first few years of service.

Selection involves the choosing of appropriate recruits from amongst an applicant sample. Before the processes are discussed, it is useful to comment briefly on the issue of selection success. In a sense, each example of incompetence, corruption, resignation or ill-health retirement can be considered a selection failure. In each case the aim of the selection process, to match successfully an individual with the job, has been ultimately unfulfilled. A recent review has stated:

It is crucial that poorly qualified officers not be hired. Even a single officer who is unknowledgeable, criminal, irresponsible, inefficient, or inept can undermine the good efforts of a whole department.⁷

However, none expects selection to be infallible, least of all experts in industrial-organisational disciplines, and it is plainly absurd to indict selection completely each time an individual leaves prematurely or misbehaves, as the above quotation would imply. The critical question here is the criterion point at which collective personnel losses, malpractice or inadequate performance become intolerable. The answer to that question is the first important matter of judgment. Not only will police departments differ on the intolerability of selection mismatches, but so too will different components of society have diverse views. For the aggrieved motorist, every surly traffic officer represents a selection failure; for the criminal lawyer, inarticulate and ill-briefed police informants reflect faulty selection; for governments faced with a police corruption scandal, selection processes need drastic overhaul. The legitimacy and influence of these perspectives obviously vary; there can be no set standard by which we judge the success of selection. However, relativities are important here; if ill-health retirements or premature resignations escalate disproportionately to staff growth, or if departments find they have insufficient applicants with potential for specialist or executive tasks, then selection processes (amongst other things) need to be scrutinised.

In fact, one need not base the need to evaluate current selection methods on overt and critical shortcomings. It is sufficient to recognise that while policing has changed in its focus, its resources and its community context over the years, its selection methods have not. The dictates of professional management suggest that concepts and devices which have not been evaluated in the context of rapid change require, prima facie, some scrutiny.

The tenets of selection

The employee selection process is a predictive exercise. Its purpose is to ensure accepted job applicants perform their

duties successfully. In order to do this, persons implementing the process must be aware of, and be able to identify accurately, those elements in applicants which lead to successful performance. Selection procedures represent a substitute for the only really accurate way to make judgments about applicant suitability - the placement of an applicant in the required job and the consequent observation of performance over a long period. Few if any organisations can afford the luxury of such a strategy. Hence the aim of selection is to approximate long term observation in as comprehensive a manner as possible in a severely limited time and resource frame (often with the provision of some sort of probationary period for accepted recruits). It attempts to predict future performance on the basis of a necessarily limited knowledge of past and current applicant features. It has been called an art.⁸ However, a case can be made that even such an art should have ground rules in order to make the outcome less an act of random chance and more a process approaching scientific endeavour.

The methodological goals of efficient selection are borrowed from general testing research, and concern the development of test validities. There are two broad categories of validity which are used in this context. The first is criterion-related validity, in which it is established that a certain test accurately assesses an individual's ability to perform something other (the 'criterion') than the test itself. For example, for a police selection process to have criterion-related validity, it would have to be demonstrated that the constituent parts of the testing procedures accurately predict later police performance. The second category of validity is descriptive validity, in which the ability of the test to accurately describe its own purported dimensions is confirmed.⁹ An example of such validity is the success with which an educational test administered to police applicants measures educational ability. Both these sorts of validities have obvious relevance to the development of effective police selection processes; however the present paper is more concerned with criterion-related validity, which is seen to be both the more important and the more neglected feature of police selection methods in Australia. This is not to imply descriptive validity has been particularly well-handled either but rather that it involves technical difficulties which tend to be common to all selection paradigms, while those of criterion validity present specific problems to police departments.

An appropriate strategy for the general development of valid selection procedures has been available for fifty years.¹⁰ Reduced to its basic elements, it involves the following:

- * the delineation of tasks that recruits are expected to perform, and the analysis of these tasks in terms of their nature, and how they are best performed,
- * the development of measures of successful performance on the delineated tasks,

- * the identification of employee attributes which are associated with successful performance, and
- * the development and application of measuring devices which identify applicants with the appropriate attributes.

Implicit in this strategy is a series of feed-back exercises to ensure that the requirements of validity are met, and that the process meets changing needs.

The first element specifies the definition of required tasks and an understanding of the processes of successful performance. The complexity and diversity of police tasks have been well-documented elsewhere,¹¹ and it is sufficient here to point out that such diversity makes accurate, concise and functional task delineation difficult. This feature does not necessarily distinguish the police service from other organisations; but complex diversity is most often considered the province of established professions, such as law and medicine, where the duration of education and training far exceeds that of the police service, and whose new apprentices are not cast so quickly into operational practice. It is also necessary here to clarify the term 'functional'. It has two meanings in this context; the first implies the translation of what we know to be a task into its constituent components so that we can measure an applicant's apparent attributes against those needed for the task. It is one thing to develop a lengthy check-list of relevant duties, and quite another to comprehend how these might be best performed. The second sense of functional reflects the fact that many police tasks are functionally diverse ie, the goals of one task and the means required to execute it successfully may have little or nothing in common with those of another task.

The second element in a selection paradigm involves measurement of how tasks are successfully performed. Such measurement is more difficult in service organisations where there is no standard measure of employee output. It is particularly difficult in police agencies where there is a diversity not only in the variety of tasks set for employees but also in organisational goals which an agency sets (or has set for it). Primitive injunctions upon police departments to 'protect the community' and 'enforce the law' imply no feasible means by which we can judge police performance without recourse to pluralistic judgments. The assessment of more delineated tasks such as traffic law enforcement or criminal investigation is a little less problematic, but not much; criteria such as the rate of traffic fatalities or 'clear-up' rates remain nebulous and controversial. The assessment of individual performance is no easier. It is generally based upon supervisor evaluations and resultant promotional status or, more negatively, upon disciplinary incidents. The criteria for, and the circumstances surrounding, these assessments vary between departments within an agency as well as between agencies. Measurement of organisational and individual performance in the police service has not had a particularly scientific history.¹²

The third element concerns the linking of indices of successful performance with those attributes of employees which enhance it. Methodologically this involves sophisticated research design, and it is not surprising that, given the sorts of problems faced by police agencies in satisfying the first two elements, little attention has been paid to this third aspect in any scientific way. Police departments have generally relied in the past upon the intuitive judgments of operationally experienced police personnel to provide the links. There is no denying that such experienced officers have a vital role to play in selection decisions. On the other hand, the lack of a standardised and systematic basis to their decisions in a period where the homogeneity of police experiences can no longer be guaranteed amongst serving officers suggests that we should no longer place unfettered reliance upon their judgments.

The fourth element in the development of an effective selection process is the most visible one, the selection procedures themselves. Their success is logically derived from the soundness with which the previous three elements have been investigated. Prevailing selection procedures generally reflect the difficulties inherent in such an investigation and the problems generated by historical departmental responses to these difficulties.

State of the art

Current selection procedures operate to distinguish between applicants on the basis of a number of criteria. For discussion purposes these can be divided into three main categories: (1) physical (including age), (2) educational and (3) character. Each of these categories is assessed in two ways: screening and testing. In the physical arena, applicants are screened out of contention if they fail to meet height, weight, vision and age criteria; they are tested for medical fitness and wellbeing. Educationally, applicants are screened out if they present without minimum qualifications; they are tested for literacy and numeracy skills. In terms of character, applicants are screened out if they have significant prior convictions or other public character deficiencies. They are tested for character suitability by means of oral interview examination, a generally extensive background check which involves employment record and the scrutiny of references and, in some circumstances, standardised personality assessment.¹³ Precise criteria and testing sequences differ between states but the general procedure is similar.¹⁴ Selection procedures are lengthy and rather intense and failure rates are high.¹⁵ The procedures appear on the surface to be relatively thorough and sophisticated. However, when they are assessed against the developmental strategy outlined previously, serious shortcomings emerge.

Rather than evaluate each selection procedure and criterion for its intrinsic and established merit, it is more appropriate here to discuss two themes which pervade current methods. They can be summarised by two neologisms: 'generalism' and 'negativism'. Generalism can be informally defined as casting the

selection criteria net so wide that chance probability alone will throw up a number of adequate recruits. In other words, selection criteria have been framed so broadly that, with the possible exception of health, incoming recruits reflect no outstanding deficiencies or positive attributes. Before this contention is justified in more detail, it is worth offering a number of observations concerning the particular constraints upon police selection development in Australia. First, during the post-war boom in the Australian economy, police departments had to compete with industry, commerce and other aspects of the public sector for personnel. Recruiting standards for a service without a highly developed professional image could not afford to be too specific or exclusory. Second, the entrenched belief that all incoming recruits should perform constabulary duties for the first significant part of their police career dictated of necessity a 'jack-of-all-trades' basis to selection criteria. Third, the lack of any systematic study of those features which collectively indicated general duties suitability led to the reliance upon commonsense criteria such as 'maturity' or 'good character' which were thought to be easily and consensually identifiable by selectors of good sense.

These three factors interacted in a number of interesting ways. Police departments needed to balance the requirements of appearing to have high and laudatory standards and the provision of an adequate number of generalist officers for constabulary deployment. This balance has not been an easy one to maintain. The 'jack-of-all-trades' applicants were unlikely to be able to meet a large group of stringent criteria in sufficient numbers to maintain departmental growth or even to replace personnel losses. Each of the three major areas of selection criteria met the needs of this balance in a different way. The physical screening and testing of applicants on the basis of height, weight, vision, age and health provided the substance of selection rigour. The need for inflexible standards in these areas satisfied a department's image of itself as a demanding and exclusive service. It is only relatively recently that the actual relevance of the cutoff points on these criteria to diverse duty performance has come under scrutiny.¹⁶ But it has probably always been understood that these arbitrary levels did not correlate with the more qualitative aspects of police performance. The collection of attributes relevant to service suitability is probably equally distributed across these physical dimensions. Hence departments were able to maintain an apparent commitment to selection stringency without actually preventing whole groups of specifically suitable candidates from applying for police service.

On the other hand, educational standards could not be set at arbitrarily rigorous levels. While some police might put forward the view that high levels of education are either not necessary or a positive disadvantage for constabulary work, it is probably closer to the mark to suggest that to set, say, Higher School Certificate or matriculation as the minimum standard would have disenfranchised a significant proportion of the potential recruit population. In other words, expediency dictated that departments generally conducted their own educational testing

which was pitched at considerably lower levels than the top of the secondary school standard.¹⁷

Character assessment, which is usually performed once the other two major areas have been canvassed, is a curious mix of rigour and slackness. It has aspects of the stringency of the physical testing, such as the insistence on a 'clean' and consistent work record, and the absence of a significant criminal record; these features have justifiably been prized above the need for expediency. On the other hand, the assessment of less demonstrable and documented attributes such as personality suitability has been typically conducted without any system or precision. The adoption of omnibus suitability concepts such as 'maturity', 'motivation', 'adaptability', 'temperament' and so forth suggest that constabulary work requires no more than the all round attributes of a 'solid citizen'. The obvious point here is that these concepts lack any prescriptive precision, and there is likely to be a good deal of dissent concerning the parameters of such an 'everyman' while he is described in such awesomely vague terms.

A complement to generalism is the tendency to select applicants more on the basis of features considered inappropriate for police service rather than upon those which signify suitability. Negativism is especially reflected in the screening components of the selection process, where applicants are disqualified for an excess (acne or weight) or for a lack (height or years). But it is also evident in the testing parts of a process where acceptability levels are set arbitrarily, such as the level of 'job interest' one must demonstrate to be accepted as a recruit. The traditional selection process is often represented as a series of hurdles, each of which must be negotiated before one can attempt the next. The major problem in stopping the process at the hurdle technique is that there is nothing to indicate that the surviving applicants have specific potential for police service. The absence of an aggregated number of disqualifiers in an applicant is not predictive of future success. It is a necessary but not a sufficient indication of suitability. The only component of the traditional selection process which attempts to assess the positive attributes which would enhance service performance is the oral interview phase. But as long as that procedure is grounded in unmeasurable concepts related loosely to an amorphous ideal of the well rounded individual, there is little chance of it accurately identifying potentially well-performing recruits.

A further critical problem is encountered with the sorts of traditional screening techniques outlined above. Generalism and negativism result, at optimum efficiency, in a recruit pool which is relatively free of outstanding deficiencies which might impair performance. Specific ability to perform the tasks of general duties well is virtually unknown. But, constabulary recruitment, in the absence of lateral entry, needs to be geared not only to providing personnel for general deployment, but also to providing a sub sample of potential specialists and executives. The applicant requirements for these jobs add complexity to the conception of what selection criteria are relevant upon entry. It

might be argued that the attributes of a good front line operational officer also ensure likely success in specialist or command arenas, but this would be a hard argument to sustain in the face of analogies from other disciplined services such as the military, and in light of our knowledge concerning the multiplicity of demands and skills in the various aspects of police work. It seems the problems generated by the twin requirements of constabulary recruitment and the provision of later specialists and executives has been tackled by police departments in Australia by leaving things to chance. Given the broad base of current recruitment, chance probability will throw up a number of appropriate candidates for these specialised positions. The critical issue is whether, in this age of rapid community and police change, the numbers of such officers will be sufficient to meet current and projected needs. Few organisations would be content to leave such a crucial area of management planning to chance.

The historical dilemmas involved in effective police selection are still with us; so too are the departmental responses which serve to compound them. To relate these observations to the validity issues raised briefly above, the current screening or hurdle approach offers some prospect of selected descriptive validities. That is, it is possible to design procedures which accurately measure and identify in applicants those characteristics which have been correctly inferred as being prejudicial to service performance. None of these things can be taken for granted in the absence of sound evaluative research on existing hurdle criteria, however. Additionally, even if these criteria did satisfy the requirements of descriptive validity, they can only represent prerequisite validity, not predictive validity.

Predictive utility in a selection process requires the development of criterion related validity. But generalist recruitment has been complemented by generalist criteria which render the possibility of criterion related validity remote. While it is unrealistic to envisage a single unambiguous and workable criterion of performance (the conditions under which criterion related validity is most readily obtainable), the current largely undefined, dimensionally diffuse and intuition based criterion of general duties performance makes it virtually impossible to fulfil the requirements of criterion validity. That validity requires precision of concepts and measuring devices, features which are singularly lacking in the substantive components of contemporary selection procedures.

Possible developments

The foregoing observations possess significant implications for the future development of selection procedures. Firstly, it is worth looking briefly at some of the contemporary possibilities and pressures which bear upon selection. A major change has occurred over the last ten years or so which has a bearing on the need to set selection criteria at a level that will guarantee steady personnel loss replacement and departmental growth. The

parameters of the potential recruit population have altered. Rising unemployment has broadened the base of that population, while the changing dimensions of police service have attracted a new class of applicant. This latter feature can be summarised as the increasingly professional image of police work. Two factors seem to be relevant here. One concerns the growth of technological and professional aspects of policing, such as computer services, forensic science, fraud investigations, psychological services and prosecutions divisions. The other involves the developing service orientation of policing, exemplified in Victoria by the Police Community Involvement Programme.¹⁹ The increasing number of graduates applying for police service and the number of serving officers completing tertiary courses partially reflects these developments.²⁰ It is fair to say that in the current employment situation the competition is now for jobs, not personnel. Selection criteria no longer have to be set predominantly for the market.

Before the wider potential recruit population can be utilised properly, development work on selection procedures must proceed apace. In this regard, it is no longer possible to claim there are no alternatives to the sorts of generalised intuition based criteria which have hitherto typified character or aptitude assessment of police applicants. Performance evaluation studies,²¹ the development of behaviourally anchored rating scales,²² and the adoption of assessment centre selection methodology (which includes simulation exercises)²³ all provide possible options or adjuncts to traditional screening processes.

In addition, pressure is being increasingly brought to bear on the legal consequences of existing methods. Equal Opportunity legislation particularly has provided an impetus for evaluation as well as a thinly veiled imperative for change. Opportunities afforded by these pressures should not be overlooked.

The immediate future dictates a need for comprehensive evaluation research relevant to local circumstances. Overseas developments need not be adopted uncritically but, rather, used as a basis for conceptualisation and methodology. A primary task would be the thorough investigation of existing performance measures and the decisions made at the selection stage. This would be a necessarily circumscribed evaluation, given the problems involved in current performance measures. However, at the very least, it would seem reasonable to investigate the measures that departments themselves use in their assessments of personnel functioning in relation to selection decisions. It may be the case that many existing selection procedures work well in the choosing of appropriate recruits for both constabulary and executive roles (although this writer has made his scepticism clear). It is difficult, though, to understand why we must continue to guess at their effectiveness.

However, evaluation research is ultimately linked with the status quo of existing premises and procedures. This article argues that we can identify in a conceptual sense the shortcomings generated by these premises and procedures. Attempts need to be

made that tackle both the problems of lack of information (through a commitment to evaluation studies) and the difficulties of competing or conflicting organisational goals, eg, omnibus recruitment versus the provision of appropriate specialists. Two interlinking steps are necessary for this last requirement. The immediate step concerns the clarification of the role of the general duties constable. As implied previously, one of the ironies of the police service is that the personnel who bear the brunt of the public image of policing, and who perform the critical 'street' decisions which have major influences on the successful execution of the department's goals, are those new members who have the least experience. There is probably no completely satisfactory way around the problems created by this inversion of normal professional practice, but some remedial suggestions can be offered. For instance, it should be possible to grant formal recognition to the de facto development of constabulary work as an important speciality in its own right. That is, a recognition that effective beat (foot) patrol, mobile patrol, community liaison, preliminary criminal investigation, station house administration, traffic control and so forth are all specialist pursuits which require specific training, aptitude and reward. As it stands in many police departments, newly recruited constables are rotated through these positions in the expectation that every member should be exposed to these features of policing so that those who are incapable of performing more 'important' duties can be identified, while those with potential for conventional specialities can be encouraged to adopt career paths. The general promotional structure reflects this contention. While many members might relish remaining street workers, financial and status rewards are locked into promotions which successively remove individuals from grass roots contact with the community. A system whereby front line operational work was considered something to aspire towards and be rewarded for over the years, rather than an apprentice position which should be left behind as soon as possible, would enhance the professional status of constabulary work. Such a conceptualisation would require the division of general duties into specialities, perhaps as outlined above; this division would allow the investigation of performance attributes with more precision than is currently possible and would enhance the ability to select recruits more specifically for one or a number of professionalised constabulary duties. An efficient blueprint for change along these lines would involve considerable upheaval and reformulation but it offers the potential for criterion related validity which existing methods lack.

The second step would see the integration of the new selection criteria (which flow from this reformulation of the constable's role) with those necessary to ensure an adequate number of executives and conventional specialists. Recruits would be selected on their potential to fulfil one or more of a variety of specialities (including street work) required by the department. As it is unlikely (and probably unwise) that departments will dispense with the requirement that all incoming recruits perform constabulary duties, at least until the end of the typical probationary period, each successful applicant would have to satisfy the requirements for some form of general duties.

But, if we have available the information which enables us to predict at better than chance levels which applicant features lend themselves to successful street work, we can then grade surviving applicants on their potential for that aspect of police work and encourage appropriate career paths.

In many ways, the proposed reformulation is informally attempted in many existing procedures, especially in the sense that 'outstanding' candidates are noted and 'ear-marked' for later specialist deployment. The crucial difference between such ad hoc procedures and the one proposed above is that the latter is explicitly informed by a knowledge of the attributes of successful performance in the various aspects of police work and it positively encourages excellence and continuity in operational work as one of a number of important specialisations.

The bottom line

The foregoing discussion is based upon the belief that existing limitations of traditional selection procedures are based partially upon the ambiguous status of constabulary work. The briefly described solution is based upon a belief that such work needs to be raised to the status of specialty and needs to be comprehended, researched and rewarded as such. Other interpretations are obviously possible. The crux of the selection issue lies embedded in a larger organisational context the meaning, precision and attainability of the roles assigned to police work. If we continue as a community to be satisfied with policing prescriptions such as the 'enforcement of law' and the 'preservation of order' without bothering to inform ourselves of the anomalies, imprecisions and sheer unattainability of many police roles as presently formulated, we will continue to substitute guesswork for objective selection methodology. If, on the other hand, clarifications and resolutions of the dilemmas faced by developing police agencies are sought, then the directions these understandings take will determine the development and effectiveness of selection. It is, of course, foolish to tailor police roles exclusively for the requirements of effective selection; it is equally foolish to ignore the problems of selection when they are at least partially based upon existing conceptions of those roles. The reaffirmation of the pre-eminence of constabulary duties, with the corollary of facilitating the scientific selection of constables, is one proposal. Informed alternatives are eagerly sought.

ENDNOTES

1. Useful discussions of varying quality appear in: 1977, MILTE K and WEBER T. Police in Australia, Sydney: Butterworths; 1977. SWANTON B. 'The Police in Australia: A Critique' in D CHAPPELL and P WILSON (eds) The Australian Criminal Justice System (2d), Sydney: Butterworths; 1972, WILSON PR and WESTERN J. The Policeman's Position Today and Tomorrow. St. Lucia: University of Queensland Press.
2. There is no specific reference to police selection contained in the bibliography of [1983] SWANTON B, HANNIGAN G and BILES D (eds). Police Source Book. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology.
3. 1982. ROE A and ROE N. Police Selection: A Bibliography of 700 References, Orem, Utah: Diagnostic Specialists Inc.
4. SI MILLER, Chief Commissioner of the Victoria Police Department has written in a recent editorial in (1982) Police Life (Sep) of some of the major problems facing police selection procedures. See also [1976] BROWN G. Future Development of the Victoria Police Selection Process. Melbourne: Police Department.
5. One of the terms of reference for the committee of inquiry to advise the Victorian government on the implementation of Labor Party policy with regard to police concerns the general area of recruiting and selection. See Ministerial statement reported in Victorian Parliament Hansard (9 Sep 82).
6. 1967. CRITCHLEY TA. A History of Police in England and Wales, 900 - 1966. London: Constable.
7. ROE A and ROE N. Op cit, p1.
8. 1976. GUION R. 'Recruiting, Selection and Job Placement' in M Dunnette (ed) Handbook of Industrial and Organisational Psychology. Chicago: Rand McNally, p820.
9. Ibid.
10. 1923. FREYD M. 'Measurement in Vocational Selection: An Outline of Research Procedures'. Journal of Personnel Research, v2 pp 215-249, 268-284, 377-385; GUION, op cit described Freyd's article as 'marvelously up to date', p783.
11. 1967. The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice, Task Force Report: The Police, Washington, DC: Government Printing Office; 1973. The Urban Police Function, Chicago IL: American Bar Association; MILTE K & WEBER T. Op cit; SWANTON B. Op cit.
12. 1979. SPIELBERGER C (ed). Police Selection and Performance Evaluation: Issues and Techniques, New York, NY: Praeger, especially Section Two: 'Job Analysis and Performance Evaluation of Police Officers.'

13. The Tasmania Police Department alone utilises regular objective personality assessment; see SWANTON B, HANNIGAN G, and BILES D. Op cit, pp 95-98.
14. Ibid.
15. For example, the Victoria Police Annual Report for 1981 states that only 30 per cent of applicants presenting for entrance testing were accepted as provisional recruits.
16. ROE A and ROE N. Op cit.
17. For example, the ACER General Abilities Test used by the Victoria Police Department for recruit applicant testing, while never validated, has allegedly been designed to assess educational competence at around Year 10 level.
18. These descriptors have been culled from interviewing schedules adopted by various state police departments. See SWANTON B, HANNIGAN G and BILES D. Op cit.
19. 1982. Research and Development Department. Police/Community Involvement Programme: Report on the First Twelve Months of the Pilot Programme (Vol 1). Melbourne: Police Department.
20. The Victoria Police Annual Report for 1981 reports that 2 per cent of newly appointed members held tertiary qualifications; 110 serving members held tertiary qualifications. In absolute terms, these figures reflect minimal penetration by graduates. Relatively, however, they represent a dramatic increase since the early 1970s.
21. 1979. FROEMEL E. 'Objective and Subjective Measures of Police Officer Performance' pp 87-111 in C SPIELBERGER (ed). Op cit.
22. 1979. FARR J and LANDY, F. 'The Development and Use of Supervisory and Peer Scales for Police Performance Appraisal.' pp 61-75 in C SPIELBERGER (ed). Op cit.
23. 1979. FILER R. 'The Assessment Center Method in the Selection of Law Enforcement Officers.' pp 211-228 in C SPIELBERGER (ed). Op cit.

ARTICLE THREE

CYNICISM, JOB SATISFACTION AND LOCUS OF CONTROL IN QUEENSLAND
AND NEW JERSEY POLICE OFFICERS

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Police officers' attitudes are increasingly the focus of social research. Perhaps stimulated by Art Niederhoffer's (1967) research into police cynicism, much of this attitudinal research has focussed on the nature of cynicism as manifested by police officers. David Lester found that not only are America's police officers less satisfied with their jobs than average American workers but that highly cynical police officers tend to be more dissatisfied with the work than less cynical police officers.¹ In addition, it has been found that police officers who feel their successes and failures are determined either by luck or the whims of others, *ie*, who believe in an external locus of control, are also less satisfied with their work.²

In this paper, the attitudes of Queensland and New Jersey police officers are measured and compared in respect of cynicism, job satisfaction and locus of control. Also, the generality of associations found between the attitudes in respect of Queensland police officers are considered in relation to those of New Jersey officers.

Method

The police cynicism questionnaire (Niederhoffer, 1967),³ the Job Development Index⁴ and the locus of control scale,⁵ were administered to a group of Queensland police officers attending in-service courses. The data so obtained were compared with data obtained from Newark, New Jersey, municipal police officers attending similar courses. Wording of scale items was modified to suit Queensland conditions.

Results

The mean scores of both Queensland and New Jersey police officers are shown at Table 3.1. Queensland officers show as being both less cynical and more satisfied with their work. The New Jersey group was somewhat younger than the Queensland sample but, when examined separately no difference was evidenced between the attitude of younger and older Queensland officers.

TABLE 3.1
MEAN SCORES OF QUEENSLAND AND NEW JERSEY
POLICE OFFICERS ON ATTITUDE SCALES

item	Queensland			New Jersey			t value	two tailed P<
	m	sd	n	m	sd	n		
cynicism	49.7	9.7	46	60.0	11.5	29	4.76	0.001
Work satisfaction	37.6	5.9	50	33.8	8.6	47		
- work	37.6	5.9		32.7	7.5		3.56	0.001
- pay	17.5	5.2		9.4	7.1		6.39	0.001
- promotion	22.4	6.3		9.6	8.1		8.55	0.001
- supervisor	43.0	9.6		33.3	16.7		3.48	0.001
external locus of control	8.7	3.3	50	10.7	3.8	32	2.45	0.02

The scale used to measure cynical attitudes of police officers to the criminal justice system has 20 items, and responses were compared item by item. The overall multivariate analysis of variance indicates some significant differences, see Table 3.2. In particular, whilst Queensland police officers showed as being the more cynical respecting the usefulness of a university education, New Jersey officers registered as more cynical with regard to arrests, dedication to duty, efficiency of police force, police professionalism, disciplinary hearings, fairness of rules and regulations and sensitivity of police officers.

TABLE 3.2

MEAN SCORES OF QUEENSLAND AND NEW JERSEY
POLICE OFFICERS ON NIEDERHOFFER'S CYNICISM SCALE

Item	Queensland		New Jersey		t value	two tailed P <
	m	sd	m	sd		
1. superiors	3.5	1.4	3.5	1.0	0.13	
2. complaints	3.0	1.8	3.1	1.3	0.30	
3. average arrests	1.2	0.8	1.8	1.2	2.45	0.02
4. best arrests	1.5	1.1	1.6	0.9	0.32	
5. college degrees	3.5	1.7	2.4	1.7	2.83	0.01
6. dept efficiency	2.7	1.5	4.2	1.4	4.47	0.001
7. training	2.2	1.3	2.4	1.2	0.92	
8. professionalisation	1.4	0.8	2.2	1.4	3.13	0.01
9. disciplinary hearings	2.1	1.2	3.3	1.2	4.13	0.001
10. police dedication	1.4	0.9	2.1	1.3	2.84	0.01
11. rules and regs	2.0	1.4	3.1	1.7	3.06	0.01
12. youth policy	1.7	1.1	1.8	1.2	0.24	
13. assignment criteria	2.6	1.2	3.3	1.7	1.98	
14. quality of det's	3.6	1.3	3.3	1.4	0.69	
15. summonses	2.0	1.5	2.2	1.1	0.40	
16. public respect	2.7	1.4	3.3	1.4	1.64	
17. public assistance	2.5	1.2	2.9	1.1	1.60	
18. police sensitivity	1.9	1.5	3.1	2.0	3.13	0.01
19. press	4.7	0.8	4.5	1.0	0.82	
20. evidence	3.9	1.5	3.4	1.6	1.24	

MANOVA $F = 3.81$ $df = 20,54$ $p = 0.0001$

Queensland police officers showed as being the more satisfied across all four dimensions of their work, whereas New Jersey police officers indicated they were marginally more likely to believe in an external locus of control.

The associations of attitudes differ between the two groups, see Table 3.3. For both samples, those officers having greater belief in an external locus of control were less satisfied with their work. Cynical Queensland police officers were more likely to believe in an external locus of control. However, only among New Jersey officers was cynicism related to work satisfaction.

TABLE 3.3
ASSOCIATION BETWEEN ATTITUDES OF QUEENSLAND
AND NEW JERSEY POLICE OFFICERS

association	Q	NJ
cynicism - external locus of control	0.37**	0.14
external locus of control - work satisfaction	-0.27*	-0.40*
cynicism - work satisfaction	-0.16	-0.50**
- work	-0.07	-0.19
- pay	-0.11	-0.39**
- promotion	-0.11	-0.25*
- supervisors	-.41**	-0.35**

** one tailed $p < 0.01$

* one tailed $p < 0.05$

Discussion

These results, albeit from limited opportunity samples of police officers in both countries, indicate a higher level of morale exists among Queensland police officers than it does in New Jersey police officers. Queensland police officers also seem to be less cynical about their work and the criminal justice system as it affects them. They also appear to be more satisfied with their jobs as well as less likely to feel they lack control over their working lives.

The associations between attitudes varied between the two groups of police officers. Cynical New Jersey police officers indicated they were less satisfied with their jobs. This was not the case, however, for Queensland officers. It may be that the relatively high level of cynicism of New Jersey police officers stems from dissatisfaction with their work. Alternatively, the attitudes of Queensland police officers may not be so much cynical and a result of dissatisfaction with work but a realistic appraisal of police work and their part in it.

Although the Queensland police Ss were older than the New Jersey police officer Ss who participated in this study, younger and older Queensland officers had similar attitudes. Controls for this difference were not possible.

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ARTICLE FOUR

INTERPERSONAL VIOLENCE - THE POLICE ROLE

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It is my purpose to outline the object of intervention, from a police viewpoint, in situations involving interpersonal violence. At the same time, I intend to take a critical look at the professional police capability to handle intervention successfully. I shall attempt to stimulate an awareness that the police service role is a valid extension of the traditional enforcement priority, and that human crises are usually multidimensional and not easily separated into neat categories that are either crime or non-crime related. As a suitable vehicle to present these views, I shall concentrate on the increasing phenomenon of interpersonal violence within the family, known in police parlance as 'domestics', illustrating the vulnerable position of police in the 'helping system', and their close relationship to other health professionals.

I think that most of us believe that over the last twenty years or so, there has been an alarming increase in crimes of violence in this country and elsewhere. Unfortunately, the statistics available do nothing to dispel or positively support that belief. However, I contend that, putting aside acts of terrorism and looking objectively at the number and types of incidents of violence coming before the courts, society is no more violent now than it was two decades ago.

Today we live in an era of sophisticated communications and technological wizardry. It is possible to be sitting in the comfort of your own home and see and hear things 'live' as they occur from all over the world. Acts of violence, which always seem to figure so prominently in those broadcasts, constantly jump out at us from the television screen and from the front pages of newspapers. In fact, if someone was to analyse it, I would suggest that violent crime, although comprising only about 5 per cent of total crime committed, receives upwards of 80 per cent of the total crime news coverage. If this is the case, then it need surprise no one that people, including the police themselves, think we are living and working in an excessively violent society.

It is not my intention here to enter into argument about whether violent crime is increasing or not. What is apparent is that society "seems" to be more violent and the public are becoming more sensitive to it. On the other hand, it cannot be denied that the crime rate is high and this is no myth or figment of our imagination. The fact that during our lifetime many of us only have occasion to read about crime rather than personally experience it, should not cloud our appreciation of and our subsequent attention to the problem. If society is to cope, then those parts of the system charged with the responsibility of ensuring that we, the public, can go about our normal life in relative safety must 'come to grips' with it and adapt accordingly.

Interpersonal family violence has now been recognised as a serious social problem. Even in a small city like Hobart, police were involved in a total of 176 domestic disputes during a four week period, 1-28 January 1982.¹ Researchers in the United States believe that spouse abuse ranging from occasional slaps to severe beatings is practised by more than half of all US couples.² Other research indicates that many women reporting assaults have been battered several times before by their male companions, and even then they still hesitate to instigate criminal proceedings or to sever the conjugal relationship.³ The concern for the plight of conjugal victims has tended to focus attention on the police, and to question their effectiveness in handling incidents involving interpersonal conflict.

Not too long ago, police work was considered a simple function, with simple solutions to simple problems. Sir Richard Mayne, one of the first Metropolitan Police Commissioners in 1829, said:

The primary object of an efficient police is the prevention of crime. The next that of detection and punishment of offenders.

This primary emphasis has remained with us for many years, never being really specified in concise terms, but seen usually in the narrowest sense and identified with the limited function of crime repression and suppression. In 1931, August Vollmer viewed policing as a more complex process. He said:

The policeman is no longer merely the suppressor of crime but the social worker in the community as well.⁴

The exact nature of the police role has emerged as one of the most perplexing and fundamental questions affecting the status of police in society today. From an ordinary crime fighter the policeman has now progressed to the stage that he should:-

... be tolerant of deviance, enjoy a broad social vision, be schooled in the complexities of the political processes in a pluralistic society, be educated in the law and the competing values it serves, dispense even justice, stand secure against the impulses of prejudice and bigotry and commit himself to the preservation of law as an effective social worker.⁵

Over the years the police themselves have been successful in conveying to the public the impression that law enforcement was

the primary and highest goal of the police. The resultant 'cops and robbers' conception has not only tended to simplify the role of police in dealing with criminals, but more importantly, has neglected the more extensive areas of modern police functions. Because the public see the police primarily as crime fighters, the part of the police role concerned with order maintenance and community service has been disparaged.

The conflicting demands and expectations surrounding police order maintenance, community service and crime fighting responsibility are primary sources of police frustration. Society expects its police to be efficient crime fighters and, at the same time, skilled peace-keepers. Not only do the roles conflict, but so do the skills and temperament needed to perform them. The pressure generated has been particularly debilitating to police. JC Campbell, in his National Commission Report on the Causes and Prevention of Violence, summed it up when he said:

Policemen live on the grinding edge of social conflict, without a well defined, well understood notion of what they are supposed to be doing there.

The ordinary police officer's job has been described as the most difficult in the world. Today he must possess a vast array of skills to enable him to cope with the complexities of his function. At the very least he must be a combination of crime fighter, priest, lawyer, scientist, doctor, marriage guidance counsellor, social worker and psychologist. August Vollmer says a policeman is expected to:

... have the wisdom of Solomon, the courage of David, 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 the ultimate knowledge of every branch of the natural biological and social sciences.⁷ If he had all these he might be a good policeman.

Is it any wonder we do not understand him? If the police officer is to perform the duty expected of him by society at large, then the community must have some understanding of the role conflict inherent in his work.

Police all over the world are wrestling with this role problem of what it is they are supposed to be. Many strongly resist the extra social service duties thrust upon them and the extra and different training that this role demands. Others see the social service role as a valid extension of the crime fighting role. The latter group suggest that many of the problems cannot be placed in nice neat 'solution' boxes, nor can they be

classified as crime or non-crime related. Many are multidimensional, with the underlying problems being masked by significant surface characteristics. The normal family 'domestic' affords a good example, in that initial complaints for help by one of the conflicting parties seldom provides the information necessary to categorise the incident. The United States President's Commission's Task Force Report on Police, stressed this multidimensional nature of calls for assistance by saying:

Proposals to relieve the police of what are essentially social services have been lacking in their consideration of the relationship of such services to the incidence of more serious crimes. Domestic disturbances for example, often culminate in a serious assault or homicide.⁸

Both the urgency and destructive potential of interpersonal conflict require that kind of authoritatively lawful response capability that is unique to the police. No other social service organisation is capable of providing equivalent protection to citizens under these often life-threatening circumstances. Demands by society for some police to be left alone to deal with crime situations whilst others are assigned to social service functions, completely overlook this important fact.

Because they spend more time on these types of duties, which although not necessarily related to crime and crime situations tend to complement them, police are seen as front line emergency representatives of society's health and welfare agencies. They resist this label as much as possible and cry out for a return to the more rewarding crime fighting role originally attached to them. At the same time they criticise those agencies responsible for health and welfare for not shouldering their responsibilities. Consequently the ill-rewarding, social service responsibilities receive less evaluative attention and, whilst they may be performed efficiently, they are not necessarily performed effectively.

It is true that many police feel they are becoming the repository for too many diffuse and distasteful tasks cast out by other social agencies better able to deal with them. Being hesitant to acknowledge full social role commitment, police often become very critical of the perceived failures of the formal social services.⁹ When police get involved in assisting sick and troubled people because doctors, hospitals and social agencies are unable or unwilling to accept their own responsibilities, the police feel they are being made to do the 'real dirty work' and to appear as scapegoats.

People think that police, because of their front line position, should be more socially service minded and therefore more effective social diagnosticians. Yet, advice from the police, especially about social problems, is seldom sought and

will more often than not be resisted when offered. When police act as untrained counsellors and adult and child welfare officers, they are frequently unacknowledged, unrewarded and too often castigated by professional agencies for the way they act. This is a paradoxical situation which further increases role conflict, and causes police to become cynical and despairing towards those who expect them to be more socially conscious.

The growing fear and uncertainty arising out of a belief that crime is raging out of control has exerted considerable pressure on the police to seek greater professional efficiency. Yet this drive towards professional efficiency intensifies the greater priority they must give to their primary role of enforcing the law and has probably worked against the public perceived effectiveness of the police service. Specialist functions developing at the expense of generalist functions has devalued the traditional role 'on the ground'. Today it is not uncommon to find in areas with high crime rates and high-conflict potential, the most crucial contact decisions being left to the least experienced officers. What we get is a development of a reactive police capability at the expense of the preventive function.¹⁰ Quests for efficiency have failed to recognise that the essential nature of policing is a continual process of interaction and social contact between the police and the public. Impairment of the processes of interaction impairs police capability.

Whilst the media often link violence within the community with acquisitive crime or political unrest, the facts may prove otherwise. Most homicides and serious assaults, which are reliable indicators of violence, result from emotionally charged conflicts among people - usually people who are related or acquainted. It is these conflicts that are so well known and often feared and disliked by those who have inherited the responsibility to manage them. Police are well aware that intervention in highly volatile domestic disputes by incompetent or ill-trained police can be fatal. Statistics clearly reveal that a significant number of police killed in the course of duty are involved at the time in efforts to manage a human conflict. (Bard 1974:135). For instance FBI reports indicate that of all the police killed in the line of duty in the United States in 1975 and 1976, 15.5 per cent and 20 per cent respectively were killed attending domestic disputes.

Although there are many options available to police to enable them to handle violent domestic disputes, the choices are not always easy to make because of the conflicting public expectations which complicate police decision-making efforts. Victims do not always appreciate or understand the limitations the law places on police, and yet police are expected through the magic of authority, to solve an interpersonal conflict over which they have little control. They know themselves that their efforts often have little or no lasting effect on the participants and they frequently set out to do nothing more than to effect only those things which will facilitate a prosecution or which may be referred elsewhere. It is this frustration with their predicament which sometimes expresses itself in lack of interest

by police in family disputes except to cool them down and get out.¹²

Domestic disturbance calls are handled by police all over the world in essentially the same way, by mediating where possible and with a reluctance to arrest unless absolutely necessary. This approach has been severely criticised by feminist movements which have demanded stronger police measures, blaming the police for propagating further assaults. In fact, civil action has been taken against the New York City and Oakland California Police Departments for failing to arrest, solely because the assailant and the victim were married to each other.¹³ Traditionally police everywhere maintain an informal non-arrest policy, never intending to be malicious or discriminatory. In the light of these judgments, which although they did not go against the police tended to criticise them, the police might have to revise current policy and re-examine their present procedures.

In most urban communities, police, by virtue of their position, become the only emergency response agency to which the public can turn in times of crisis, whatever that crisis may be. They are, because of certain unique role attributes, the agency of choice for the delivery of a number of human resources. However, domestics pose a real problem and police usually dread this type of call for five reasons: firstly, they question whether domestic disputes should involve police when no criminal conduct has taken place; secondly, they feel there is considerable inherent danger associated with such calls; thirdly, the unpredictability of the situations often induce intense anxiety in the responding police officer because he never knows if he will be handling a violent, disgruntled, drunken husband with a weapon, or a despondent suicidal mother with crying children; fourthly, there is a great deal of time spent answering these calls (an average of about 45 minutes a call); and fifthly, because minimal training in crisis intervention does not prepare police to understand and effectively deal with many of the psychological problems which arise during disturbance calls.¹⁴

The ordinary policeman throughout his career has to deal with practically every type of human problem. Because of his unique position, he comes into contact with more abnormal behaviour and more of society's psychologically and transitionally disturbed individuals than any other individual in either the medical or social welfare professions. In this regard he could be considered society's front line mental health practitioner.

Despite the fact that it is seldom, if ever, recognised as such by police themselves or by the medical profession, the normal police department is a significant mental health agency:

Research has substantiated the significance of the policeman's role in mental health, particularly in bringing lower class patients to treatment.¹⁵

The point that has been overlooked for so many years is that police are in a unique position to implement preventive health programs during their normal work. A considerable part of police time occurs in the context of crises and the people reached during these periods are the people who do not normally avail themselves of traditional services. The often complex bureaucratic health and welfare organisations functioning today are difficult for some families and people to even relate to.

Unfortunately, many police see social and health problems more from the viewpoint of a case finder than a case referrer and sometimes fail to recognise the problems which should be referred to the health and welfare agencies. They react to the claim that they are social workers but are now beginning to realise the necessity to have knowledge of social and medical emergencies and the agencies that deal with them. Present training programs reflect that thinking. Police who have been trained in this way accept the fact that they are social agents and approach their function with a broader and more comprehensive perspective of how to handle sensitive, domestic situations.

As most of the duties of police involve delicate human relations, training needs to be directed towards increasing the sensitivity of police so that they can interpret and respond to the different cues which are seen. Without this type of training a policeman would see the cues but would not be able to respond to them by either direct action or referral. Co-operation with community and referral support agencies should therefore be given a high priority as a training need. The problem here is that the police and other agencies lack information about each other, and there is a tendency for each to protect its own territory and to avoid the negative image each has of the other. The police do not want to be seen as social workers, and agency workers prefer not to be authority figures.¹⁶

Mental health and police personnel have not always thought of each other as compatriots. In fact, they seem to have always harboured adverse stereotyped images of each other. To illustrate this point, if you ask a policeman what he thinks about mental health professionals, he will probably disparagingly characterise them as shrinks, do-gooders or simply crazy. On the other hand, if you ask a psychologist about the type of people who choose to be police officers, he will probably say they are most likely paranoid, latently or naturally sadistic, and deviant. By going unchecked these stereotypes have proven costly to both groups and to society generally.

Many police feel that doctors, psychologists, psychiatrists and social scientists can be an asset and are capable of contributing to the professionalism of the police function. Others feel from experience, that these people may be well intentioned but too pre-occupied with theory, are incredibly naive and isolated from the real world, and should get away from their laboratories and out onto the streets where the police work. Police are fundamentally doers, concerned with what people do, whilst behavioural and social scientists are basically thinkers concerned with why people do what they do:

These differences in vocational styles and behavioural priorities create substantial conflict; recognising them is the first step towards resolving them.¹⁷

Suggestions by behavioural scientists of particular responses necessary to handle a situation, for example utilising respect, finesse or a soft hand, which are contrary to police operational experience, do nothing to engender better relationships between them. In many instances not only do the responses fail to work, but they can be especially dangerous to victims and to the police themselves. Newly trained police who are pre-disposed to use tact and finesse, often find that these do not work, and resort to the use of verbal or physical force or authority to manage the conflict. The gap between behavioural scientists and police is further widened because academics fail to consider the practical issues involved and propose theoretical solutions that do not always work. Behavioural scientists should realise that police see human behaviour at its worst. The potential danger involved in crisis intervention cannot help but affect a policeman's attitude. Dangerous situations are not readily predictable. Even some of our minor matrimonial disputes have erupted into serious and sometimes fatal issues. This is not seen by an outsider who might see the people concerned only in a laboratory type atmosphere.

When a policeman attends the scene of a domestic dispute, he is inclined to handle the situation using techniques never seen by those people who often criticise them. Time and intensity pressures tend to make the techniques he used reflexive reactions or routine procedures. Since a policeman's primary commitment is the protection of the community, his response is determined primarily by the threat to the social order posed by the individual's behaviour. Only after the primary threat has been controlled are the needs of the individual considered. The skills and techniques he uses in particular cases are based mainly on experience and on the particular training he has undergone. Many police complain that the stereotyped approaches advocated by behavioural scientists just do not work, and they strongly resist the development of psychological techniques during formal training. On the other hand, the majority realise that both knowledge and technical competence are necessary to enable the delivery of an effective service. This latter factor also enhances police professionalism with obvious advantages to both morale and generalised police performance.

It has been generally acknowledged that the social support functions of police need to be included in police training. The still unresolved problem is determining the object of police intervention, and hence the appropriate training needed. The police, social welfare agencies, behavioural scientists and medical practitioners have differing conceptions of the object of intervention in crisis situations. At the moment, police are charged with keeping the peace. Whilst police officers often act as mental health and social service officers, they still have the primary obligation of restoring order and enforcing the law.

There is a general agreement on the most appropriate way of incorporating this aspect of the police function into police training. Various approaches have been suggested and tried, including recruitment of those who are educated in the social sciences; parallel training of recruits in the social behavioural sciences and investigative skills; and incorporation of social, behavioural, human relations, legal and investigative elements into a unified curriculum.

In the designing of police training courses, one matter that must be considered is whether to present human relations training in a separate course, or to integrate it into the present police curriculum. This is difficult to adjudge. Separate training in the social sciences may give police a better understanding of the values of social and mental health workers but the dichotomy between the implied value systems of social support and social control may only further emphasise the role conflict experienced by police. This may result in the further acceptance of the traditional social control value system.

My experience has taught me that good police trainers are able to put a human relations slant on police subjects at all times. The benefit of this approach is that the police officer being taught is able to associate human relations with every aspect of police work instead of just the single specialist area under discussion. Training has moved away from the traditional methods and techniques of lecture presentations, and more towards the use of teaching methods which share affective as well as cognitive dimensions of learning. Role playing is fully utilised as one of those projective educational techniques whereby participants are able to explore the consequences of various courses of action, evaluate options and make a choice of action without being defensive about traditional ways of behaving. The problems police face in all their duties require innovative, flexible behaviour styles that are not learnt in high regimented training arenas. Interaction provides a vehicle for such understanding by enabling participants to discuss the expectations and frustrations of street experience.

One of the most interesting and positive training ventures in specialised police training was undertaken by the New York City Police Department in 1967. The Director of that training was Morton Bard, a professor of psychology at the City University of New York. The idea was to develop a course which would explore the possibility of preventing crime and, at the same time, promote mental health in training police as para-professionals in family crisis intervention. As Bard explains, it was an experiment to see if policemen could be made psychologically sophisticated and be given highly technical skills without in any way confusing them about their professional identity as police officers.¹⁸ The project was carefully evaluated and the community response appeared positive.

The need for a considerable change in police policy and practices has long been recognised. To train specialists to intervene in crises is a stop gap procedure only but it does serve

as a foundation for upgrading the proficiency of all police personnel. Throughout the world, most police forces have rejected the pure specialist training approach and focussed attention on training all police to cope with crisis situations, in essence, making police officers generalists rather than specialists. Crisis training is built into most basic police courses here in Australia, and is an important segment of in-service training. The skills and techniques learned can be generalised to other areas of police work. Training in this regard should enable a policeman to cope more effectively and quickly by feeling less anxious in situations considered dangerous to him.

Training changes come slowly, and it will be some time before we are all attuned to the contemporary standard required today. Some of the experimental models, such as those developed by New York, Richmond and Oakland, have been very useful in developing training programs to teach police to operate as skilled and professional respondents, resulting in better public relations. Many police training programs previously assigned a low priority to conflict handling training.

It has been suggested that co-ordination, co-operation and integration of the social service, medical and police agencies are the answers to the problem of handling domestic violence. However, this narrow focus assumes commitment to the co-ordination of common objectives between the agencies concerned. In actuality, agencies do not share common objectives and goals but have different mandates, constituencies and operating philosophies. Furthermore, it is often unclear as to what co-ordination and what co-operation should take place and even if these were resolved would the different agencies permit intrusion of others into their domains.¹⁹ I foresee a lack of degree of commitment as well as a role conflict problem inherent in such a situation. The mistrust, ignorance and disrespect the police have of social workers, make collaborative relationships difficult to achieve, but understanding and increased knowledge through mutual training programs which include an exchange of personnel would benefit police.

All too often police and social workers have an unreal expectation of what the other can do. If agencies are to co-operate together three conditions must be fulfilled. Firstly social workers and others must understand the police role, with its resulting ambiguities and conflicts. Secondly, the police must not expect magical solutions. Thirdly, and most importantly, social workers must give the same service timewise as the police, that is twenty-four hours a day. I contend it is in the latter area where social welfare/police relationships have suffered. An example of this co-operative venture can be found in Adelaide, South Australia. In 1976 the South Australian Department of Community Welfare set up a twenty-four hour mobile crisis unit consisting of a group of trained counsellors to give support to the police in handling domestic disputes, interpersonal conflicts or personal situations. The unit's objectives were to alleviate the excessive time police spend at scenes, to reduce the

number of calls thereby releasing police patrols for other duties, and to provide for the placement of children. The unit was a back-up counselling service only and the only one of its type in Australia. It has achieved some success. However it cannot be assumed from this that police intend or are able to forgo their obligation to attend domestic disputes in the first instance.

Domestic crisis intervention by police does not absolve the social services of their responsibility. The police, by increasing domestic dispute intervention training, and by experimenting with innovated policing techniques and models of integration, have begun to move in the right direction.

I contend that police are not an isolated agency with either the responsibility or the ability to deal independently with many of society's problems. The police are but one segment of the overall system. The quality of protection and assistance available to the public depends on each of us improving our part of the system and seeing to it that we co-ordinate our specific functions in achieving common goals. Unfortunately, the numerous complexities and subtleties involved in sub-system relationships prevent a proper evaluation of those goals.

Academics and reformers everywhere are crying out to police to change their ways, their recruitment processes and standards, their training, and their control. I wonder instead whether we should not be focussing attention on changing philosophies:

It may not be the men who are good or bad so much as the premises and design of the system in which they find themselves.²⁰

It is a sad fact that too often reformers and reform movements concentrate on what should be done to improve police, rather than on what fundamental changes should be contemplated in the system itself. The fact that police are a twenty-four hours a day, seven days a week, mobile and free public service, usually means that the residual problems of the community are left for them to handle. The structure of community services in general seems to maximise a least costs principle rather than the application of maximum effectiveness or skill.

In Tasmania over the last few years, considerable rapport has been fostered between the police and many medical and social agencies, by the inclusion of them in police training programs. We have been able to get together and talk about each others problems, and create an awareness and understanding of each others roles. It has not been an easy task nor has it always borne fruit. To just talk to each other is not enough. We must show that we are all willing to get our own house in order and then work towards common goals.

Unfortunately talk is cheap. We start off with the best intentions but pressures and economic constraints gradually win

out, and we fall back to our previous 'battle lines'. Nothing has really changed, and the ever increasing reliance on the law and the courts to deal with societal problems continues. The police and the other traditional service organisations find it too difficult to adapt to the changing pattern of human needs.

The multifarious problems of society are being thrust on the police, and many of these problems are not best resolved by traditional law enforcement techniques. As other agencies are not always available, the police are expected to cope with these situations, but are then criticised for their actions by those same agencies. This only reinforces the inherent role conflict of the police. Improved training and techniques may help police perform their duty, but improved co-operation between police and other agencies, with a greater understanding of each others values and roles, would lead to a better resolution of the problem of interpersonal violence.

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ARTICLE FIVE

EDUCATING POLICE FOR EFFECTIVE JOB PERFORMANCE

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Educating police for effective job performance

The extent to which police forces are effective in meeting their organisational objectives is in large measure dependent on the extent to which individual police officers are seen to perform effectively. Police educators face a constant challenge to develop training curricula which will ensure that officers remain effective despite changing community problems. It requires that educators possess much more knowledge than simply an understanding of the latest national and international training methods.

Much of the contemporary research on police training programs and the nature of police work in general, indicates that police departments are not meeting their organisational objectives by the use of traditional policing strategies. In developing valid educational programs for police, educators need to have a thorough understanding of organisational behaviour in their own departments. All too often, training curricula reflect assumptions about organisational behavior which are simply not accurate.

Training programs also need to reflect a thorough understanding of the complex problems affecting society which fall within the ambit of police departments. The traditional concept of police as crime fighters and law enforcers often emphasised in training curricula may not be an accurate reflection of the police role, nor may it be of value in resolving these complex social problems. Obviously, police and community expectations need to be as close as possible in order that police departments can improve their effectiveness.

The discussion that follows examines ways in which police educators can plan programs which lead to officers becoming more effective on the job. It also examines ways of using more valid measures of effective performance than the traditional quantitative measures commonly used by departments.

Police models of organisation

Quasi-Military model

Most police departments are organised according to the principles of traditional models of organisation. The quasi-military model of policing which characterises the organisation of police forces in Australia emphasises many features of Weber's classical model of organisation. It is interesting to note that no one seems to have seriously challenged the applicability of this model of organisation to police forces. The quasi-military

model stresses the importance of a rigid rank structure and unquestioning obedience to authority. Communication in the organisation occurs via vertical channels and is based on adherence to a strict chain of command. Close supervision of subordinates is a major element in ensuring the successful attainment of organisational goals. A number of researchers have studied the quasi-military nature of policing, including McNamara,¹ Angell,² Reiss,³ Sandler and Mintz,⁴ Sherman,⁵ Johnson,⁶ Swank,⁷ and Cordner.⁸

The need for strict adherence to authority is expressed in the belief that police officers may be required to respond at short notice to emergencies of any type. Effective response requires teamwork which is assumed to be possible only if officers are trained to do what they are told immediately and without question. Both Rubenstein⁹ and Sandler and Mintz¹⁰ conclude that police forces are as well known for the severity of their discipline which is usually arbitrarily administered, as they are for rewarding those who display obedience to superiors, to rules and regulations. Van Maanen¹¹ in a study of police socialisation and training highlights the emphasis on the need to conform to authority and to shut one's mouth and listen. So obvious is the impression of the police officer's socialisation that numerous writers on police organisations, including Skolnick,¹² Niederhoffer,¹³ Smith, Locke and Walker,¹⁴ Wilson,¹⁵ Bayley and Mendelsohn,¹⁶ Westley, Dalley,¹⁸ Genz and Lester,¹⁹ Butler and Cochrane²⁰ and McKew,²¹ have frequently concluded that if specific personality traits exist among police they are the product of organisational influences.

Acceptance of authority and conformity to rules and regulations are also associated with a relatively low desire for autonomy in decision making officers. Jermier and Jukes²² in a study of the performance of police officers on the job noted that as well as not seeking autonomy in decision-making, officers gave positive support to rigid, authoritarian control, valued the routine nature of job tasks and preferred a highly directive, structure-providing leadership style. In a similar study Lefkowitz²³ found that police showed a preference for a highly-structured work environment and other evidence suggests police officers prefer highly structured personal relationships as well.

Supervision

Supervision is a fundamental element of the quasi-military model of policing. Definitions of supervision are often combined with concepts of leadership. Applewhite²⁴ differentiates leadership from supervision by describing supervision as acts which are issued from a formal or approved position within the organisation by someone in authority, while leadership is concerned with acts issued from either a formal or informal position in the organisation by someone with the power and ability to act, which implies nothing about the legal right.

Paul Whisenand²⁵ defines supervision as a human process

which is both relative and adaptive, where one member of an organisation directs the behaviour of subordinates towards the accomplishment of organisational goals and the fulfilment of personal needs. However, in reality the quasi-military model of policing makes little allowance for the fulfilment of personal or interpersonal needs. Organisations rarely exist to meet the needs of individuals within the organisation. Primary concern is usually with ensuring that the organisation runs smoothly. Thus, organisational goals are frequently concerned with productivity and are equally as often divorced from concern with the individual.

Discussion about the nature of supervision in the literature reveals that the current emphasis is on meeting both organisational and personal goals and, that a primary function of the supervisor is to improve the learning or instructional environment of those being supervised. The reality in many police departments is that a paradox exists between supervisory practices as they exist in the quasi-military model of policing and modern concepts of supervision which emphasise actualisation of the individual. The quasi-military model makes no allowance for subordinates to operate without supervision. In police organisations this supervision is usually expected to be close, with all work tasks being the subject of scrutiny by the supervisor. However, the nature of policing frequently finds subordinates operating on their own for much of the working shift, with only the occasional oversight by a supervisor. Joel Lefkowitz²⁶ found that as a result of this infrequent supervisory contact with subordinates, the discretionary power of police officers was enhanced.

Allied to a belief in close supervision in the quasi-military model of policing, is the assumption that leadership will influence the behaviour of subordinates. The quasi-military model makes no allowance for the situation where leadership will not influence subordinates' behaviour. The model assumes that training at the academy, street experience and individual disposition, instil within the police officer both fear and admiration of authority figures. The assumption implies that supervisors are in a position to influence subordinates and to determine such features as morale. Kerr²⁷ argues that routine task inflexible rules and work procedures, closely knit work groups and job-relevant skills and experience on the part of subordinates may in fact provide a substitute for the formal leader's supportive function.

Discretion

In the quasi-military model of policing discretionary powers of police are severely limited. Theoretically, the close supervision which exists in the model does not require, nor does it allow individuals to make use of discretionary powers. Rules and regulations are supposed to cover all situations requiring resolution. The reality of police work is that officers are frequently required to work unsupervised and that this extra freedom enhances the discretionary powers available to junior

officers. The consequences of increased discretion as a direct result of reduced supervision are that officers find themselves in situations which may be dealt with without recourse to legal sanctions, but which place them in compromising positions as far as both the police hierarchy and public expectations are concerned. Training under the quasi-military model makes no provision for independent decision making. Munro²⁸ discusses the nature of discretion in police organisations and major training emphases, providing support for the belief that the quasi-military model largely ignores police discretionary powers.

Law enforcement function

Within the quasi-military model of policing most police organisations further prescribe behaviour by adopting a law enforcement orientation in organisational activity. Considerable evidence gathered on the nature of policing indicates that somewhere between 70 - 90 per cent of the police officer's time is taken up with the maintenance of social order. The order maintenance function may or may not have some component requiring legal action. Niederhoffer and Blumberg,²⁹ Munro,³⁰ Jermier and Jukes,³¹ Reppetto³² and Scarman,³³ have all concluded that police place major emphasis on crime-fighting and law enforcement, both activities which the police see as their major roles.

Although 10 - 20 per cent of the police role involves crime-fighting activities, by far the greatest emphasis in pre-service and in-service training for police officers is placed on the law enforcement nature of policing. Curricula for police training courses emphasise the mechanics of policing - powers of arrest, knowledge of legislation, restraint and control procedures, typing, drill and physical training. Schaffer³⁴ in a study of the London Metropolitan Police Force found the pre-service course to be highly militaristic, placing emphasis on the law enforcement function. Main³⁵ in a similar study of the same department, found that the course also emphasised punitive aspects of training. McKew³⁶ found that police training courses encourage external discipline which serves to increase authoritarian attitudes and behaviour, rather than encouraging the development of self discipline which is of benefit to the order maintenance function.

Order maintenance function

The order maintenance function of policing requires skills, attitudes and behaviours quite different from those required for the law enforcement function. Order maintenance requires that officers develop skills which will help them carry out interpersonal functions, which will help them resolve disputes, select decisions from among alternatives, and cope with both their own problems and the problems of others. It follows that the order maintenance function requires officers who are skilled communicators at both the personal and interpersonal level. Intervention in domestic crises for example, requires that a

police officer be seen as a suitable adviser by the disputants. This may be particularly difficult for a junior officer whose responsibility it is to advise a middle aged couple and requires a high level of interpersonal competence on the part of the officer if he is to satisfactorily resolve the dispute.

Self discipline is an important ingredient in the order maintenance function. Officers placed in positions where they are the sole decision makers, such as in domestic crises, must be capable of managing their own feelings and emotions and sensitive to the needs of others to whom they offer advice and direction. Even the police officer at the scene of a traffic accident must display self discipline when surrounded by others who may be angry, confused or emotionally upset to the point where reason fails.

The order maintenance function requires officers who are flexible, who are able to adapt to changing situations and who can apply strategies which are appropriate to each situation. Skills of leadership require that officers adapt to each situation as it presents. Thus, training courses should emphasise the development of problem solving skills, skills which will aid decision making, sensitivity training, values education and the development of interpersonal competence. A number of writers on police training and education have advocated the implementation of an order maintenance model of policing based on the nature of the police task. However, very few police departments have actually adopted the model. Sandler and Mintz³⁷ and Jermier and Jukes³⁸ both argue it is essential for police organisations to move away from the authoritarian quasi-military model which places emphasis on law enforcement if interaction between police and policed is to be facilitated.

Determinants of effective police performance

Measures of effective police performance both at the organisational level and at the level of the individual police officer have been restricted to a narrow field within the law enforcement model of policing. Measures of effective police performance usually reflect the attainment of organisational goals. Behavioural objectives derived from organisational goals determine the appropriate levels of performance. In operational terms this often refers to the number of arrests recorded, the number of parking or traffic infringements detected, the amount of revenue raised in the form of fines, the number of offenses taken to court and the number of convictions arising from such court appearances. Emphasis in the criminal justice system on the publication of such statistical information reflects the importance attached to such measures by police departments.

Most contemporary research, however, indicates a need to find new measures of effective police performance. Much of the literature argues that existing measures are irrelevant to the actual nature of policing. Arrest and conviction statistics are derived from the law enforcement function of policing and typically provide major criteria for assessing performance. There

is almost a complete absence of indicators in use by police departments which measure effectiveness in connection with the order maintenance function. Munro³⁹ highlights the absence of research on this issue, while Warburton,⁴⁰ Cochrane and Butler⁴¹ and Scarman,⁴² conclude that most commonly used measures are irrelevant as indicators of effectiveness.

If existing measures were appropriate, one would expect crime statistics to have shown some improvement over the years, particularly in areas where resources have been directed in large quantities to eradicating the problem. Data reveal that clear up rates, arrest figures, conviction rates and revenue raised from fines continue to decrease in relation to the number of offenses committed despite ever increasing allocations of resources. One notable exception is in Japan where figures indicate that there has been a reduction in crime as a result of police strategies. Warburton⁴³ indicates this may be due to the emphasis placed on community policing where police officers are encouraged to interact with all people residing or working in their immediate jurisdiction. Greater emphasis is placed on the order maintenance function by Japanese police, which may provide at least a partial explanation for the reduced incidence or reporting of crime.

A major difficulty with establishing valid measures of effective police performance is finding measures which accurately reflect the police function. If law enforcement provides only 20 per cent of police activity as suggested by the literature, then one should use measures of effectiveness which reflect the law enforcement function in similar proportion. It is much easier to rely solely on these types of measures, however, because they provide statistical information which allows departments to claim that they are being effective in their operations, allows departments to claim greater allocations of resources for areas indicated by the statistics to be in need of greater attention, and allows governments to determine appropriate levels of funding. It is much easier to measure effectiveness in these terms than it is to measure performance in terms of interpersonal skills, attitudes and behaviours which are required for successful performance in the order maintenance function.

Apart from measures of organisational effectiveness typically used by departments, personnel rating systems provide the main measure of individual officer performance. These rating systems rely on supervisors' assessments of subordinates and may cover aspects as diverse as appearance, demeanour, intelligence and conscientiousness. Such systems are compatible with the law enforcement model of policing. They assume the existence of close supervision and an accurate knowledge of subordinates' performance by supervisors. Criticism of this method of assessing effectiveness stems from the fact that supervision is not as close as assumed by the model. Supervisors may have infrequent contact with many subordinates and, therefore, may well have inaccurate perceptions of the attributes to be assessed.

An alternative method of assessment suggested by Love⁴⁴ relies on a combination of assessment by both peers and supervisors in the rating process. The involvement of peers in

the process is appropriate because of the closer working relationship that individual officers have with their workmates. Research indicates that the perceptions of peers are reasonably accurate in the context of a police working environment. Love⁴⁵ argues that perceptions are more accurate because peers are in frequent contact with each other during the working shift while supervisors may only come in contact with subordinates once or twice in an entire shift.

The success of any performance indicators relies heavily on the relevance of the measures selected, quite apart from their validity. They must indicate a close relationship to the actual nature of policing which appears not to be the case at present. Quite apart from the job itself, a number of factors which may influence police performance have been addressed by the literature. Several of these important factors are discussed in the following pages.

Education and Performance

The literature has frequently linked the attainment of higher educational qualifications with more effective performance of police officers in their duties. The assumption that an officer who possesses higher educational qualifications will perform more effectively than an officer without such qualifications has in general terms been made with little reference to empirical studies on the subject. Literature emanating from the United States during the 1960s and 1970s makes frequent reference to the need for police officers to possess a basic minimum educational qualification prior to commencing pre-service training. This minimum requirement has usually meant the possession of a bachelor's degree. As late as the end of the 1970s however, little research had been conducted to test the validity of the assumption.

A considerable number of respected national and international authorities including two presidential commissions in the United States have recommended a minimum requirement for all police entering pre-service training should be the possession of a bachelor's degree. Included in the bodies making this recommendation are the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Justice (1967), the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals (1973), the Governors' Mutual Assistance Programme for Criminal Justice (1973), the Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations (1971), the Task Force on Education and Training (1972), the American Bar Association (1973), the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders (1968). Wilson and Western⁴⁶ make similar recommendations for raising the educational requirements of police in Australia, although they hold short of insisting that all police possess bachelor's degrees.

Despite these recommendations, only 10 per cent of all police officers in the United States possess a bachelor's degree. Reppetto⁴⁷ found that at least one quarter of all city departments and half of all country departments in the United

States require no basic training of their officers before putting them into active service. This is in spite of the findings of Tenney⁴⁸ and Senna⁴⁹ that the number of institutions offering degree courses increased tenfold from the period 1960-1972.

Education and Training

Some distinction needs to be made at this point between education and training. Police departments traditionally offer training courses to their members. Training involves the instruction of individuals by means of discipline or drill so that they become proficient at the skill to be performed. Training is the process of developing mechanical skills and basic knowledge which must accompany these skills. Education on the other hand aims at developing skills of the mind, by disciplining the mind through study. O'Neill and Lance⁵⁰ make the distinction a little clearer when they state that training provides the 'how' of doing something, while education provides the 'why'. Basic to an understanding of the order maintenance function of policing is the knowledge that police officers are better able to perform those tasks associated with order maintenance if they have an understanding of the 'why' of policing.

Early attempts to establish minimum educational standards were based on the belief that exposure to higher education develops individuals who are less authoritarian and who are better able to cope with difficult or complex situations. Niederhoffer,⁵¹ in a study of New York police, and Smith, Lock and Walker,⁵² concluded that authoritarian attitudes were reduced as educational standards were raised. Sparling⁵³ and Roberg⁵⁴ found that performance of officers with tertiary qualifications was likely to be perceived as being better than that of officers without such qualifications. Such tertiary qualified officers were also found by Roberg⁵⁵ to have more open belief systems and were better able to adapt to the complex nature of the police role than their colleagues without such qualifications. Examination of other attitudes highlights the increased use of discretion which is made by officers with tertiary qualification. Finckenhauer⁵⁶ and Reppetto⁵⁷ found that officers were more likely to resort to measures other than arrest to resolve problems if they were tertiary qualified. In similar situations less educated officers tended to make more use of their arrest powers to resolve the problem.

Arguments against setting minimum educational qualifications for police are becoming difficult to sustain. Gross⁵⁸ argues that police do not require sharp minds, nor do they require the skills which higher education is supposed to develop. Consideration of the nature of police work quickly shows that the skills, attitudes and behaviours which higher education is supposed to develop are applicable to the police role, in particular to the order maintenance function. Sherman,⁵⁹ Osborn,⁶⁰ Fischer⁶¹ and many others believe the police role does require officers with the skills, attitudes and behaviours which are acquired from higher education. These skills facilitate problem solving, decision making and a more liberal orientation in

interpersonal relationships, all of which are important to the order maintenance function.

On the job evaluation of officers with higher educational qualifications has generally produced positive results. Graduates have consistently rated their performance as being better because of the possession of such qualifications. Ratings by peers and supervisors have consistently reported that graduates perform better than their non graduate colleagues. Moore,⁶² Finnegan⁶³ and Sanderson,⁶⁴ support these findings and also confirm that graduates perform better during pre-service training than less qualified counterparts.

Other aspects of performance which have been associated with the attainment of higher educational qualifications and which influence job performance include the number of complaints sustained, absenteeism and sick days, numbers of accidents on the job and resignations from the job. Complaints against police are a constant concern of all police departments, and studies have shown that complaints are fewer against officers with tertiary qualifications. Cohen and Chaiken⁶⁵ and Sanderson⁶⁶ found that officers with tertiary qualifications were responsible for fewer than half the number of sustained complaints than their colleagues without such qualifications. Sanderson⁶⁷ also noted that absenteeism was much lower among graduates, which supports the findings of Cascio⁶⁸. Some confusion exists in the literature about the relationships between resignation rates and higher education. Cohen and Chaiken⁶⁹ found that 33 per cent of graduates left the job compared with only 17 per cent of non-graduates. Moore⁷⁰ on the other hand found a majority of graduates remained in the job.

The literature distinguishes between those officers who obtain tertiary qualifications prior to joining the police force and those who obtain their qualifications while already in the job. It is probable that those who obtain qualifications after they join the police force are more likely to remain in the job as they can see some specific value in terms of promotion or specialist posting after gaining a qualification. Harris⁷¹ Hageman⁷² and Niederhoffer,⁷³ conclude from their research that most people join the police force for reasons other than an interest in the job. They believe that most people join the police force for extrinsic reasons such as salary and job security.

Type of qualification and performance

As for the type of qualification which will lead to most effective performance of police officers, the literature is not quite so clear. Tenney⁷⁴ argues that the problem has been compounded by institutions concerned more with increasing their own status than with providing courses which will produce officers with the requisite skills. The other problem is that of determining just what skills police officers require to do their job. Sherman⁷⁵ recommends that police follow interdisciplinary courses of study as do many other researchers. However,

predominant thinking in police departments is that officers should study courses which are job relevant and should not waste time studying for liberal arts degrees. This belief appears to stem from the mistaken view of the police role. An interdisciplinary approach to further study which emphasises the development of a broad range of attitudes and skills is consistent with the order maintenance function of policing, while the law enforcement function requires those skills best obtained through study of job relevant courses.

The literature suggests there must be a place for both types of study within the police service. There will always be a requirement to undertake in-service training courses for those aspects of policing which do not require much more than the acquisition of mechanical skills or knowledge. Traffic and patrol duty, fingerprint analysis, forensic photography and breath analysis testing do not require the application of skills, attitudes and behaviours expected of the officer involved in resolving complex interpersonal disputes such as intervention in domestic crises, negotiating with terrorists and counselling juvenile offenders or rape victims.

The distinction made earlier between education and training applies to the attainment of further qualifications. In-service courses should emphasise both job relevant training for those aspects of policing concerned primarily with the law enforcement function and broader education programs applicable to the order maintenance function of policing.

Values and Performance

An area of recent attention in the literature is the value orientation of police organisations and police officers. Recent studies by Warburton,⁷⁶ Cochrane and Butler,⁷⁷ Love⁷⁸ and Panzarella,⁷⁹ have highlighted the problems for effective policing if police employee values are inconsistent with the values held by the society being policed. Rokeach⁸⁰ defines values as enduring beliefs that specify modes of conduct and end states of existence, which are preferable to their alternatives.

Cochrane and Butler⁸¹ in a study of the West Midlands Police in the United Kingdom attributed an increasing number of complaints against police to differences in values and perceptions between police and policed. Unless there is accord in the value orientations of both police and public, it is surely unrealistic to expect police to perform effectively. Society expects to be protected by its police force. It expects that police will prevent crime and will do all they can to catch those who are responsible for such crime. However, it seems that both public and legislators are not prepared to endorse proposals which will facilitate police operations to meet these expectations.

The police see themselves as holding major responsibility for the safety and wellbeing of society. They feel the mission accorded them requires greater powers and that the public is irresponsible for not acceding to their requests for same. Police

themselves argue that they cannot effectively deal with threats to life and property with the powers available to them. Wilson and Western⁸² discuss in detail these issues of the different expectations of police and public. Studies in the United States by Rokeach⁸³ and Griffith and Cafferty⁸⁴ conclude that the value systems of police and policed must necessarily differ and that the need is not so much to reconcile these value orientations but to sensitise each group to the needs of the other. Butler and Cochrane⁸⁵ in a comparative study found that value orientations between police and public were closer in the United Kingdom than in the United States. Teahan⁸⁶ concluded that police place more emphasis on personal values than social values. This is consistent with findings that police join the service for personal reasons rather than for any idealistic reasons associated with helping society.

Emphasis therefore, needs to be placed on programs which sensitise both police and public to each other's needs. Some recognition of this requirement has been made by police departments both in Australia and overseas as evidenced by the development of police-community relations programs and unit beat policing strategies. Osborn⁸⁷ concludes that such programs are desirable for making both police and public aware of the expectations of each group. Similar experiments in Victoria are proving equally successful in sensitising both police and the community. Recent experiments on police patrol programs at Prahran⁸⁸ and the police community involvement program at Frankston⁸⁹ have produced generally favourable results. The more recent police-community involvement programs at Broadmeadows in Victoria and, the formation of Community Policing Squads also seem to be bridging the gap between police and community expectations.

Conclusion

It is clear from the preceding discussion that many of the programs traditionally provided for police at pre-service and in-service levels, have been largely inappropriate to the operational needs of police departments. The documented inability of departments to cope with the diversity of criminal and social problems despite the increased allocation of resources, can be accounted for at least in part, by the failure of training programs to prepare police to adequately carry out the operational roles expected of them. Programs have not prepared officers for their operational roles because administrators and planners have not taken into account the complex realities of prevailing organisational and operational behaviour when developing curricula. The issue of police effectiveness has been further clouded by the tacit acceptance of performance indicators which are most easily quantified, rather than those which most validly measure performance.

Police educational programs will only develop effective officers when curricula have been based on actual organisational norms, rather than norms which are assumed to characterise the prevailing organisational model. Similarly, effectiveness will not be guaranteed until planners accept the distinction between

and need for programs which educate and others which train officers to meet operational requirements. There is a place in policing for both education and training and it is incumbent upon departments to provide developmental programs for those aspects of policing and those individuals who are most suited to such development. Finally, indicators used to measure both program effectiveness and operational effectiveness must validly reflect the nature of operational requirements.

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ARTICLE SIX

POLICE RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION: SOME
VITAL CONCEPTUAL AND PRACTICAL ISSUES

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Introduction

This paper is motivated by at least two major considerations related to the crucial issues of police recruitment and selection. The first is based upon the general proposition that a primary goal of any police force must be to identify the contemporary needs of the community it serves and to structure personnel policies, as well as functional police roles in the community, which conform to those needs. This issue is underpinned by several fundamental questions. Given that the contemporary needs of the community can be identified, what should be the police role? Hence, what should police forces be recruiting and selecting police for? The second consideration concerns the need to identify a relevant profile of 'desirable' police personnel characteristics and the development of a viable selection process consistent with that profile. The related questions include: (1) What are the optimal cognitive and personality attributes for appropriate and successful performance of police duties?, (2) What are the dimensions of physical, emotional, intellectual and psychological preparedness required of police personnel, such that they are potentially able to cope with the pressures and stressors of their chosen profession?, and (3) What are the most valid and reliable strategies for police personnel selection?

The examination of these considerations suggests certain prevailing perceptions of the relationship between the police and the community require fundamental reevaluation. In essence, it is argued that in order to effectively respond to the community's demands and needs for service, the issues of recruitment and selection of police personnel should be given the highest priority. The initial selection process is particularly important because police forces in Australia are predominantly closed organizations with entry mainly at the lowest level. Thus, the quality of personnel selected for police service not only determines the quality of police performance, but ultimately the quality of police leadership.

Conceptual issues

The central question in police recruitment and selection, of course, can be stated simply: How can the best police personnel be obtained? However, it has long been recognised that before the question of 'how?' can be addressed, the question of 'best at what?' must be answered. Obviously, this involves the

perennial difficulty of all personnel assessment practices - the criterion problem. Burkhart notes that the criteria employed in most police selection procedures are inadequate, with assessments usually being made by police personnel untrained in selection skills and uninformed about operational definitions of what is to be evaluated.² After reviewing this and related problems in police selection, Kent and Eisenberg state:

The criterion stands out as one of the major stumbling blocks to improved police selection procedures...Firstly, job or task analysis has largely been avoided or superficially addressed to date...The second problem is more complicated and is defined in terms of the gross ambiguity and functional heterogeneity explicit in the police officers' role...Police performance is unquestionably multidimensional and must be considered as such in selection or promotion systems development.³

In spite of the universal recognition of the importance of the police role in society, the fact remains that many police recruitment and selection procedures fail to even recognise some of the basic facets of police work and are founded, therefore, on dubious assumptions.⁴ One notable exception is the work of Banton⁵ which stands out as a definitive study in this field having achieved a high level of understanding of the police role, particularly in terms of illustrating the complex environment in which police work takes place.⁶ Although, as Kent and Eisenberg,⁷ among many others indicate, the job functions of police have not been adequately spelled out, most observers of police work have reached the same conclusion, namely, that police work is complex and not well described by the social stereotype of the police as crime-fighting agents. Brown,⁸ in citing the work of Clarke and Heal,⁹ notes:

Numerous studies in both Britain and the United States have commented on the fact that the popular conception of the police task as a crime fighter who detects and apprehends offenders is not borne out by a task analysis of where a police officer's time is actually spent...It has been estimated that as much as 80 per cent of all police activity and time is devoted to providing services other than legal ones in the community they serve.

Of greater significance in the present context, is the general observation that this role complexity is generally not reflected in the criteria for the recruitment, selection and training of police. Lefkowitz,¹⁰ in his comprehensive review of police research, describes the three major findings of police job analyses completed to date:

(1) The range of duties is considerable; (2) law-enforcement and crime-related duties appear to compose about 10-15 per cent of the total time; and (3) a large majority of a policeman's time is

spent performing administrative and social service functions, many of which could be performed by civilians.

In fact, a recent Job Analysis Survey conducted by Paffett and Williamson¹¹ for the Victoria Police, identified 823 separate tasks which are performed by constables alone - approximately 700 of which relate to administrative and social welfare functions.

If future job analyses confirm these findings, then it seems clear that the criteria for not only measuring job performance, but also for establishing selection policy, must reflect these job demands. In other words, the criteria for entry into the police profession should be made directly relevant to actual performance of police duties, as these relate to community needs. To accomplish this goal, it is argued, eg, the validity of selection criteria must be assessed against the performance of police tasks in the operational field.¹² Since the available evidence overwhelmingly demonstrates most of a police officer's working time is devoted to interpersonal interaction of a social service nature,¹³ greater emphasis will need to be placed on this dimension in determining both job performance and selection criteria.

The fundamental issue raised by this requirement is the primary need for the development of objective, behaviorally-anchored task inventories and performance measurement systems to evaluate those tasks. Polant observes that only by developing good measures of job performance can the problem of police selection be realistically approached.¹⁴ Traditional methods for identifying tasks¹⁵ and for evaluating performance, typically involve subjective ratings by peers and supervisors; productivity measures such as arrests and convictions; awards and commendations; scores on promotional examinations and In-Service training courses; disciplinary actions; and so on. Formal personnel assessment, questionnaire-type instruments of the kind most commonly used by police forces, require highly subjective evaluations of ratees' general work performance and attitudes within a given work environment. Apart from their subjectivity and dependence upon personalities and circumstance, such measures are of little relevance to the vast majority of police tasks.¹⁶ Traditional measures of this kind are thus unacceptable because they do not measure the bulk of routine activities typical of police work, such as administrative and social welfare tasks, and they are not amenable to the validation of selection criteria.

Furthermore, Butler notes that most police selection procedures tend to overlook the very substantial evidence that the attitudes of experienced officers are more likely to be influenced by their experiences after joining the police, than anything that happened before. Research has shown how the attitudes of police officers are changed during the first few years in the police.¹⁷ Thus, selecting police on their apparent potential as crime fighting agents, with attitudes and values consistent with those who select them, will not necessarily serve to produce a police agency that would be more responsive to changing social demands; nor would it serve to provide these social services in the most

effective manner. The separation of the recruit trainee from alternative social influence, the powerful social contingencies and pressures toward acceptance and conformity, and the paramilitary ethos of the police organisational structure, all operate to shape the inductee toward the attitudes, values and behavior patterns 'prescribed' by the police culture.¹⁸ Burkhart for example notes that those who try to resist the social shaping process are likely to find themselves isolated by their peers, given no social or organisational rewards, and eventually forced out of the system.¹⁹ Similarly, Niederhoffer argues: 'It is the police system, not the personality of the candidate, that is the more powerful determinant of behaviour and ideology'.²⁰ The essential point here is that social needs, as articulated by members of the community, are not the predominant determinants of police behaviour.²¹ Rather, police behaviour is shaped by an organisational, norm-oriented culture that does not necessarily function to reward or effectively provide the essentially proactive oriented public services demanded by contemporary society.

Police recruitment and selection procedures, therefore, must be developed with the realisation that their ultimate effectiveness will be limited by the nature of the behavioural setting in which police personnel function. Thus, to optimise the benefits of police service delivery to the community, a work setting that is compatible and responsive to community defined values and needs must be defined and implemented. Otherwise, selection procedures will continue to predict a criterion that does not represent those dimensions that have been implicated as critical for the provision of important social services by the police. As part of the search for valid and reliable predictors of police performance therefore, police administrators and government planners need to address three critical issues. Firstly, in the light of both community and police organisational requirements, what exactly is it that police should do? Secondly, what are the optimal recruiting strategies which can be utilised, which are also consistent with valid profiles of the job for which personnel are being recruited? Thirdly, how can a selection system be designed to induct personnel with the necessary prerequisite attributes who, when given training, would be capable of successfully meeting identified community needs? In the opinion of the present author, it is upon data derived from such sources that police recruitment and selection procedures must be based.

Job analysis as a prerequisite for recruitment and selection

Any vocational recruitment and selection program, if it is to be effective at all, must first be based on an appropriate analysis of the duties to be performed in that occupation. According to Dunnette and Borman, 'job analysis consists of defining the job and discovering what the job calls for in employee behaviour'.²² Job analysis, then, focuses on the task requirements that comprise the job and the people requirements prescribed by the tasks.²³ Moreover, 'since job analysis defines the job, it is a critical indicator of the skills that

will be necessary to perform that job'. Thus, the prime function of job analysis involves 'determining how people fit into the goals and technology of the organisation'.²⁴

Cordner, in reviewing six job analysis methods of value to police departments, notes that the method chosen should be determined by the specific purposes to be served by the information collected.²⁵ According to Cordner, 'the job analysis method most clearly designed to provide information for personnel selection and decision making'²⁶ is one which not only focuses on the tasks that constitute the job, but also on desirable worker behaviours consistent with community needs and the goal requirements of the police organisation in successfully meeting those needs. Such a method is the 'job element' approach^{27,28} or, better still, the 'domain sampling' approach.²⁹ The primary means of collecting information via these approaches involves 'brainstorming' within the community, among job incumbents and subject matter experts; with observations, interviews and questionnaires being used to supplement and validate the data. These methods attempt to directly identify the elements of knowledge, abilities, skills, and other related personnel characteristics (KASOs) considered necessary for successful job performance. Suggested KASOs are then evaluated on several dimensions including the practicality of allowing for the element in the selection process and the likelihood of problems resulting if the element is not considered. The information collected is goal oriented, task oriented and worker oriented, and ratings for each goal, task and worker characteristic combination are obtained. These matrix ratings are then used to determine those KASOs which are critical to job performance and hence, establish relevant recruitment and selection criteria.

Clearly, therefore relevant job analysis of police role requirements should be a fundamental prerequisite for the development of recruitment and selection criteria. It must begin with a critical examination of the various tasks in relation to both the goals associated with police tasks and role requirements, and those of police forces in meeting those requirements. However, the goals of any police force like those of its parent government, should be established through a resolution of competing interests in the political and judicial arenas. In fact, the widest possible participation by all elements of society is highly desirable. Similarly, wide participation by all parties in the establishment of police policy and roles should be actively encouraged. In this way the community would be given the opportunity of at least contributing to the decision making process about what the police should do, and the desirable characteristics of those personnel who are to be directly involved. Thus, an appropriate job analysis would begin with these goals, policies and roles, rather than with the police job as currently defined and performed by incumbent police officers.

Recruitment

Even a cursory inspector of the available data related to the low modal levels of background education and prior occupational status of police applicants, reveals that the recruitment base of most police forces is less than ideal.³⁰ In view of the complex nature of the police role, in terms of its response to significant social, behavioural and political problems the demands upon police are likely to increase in number and complexity rather than decrease. It follows, therefore, that emphasis needs to be placed upon recruiting personnel who are capable not only of understanding the problems of the community at the cognitive level, but who also have the personal attributes to relate well to its membership. This would increase the ability of police forces to participate more effectively in the solution of the increasing social and behavioural problems with which they will undoubtedly continue to be confronted. With respect to the current recruitment base in many police forces however, it is doubtful whether the intake (as a whole) has the necessary attributes to ultimately meet present police operational needs and community requirements - least of all, the projected ones.

To overcome this problem, at least in part, there is a clear need for better educated police personnel. Certainly, as the Task Force Report on the Police (1967) noted, a liberal education should be a prerequisite for those police officers who aspire to positions of leadership in the police service.³¹ In fact, the encouragement of well educated young people to enter the police profession is becoming increasingly important, since the majority of intelligent well adjusted secondary school graduates now go on to tertiary education institutions. Unless police forces are able to attract more individuals from this group, it will be forced to continue its recruitment from among those who lack either the ability or the ambition to further their education. The 1967 Task Force Report on the Police stated:

The failure to establish high professional standards in police service has been a costly one, both for the police and for society. Existing selection requirements and procedures for the majority of departments...do not screen out the unfit...The quality of the police service will not significantly improve until higher educational requirements are established for its personnel (pp.125-126)...If law enforcement is ever to upgrade the existing levels of personnel, it must do so by concentrating recruiting efforts among college students or among persons who have the capacity to perform college work.³²

Moreover, as Wilson and Western claim:

Unless sufficient numbers from this group are attracted to a career in the police force, it will be staffed with men whose educational qualifications are considerably lower than those of the average male member of the population.³³

There is also the danger of continuing to recruit personnel who through lack of education do not have the conceptual, empirical and interpersonal skills required in a contemporary police service. I have argued elsewhere that while management of the increasingly complex socio-political problems facing contemporary society is not the sole responsibility of the police, it can be argued that the very nature of the police role, particularly in terms of social control and order maintenance, places it in a category apart from the other helping professions in society.^{34,35} However, there is no justification for the argument that similar educational qualifications should not be insisted upon for police, especially for those members occupying senior supervisory and executive positions.³⁶ In fact, it is difficult to sustain the argument that any police force should continue to select personnel whose educational standards are below that of those employed in comparable professions, eg, social workers in the general community. Katz argues: 'The police can no longer afford to employ the undereducated if they are going to meet the challenge of a complex and changing society'.³⁷ While it is realised that formal educational qualifications do not necessarily constitute definitive criteria for effective police performance, it must be argued that 'people with high educational qualifications are more likely to become better policemen'.³⁸ The overwhelming evidence from the police research literature supports this contention.³⁹

Similarly, the issue of occupational status is particularly important to police recruitment. The status in which a profession is held by the community is generally a function of the perceived status of the pre-entry requirement criteria. Traditionally, certain professions such as law and medicine, for example, have had a high degree of perceived status, partly due to the high pre-entry educational qualifications required. In terms of recruiting the most suitable personnel to a police career, therefore, the need for stipulating a minimum prerequisite educational standard is central to the issue of occupational status. In the opinion and experience of the present author, one of the most debilitating traditional policies of many police forces, including the Victoria Police, which continues to militate against the induction of greater numbers of young people with higher educational qualifications, is that this group tends to unjustifiably view the occupational status of the police as being fairly low. Since it is now accepted as a matter of course that higher educational qualifications are a prerequisite for a professional career of any note, it is essential that this negative view, particularly among tertiary graduates, be actively changed. Unfortunately, as James asserts: '...it has often been noted that the lack of graduate entry facilities and the seniority rank structure of a police service dissuades those with higher educational qualifications from envisaging a police career'.⁴⁰ In fact, Lutz claims:

The educational standard for law enforcement of less than high school will seriously affect the quality of police recruits who will be attracted to the position. There is a kind of 'Gresham's Law' which operates in recruitment standards. The recruiting agency tends to attract in greatest

quantity the persons who barely meet the minimum standards for the position. Persons whose educational attainment exceeds the minimum standards for a position will often not apply for a position which requires lesser standards of education.⁴¹

It is the present author's firm belief that Lutz's claims are particularly relevant to the current recruitment situation faced by police forces in Australia.

Given that most other professional occupational groups have now set minimum prerequisite educational qualifications for entry, it seems incongruous that many police forces, including the Victoria Police, have very low, or no such minimum pre-entry requirements. In view of the vital role which police perform in our society and the need for ever increasing levels of professional expertise, it seems more than reasonable that a police force should expect of its applicants similar standards to those demanded by other helping professions and similar occupations of related social and community importance. Hence, the setting of a basic educational prerequisite standard for police applicants, and it is suggested that it be the Higher School Certificate (or an equivalent) would serve to raise the perceived status of the police profession as an attractive career option and enhance the prospect of recruiting those who presently regard the occupational status of the police as 'too low' for them to apply. The present author endorses Katz's assertion that: 'Respect for the police will not be attained until the educational level of officers equals, if not exceeds, that of the general population'.⁴² Moreover, the US Task Force Report notes:

The raising of standards, however, should actually have the overall effect of attracting better candidates by bolstering the prestige of police service...Departments which have college requirements...have reported that the elevation of standards has enhanced, not hindered, recruiting efforts.⁴³

In addition to a minimum pre-entry educational qualification, both in terms of status and as a reasonable guarantee against subsequent operational and administrative incompetence, there is clearly need for an increased recruitment of tertiary graduates. As social and technological change becomes more complex, social dysfunction and the criminal element is becoming increasingly multifaceted and sophisticated. If the police profession is to keep pace with both the qualitative and quantitative dimensions of this change, it requires personnel with sound professional and academic skills to not only cope with such change, but also capable of developing and implementing appropriate solution strategies. On this particular issue, Wilson and Western claim:

...it seems essential that certain police should be recruited directly from the ranks of university graduates...Unless the Victoria Force can attract

university recruits it will fail to fulfil successfully the important tasks that await it in the near future. In addition, it will fall well behind the pattern of recruiting university graduates already established in police forces in the United States and the United Kingdom.⁴⁴

For many aspects of contemporary policing, particularly of the proactive, community welfare kind, as well as for most middle and senior management functions, it is clear that a secondary school level of background education is seriously limited in terms of providing police personnel with even basic conceptual and functional skills. Bell notes, for example, 'To effectively manage the problems confronting the contemporary police officer, the high school education is painfully inadequate'.⁴⁵ Moreover, Katz claims that in view of the fact that the overwhelming majority of police forces throughout the western world require only that their applicants be high school graduates, many of these forces employ officers who are practically illiterate. He states:

In too many cases, unfortunately, graduation from high school or its equivalency does not guarantee the desired police competency level of literacy. While most written police entrance examinations may eliminate the truly illiterate person, some applicants who can barely read or write do pass the usual multiple-choice type test.⁴⁶

At the expense of possible overstatement, the oft cited assertion of the United States President's Commission is worth reiterating:

A policeman today is poorly equipped for his job if he does not understand the legal issues involved in his everyday work, the nature of the social problems he consistently encounters, the psychology of those whose attitudes towards the law differ from his. Such understanding is not easy to acquire without the kind of broad general knowledge that higher education imparts, and without such understanding a policeman's response to many of the situations he meets is likely to be impulsive or doctrinaire. Police candidates must be sought in the colleges, and especially among liberal arts and social science students.⁴⁷

Selection

Having attracted recruit applicants, a major responsibility of any police force is the selection of those recruits who have the potential to become effective police personnel. Poland, for example, notes: 'The purpose of the police selection process is to ascertain which job candidates have the highest potential for developing into successful police officers'.⁴⁸ This is an exceptionally difficult task due to the complex, multidimensional

nature of police work, referred to earlier. Moreover, the task is made even more difficult because of the general paucity of relevant job analysis data and the lack of appropriate, job related criterion measures for evaluating 'effective' job performance.⁴⁹ Despite various attempts to rectify these deficiencies,⁵⁰ 'for the most part, the research reported has been spotty and piecemeal, attending to only certain phases or aspects of the policeman's job'.⁵¹ Apart from the Cohen and Chaiken study, there has been no systematic attempt to investigate the predictive utility of a total police selection process. However, even in this detailed longitudinal study there is little definitive evidence of what behavioural criteria were used in determining 'good' police job performance.⁵²

In 1973, the US National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals recommended that:

Every police agency immediately should employ a formal process for the selection of qualified police applicants. This process should include a written test of mental ability or aptitude, an oral interview, a physical examination, a psychological examination,⁵³ and an in-depth background investigation.

The research literature related to the police selection process since 1973 is voluminous, varying from conceptually based speculative theorising to generally well designed empirical studies.⁵⁴ Contributions derive from a variety of sources including industrial-organisational psychology, public administration, police science and administration, personnel and applied psychology, 'but these contributions are often not well integrated into a general theory'.⁵⁵ A notable exception is 'a model for the selection of law enforcement officers', proposed by Spielberger, *et al* which at least offers a general framework for evaluating research on police selection and provides a useful basis for planning appropriate selection strategies.⁵⁶

Whatever the procedures used in police personnel selection, however, they constitute the key to ensuring the employment of only those candidates who are equipped to cope with the increasingly complex demands of the police occupational role, if only as a minimum guarantee against subsequent operational incompetence. The importance of the selection process is well stated in the US Task Force Report, The Police, as follows:

It has often been stated that policing a community is personal service of the highest order, requiring sterling qualities in the individual who performs it...One incompetent officer can trigger a riot, permanently damage the reputation of a citizen, or alienate a community against a police department. It is essential, therefore, that the requirements to serve in law enforcement reflect the awesome responsibility facing the personnel that are selected (1967).⁵⁷

Similarly, Spielberger et al note:

The presence of even a few undesirable officers in a police agency has enormous social and financial implications. The excessive or injudicious use of force by an emotionally unstable officer can result in tragic consequences, and an officer who becomes involved in illegal activities causes an erosion of the public's confidence in the agency. A major goal in police selection is screening out such 'misfits' from positions in law enforcement.⁵⁸

Police administrators, of course, have long recognised the crucial importance of screening in the selection process, but have lacked effective tools. The diversity of administrative and operational roles, the increasing complexity of those roles, and the range of complex methodological problems encountered in police selection research have all contributed to the need of police administrators for carefully validated screening and selection procedures. While most police agencies employ a variety of screening techniques and procedures for the selection of personnel, there is little objective evidence in respect of the validity and reliability of these methods as predictors of 'effective' on-the-job performance.⁵⁹ In fact, many commentators and researchers⁶⁰ claim that the prevailing haphazard applications of unvalidated screening and/or selection instruments have undoubtedly contributed to the selection of persons who are neither qualified nor suitable for police work. In 1970, for example, the then Acting Deputy Commissioner of the Victoria Police wrote:

It is doubtful if our current selection procedures effectively screen out candidates potentially unsuited for police work. As it has appeared lately, many resignations, discharges and dismissals can be closely related to the fact that these members had unrecognised personality defects when they were accepted into the force. By the time it is discovered that members are temperamentally and emotionally unsuited for police work, the damage has been done. The force suffers not only an economic loss, but a loss to its prestige and standing that is hard to overcome. I doubt if the selection board is equipped to weed out potential misfits from candidates without the aid of a psychologist or by the adoption of psychological tests.

Subsequently, an evaluation of Victoria Police selection methods by the Inspectorate and Future Plans Unit in 1976, asserted: 'Selection techniques in the Victoria Police are fairly ineffective, not only at screening out psychological misfits, but also in correctly identifying those applicants with potential for police work'.⁶¹ Despite recommendations for fundamental revision made by the Inspectorate, and more recently by O'Loughlin,⁶² Rowe⁶³ and Triplow,⁶⁴ little has been done to improve existing selection procedures apart from minor 'cosmetic'

changes to rating protocols and the membership constitution of selection panels.

Such inadequacies, however, are not unique to the Australian context. In their comprehensive review of the research literature related to police personnel selection in the USA, Kent and Eisenberg, for example, state: 'The inescapable conclusion... is that a usefully valid and unbiased procedure for selecting police officers has not been demonstrated as yet'.⁶⁵ More recently, Cordingley⁶⁶ and Lester⁶⁷ arrive at a similar conclusion in respect of the Canadian and British contexts, respectively. In fact, Lester argues that while 'it is important to screen applicants psychiatrically...the most crucial selection should take place by observation of recruits as they learn and work'.⁶⁸ At the prima facie level, Lester's proposal has appealing merit. However, he fails to provide a sufficiently coherent rationale for his assertions, on the one hand, or takes cognisance of the fundamental distinction which needs to be made between 'screening' and 'selection' in solving the initial hiring dilemma (including associated costs/benefits), on the other. The following is offered in an attempt to redress these deficiencies.

The 'screening' approach involves the process of identifying and evaluating the physical, cognitive and personological dimensions of an applicant's preparedness for the police occupational role, within predetermined limits of 'acceptability'. Essentially, this approach attempts to explicitly predict negative, rather than positive consequences of an applicant's ability to cope with the demands of both initial training and subsequent operational performance. It is designed to 'screen-out' rather than 'select-in', and is based on the often implicit assumption that a candidate whose derived screening data are beyond the prescribed limits of 'acceptability', is unsuitable for employment. Regardless of the nature of the data, these 'screening' procedures have in common the elimination of applicants adjudged cognitively and/or emotional unfit for a police career. Writers who advocate the utility of psychological testing in police selection procedures, for example, tend to emphasise the usefulness of such tests in terms of 'weeding-out' poor prospects in an attempt to identify those applicants most likely to bring potential trouble on themselves or their police forces. Murphy estimates that the most frequent police use of psychological tests involves 'weeding out those candidates who would not in the department's opinion make good police officers'.⁶⁹ As Mills and Stratton indicate: 'If this can be accomplished, screening appears to be the more appropriate procedure, professionally and legally'.⁷⁰

The implied doubt in Mills and Stratton's observation, however, is most probably a function of the lack of demonstrated predictive validity of such 'screening oriented' assessments, and the degree to which the presence or absence of 'pathology' so measured may or may not be related to subsequent job performance of those who pass the screening. Levy has likewise criticised the 'screening' approach by pointing out that: (1) the mere absence of 'unwanted' attributes prior to employment has not necessarily indicated a continued absence after employment, (2) since the

definition of 'emotional suitability' for police work remains undetermined, psychological tests and psychiatric interviews have not demonstrated much predictive value, and (3) some personality traits which are generally deemed 'pathological', may be essential for the stress tolerance needed in effective policing.⁷¹ Furthermore, of major concern is the fact that the dominant concern in the screening of applicants for many police agencies continues to ensure that they meet rigid physical standards, eg, height, weight, physical agility, etc. Such standards continue to be applied regardless of the overwhelming evidence that they are unrelated to the most difficult socio-political and legal problems faced by contemporary police personnel.⁷² This traditional emphasis upon physical criteria reflects the misplaced and outdated notion of what police do, rather than on a careful analysis of job requirements. In fact, Lawrence et al observe: 'These are traditional police selection methods and may be traced at least to the early nineteenth century'.⁷³ By any criteria, least of all by contemporary personnel selection standards, such emphases in police selection procedures are inadequate.

The 'selection' approach, on the other hand, is essentially concerned with the identification of those applicants who have optimal potential for police work. As such, it involves the specification of positive criteria and the adoption of procedures which attempt (at least by intention) to predict job success as defined by a variety of operational criteria. It is designed to 'select-in' rather than 'screen-out', and is based on a prevailing, often unsubstantiated, assumption that the methods employed yield both valid and reliable predictive measures of successful training and operational performance. Some researchers, such as Crosby et al,⁷⁴ claim to have developed methods to determine specific cognitive and personological attributes seen as important for effective police work. Such attributes include verbal comprehension, memory for detail, series recall, logical reasoning, behavioural flexibility, positive motivation, social and interpersonal sensitivity, decisiveness, organisational compatibility, and stress tolerance, among many others.

In respect of personological attributes,⁷⁵ however, the evidence from relatively recent research reviews⁷⁵ indicates the need for caution in ascribing predispositional personality 'labels' to applicants in a police selection process, particularly in the absence of recognising the demonstrated importance of subsequent training and socialisation influences.⁷⁶ Several salient points have emerged from these reviews. Firstly, there is considerable unsubstantiated stereotyping of the modalities of police personality. Secondly, there is conflicting evidence concerning the existence of a distinct modal police personality. Thirdly, the available evidence as to the origins of putative police personality profiles is noticeably unconvincing. Finally, 'empirical investigations to date have generally been conceptually and methodologically inadequate to the task of providing definitive answers to questions concerning police personalities'.⁷⁷ These methodological inadequacies have clearly contributed to the generally poor success at predicting police job performance and point to the deficiencies associated

with an over reliance on a personological explanation of behaviour in police selection. Furthermore, with the documented inability of existing psychometric instruments to predict even extreme behaviour such as violence, the probability of making more refined predictions of job performance as a function of either higher mental processes or complex personological and related behavioural predispositions, seems somewhat remote.

Apart from the demonstrated utility of intelligence testing in screening out poor training risks, existing psychometric instruments such as tools to assess non-pathological personological attributes in the police occupational context, are extremely limited, with clinical interviews faring no better.⁷⁸ Unless they are rigorously validated against criterion referenced, actual job performance, such 'selection' approach measures are clearly questionable as appropriate strategies in police selection procedures. This, of course, does not obviate the crucial need for longitudinal validity research studies which examine the domains of optimal job performance criteria. The aim of such studies should be the development of selection test instruments and procedures with maximum predictive validity and reliability consistent with, and specifically relevant to, both the training and operational requirements of individual police forces.

Until such reliable and valid selection instruments and procedures are developed, the need for accuracy in either 'screening' or 'selection' approaches for personnel in police contexts, is of paramount importance. This vital consideration implies that in any hiring decision it is preferable to avoid one of the two possible types of error which can be made. Firstly, by the 'screening' approach, potentially 'good' performers can be misidentified as 'poor' performers, and rejected. Secondly, by the 'selection' approach, 'poor' performers can be labelled as potentially 'competent', and accepted. Each of these errors bears an associated cost to any police agency which, ideally, should be avoided. While the 'selection' approach potentially has the greatest promise in police personnel hiring decisions, the second type of error associated with the acceptance of 'incompetents', clearly constitutes the more unacceptable cost, since even one incompetent officer can cause irreparable harm.

There is an additional methodological reason for preferring a 'screening' approach over a 'selection' approach, at least in the short term. In reviewing studies in several areas of clinical prediction Fisher, for example, noticed a 'curious, but consistent' statistical relationship between predictors and criterion. Whenever the test predicted the presence of pathology, marked agreement with the criterion was obtained. Alternatively, however, predictors were not able to identify the absence of pathology. Fisher called the phenomenon the 'twisted pear' because of the shape of the nonlinear, heteroscedastic predictor-criterion scattergram.⁷⁹ Similarly, it is well known that a low Wechsler IQ score is very predictive of poor academic achievement; but, the converse is not necessarily true. The logical implication of Fisher's 'twisted pear' phenomenon in the present context is that 'police selection procedures may be more effective at screening those with a poor probability of successful response

to the job demands than at predicting successful adaptation'.⁸⁰ Moreover, as Lefkowitz among others, has observed, because most police agencies use a 'successive hurdles' screening procedure, by the time candidates have reached the selection interview stage, the more deviant applicants have already been eliminated and the measured attributes of the remaining sample are often remarkably homogeneous.⁸¹ This lack of variability in the residual applicant sample pool severely attenuates the predictor-criterion relationship, reducing still further the predictive power of the psychometric criteria used in 'selection oriented' procedures. In fact, Lester argues: 'there is not much evidence that psychological testing has any use in predicting performance of a police officer'.⁸²

'Given the current "state of the art" in psychological evaluation of police applicants, psychologists should be limited to screening out the pathological and leaving the determination of selection to other aspects of the application process'.⁸³ Until such time as reliable and valid job-related selection test instruments are developed, this suggestion should also apply to the current use being made of either cognitive and/or personological measures in police applicant processing procedures. Lester suggests that 'much of this screening and testing of applicants is unnecessary. The most important information comes from performance in the training academy and in the initial probationary period'.⁸⁴ In other words, given the fact that valid and reliable 'screening' procedures can be developed and implemented, the subsequent months of intensive training and observation by the training academy and the progressive assessment during the probationary period, provide more appropriate opportunities for police administrators to make definitive assessments about an individual's capacity to handle the job for which he has been recruited. A successful adaptive response to the job, therefore, will depend on the particular demands of the job context. This is, as Barker⁸⁵, Grump⁸⁶ and Sells⁸⁷ have demonstrated, there are very strong functional relationships between particular environmental contexts and certain types of behaviours. Similarly, Moos and Insel note 'important determinants of at least some kinds of behavioural parameters are not related to personality differences but to the environment itself'.⁸⁸ The essential point here, as stated earlier, is that the ultimate effectiveness of police screening and selection procedures will always be limited by the nature of the socio-cultural and intro-organisational setting in which police personnel are required to function. Hence, concurrent validity studies of effective job performance have great difficulty in determining the predictive utility of the general, non environment specific psychometric measures of the kind most commonly employed in police personnel selection procedures.

Concluding comments

The major thrust of the preceding discussion of issues is the present author's commitment to the view that the provision of an optimal police service to the community is directly dependent upon the ability of police forces to recruit personnel of the

highest possible calibre who are equipped to cope with the increasingly complex demands of the police occupational role. That is, in view of the growing socio-political importance and complexity of the police role, police administrators must seek-out and actively recruit those people who are best suited to a police career. In order to achieve this aim, the traditionally passive recruiting practices of many police agencies require drastic change. Thus, in the interests of attracting applicants with the greatest potential for police work, 'an active promotional campaign should be maintained, even in times when the number of individuals applying on their own initiative is high'.⁸⁹ Moreover, substantial effort should be given to actively recruiting personnel such as tertiary graduates, for example, who may hitherto have not considered the police profession as a viable and worthwhile career option. It is suggested also that both the perceived occupational status of the police and the attraction of more and better applicants, would be considerably enhanced by the setting of higher educational qualifications as minimum prerequisite educational standards for entry.

Above all, perhaps, a new 'role definition' of policing needs to be established. This 'role definition', however, must necessarily be consistent with community needs and expectations of police service delivery and the requirements of police agencies in successfully meeting those needs. Hence, the need for relevant job analyses of police role requirements is of paramount importance, as the basis for the development of job-appropriate recruitment and selection criteria. From such data, it is suggested it will become increasingly clear that this new 'role definition' requires new personnel. While it is recognised that police forces must maximise the potential of their existing personnel, recruitment must fulfil a new dimension by not merely duplicating what is already present, but creating and pursuing new lines of development.⁹⁰ This issue is particularly relevant to the urgent need for the development and implementation of personnel screening/selection instruments and procedures, with high levels of job-relevant predictive validity and reliability, such that appropriate selection decisions can be made in terms of both community and police organisational needs and requirements. Of major significance in this context, however, is the fact that since 'there is but little tolerance in the police culture as it now operates for interpersonally sensitive and cognitively complex officers'.⁹¹ There is crucial need for fundamental redesign of policies, goals and structures within current police organisational systems. Of equal importance, candidates with potential attributes in these areas must be induced to select police service as a career.

Finally, the comments made recently by the present Chief Commissioner of the Victoria Police are particularly worthy of note:

In a short time, some of those at the base of the (police) organisational pyramid will have progressed through the system to senior management positions. An organisation which does not develop its own future leaders, at all levels, has failed

to optimise its own potential. The success of a police organisation can be judged by its own ability to create its own leaders. To achieve this aim, there must be careful selection and progressive career development throughout the organisation, from the latest recruit to top management. This form of career progression is predicated upon the recruitment of people of the right quality and potential at the base of the pyramid...The most valuable asset a police organisation has is its people. Every recruit selected today will affect the standards of the service in the future - just as those recruited in years gone by have influenced the standards of the organisation during their service. It is the recruits of today who are the potential leaders of tomorrow. It is the future leaders who will be making the decisions which will determine the efficiency and effectiveness of the police force thirty or forty years hence. There is, therefore, no more important management undertaking for the future than the selection and recruitment of young men and women of the right quality and potential, today.⁹²

It is the sincere hope of the present author that these worthy sentiments will not be labelled as mere "altruistic rhetoric" and discarded to either the idealist's or procrastinator's rubbish heap, but that long overdue and determined efforts are immediately instigated to ensure the realisation that 'the most valuable resource of a police force is its "manpower".'⁹³

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ARTICLE SEVEN

THE SYSTEMS APPROACH TO POLICE TRAINING:
SOME IMPORTANT CONSIDERATIONS FOR POLICE TRAINING PLANNERS

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Introduction

Several police forces throughout Australia, including the Victoria Police Force, have recently been influenced by the Systems Approach to training in the development of recruit and in-service training curricula.¹ This approach to vocational training, which was popular during the 1960s and 1970s in the USA, Britain, Canada and to a lesser extent Australia, has been adopted either totally or in modified form by a number of military and para-military organisations, with mixed success. The purpose of this paper is to discuss some of the conceptual and practical issues associated with a wholesale and uncritical adoption of the Systems Approach to training as they specifically relate to contemporary police training needs and operational requirements.

Systems approach to police training - an evaluation

The Systems Approach to training attempts to resolve the problem of training personnel for vocational effectiveness in a particular way, by providing a systemic framework to ensure that each trainee is ultimately capable of satisfactory job performance. Essentially, the Systems Approach is characterised by three underlying principles:

- * Relevance. Curricula content and standards must be job-relevant
- * Objectivity. It insists that the efficiency of training is a function of measurable overt behaviours on the part of trainees, ie, Terminal Performance Objectives - TPOs
- * Quality Control. It attempts to establish functional links between trainer and worker to ensure the maintenance of job-relevant instruction.

The application of the Systems Approach to police training has arisen in response to some of the more obvious limitations revealed by the traditional subject-oriented methods which emphasise the trainer over the trainee, the subject taught over the matter learned, and with terminal performance being stated in prescriptive rather than descriptive terminology. Thus, according to JT O'Brien,² 'the ultimate objective in the systems approach

to training is the learner, not the instructor, and in terms of measurable achievement rather than appreciation'. In the past, police training has predominantly utilised subjects and courses based on the usual conditions presumably faced by police officers 'on the street'. Unfortunately, the subjects chosen often reflected the attitudes and thinking of police instructors, or their anecdotal memories of experiences from the past. Such an approach tends to emphasise the colourful and the dramatic to the neglect of not only practical everyday police work, but also what work should be done and how it should be performed.

The Systems Approach to training, however, is diametrically opposed to the old subject-oriented approach. It begins with a job analysis of the duties performed in the job through an analysis of the organisation and its problems, and as a prerequisite for the determination of training needs.³ Identification of training needs is then followed by the specification of terminal performance objectives (TPOs) expressed in measurable, behaviourally-anchored terms such as: 'list', 'identify', 'write', 'demonstrate', etc. The approach stresses that there should be no training merely for training's sake but, rather, that there must be specific ends in mind. These ends focus on the trainee who must demonstrate mastery of the tasks taught in training by meeting specific TPOs designed to assess such mastery.

At the prima facie level, the application of a Systems Approach to police training appears to be eminently practical and educationally sound. However, its effectiveness in terms of a total police training philosophy can and should be seriously questioned. S Freeman, for example, claims there are major difficulties associated with the Systems Approach to training:

Procedures being used in training applications of the systems approach have grown out of and have been adapted from the procedures for preparing programs for computer-assisted instruction in very narrow areas of subject matter or skill. The extensive documentation of detail requires a minute study comparable to a time-and-motion study of very small task elements for the preparation of an instructional program for a single course or lesson. Even when used for a total specialised job, such as a radio-repairman or auto mechanic, the amount of documentation and analysis required is staggering. When used in a broad occupational area such as law enforcement, where both the manual skills and large areas of mental activity and behaviour are involved, these procedures are neither economical nor feasible⁴

Freeman goes on to note that 'the vast majority of available published materials describing the systems approach to training is misleading'.⁵ While some of the material has unquestioned value, he argues, and certain systems principles can most usefully be applied to some aspects of the police training curricula, such as drill and firearms training, the Systems Approach as a total training philosophy 'is impractical or inapplicable in broad areas such as law enforcement'⁶.

There are several reasons for the inappropriateness of the Systems Approach to most areas of the police training curricula. First, since the Systems Approach usually begins with a 'task inventory' method of job analysis,^{7,8} based solely upon responses of job incumbents, it not only results in describing police roles and functions, but, by implication, prescribes what those roles and functions should be. In other words, the 'job inventory' approach is an exclusively job or task-oriented method of analysis due to its singular focus on current work outcomes. Thus, focus rests only on those tasks that constitute the job as defined by the incumbents, rather than on government, community and organisation-defined goals, or on desirable worker behaviours consistent with those goals. For obvious reasons, this traditional approach to job analysis has an inherent status quo bias. The information collected about the range of tasks performed has, at best, limited relevance to a particular point in time. More importantly, however, it does not seriously question whether the identified tasks should be performed as found, nor does it involve the kinds of people who might suggest such an heretical notion. Even the specification and labelling of tasks, in many instances, depends entirely upon the ideological perspectives of the persons assigning the labels. Given this limitation alone, the 'job inventory' method, which relies solely upon the responses of job incumbents to identify work tasks (or even worker requirements for that matter), is naive in the extreme and wholly inappropriate. The inevitable outcome is merely that the traditional status quo and the associated reactive law-enforcement roles and values implied in the tasks are emphasised, reinforced and legitimated, while the tasks associated with alternative proactive, order-maintenance approaches to policing are either ignored or subordinated.

The 'job inventory' approach to job analysis is also methodologically inadequate for collecting accurate information about what police personnel actually do. If previous research studies are any indication, job analysis methods that rely on questionnaires and interviews administered to job incumbents may not only elicit unreliable data on the range of tasks performed, but also of the relative importance, frequency and time expenditure involved.^{9,10} Since the number and variety of tasks performed by police employees constitute a formidable domain for data collection and analysis, it is questionable whether a brief period of interviewing or questionnaire-derived data are either sufficient or, even, appropriate measures for sampling the universe of police administrative and operational activity. Some police tasks are socially and politically controversial, with ethical and legal implications. Other tasks, though perhaps infrequent, may be crucial, eg, life saving and, in general, it may not be appropriate to ascribe time expenditure and frequency dimensions to them. Beyond all these difficulties in accurately portraying police tasks is the central problem of relating them to desirable worker characteristics. The importance of this enterprise cannot be over-emphasised.

These limitations of the 'task inventory' method tend to be overlooked by both the providers and consumers of such job analysis information. It cannot be stressed too strongly that

since such data and resultant training curricula are based solely on self reports by incumbent police personnel concerning some of the tasks they perform, the obtained data and the resultant curricula content are likely to be inappropriate, unreliable and invalid. Police personnel have wide latitude in determining how they perform their work. Hence, self-reports by job incumbents about how they have chosen to define their roles and tasks, cannot be granted the status of unquestioned legitimacy! While this kind of information is undoubtedly of value, it should not be used uncritically in defining either the domain of the police role, or the parameters of training needs and requirements. Furthermore, job incumbents alone, in the absence of government and community inputs, are clearly not in the proper position to determine what the police role should be.

Secondly, since the Systems Approach focuses exclusively upon the overt dimensions of trainee behaviour (TPOs), it falls into the objectivist's/positivist's dilemma of legislating the 'observable' as the only legitimate parameter of desirable behavioral change and the sole indicator that learning has in fact taken place. The narrow epistemological prejudice entailed by this enterprise not only renders the learning process contextually sterile and naively mechanistic, but denies those important dimensions of trainee experience which constitute the essence, or basic data, of human action - the trainee's beliefs, values, intentions, feelings, and so on - apart from which, the imputation of meaning to action is not possible!^{11,12} Consequently, the Systems Approach to training does nothing to prepare the police trainee to be the critical thinking and discriminating professional decision-maker in a sociologically complex and often highly charged political environment.¹³ Desirable attitudes and values implied in police organisational and community goals are inevitably relegated to the dubious status of 'subjective' and, by definition, are not admissible to the training curricula. By any criterion, such propositions are absurd in the extreme.

Thirdly, by insisting that training be both 'job relevant' and 'objective', the Systems Approach to police training results in curricula that are far too vocationally narrow. The inclusion of a preponderance of such curricula 'necessitates the exclusion of general education subjects more essential to students' development'.¹⁴ Likewise, the mere classification of curricula content by the Approach as 'objective'/'vocational', prescribes that instruction be exclusively related to technical skills, rather than those which are more analytical in nature. There is, therefore, considerable pressure to formulate specific learning objectives in the form of TPOs. The formulation of such objectives, however, demands that exclusive emphasis be placed on basic 'how to do it' concepts which are, of course, easier to articulate in the form of TPOs than are analytical skills. Nevertheless, the issue is not really whether it is appropriate for police training curricula to emphasise the 'how to' of any particular procedural operation. Rather, the issue is whether the 'how to' ought to be taught to the exclusion of the 'why?' Without the inclusion of 'why?', however, police training curricula are reduced to simple mechanical tasks that are quickly outdated, to the ultimate detriment of the trainee, the Police

force and the community. Police training is a vitally important process that must be addressed in such a way that trainees are provided with the maximum opportunity to not only acquire vocation-oriented skills, but also to develop analytical skills, psycho-social and politico-legal perspectives, affective sensitivity, and the commitment to an appropriate ethical system. Clearly, therefore, the 'why?' component in police training curricula is a necessity.

By a wholesale commitment to the Systems Approach, police training planners, tend to uncritically adopt some aspects of the popular behaviourist-oriented 'Taxonomy of Educational Objectives',^{15,16,17} to the convenient exclusion of others. This taxonomy provides a three-level schema for classifying all training objectives in the 'cognitive', 'affective' and 'psychomotor' domains. However, curricula planners influenced by a Systems Approach to training tend to exclusively emphasise the 'cognitive' and 'psychomotor' domains to the exclusion of the 'affective'. Furthermore, there is a debilitating tendency to focus on only two of the categories of the 'cognitive' domain - 'knowledge' and 'application' - and to deny the crucial importance of the 'comprehension', 'analysis', and 'synthesis' and 'evaluation' components.¹⁸ The effect of this enterprise is such that training curricula inevitably undergo radical transformation from providing potentially valuable educational experience to limited and sterile, mechanical performance.

Fourthly, the very nature of the majority of police training curricula content is particularly unsuited to the reductionist/mechanistic prescriptions of the Systems Approach. This is no more evident than in the area of training in law. This vital area of the curricula requires that police gather relevant information from multiple sources such as statute law, common law, case law, Regulations and Standing Orders, and be able to synthesise the material to identify offences, apprehend offenders, write reports and present cases in court. Clearly, this process requires considerable cognitive skill of the conceptual/analytical kind, involving an ability to research, acquire new knowledge, read, write, and communicate with insight and intelligence. The simple, mechanistic, lock-step orientation endemic to the Systems Approach to training, does not allow for the development of skills of this kind. Since the Systems Approach merely 'borrows' from the sequential learning principles involved in the acquisition of simple mechanical skills, the assumed suitability of the Approach to complex conceptual skills involved in much of police training, cannot be justified. Moreover, the validity of this kind of methodological plagiarism is questionable, since the objectives of the police training enterprise, unlike those related to the acquisition of simple mechanical skills, are considerably more wide-ranging and not reducible to the single measurement criteria prescribed by TPOs. As a consequence, a systems-designed, recruit training course, for example, achieves little more than issuing the recruit with a manual, 'a uniform and badge; assuring his geographical orientation...; and instructing him to 'hit the street' and enforce the Ten Commandments'.¹⁹ Thus, by a commitment to a Systems Approach to training, police forces seem bent on providing a solution to fit a problem in the absence of

any supporting evidence as to its appropriateness.

Fifthly, by its very nature, the lock-step method prescribed by the Systems Approach does not allow for the individual learning abilities of trainees. The possible dangers with such a system, where the learner stays with a problem until he ultimately solves it, merely serves to tolerate the employment of individuals who are inefficient. While the original selection process should guarantee a minimum level of cognitive ability, there is no guarantee that the fixed contingency-testing paradigm inherent in the Systems Approach facilitates acceptable trainee performance of each learning task. Furthermore, the effective implementation of a Systems Approach to police training is based upon two basic assumptions: (1) that all trainees enter the program of instruction with roughly equal cognitive ability, and (2) that the majority of trainees already have adequate background skills, eg, literacy, to cope with the demands of the program. Experience to date strongly suggests both of these assumptions are invalid. Chief Superintendent Keith Hunter, for example, in a recent evaluation of 'systems designed' recruit training in England and Wales, notes: 'Indeed, poor standards of literacy were the subject of frequent comment by sergeants'.²⁰

Of greater significance, perhaps, is the fact that the Systems Approach measures the trainee against the stated performance objectives (TPOs) as opposed to other trainees. O'Brien²¹ notes that for this to be effective, some 'sacrifices' have to be made, including those interpersonal qualities endemic to traditional classroom methods. 'These would be esprit de corp and class identity, team work, personal interaction, which often reveals the abnormal personality, and police peer group identity'. In the opinion and experience of the present author, these subjective and largely unquantifiable qualities are not only of crucial importance to the learning process per se, but are imperative in the assessment of trainees in terms of their ultimate suitability as effective police personnel. Obviously, to 'sacrifice' the potential emergence of such qualities is counter productive to the entire learning process. While the Systems Approach may undoubtedly be efficient in some areas of the curricula, it does not have a monopoly on training effectiveness.

Sixthly, since the Systems Approach insists on objective style 'progressive assessment' of trainees rather than on formal summative examinations of the traditional kind, there is no guarantee trainees have retained sufficient knowledge or developed adequate skills to meet the demands of even minimum police operational requirements. In fact, a significant body of educational research indicates that, in a program of training, only the most recently tested learning material is likely to be retained for ultimate use by students, unless there is considerable integration and reinforcement of previously tested subject matter.^{22,23} The implications of these findings to police training and subsequent operational effectiveness are considerable.

One can hardly contemplate the potentially disastrous outcomes if a similar evaluation system was applied to the

assessment of medical student for example. The results of final-year medical/surgical examinations, regardless of previous annual assessments, are an indication to the Medical Faculty and the State Medical Board that a student has attained a functional competence, at an appropriate professional standard, to be eligible for registration as a legally qualified medical practitioner. There is no justification to demand less of law enforcement practitioners. Moreover, the rigid, highly structured, objective test items involved in the progressive assessment schedules of a systems-designed training program, are inappropriate and inadequate in terms of providing either meaningful or realistic assessments of trainees' knowledge and understanding of the multifaceted and conceptually complex issues entailed by the demands of contemporary policing. Keith Hunter notes some of the more serious weaknesses of a Systems Approach to recruit training in the following terms:

The process of 'cramming' of objectives is probably one of quick acquisition - and quick decay. Many educational psychologists are fiercely opposed to total abandonment of essay-style examinations and the kind of study and learning that these entail. The course designers at Los Angeles therefore deliberately opted for mixed objective-essay questions for their trainees... That weaknesses do exist, was aptly illustrated to me once by one recruit...with the comments, '...the lesson notes can be a menace. Some of our instructors were natural teachers, but others were like weapon training corporals rattling off the parts of a machine gun, straight out of the notes. We were not allowed to pursue a question if the answer was not in the book'. Furthermore, examination-directed teaching is no less a danger with multiple choice tests than it was for subjective examinations, indeed, for some experts this remains a major fault of totally objective systems.²⁴

Furthermore, the realities of operational personnel shortages in most Australian police forces are such that newly graduated Constables are required by their supervising Sub-Officers and Officers to be as fully operationally effective as possible. In view of both the serious personnel shortages and community demands, this is not an unreasonable expectation. However, if trainees have neither had sufficient training time to acquire job-related knowledge and skills, nor had those knowledge areas and skills adequately reinforced and assessed at an appropriate operational standard during training, the initial training program will have failed to perform the role for which it should be designed. There is genuine concern that in several instances this is and will be the case. While it is recognised that initial recruit training courses in Australian police forces²⁵ are often only the first stage of progressive instruction Probationary Constable Training Programs, these on-the-job training programs place additional and excessively bureaucratic, supervisory, assessment burdens, on already overtaxed task priorities and related personnel resources in the

operational field. There seems to be little pragmatic justification for this additional constraint on the operational efficiency and effectiveness of any police force. In fact, as Hunter warns:

The most dangerous of all assumptions is the general one related to the possibilities of formal training as opposed to on the job training. It provides a refuge for the unenterprising and the conservative, and places an unfair burden upon operational supervisors, whose capacity and opportunity for on the job training tend to be viewed as infinite. The truth that many practical skills and procedures are indeed best learned on the job should not absolve the training officer from innovating and expanding the frontiers and possibilities of formal training...²⁶

The initial training program must be designed to provide trainees with the minimum skills necessary to meet basic operational requirements! This implies that the curricula content, the training time available, the method of training and the related assessment process, be sufficient to ensure that these basic skills have been acquired at a job-relevant and functional level of competence. On the basis of the foregoing discussion, it is doubtful whether systems-designed recruit training programs in Australian police forces can successfully meet any of these essential criteria. With respect to the duration of the initial training program in Victoria, for example, it is suggested that the current course of 17 weeks is far too short. While recognising the useful periods of practical on-the-job training, in his recent report to the Secretary of State for the British Home Department, Lord Scarman claims:

I am satisfied that the length of the present period of initial training for recruits is insufficient. It cannot be right - and it is no criticism of them if I say so - that young men and women of 19 or 20 are enabled to exercise the powers and responsibilities of the office of constable after a period of initial training which lasts only 15 weeks in the Metropolitan Police...I do not see how the increasing complexities of a police officer's task can be adequately covered - even at the basic level - in the present initial training period...I therefore recommend that the minimum length of the initial training period for police recruits be increased to 6 months...Indeed, if resources permitted, a case could be made for recommending a 12 month initial training period...The future effectiveness of the police requires, nevertheless, a significant increase in the initial training period.²⁷

Similarly, the recent Lusher Report on the administration of the New South Wales Police Force strongly recommended that 'time allotted for recruit training should be extended to a minimum of

24 weeks.²⁸ In the light of these recommendations, the recent reduction in the initial recruit training course (from 21 weeks to 17 weeks) by the Victoria Police Force, for example, appears to be both unjustified and potentially counter-productive.

In summary, it can not only be argued, but it can be clearly demonstrated that the application of a Systems Approach to police training generally, and to recruit training in particular, is based on very shaky foundations indeed. The unbalanced, narrowly vocational curriculum and the 'task inventory' method of job analysis upon which it is based, the associated inappropriate assessment of trainees, as well as the inadequate amount of time given to training, are all founded on indefensibly naive and wholly inappropriate philosophical and methodological presuppositions. As Keith Hunter warns: '...the risk of "under-training" for a harsher and more challenging environment is now very real...'.²⁹ In spite of the vast amounts of both time and effort which are required to be invested in course design, curricula development and quality control, it can be argued that police training planners who commit themselves to a Systems Approach fail to produce a product which meets the needs of trainees, the police profession as a whole, or the community. For obvious reasons, this state of affairs should not be allowed to continue under any circumstances.

Recommendations

Clearly, what is required, is to conduct a national independent inquiry into the development, implementation and appropriateness of current recruit and in-service training programs throughout Australian police forces. On this basis a thorough job analysis should follow, the chosen method of which should be determined by the specific purposes to be served by the information collected.³⁰

The method of job analysis most appropriate for the specification of training objectives and the content design of police training programs, is one which not only focuses on the tasks that constitute the job, but also desirable worker behaviours consistent with community needs and the goal requirements of the police organisation in successfully meeting those needs. According to Gary Cordner, such a method is the 'domain sampling' approach to job analysis.³¹ The primary means of collecting information via this approach involves 'brainstorming' within the community, among job incumbents and subject matter experts; with observations, interviews and questionnaires being used to supplement and validate the obtained data. This method attempts to directly identify the elements of knowledge, abilities and skills, and other related personnel characteristics (KASOs) considered necessary for successful job performance. Suggested KASOs are then evaluated on several dimensions including the practicality of allowing for the element in training and the likelihood of problems resulting if the element is not considered. The information collected is goal oriented, task oriented and worker oriented, and ratings for each goal, task and worker characteristic combination are obtained. These matrix ratings are

then used to determine those KASOs critical to job performance.

It is only upon such a database that it is even possible to develop appropriate and balanced recruit/in-service police training programs. Moreover, curricula content and instructional methodologies can only be developed after a clear set of relevant objectives have been formulated, with appropriate validation inputs from the general community, government and senior executives of State police forces. Professor Taylor, for example, stresses '...the need to establish an effective training program within the community context in which the police work, which will reflect both police and community priorities'.³²

The amount of time given to initial recruit training should be carefully examined to ensure that trainees derive maximum benefit from the formal instruction provided that they develop the highest possible levels of competence in both reactive and proactive job-relevant skills to meet functional operational requirements. In this regard, it is recommended that the minimum length of the initial recruit training period in all Australian police forces should be no less than 24 weeks.³³

All police training programs should be subjected to a continuous and systematic evaluation programme of their effectiveness. The emphasis here should be on systematic observation of operational police practice in order to establish a critical basis upon which to instigate change, and provide both descriptive and prescriptive data from which achievable target behaviours in training programs can be specified.

ENDNOTES

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ARTICLE EIGHT

A MEASURE OF CRIMINAL INVESTIGATION BRANCH WORKLOAD

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Introduction

For many years police administrators and working detectives have been dissatisfied with a very rough measure of workload which was based entirely upon 'caseload'. Caseload refers to the total number of offence reported, divided by the number of personnel allocated to the division, ie:

$$\frac{\text{total number of crimes reported in division}}{\text{number of detectives allocated to division}}$$

However, caseloads do not take into account many factors which have a great effect on the workload of detectives. For instance, they do not distinguish between different types of crime requiring different investigative work (even to the extent of including many crimes not investigated by detectives), they do not account for non-investigative duties and they assume that all the detectives are equally available for investigative work.

In 1979, a project team of CIB and Management Services Bureau members was formed to see if a more meaningful measure of CIB workload could be devised. A literature search revealed there does not appear to have been a great deal written on this topic. Examples of some work done in this area are: Police Research Bulletin, #25, 1975, p14, by PJ Arhill and RW Knight and The Criminal Investigation Process (The Rand Report) by Peter W Greenwood, Jan M Chaiken and Joan Petersilia.

Both these studies provide an analysis of a detective's working time. However, no attempt was made in either study to devise a formal CIB workload system.

The concept used in the CIB Workload Analysis System is quite basic. Standard or average times are allocated to a number of work functions (bearing in mind their variable nature). Details of the number of times these functions are performed and the amounts of time expended on other easily measured functions are collected and expressed in workload units. Each workload

unit is equal to ten minutes of time.

By using this system it is possible to:

- * Measure the total workload of each CIB Division
- * Ascertain the effective staff at each division. Effective staff relates to the actual working staff rather than the authorised staff. This is calculated by taking into account factors which affect staff availability such as illness, temporary duty elsewhere, long service leave, etc.
- * Obtain the average workload per man at each division.
- * Compare the workloads of divisions for the purpose of allocating manpower.
- * Collect more accurately, statistical material because of standardised counting methods.

This system was implemented throughout Victoria (all CIB divisions) on 1 July 1982, without the benefit of a computer facility. However, as of 1 January 1983, this system was placed on computer for workload calculations. A system using similar principles has been in operation for the State's uniform police stations since 1964 and has proved valuable in assessing the need for uniformed officers at police stations.

Methodology

In order to devise this system it was necessary to construct a model which reflected as accurately as possible the measurable activities of a divisional detective. After the literature search the first action of the project team was to visit a number of metropolitan CIB divisions to find the total person hours available to each division to be studied.

A list was then prepared of the most frequent work functions of detectives (see Annex A). Divisions visited at this stage were Altona North, Sunshine, St Albans and Elsternwick, as they were considered to be representative of most CIB divisions.

A thorough analysis of all measurable CIB activities in the four divisions was undertaken by examining the diaries of ten detectives for the months of February and June, 1979. These two periods were selected to allow for any seasonal trends that may occur. One point to emerge from this analysis was that 26.1 per cent of the total time available was spent on investigation.¹ A

1 The Oxford Dictionary definition of investigation is used here, ie to examine, inquire into, make official enquiry. Time spent at courts and preparing briefs of evidence is not included.

graphical summary of the findings are indicated in Annexes B1 and B2. However, it was felt that this was an understatement of the actual position. It became apparent that there were many aspects of investigation which were not specifically accounted for in the CIB diaries inspected. One example is telephone inquiries; as a necessary part of investigation detectives spend a great deal of time on the telephone but this is not always recorded in the diaries. Factors such as these were discussed with present and past members of the CIB whose estimates were taken into account and a value judgment made as to the relationship between investigation time and the total time available. It was considered that approximately 45 per cent of a divisional detective's time would normally be devoted to investigations as previously defined.

Method of arriving at time weightings for CIB work functions

In order to devise accurate time weightings for the different work functions performed by the CIB, three main information sources were utilised:

- * analysis of 30 diaries belonging to different members at CIB divisions (not specialist squads). The times taken for different types of offences investigated, whether cleared or uncleared were recorded and a standard time was then calculated for each category of offence. Some offense categories were not found in these diaries and for those, reliance was placed on the two following methods
- * a survey conducted in 1973. In that survey questionnaires were sent to 30 metropolitan and country CIB divisions and the Officers in Charge of each of these divisions were asked to comment on the times taken to investigate different categories of cleared and uncleared crimes
- * actual discussions with members of the CIB. During the course of this project some 17 divisions were visited and discussions held with working detectives of all ranks, who were invited to comment on the proposed weightings.

To evaluate workload each different activity was given a weighting which as one of its bases utilised the average time required for its performance. The results were then used to test the relationship between investigation activities and total activities. A summary of the weightings is contained in Annex C.

The following example illustrates the way in which the

weightings are utilised. If an offense of homicide was investigated and resulted in a clearance it would get a time credit of 96 units. If the investigation did not result in a clearance then it would get a time credit of 60 units. A distinction is made between cleared and uncleared investigations of offences with regard to the allocation of workload units. Cleared investigations generally require more time to be spent on them than do uncleared investigations. For example, a cleared investigation takes into account not only the physical investigation of a crime scene and subsequent inquiries but also the interview of an offender.

An experimental workload model was designed to test the information collected by comparing it with the earlier assessment that approximately 45 per cent of a detective's time is spent in investigation.

The model comprised three main areas; firstly the number of investigations by the CIB, secondly all measurable non-investigative duties performed by detectives and finally, factors which would affect the manpower available to the CIB division. The effective staff of a CIB division is calculated using the formula produced in Annex D.

Thirteen CIB divisions were then chosen and the model was applied to those divisions for the period December 1979, January and February of 1980. The divisions chosen were as follows:

Division	Detective strength
Hampton	8
East Bentleigh	9
Brunswick	12
Williamstown	5
Oakleigh	8
Carlton	10
City West	12
Kyneton	3
Portland	1
Morwell	7
Mildura	5
Seymour	2
Hamilton	1

These were chosen because they were considered to be representative of CIB divisions due to their size, location and socio-economic mix. The experiment did show that when the weightings were applied to the raw data obtained from those divisions the ratio of investigation to total duties in the metropolitan area varied from 41-53 per cent. These results compared favourably with the earlier assessment made about the ratio of investigation to total time available.

It is interesting to compare this result with the result obtained in the Rand Report on page 52 (Volume III) in which it is shown that 55.7 per cent of a detective's time is devoted to case work, ie, investigation of cases assigned to detectives. In the country divisions the ratio of investigation to the total duties varied from 18-39 per cent. This variation in ratio was due to the greater time detectives spent travelling compared to the metropolitan detectives. The experiment also indicated that the weightings used were accurate and reflected a realistic measure of actual workload for each division.

To further test this model a pilot study was conducted for a six month period beginning 1 January 1981. This study involved six divisions which had not been involved in the earlier experiments. They were Shepparton, Warragul, Warrnambool, Heidelberg, Melton and St Kilda. A sample of the layout of the computerised summary is included in Annex E. The overall results of the pilot study indicated that the ratio of investigation to total time varied from 33 per cent to 47 per cent in the first quarter and from 41 per cent to 51 per cent in the second quarter which gave further support to the weightings used. The total and average workloads measured for each of the divisions were considered and those measures confirmed the empirical evidence. The proportion of time spent by each division on each major activity is shown in Annex F.

Allocation of detectives

This system provides a means of calculating detective strength requirements according to divisional needs. A formula to determine the manpower needs of a division would be as follows:

$$\frac{\text{Total Workload at Division}}{\text{Optimum average workload per member}}$$

A method of calculating an optimum average workload is currently being researched. The research will broadly take the following lines:

- * All CIB divisions will be divided into different classes according to size and location, eg, metropolitan or country
- * The system will be operated (on computer) for approximately 12 months to enable sufficient data to be collected and analysed
- * Following collection and analysis, a sample of CIB divisions will be selected and their calculated average workloads will be compared with the results of on-site inspections to examine staff needs.

Operation of the system

The workload returns used for this project are reproduced in Annex G. They contain three pages. The first page comprises

crime statistics in the entire division under the heading of 'Crime in Division' and details of investigations undertaken by the CIB under the heading 'Details of Work Performed by Division'. Page two contains non-investigative duties for which a standard time allowance is made for some duties on each occasion the duty is performed and other duties on each occasion the duty is performed and other duties which require the measurement of time actually devoted to those tasks. Also contained on page two are items relating to the staff fluctuations for that period.

Page three is the check list and its purpose is to readily assist the Administration to reconcile if necessary the material included on page one. A comprehensive manual of instructions for the operation of this system has been issued to all CIB divisions. Returns are submitted on a monthly basis by each division and the information is collated and reproduced by computer each quarter in a format identical to Annex E, for each division, district, region and for the entire State.

Conclusion

The CIB Workload System has now been in full operation with the computer facility since 1 January 1983. Currently, the project team is studying and analysing the results of each quarterly printout with a view to producing an optimum average workload for CIB divisions. The principle involved in this project is of a universal nature in that it could be applied to other investigation units. However, due to variations in procedure amongst the different police forces the weightings and other criteria laid out in this system may have to be modified for use in another police force.

CIB WORKLOAD PROJECT

Common work functions of divisional detectives.

Investigations

Loss of life

Rape, attempts, assault with intent
All other sex offences

Abductions, kidnaps and similar

Robbery

Arson
Criminal damage

Serious assaults
Unlawful assault

Deception greater than \$10,000
Deception less than \$10,000
Forge and utter

Blackmail

Supply, traffic in drugs
Possess drugs

Aggravated burglary
Burglary
Handle
Theft

Other felonies
Other misdemeanors
Other summary offences

Non-Investigation

Briefs submitted
Courts attended
Travelling

Functions attended
* Sporting
* Special events, eg, Moomba
* Special patrols, eg, Chemist
shop patrol

Files received requiring work
Correspondence book
Property book

Second-hand dealers

Performing temporary duty elsewhere,
ie, Task Force.

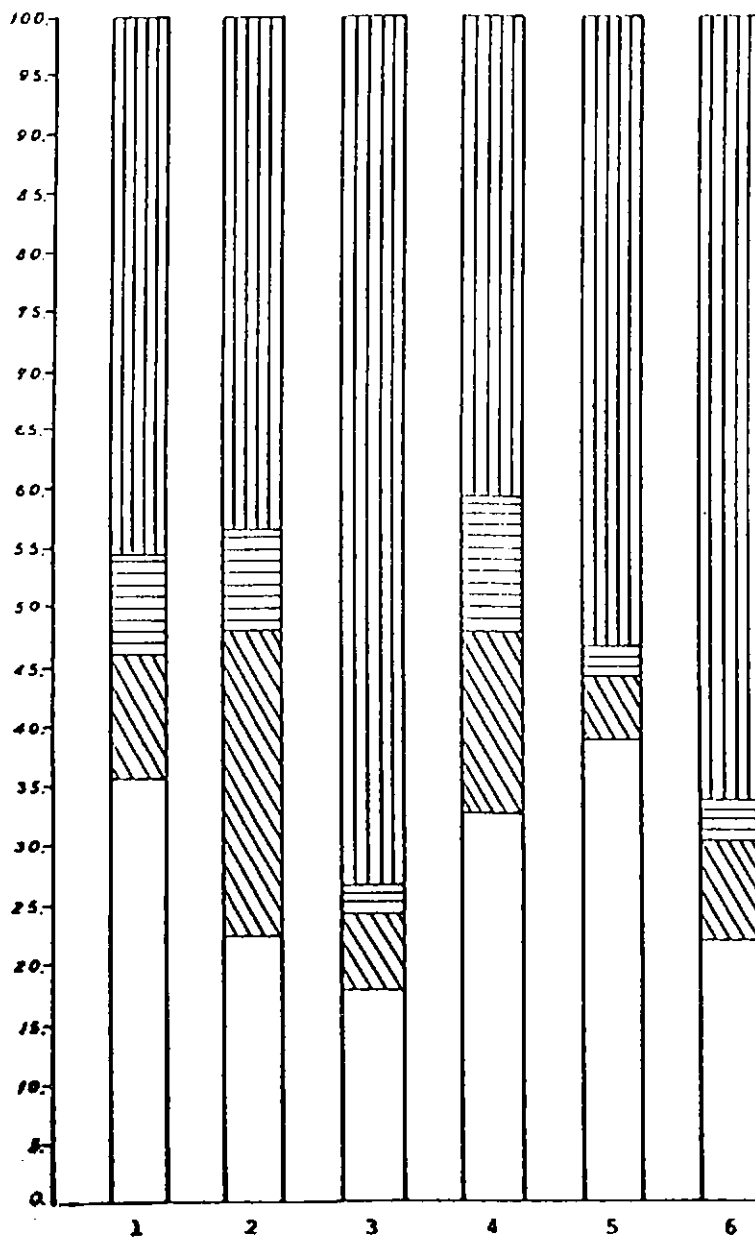
ANNEX B1
PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL TIME AVAILABLE
FEBRUARY 1979

NUMBER	DIVISION	RANK
1	ELSTERNWICK	SERGEANT
2	ELSTERNWICK	S/CONSTABLE
3	SUNSHINE	S/CONSTABLE
4	SUNSHINE	S/CONSTABLE
5	ALTONA NORTH	S/CONSTABLE
6	ALTONA NORTH	S/CONSTABLE

UNSPECIFIED:

SPORTING &
SPECIAL EVENTS:COURTS
ATTENDED:

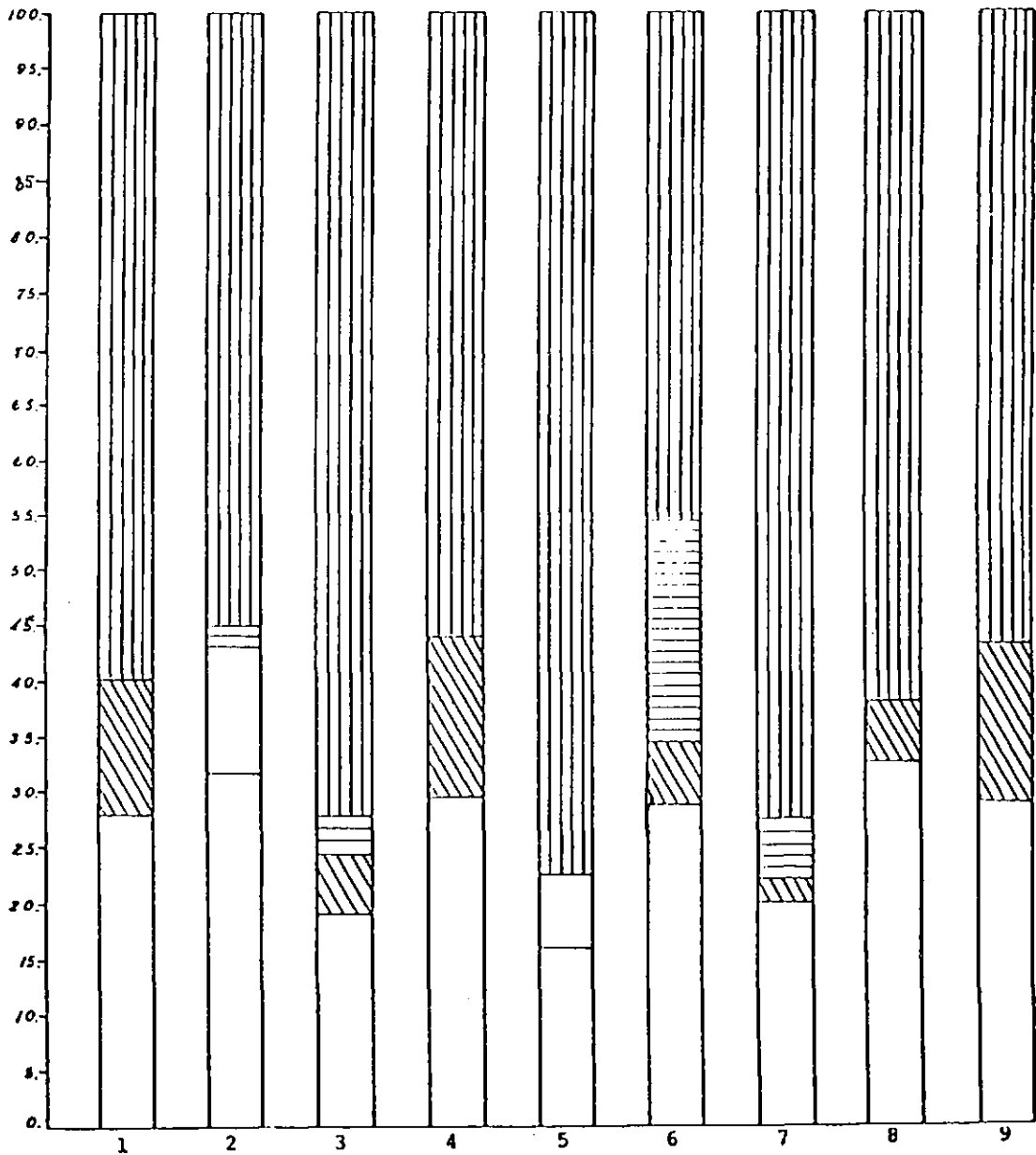
INVESTIGATION:



ANNEX 82
PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL TIME AVAILABLE
JUNE 1979

NUMBER	DIVISION	RANK
1	ELSTERNWICK	SERGEANT
2	ELSTERNWICK	S/CONSTABLE
3	SUNSHINE	S/CONSTABLE
4	SUNSHINE	S/CONSTABLE
5	SUNSHINE	SERGEANT
6	ALTONA NORTH	S/CONSTABLE
7	ALTONA NORTH	S/CONSTABLE
8	ST ALBANS	S/CONSTABLE
9	ST ALBANS	S/CONSTABLE

UNSPECIFIED:
SPORTING &
SPECIAL EVENTS:
COURTS
ATTENDED:
INVESTIGATION:



CIB WORKLOAD PROJECT

Proposed Weightings in Workload Units of all Items.

Item	Units	
	Cleared	Uncleared
Homicide, Loss of Life, <u>etc</u>	96	60
Rape, Attempts, Assault with intent	84	60
Sex Offenses, all other	36	18
Abductions Kidnap and Similar	48	42
Robbery and Attempts	42	24
Arson	42	18
Criminal Damage other than Arson	30	18
Assaults - Serious and Woundings	36	24
Assault, Unlawful	18	12
Deception greater than \$10,000	36	18
Deception less than \$10,000	30	18
Forge	30	18
Utter	30	18
Blackmail	36	18
Drugs, Supply, Traffic	30	12
Drugs, Possess	18	6
Drugs, Use	18	6
Burglary (Aggravated)	24	6
Burglary (Factory)	18	3
Burglary (House)	18	3
Burglary (Shop)	18	3
Burglary (Other)	18	3
Handle Stolen Goods	18	3
Theft from Motor Vehicle	12	2
Theft (Shopstealing)	12	2
Theft (Motor Car)	12	2
Theft (Bicycles)	12	2
Theft (Other)	12	2
Felonies, all other		
(Serious Indictable Offenses)	24	12
Misdemeanors, all other		
(Indictable Offenses)	12	6
Summary Offenses, all other	9	3

(continued)

Item	Units
Total number of suspects interviewed	Nil
Total number of briefs submitted (Indictable)	18
Total number of briefs submitted (Summary)	12
Coroner's Court Attended person hours	6 units per hour
Magistrates' Court Attended person hours	6 units per hour
Children's Court Attended person hours	6 units per hour
Country Courts person hours	6 units per hour
Supreme Courts person hours	6 units per hour
Prosecuting person hours	6 units per hour
Total number of courts attended by your staff	Nil
Total kilometres travelled (Metropolitan area)	Divide by 10 equals units
Total kilometres travelled (Country area)	Divide by 15 equals units
Total man hours at sporting events	6 units per hour
Total man hours at special events	6 units per hour
Total man hours on special patrols	6 units per hour
Files received	18 units
Correspondence book total	Nil
Property book total entries	1
Visits to dealers	2
Temporary duty by staff (days)	Nil
Temporary staff (days)	Nil
Departmental courses (weeks)	Nil
Sick Leave (days)	Nil
Long Service Leave (weeks)	Nil
Annual leave (weeks)	Nil
Military training (weeks)	Nil
Transfers working days	Nil
Overtime hours worked	Nil

METHOD OF CALCULATING AVERAGE
WORKLOAD AND EFFECTIVE STAFF

To calculate Average Workload and Effective Staff the following formulas are used:

$$\text{Average Workload} = \frac{\text{Total Workload}}{(\text{Effective Staff} \times \text{Ratio})}$$

and

$$\text{Effective Staff} = \text{Actual Staff} - \frac{(\text{Days Lost})}{(\text{Days per Man})}$$

'Ratio' is used to enable a comparison to be made of the quarterly average workload on a division with the yearly average workload. Both 'Ratio' and 'Days per Man' are taken from the attached tables. 'Days Lost' is made up of the sum of seven workload items which reduce the effective staff:

ANNUAL LEAVE	= 5 x (Weeks of annual leave - 7 x actual staff x Ratio)
TEMP DUTY	= Days of temporary duty by staff
SICK LEAVE	= Days of sick leave taken
TRANSFER DELAYS	= Days lost between transfers
DEPT COURSES	= 5 x (Weeks members attended Dept courses)
LONG SERVICE	= 5 x (Weeks long service leave taken)
ARMY TRAINING	= 5 x (Weeks military training)

minus the workload item which increases the effective staff.

TEMP STAFF	= Days of temporary staff.
------------	----------------------------

For a single quarter's workload, all the workload items used in the formula are those for the single quarter, and the values of 'RATIO' and 'DAYS PER MAN' are taken from the 'SINGLE QUARTER' table for the appropriate quarter.

For a year's workload (including a full year workload), all the items are the totals for the year to date, and 'RATIO' and 'DAYS PER MAN' are taken for the 'YEAR TO DATE' table for the appropriate quarter.

ANNEX E
VICTORIA POLICE C.I.B. WORKLOAD REPORT FOR SECOND QUARTER 1981

St Kilda
C.I.B. DIVISION DISTRICT " "

CRIME STATISTICS

STAFF	WORKLOAD SUMMARY	UNITS	WORKLOAD DETAILS	OFFENCE	INVESTIGATED BY DIVISION	CLEARED BY DIVISION	TOTAL OFFENCES REPORTED IN DIVISION	TOTAL OFFENCES CLEARED IN DIVISION
SENIOR SERGEANT 1	MAJOR CRIME			LOSS OF LIFE				
SERGEANT 3	AGAINST PERSON	636	17	RAPE	3	3	3	3
SNR. CONST. & CONST. 13	AGAINST PROPERTY	4859	937	SEX OFFENCES	17	9	24	16
TYPISTS	OTHER CRIME	1167	60	ABDUCTIONS	2	1	2	1
CLERKS	REPORTS & PROCESS			ROBBERY	18	4	19	5
	BRIEFS	792	46	ARSON	8	1	8	1
	FILES	1152	64	CRIMINAL DGE.	6		6	
TOTAL STAFF 17	PROPERTY BOOK	124	124	SERIOUS ASSAULT	8	2	9	3
TEMP. DUTY	KILOMETRES	2529	25290	UNLAWFUL ASSAULT	14	3	35	25
TEMP. STAFF	COURT TIME	3684	614	DECEPTION 1				
DEPARTMENTAL COURSES	SPORTING EVENTS			DECEPTION 2	29	20	29	14
SICK LEAVE	SPECIAL EVENTS			FORGE	21	22	21	22
LONG SERVICE LEAVE	S/HAND DEALERS	40	20	UTTER				
ANNUAL LEAVE	SPECIAL PATROLS	1440	240	BLACKMAIL				
MILITARY TRAINING	TOTAL SUSPECTS INTERVIEWED		65	SUPPLY DRUGS			8	8
TRANSFER DELAYS	TOTAL OVERTIME (DAYS)		22.5 days	POSSESS DRUGS			60	60
OVERTIME				USE DRUGS				
EFFECTIVE STAFF 14.82				ACC. BURGLARY				
				BURGLARY (FACTORY)	4	2	4	2
				BURGLARY (HOUSE)	274	17	276	19
				BURGLARY (SHOP)	47		49	2
				BURGLARY (OTHER)	58	5	67	12
				HANDLE:	3	3	6	6
				THEFT FROM M/VEHICLE	153	3	160	10
				THEFT (SHOPSTEAL)	6		51	45
				THEFT OF M/VEHICLE	134	6	139	9
				THEFT (BICYCLES)				
				THEFT (OTHER)	211	4	224	15
				FELONIES (SERIOUS IND.)				
				MISDEMEANOURS (IND.)	1		5	4
				SUMMARY	9	4	129	20
				TOTAL	1026	109	1334	302

INVESTIGATION WORKLOAD 6998 UNITS

OTHER WORKLOAD 9761 UNITS

TOTAL WORKLOAD THIS QUARTER 16759 UNITS AVERAGE THIS QUARTER 4536 UNITS

TOTAL WORKLOAD THIS QUARTER UNITS AVERAGE THIS QUARTER UNITS

Tables Required for Workload Calculations

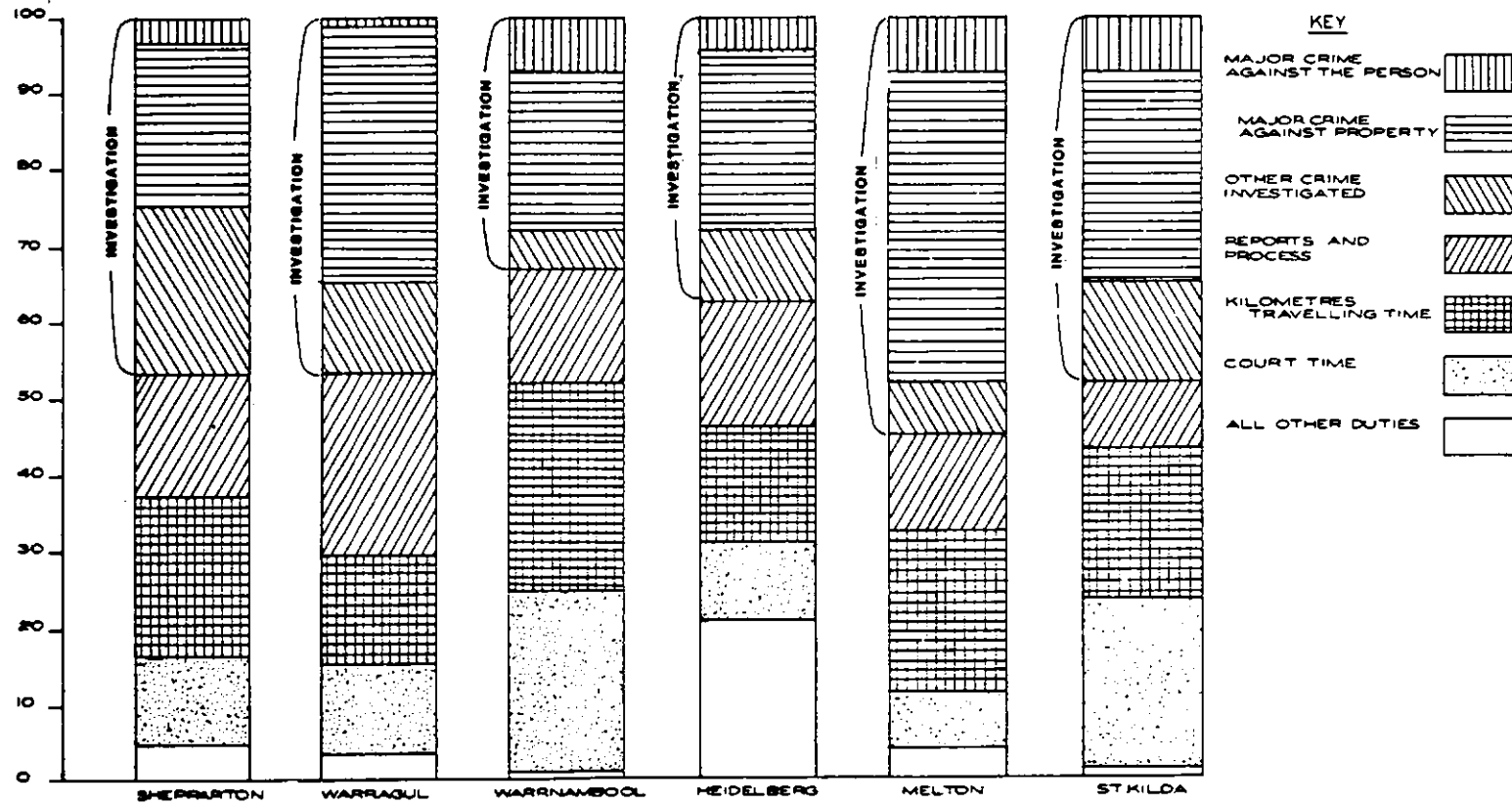
SINGLE QUARTER

QUARTER	RATIO		DAYS PER MAN	
	NORMAL YEAR	LEAP YEAR	NORMAL YEAR	LEAP YEAR
1	0.246575	0.248634	55.655577	56.297814
2	0.249315	0.248634	56.273972	56.297814
3	0.252055	0.251366	56.982367	56.916472
4	0.252055	0.251366	56.892367	56.916472

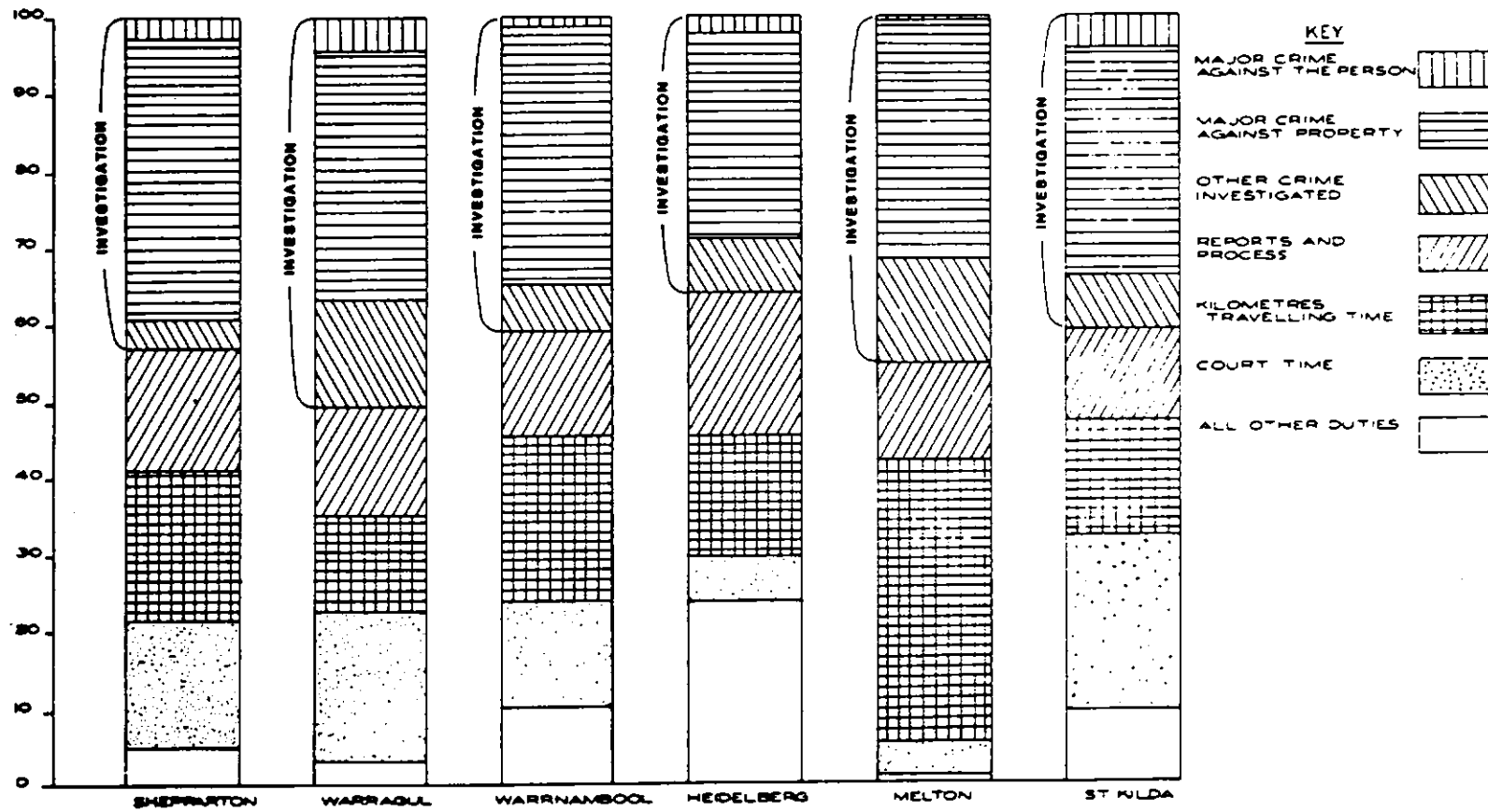
YEAR TO DATE

QUARTER	RATIO		DAYS PER MAN	
	NORMAL YEAR	LEAP YEAR	NORMAL YEAR	LEAP YEAR
1	0.246575	0.248634	55.655577	56.297814
2	0.495890	0.497268	111.929550	112.595628
3	0.747945	0.748634	168.821918	169.512100
4	1.0	1.0	225.714286	226.428571

ANNEX F
ANALYSIS OF FIRST QUARTER 1981
IN PERCENTAGE OF MEASURED TIME



ANNEX F
ANALYSIS OF SECOND QUARTER 1981
IN PERCENTAGE OF MEASURED TIME



ANNEX H

PAGE 2

C.I.B. WORK ANALYSIS

MONTH 19

DIVISION

ITEMS

					TOTAL NUMBER OF SUSPECTS INTERVIEWED
					TOTAL NUMBER OF BRIEFS SUBMITTED INDICTABLE
					TOTAL NUMBER OF BRIEFS SUBMITTED SUMMARY
					CORONERS COURTS ATTENDED MAN HOURS
					MAGISTRATES COURTS ATTENDED MAN HOURS
					CHILDREN'S COURTS ATTENDED MAN HOURS
					COUNTY COURTS ATTENDED MAN HOURS
					SUPREME COURTS ATTENDED MAN HOURS
					PROSECUTING MAN HOURS
					TOTAL NUMBER OF COURTS ATTENDED BY YOUR STAFF
					TOTAL KILOMETERS TRAVELLED
					TOTAL MAN HOURS AT SPORTING EVENTS
					TOTAL MAN HOURS AT SPECIAL EVENTS E.G. MOOMBA
					TOTAL MAN HOURS ON SPECIAL PATROLS
					FILES RECEIVED
					CORRESPONDENCE BOOK TOTAL
					PROPERTY BOOK TOTAL ENTRIES
					VISITS TO DEALERS
					TEMPORARY DUTY BY STAFF (DAYS)
					TEMPORARY STAFF (DAYS)
					DEPARTMENTAL COURSES (WEEKS)
					SICK LEAVE (DAYS)
					LONG SERVICE LEAVE (WEEKS)
					ANNUAL LEAVE (WEEKS)
					MILITARY TRAINING (WEEKS)
					TRANSFERS WORKING DAYS
					OVERTIME HOURS WORKED

ARTICLE NINE

THE DARKSIDE OF THE FORCE: PERSONNEL PROBLEMS IN
NEW ZEALAND POLICE AND THEIR SOLUTION

Graham Butterworth
Senior Research Officer
Police Association Of New Zealand

Introduction

New Zealand Police is a national police service with an establishment of 5,122 officers; actual strength at 31 March 1984 was 5,094.

New Zealand Police undertake the usual range of police duties with the exception of traffic control. Traffic laws are administered by Traffic Enforcement Officers under the control of the Ministry of Transport or a handful of local bodies who have not handed over their forces to the Ministry. Police do have delegated authority to enforce traffic laws but, usually, only invoke these powers if somebody is driving so recklessly as to create a public danger.

Since the 1950s New Zealand Police has grown rapidly in number, but unfortunately not evenly year by year. There have been two periods of rapid growth. The first was during the late 1950s when Police numbers grew from 1,658 in March 1955 to 2,269 in March 1958. The Annual Report for that year noted that the police had recruited nearly 995 officers in under three years.

Growth, based on a population formula, was steady throughout the 1960s and the reduction of the retirement age from 65 to 60 in 1959 further hastened rejuvenation of the police organisation.

Another surge of numbers occurred between 1972 and 1978 when effective strength rose from 3,302 to 4,700. At the height of the recruiting drive, in 1975, 626 men and women were recruited. Both these surges were important as they created demographic bulges within the Police organisation, although the earlier surge was somewhat flattened by a high resignation rate in the 1960s of between five and seven per cent. In comparison, the resignation rate for the last three years have been under three per cent and the very worst year in recent times - 1977 - only saw a resignation of 4.99 per cent.

Professionalisation of police

Coupled with this increase in strength was a conscious policy of improving professional training. In 1956, the Police Training School was established to train recruits and provide in-service training in administrative and operational police skills. A completely new training complex was provided in 1981 and the facility was upgraded to college status. The length of

the training period for recruits was increased from 14 to 24 weeks and, even after their training period, Constables are required to pass a number of work related units. There has been a gradual extension of requirements for promotion. New Sergeants, Senior Sergeants and Inspectors, are required to pass four three-hour examination papers as well as attend training courses. Two of the papers for the commissioned officers examination are set at university. Over the last few years the Police College has moved from being a mass training establishment for recruits to providing vocationally orientated training for police employees of all ranks. In 1983, 58 courses ranging from two days to 14 weeks for newly promoted Inspectors were provided for 1,390 officers. Most New Zealand police officers now have to attend at least one refresher course every three or four years at the College.

Since 1966, there has been a policy of encouraging members to seek tertiary qualifications. While numbers only increase slowly there is still marked progress. In 1984, 80 police officers held university qualifications and a further 109 were studying at university. Finally, since 1981 there has been a Diploma of Police Studies at Massey University offered on an extra mural basis. The first students graduated early in 1984.

Manpower deployment policies

The other major development in New Zealand policing occurred in the late 1960s. In October 1966, a national survey of police services was undertaken to 'examine closely the deployment of staff, review present and forecast future staff requirements, examine existing procedures in the light of present day requirements and overseas development...'.

As a result of extensive work the Commissioner was able to report to Parliament in 1969:

As a direct result of the recommendations of the survey team a new method of policing by 'E' (Enquiry), 'I' (Incident), 'C' (Crime) and 'H' (Highway) patrols is being introduced; work-load guides have been developed to ensure that staff are not overworked but are employed to capacity; civilians will be replacing policemen in certain clerical positions; the staffing formula of 1 policeman to 950 has been reduced to 1 to 920; more motor vehicles have been made available; accurate assessment of staff requirements has been made for every police station surveyed, and a forecast has been made of staff requirements up to 1986; plans have been formulated to give the best and most effective police service to the public in each area; the previous fragmented services rendered by many stations in city and urban areas have been replaced by centralised services and control so that the whole police effort in these areas is properly co-ordinated to provide the public with continuous effective service and protection; and new police station plans have been designed to meet the requirements of modern police methods of operation.

This is still basically the deployment system in effect for New Zealand Police.

This survey was part of a much greater drive for efficiency through centralisation and specialisation. While the traditional uniform/CIB dichotomy remained there was a significant number of other specialist police branches created. In particular, the Youth Aid, Crime Prevention and Law Related Education groups developed, the Police Dog Branch, Armed Defenders and Anti-Terrorist Squads, a Search and Rescue organisation, Crime Control and Team Policing units and a Legal Section were also established. All these bodies were created at various times during the 1960s and 1970s.

This process was completed in 1976 with the installation of a massive computer system to provide facilities for the police, justice and transport departments. This highly sophisticated system which, at the time, aroused real fears in the public mind of 'Big Brother' watching them has been integrated into the police control room system and telecommunications system to such an extent that it would now be very difficult for police to function without it. Like all such systems it has its dangers and there is now some concern that police management may have had its horizons unduely narrowed by the system and is tending to treat what cannot be measured by the computer system as irrelevant.

Police conditions of service

Because the most important resource of a police organisation is its personnel, their conditions of service are crucial to the police enterprise. The New Zealand Police Association and Police Officers Guild achieved some important concessions in the 1950s and 1960s, but there was a distinct lull from 1969 to 1976. Progress was resumed in 1976 starting with the successful 9.9 per cent special circumstances claim, then a review of allowances in 1977 and 1978, an increase in margins in 1979 and an hours-of-work survey in 1980 which resulted in substantial gains in loadings of police salaries. These gains are well ahead of those achieved by most other public servants and made police salaries highly attractive. Another achievement was an hours-of-work agreement negotiated in 1982 that provided a fair balance between the needs of police to be available for operational demands but protected serving officers against unreasonable demands on their time by the police administration. In 1979, police service organisations also negotiated a government subsidised insurance scheme that provided a lump sum for death or for disability resulting in loss of employment in the police.

This was in addition to anything available under accident compensation. The result of all this is that police and their spouses are now insured for \$65,000 through the New Zealand Police Staff Benevolent and Welfare Fund, for \$20,000.

Apart from normal industrial services provided by the Police Association, the Association and its two allied organisations, the Welfare Fund and the Credit Union, offer a wide range of support services to police personnel. There is a

conscious policy to try and develop these services to assist members and their families meet the demands of modern policing.

Major objectives of both the Association and the Guild are to achieve early retirement at the age of 55 without penalty, and to give serving police the right to optionally disengage before age 50, taking with them a lump sum based on their own accumulated superannuation contributions and government contributions. Service organisation would also like to utilise members' contributions to the superannuation fund as a basis for a long term mortgage fund.

In summary, New Zealand police employees enjoy reasonable community standing, and their salaries are attractive. The consequence of these conditions is that there has been no difficulty in recruiting a better than average standard of recruit in terms of education and physical fitness. Nowadays most recruits possess university entrance and some have already gained university units.

This is the positive side and in terms of objectives both management and service organisations set themselves in the 1950s and 1960s New Zealand now has a highly professional and technologically superior police.

Changing policing environment

Unfortunately, from the community's point of view these gains have not shown results in terms of a lowering of the offence rate and higher clearance rates of reported crime. In 1966, there were 135,374 reported offences. By 1983, the reported total was 383,841. The clearance rate had fallen from 57.2 per cent in 1966 to 48.4 per cent in 1983. I do not attach very great regard to such figures, but it does indicate the magnitude of the problem that New Zealand police face.

Not unexpectedly, this growth of crime has been accompanied by a reduction in the trust and confidence placed by New Zealanders in their police. In 1975, 63 per cent had confidence in the police. In 1982, the level had fallen to 55 per cent. Admittedly in comparative terms this is still not bad, only South Australian (62 per cent) and West Australian (57 per cent) police were ahead of New Zealand at that time. Moreover, it was important to note that police practitioners were still the second most trusted group in the community; only doctors at 59 per cent enjoyed a higher degree of public confidence.

Regrettably, it must be accepted that police policies do not mesh with changing economic and social trends. Because of limitations of space it is possible only to briefly summarise the mixture of changes that is producing such adverse crime figures and is generally making policing a much more difficult profession.

The first is a general downturn in the New Zealand economy which has been marked by severe inflation and acute balance of payments problems since 1974. Over recent years this condition has been compounded by high unemployment, particularly for school leavers.

Next is a long term demographic change. In 1951, New Zealand was primarily a white, British oriented society. In the 1980s, the proportion of native born white New Zealanders and those of British stock has shrunk markedly. In particular, the percentage of Maoris has grown to just under 9 per cent and Pacific Islanders constitute 2.8 per cent of the population. Even more important is the fact of intermarriage which is rapidly increasing ethnic diversity and therefore different cultural attitudes. Police have to learn to communicate with these new groups and understand their life styles.

New Zealand in the 1950s was not only relatively simple in its economic and social structure, but it was very homogenous in its view points. Since then, a new educated generation has come of age. This generation has a greater articulateness and a more questioning attitude. There is less willingness to accept established authority and greater insistence on its accountability and the protection of the rights of the individual. The role of the media also responds to and develops these attitudes.

Since the early 1960s, New Zealand has also its own active protest movement, encompassing environmental, peace and women's issues. As must be expected, given the ethnic composition and the history of race relations in New Zealand, Maori protest groups and an anti-apartheid movement are very powerful.

There has also been marked change in attitudes toward liquor. Ten o'clock closing was introduced by referendum in 1967, the drinking age was lowered to 20 in 1969 and, in 1977, licences for ancillary liquor outlets were liberalised. It is estimated that 83 per cent of New Zealanders are regular drinkers and 10 per cent of New Zealanders are problem drinkers, involving four others in their problem either at home or work place, assaults, fighting, robbery and domestic disputes all too often involve liquor.

One important feature in New Zealand is the number and violence of Maori gangs. These have posed a long term problem for police since the 1970s and the recession which has created high rates of Maori and Pacific Islander unemployment has aggravated such problems.

Style of policing

While the changes outlined above would have created major problems for police, anyway, there is a growing concern amongst rank and file police officers that present styles of policing may be ineffective. The policy of centralisation of police services and increasing mobility was intended to increase police ability to react faster to any complaint from the public. In practice, it is thought the result in larger centres has been to isolate police from the communities they serve.

Sir Graham Latimer, Chairman of the New Zealand Maori Council, stated a Maori viewpoint to the Police Personnel Policy Committee on Recruitment and Deployment:

There was dissatisfaction within the Maori Community because they felt themselves too often to be the victims of anonymous reactive policing. This was one reason why there was resentment against the police, a resentment that applies equally to Maori and pakeha police who are applying the same techniques. In dealing with Maori offenders, more use should be made by police of informal Maori lores and sanctions.

In commenting on Maori policemen Sir Graham said that Maoris who were recruited into the Police saw themselves as agents of the pakeha law rather than, as he put it, the Maori lore and, as a result, may not be any more effective in dealing with Maori offenders than pakeha police. The policy of returning recruits to their original localities may not necessarily enhance effective policing of Maori communities because while they have great powers they do not necessarily have any standing in Maori terms within that community.

There is also evidence to suggest present styles of policing, and the hostility and confrontation that often results, puts great pressure on police. The most obvious way is the number of assaults on police. Most front line policemen can routinely expect to be assaulted at least once a year and many can expect an injury of varying degrees of severity at some point in their career. There are both physical and mental limitations to the amount of time anybody can spend in the various positions that involve confrontation. Under this pressure some become cynical and disillusioned, others redefine their jobs to avoid pressure and still others, seek sheltered positions. More constructively there has been a demand for retirement at 55 years of age, with opportunity to disengage even earlier.

In this paper I do not intend to discuss the possibilities of modifying the style of policing I have described. Clearly, there is a demand for more preventive work and for what the public sees as 'community policing'. Any reforms in New Zealand Police must also include reforms in this direction. But, it is also clear a better personnel policy is needed to go hand in hand with the professionalisation and deployment policies evolved over the last two decades.

The dark side of the force

Significantly enough, in 1969 it became Police Association policy to press for early retirement. From 1978, it became a major policy issue. A formal claim was submitted, in June 1981, and since then early retirement and optional disengagement has taken priority above all other issues. Dr Moodie, the National Secretary and myself as Senior Research Officer, became personally committed during the late 1970s to the need for some mechanism for an honourable disengagement when we saw the desperation of older police officers to get into 9 am to 5 pm non-police positions. We discovered in smaller stations there was literally a line of succession to sedentary jobs. Through the Welfare Fund we saw

tragic cases of individual and family breakdown as the result of injury and emotional pressure. Professionally, the 1980 survey of our work concerned us because it showed significant numbers of police tucked away in non-operational day jobs, whose presence diluted the salary of those doing police work. There was an attitude that you served your turn in the police sections doing front line police work and then you were entitled to a 9 to 5 job and to enjoy a sort of semi-retirement at some point in one's forties.

The police administration was also concerned at what it foresaw as a major ageing problem as a result of a fall in resignations and the huge intakes of the 1970s. Practically, police administrators were finding it ever more difficult to accommodate those with major injuries in sedentary positions. There was also anxiety about the number of staff not on the sedentary list but who had suffered some injury or illness or who were unreliable in other ways.

From the government side there was concern at the growing expense of the police and the seemingly insatiable demands for additional officers. The consequence of the successes achieved in salaries and conditions of service was that the control departments of Treasury, State Services Commission and Audit became insistent that police salaries should only be paid for police work and that, wherever possible, civilians should be used to replace police for clerical and labour positions.

I do not propose to deal with the intricacies of the negotiations and the various issues that highlighted the problems all three groups were facing between 1980 and the present. However, even by early 1982 it was clear such problems had gone beyond any imposed solution and that they had to be objectively evaluated and solutions negotiated.

Hickson Report

The end result was that Cabinet set up a Committee chaired by Mr W Hickson, a former Director General of the Post Office, with representatives of the State Services Commission and Police. This Committee examined the possibilities of civilianisation of suitable positions to release sworn staff for operational duty and carried out a functional review of the Police administrative infrastructure. The Committee, when it reported back in August 1982, accepted that there were police positions that should be civilianised, but also identified a major problem of 'burnt out Police' and reported:

With the retiring age for policemen set at 60 years, it is apparent that the effectiveness for active work wanes with advancing age. While the transition will vary from person to person it is reasonable to assume that beyond the age of say, 40, the usefulness in this regard becomes limited. This is no fault of the individual. There is evidence to suggest that in many cases the age is lower than 40.

This is because, apart from physical deterioration, policemen are being subjected to increasing psychological stresses which adversely affect them (6.4.7).

The Hickson Report went on to recommend:

Consideration be given to the introduction of some form of term engagement system which requires the bulk of police staff to relinquish office at about the age of 40 and which allows them optional disengagement before that age in an honourable way (6.4.17).

Unfortunately, the Hickson Report also advanced the argument that the bulk of the police service was getting older, and there would soon be an unacceptable number of members in the older age group. However, a review of their statistics by the Department of Statistics, seriously modified these conclusions and, therefore, cast doubt on its other findings.

Both the New Zealand Police Association and the police administration also had considerable doubts about whether the criterion of age was the most important factor causing serving policemen to lose fitness. There were too many examples of men who had been able to serve frontline positions with distinction until their late 40s or even into their early 50s. These personnel could be counterbalanced against young recruits who, after some months of undercover work, were psychologically unfit to be police officers again. Because of these doubts, the Hickson Committee's tentative solution to term engagement was thought unsatisfactory. It was also felt that there was a need for the police service to mirror the community and it would be undesirable for the vast bulk of police officers to be in their 20s and early 30s with only a handful of older senior administrators. Administratively, it seemed undesirable that elderly administrators supervise young police officers.

It was also felt that while the Hickson Committee had identified the problems of 'sheltering' and police employees performing essentially civilian tasks, it had not really pursued the reasons for these phenomena and their implications for the police service.

From the Association's viewpoint, we were in a 'catch 22' situation, in that as our original claim for early retirement, submitted in June 1981, was being postponed until a review of the general Government Superannuation Fund was complete. Dr Moodie's viewpoint was that this was tackling the problem in the wrong way. He believed the first priority was to decide on a desirable personnel policy and then develop appropriate exit mechanisms and superannuation policies. As a result of his pressure on the government, it was finally conceded that there had to be a review of personnel policy and a committee was eventually set up. This committee was a committee of individuals; two each from the police administration, State Services Committee and service organisations with no power to bind their organisations.

Establishing guidelines

A major objective of the Personnel Policy Committee was to test and extend certain aspects of the Hickson report, and to identify the critical personnel problems in the police organisation. While it was felt that gathering still more data would not necessarily contribute to the solution of those problems, three important pieces of research were undertaken:

- * a detailed survey was made of members in the Palmerston North District as being reasonably representative of a number of other police districts
- * a survey of medical fitness was undertaken using a random sample of 1,000 police files
- * interviews were conducted with a selection of District Commanders to query how senior district management saw police personnel problems. This undertaking ultimately included a request to all District Commanders to estimate the numbers of members not on the sedentary list but whom they would not confidently commit to frontline duties (4.13).

From this research emerged the viewpoint that 'police personnel problems are structural as well as demographic' (5.3).

This research produced the critical finding that while formerly New Zealand Police had an establishment of 5,122, officers, the number of fully fit staff actually available for operational duties was 4,424, Table 9.1. This operational capacity was further diluted by the presence of other police employees who were performing civilian jobs and who were not routinely available to reinforce frontline colleagues. At the end of the research exercise, all members of the Committee were deeply conscious of the burden imposed on frontline police officers because of bad deployment of personnel and the level of unfit personnel being sheltered within the organisation.

This was particularly noticeable in the Palmerston North survey where 14 members revealed in the survey that they had serious or potentially serious forms of health impairment likely to affect their functional capabilities. Only four of these were, however, on the sedentary list.

The seriousness and extent of the problem was further indicated by the sample of medical files which found 19 per cent of all police personnel had some form of medical impairment. However, care had to be taken in the interpretation of this figure because there was a wide range of conditions noted by the Chief Medical Officer, some of which did not necessarily impair the ability of police members to undertake a full range of duties and some of which were remediable.

District Commanders interviewed by the Committee acknowledged that they faced major problems with manpower deployment and a follow up survey of all District Commanders

TABLE 9.1

ESTIMATE OF FULLY FIT STAFF AVAILABLE AT ANY ONE TIME FOR FULL
OPERATIONAL DUTIES (as at 30 Sep 83)

item	figure
Authorised establishment	5,122
Less: unfilled positions	42
Actual numbers employed	5,080
Less:	
Regulation 24 members	172
Recruits under training (approx at any one time)	97
Sedentary members #	144
District Commanders estimate of members in whom they lack confidence in deploying operationally { (in addition to those on the sedentary duties list) *	243
Subtotal	656
Balance available for operational duties	4,424 =====

Of the 144 sedentary members, 90 occupy positions classified by the Committee as primary; 44 occupy positions classified as auxiliary; and ten occupy positions classified as civilian.

{ the Palmerston North survey revealed 14 police members with some form of serious or potentially serious health impairment:

12 occupied positions classified by the Committee as primary.

2 occupied positions classified by the Committee as auxiliary.

* The 243 police officers identified by District Commanders (over and above those on the sedentary list) are deployed across the entire range of police duties.

produced the figure of 243 men who they could not confidently commit to frontline duties. This figure, coupled with the 144 police officers on the sedentary list produced a disquieting number of identified unfit personnel - 7.5 per cent of authorised police strength. Noting the views of the District Commanders, the growth of the sedentary list from 50 in 1978 to 144 in August 1983, as well as the evidence of fewer resignations and an ageing service, the Committee concluded the problem is worsening.

It was also noted with disquiet this problem is having a detrimental effect on staff deployment - this was indicated by the fact that the great bulk of members on the sedentary list are in frontline positions requiring fit and active men.

The Committee concluded that the personnel structure of police has become distorted so that it no longer adequately reflects operational needs. Moreover, personnel policy did not take into account the reality that there were only a limited number of positions that could be filled by other than fit, active and motivated personnel.

Solutions to the employment problem

The Committee, therefore, saw as its goal the need to eliminate some of these uses by formulating personnel policies which clearly and consistently meet the operational needs of police.

The solution was to recommend the establishment of a personnel structure based on the classification of all positions in the police service into primary, auxiliary and civilian functions.

Primary (1A) positions were those requiring fit and trained sworn staff, eg, sectional staff, CIB, one and two officer stations. These positions totalled 3,761; Primary 1B positions also require similar qualifications which by the nature of the duties involved (mostly non-shift work), provide a measure of rest and relief for primary police officers. These positions totalled 875. The view of the Committee was that it was desirable to rotate those in Primary category between 1A and 1B to allow a measure of rest and recuperation.

Auxiliary positions, which may require the application of skills, knowledge, experience or legal discretions of a member of the police, or which by their nature, require that personnel be under police discipline.

These positions would require standards of physical and mental health and psychological fitness which, whilst not being sufficient to enable members to sustain full operational efficiency, nevertheless are sufficient to enable members to be called upon from time to time to give backup support to operational members; 203 positions were identified in this category.

Civilian positions which do not require the application of the skills, knowledge, experience or legal discretions of a member of the police and over which police discipline does not need to be exercised. There were 241 current police positions falling into this category.

The Committee incidentally noted 'it is important to recognise this classification is not intended to state what the operational strength of the police should be, rather it is a functional analysis of existing positions'.

The Committee in its report did not deliberately classify individual positions because it believed such an exercise needed to be left until after the formal adoption of the basic principles by the service organisations and the police administration. To have categorised such positions at that stage would have unduly alarmed serving police officers and would have violated the principle that nothing should be done that might bind the organisation involved.

The Committee also wanted the following practices abolished because they were inconsistent with the intention of the Police Act 1958 and its Regulations:

- * special appointments under Regulation 24, Police Regulations 1969, to non police functions, eg, painters and paperhangers. This regulation gives the Commissioner of Police power to attest people as police officers without obliging them to meet medical standards or requiring them to undergo training at the Police College
- * employment of general duties personnel to non-police functions, eg, shift drivers, CIB, taxi driver, stores-accounts clerk
- * sheltering personnel whether for medical or other reasons
- * utilisation on general duties of unfit personnel.

The Committee also considered the current practice of attesting recruits prior to the completion of training and their inclusion in the total police establishment gives a false picture of police strength and should be reconsidered. Over the years New Zealand Police has always been anything from 1-3 per cent under strength in the field of active policing because of the practice of counting recruits as if they were fully trained police already employed in the field.

Appropriate fitness standards for police personnel

The above recommendations call for a major restructuring of the police service. The ultimate aim is to ensure that once primary police positions are identified they will be filled only by fit, active and motivated personnel. To achieve this end the Committee made three recommendations:

- * standards of medical, physical and psychological fitness relative to age and the operational requirements of police be implemented (rec 4.16.1)
- * personnel structures and policies be developed to ensure members are fully fit for police duties, and that they are not deployed in duties for which they were not employed or are incapable of performing (rec 4.16.2)
- * appropriate exit mechanisms be developed to cope with staff displacement consequent upon these proposed changes (rec 4.16.3).

The Palmerston North survey not only helped identify the problem of unfit police, it highlighted the additional burden incurred by presently fit members who must carry out an increasingly difficult role. In fact, the Palmerston North survey identified an 'at risk' group in the 30 - 40 age bracket who were put under pressure by:

- * the unavailability of rest positions because of the sheltering of operational staff, especially in the post 40 year age group, and because of those fit and active staff performing non-operational duties
- * having to carry excessive operational burden as a result of both the sheltering and the presence of impaired staff in operational positions.

Those District Commanders interviewed confirmed they could see in their Districts staff under stress because under the present police structure it was not possible to adequately relieve front line staff or move them into less rigorous positions for the purpose of rest and recuperation.

It is clear there has to be a better balance between the needs of the frontline staff and the unfit and older members of the police! For this reason the Committee agreed better exit and health maintenance mechanisms are needed.

It still remains the intention of the police administration, the Police Association and the Police Officers' Guild, to insist that all police entrants should have the opportunity to serve until they are aged 55. But, the reality is a significant number of police officers will have a shorter working life because of the loss of fitness that can occur at any time and for various reasons. The Personnel Policy Committee Report was therefore emphatic that appropriate employment termination and compensation policies be agreed upon and permanently established. The Committee was, of course, precluded from discussing the particulars of such policies, but both the police administration and service organisations want to provide for optional disengagement prior to age 50 by means of a Rehabilitation Fund into which member and government place a fixed percentage of salary. Anyone resigning from the police organisation because of lost fitness in his or her 20s, 30s or 40s would be entitled to this lump sum. Between ages 50 and 55 there should be some ability to retire medically with a pension.

Maintenance of fitness

The original terms of reference of the Committee referred to the need to sustain and promote optimal police health and operational efficiency. While the police administration and the service organisations already have a proud record in the welfare and operational fields such policies as are outlined in this paper demand an even more active role by the administration in providing facilities designed to alleviate strain and so extend the working life of police personnel generally.

The Committee devoted a whole chapter to these problems. Its solutions included recommending the appointment of a psychologist, the appointment of welfare officers properly trained in social work, a re-examination of rosters to provide proper rest and greater ability for a member to be with his family, improved leave and assistance with home ownership.

Conclusion

Space precludes me from dealing with some other recommendations concerning the recruitment and training of staff and areas of logistical support.

The New Zealand government has essentially accepted the principles of the Police Personnel Policy Committee and has committed itself to developing suitable exit mechanisms to allow police officers unable to effectively carry out their full duties 'to leave the police in a manner which will ensure that they are not disadvantaged'.

Officials have been instructed to develop detailed proposals for a new police employment structure based upon:

- * basic fitness standards
- * provision for retirement from the police service before age 60
- * appropriate superannuation benefits
- * provisions for redeployment or compensation of staff who lose their fitness
- * restructured police pay scale.

Inevitably this is a progress report on the implementation of the Committee's Report and there will be changes as negotiations proceed. However, there is little doubt the New Zealand Police is working toward a personnel policy that will be as modern as the training and deployment structures that preceded them.

ARTICLE TEN

BASIS FOR A POLICE INDUSTRIAL PLAN

Dan Brophy
Secretary
Police Association of South Australia

For at least the past two years, the South Australian Police Association has endeavoured to devise a system that would determine appropriate remuneration levels for the various specialists employed by South Australian Police. Criticism of the present system is based on the perception of many members that it is arbitrary, illogical, and does not reflect their true worth.

The South Australia Police employs a considerable number of people who are in receipt of specialist allowances. The name of this allowance, to some degree, obscures the real problem. At the moment allowances are paid to a range of people, at one end they have tertiary qualifications, at the other there is no discernable basis for the payment. In addition, whilst some allowances are paid for a measurable degree of skill, other allowances are paid for expenses incurred, and some to compensate for poor work conditions. Therefore, part of the problem has been a failure to identify those who should receive skill allowances; those who should receive expense allowances, and those who should receive some other form of payment.

The search for a solution led to an examination of other police awards. To a large degree they reflect the same position as exists in South Australia. The only exception being the system adopted in Victoria; a complex, extensive system has been developed in that State for the payment of specialist allowances. The Victorian approach has merit in that identification of those possessing specialist skills has been achieved. However, the system provides no discernable and reasoned basis for these payments. It seems to be based more on subjective views rather than quantifiable concepts.

In August 1982, South Australia Police submitted a proposal to the Association intended to introduce a new system for the payment of specialists, this was known as the Classified Salary Proposal. The proposal utilised Hay evaluation techniques and was an attempt, for the first time, to quantify skill components. It was also suggested these components should be incorporated in the base rate of pay. Discussion on this proposal was short lived, it was rejected by the Police Association for a number of reasons; the principle being that it introduced the concept that rank was not necessarily related to pay levels.

Following the rejection of this proposal the search was again taken up for a new system, but no solution was forthcoming. One factor that did emerge was that any review or variation of present specialist payment structures could not take place in isolation. It was apparent that if any radical change was to be successful, changes would also have to be made in a number of

other areas such as promotion and selection. Further investigation revealed the effect of change would be even more extensive than first thought, extending to: (1) training and education, (2) organisational structures, and (3) retirement schemes. In fact there was an impact on every facet of the police organisation.

In light of this realisation it became evident that it would be necessary to develop a plan that incorporated in its approach a review of the total industrial element of the police department. It also became clear changes to individual areas could not be considered in isolation until a total overall plan and strategy had been enunciated. This paper therefore, attempts to set out in a preliminary way the various elements to be examined and how they interact.

The problem stated

As already mentioned any significant change to the manner in which specialists are rewarded would have significant impacts on the rest of the organisation. Due to the extent of these related areas, it has not been possible to more than briefly identify the more crucial. For the purpose of discussion the following elements have been identified:

- * salary and wage administration
- * promotion and selection
- * training and education
- * retirement philosophies
- * organisational structures.

Other areas such as: (1) health and welfare, (2) specific award, (3) general order, and (4) administrative instruction changes, have not been considered.

Salary and wage administration

Under the present system the basis for determining levels of remuneration is designated rank, onto which has been grafted a complex system of providing additional payments. The initial purpose of providing extra payment was to recognise that some members of the force required higher pay levels in recognition of their skill, mainly in non-operational areas. This requirement was perceived as arising from two factors; first that there was some requirement to reflect market rates; and second, limits imposed on the Commissioner of Police with regard to the number of ranks permissible within the force. This system has been extended to cover graduate entry officers as well as the general area of specialists. In one location, personnel derive additional payments from more than one system.

As a consequence of the link between rank and remuneration levels, operational police are perceived by some as losing out in the competition for rank positions. It is argued rank proliferate in nonoperational areas. The foregoing is a natural consequence of the present system. To compensate for this apparent distortion of relativities, operational police are now demanding that they receive a specialist allowance, one they believe should be paid in recognition of their unique role. It is claimed they have now become specialists in their own right. The logical conclusion of such a process would be to lead inevitably to an organisation consisting entirely of specialists.

This incongruous situation, however, has within it the seeds of solution. It points out the need to look at the value of the job performed rather than the individual who carries out the task. One need look no further than Victoria to see the value of allowances paid to officers performing almost identical tasks is completely unrelated. This view is reinforced when a similar comparison is made with New Zealand. The sheer range of allowances paid for the same position suggests something is lacking.

Following a period of rapid expansion in the 1970s, the force now faces a long period of rank stagnation. Expectations of many, born in youth, are now withering in age. Frustration and dissatisfaction are the end result. This view, whilst not endemic, is shared by a significant number of police officers who see little chance of promotion over the next decade. Their attitude is further exacerbated by the realisation that future wages will also be limited because of the rank relationship.

Thus, it can be appreciated that specialist allowances and general wages provide fertile grounds for discontent when one commences to discuss relativities and advocate change. Any review in this area must therefore not be piecemeal; it must address all factors.

Promotion and selection

Personnel theory suggests promotion and selection policies are aimed at promoting organisational objectives by ensuring the right person is in the right place at the right time. A key to the application of these policies is a statement of the goals and objectives of the organisation.

Private industry has long recognised intuitively the need for trained personnel, success in the market place being the final arbiter. The private sector also recognises that quality and type of employees required changes from time to time. To survive, industry recognises the need to plan. An examination of any successful, dynamic, organisation will reveal a unique form of homeostasis involving elements of planning, selection and promotion.

Promotion, to police officers, means promotion in rank, it also means money, status, recognition and advancement. Selection

by definition leads to promotion. Of all the functions of management, this process alone causes most conflict and dissatisfaction. A number of candidates invariably seek promotion, only one will be selected. Any resulting argument quite often degenerates into a conflict of epic proportion involving a number of aspiring candidates, the department, the Association, various members of the legal fraternity and sometimes the Industrial Court. The result may be ambiguous, the 'wrong' person may be successful, but the costs will be significant.

Due to the pay aspect of promotion, selection is more hotly contested than would be the case if an increase in money was not involved. Contrary to the beliefs of behavioural scientists, money is a great motivator amongst police. Access to higher pay levels via promotion also encourages personnel to change functions within the force. This practice often leads to dissatisfaction in the other functional area, someone from within not being promoted. In addition, an under utilisation of skills may result.

If one deliberately set out to design a system that would promote conflict in the work place, one would be hard pressed to beat the procedures existing in some forces. The potential for conflict will always exist, but its effects can be minimised by examining required objectives and then reviewing their application.

As a starting point we should ask, why promote? A full debate of this question is not possible here, but consider the following: money, status, recognition and advancement can be provided in other ways, the authority to command others cannot. To promote for the purpose of command is compatible with police philosophy, to promote for the sole purpose of providing more pay is no longer acceptable.

Conflict will be reduced if selection procedures identify the best applicant for a position, either by promotion or transfer and is seen as unbiased by the applicants. This suggests management must establish clear and acceptable objectives, procedures, position descriptions and job specifications. In addition, management must provide adequate appeal facilities. Not only must justice be done, it must be seen to be done! The proposition also implies that management must plan for the future and communicate such plans to employees.

Training and education

The need for training has been long recognised by police administrators. Unfortunately the twin concept of training, education, has until recently been sadly neglected. This is not surprising. Some senior administrators see little value in better educated junior officers who speak the language of academics. Senior officers, like some senior NCOs, regard experience and proven ability superior to untested theories and untried men. It is important, therefore, that an all embracing ongoing education program be introduced to counteract this attitude. Where does the realm of training end and education begin? The fact of the matter

is that there is no clear division, everyone from cadet to commissioner is being continuously trained and educated, it is only a question of degree.

The lateral entry of specialists has caused morale and pay problems, as well as some disruption within the rank structure. In addition, important administrative and other functions have passed into the hands of public servants. Such a state of affairs would not be tolerated in private enterprise. The police administration now shares finance, personnel and industrial functions in varying degrees with outside bodies. Unless this trend is reversed, police may devolve to servants of an all embracing justice administration system.

Enlightened administrators encourage and promote the attainment of higher education. To some, it is seen as a continuous process. Unfortunately, this attitude is fragmented and, moreover, the problem is further exacerbated by a lack of agreement as to the order of priorities. One further matter under this topic, is that of career development and related counselling. Unless emphasis is placed on this service, and management recognises the need for long term planning, many training and education programs will fail to realise their potential.

Retirement

Why are police pushing for early retirement options? Apart from the general trend of society in this direction, police are further motivated by the need to escape the increasing stress of their occupation. Stress and its effect on personalities and the impaired ability of people who work under stress are well known. The effects on family and immediate company are a sad indictment of the state of today's society. Apart from the normal stress of life, police officers suffer from other sources, such as role conflict and uncertainty, conditions of work, dangerous duties, style of policing, isolation, complaints about conduct and housing.

Hours of work are a major problem, shift work and week day leave means that normal activities of a family are almost ruled out. Due to the cyclic nature of police work, leave during holiday periods is often not allowed. Domestic inconvenience may set up stress within the family and the police officer, who is exposed to stress at home may react in such a way that his dealing with members of the public leads to complaints being made against him. Whether policing today is more dangerous than a century ago may be a matter of academic argument. What is not, is that police officers believe it to be. Frontline policing is becoming more demanding, both mentally and physically, older staff with an awareness of the inability to cope with these demands tend to seek sheltered positions, despite the fact that many of them are simply not suited to clerical type duties.

The effects of stress are not confined to frontline police officers, commissioned officers and NCOs also suffer from this

insidious disease. Who should pay police to retire early? Before this question is answered we must determine the level of benefits the officer should enjoy. A scheme that provided lower benefits for early retirees would be unsuitable. The chances of obtaining supplementary income are low today and will be zero in the future. Benefits paid must allow the superannuated officer to live with dignity.

The costs of early retirement for police should be borne by society and officers themselves. The community has a continuing debt to its protectors, a fact recognised in other countries. Consequently, it should bear the lion's share of the cost. Younger police forces are cheaper to run, workers compensation costs are reduced, effectiveness and efficiency improved. Therefore, society has an obligation to pay. Individual officers will also benefit. Apart from early retirement on full benefits, promotion will be accelerated, higher levels of income will be earned earlier and morale will be improved. These officers should also pay their share of the cost.

Organisational structure

Most police administrative structures can at best be described as dinosaurs. They represent the last vestige of a bygone age when police were organised along military lines. This philosophy continues today. It is evidenced by uniforms, codes of conduct, regulations and discipline. The present hierachial organisational design fails to reflect the multitude of functions and the diversity of disciplines modern police forces employ today. Military organisations have retained much of their earlier function, police forces have not.

Many would argue that such an attack on police administrators is unwarranted and would point to the high levels of successful policing within Australasia generally in support of their view. Such observations show a complete lack of understanding of the organic nature of modern police forces. Since time immemorial, administrators have attempted to fit within one organisational structure a number of different functions and substructures. For a while this straitjacket approach worked, but it is failing today.

Early police forces were almost entirely devoted to the maintenance of law and order. Today's police force is different. Over half its employees are engaged in providing support for frontline officers. This support section contains a wide range of specialists and academics whose expectations and career needs are different to their on-the-street counterparts. Even within those engaged in policing activities there is a widening range of functions. Today everyone wants to be a specialist. No one wants to be a generalist.

A close look at a modern police force reveals at least four different organisations; crime, administration, research, and support. Of these four, the crime organisation is the most highly developed and lends itself to the military style command

structure. The other suborganisations require entirely different structures, pay scales, career paths and operational techniques. They certainly do not need the rank/discipline structure necessary in the crime function. Obviously there is, and will continue to be, considerable interaction between these groups with the crime function assuming the primary role, however, the replication of a common organisation in these other areas will no longer work effectively.

A Proposal

A solution to the problems discussed must inevitably lead to major restructuring of the organisational environment of police. In order to develop a solution, the elements identified earlier will now be discussed separately and then collectively.

Salary and wage administration

The bone of contention between the Police Association and South Australia Police in respect of the classified salary proposal must now be disposed of. The parties must agree that rank and salary only have a tenuous relationship. More specifically, rank should only be one of many factors considered when salaries applicable to positions within the force. Apart from the foregoing, it is also necessary to agree that people of equal rank will receive different rates of pay because of the differing tasks they perform. This leads to the principle that positional factors should be the prime determinant in setting pay rates. In essence, it will be positions, not persons, that determines levels of remuneration; subject to a number of qualifications.

It is important, as a first step, to develop a system of job evaluation that considers intrinsic as well as extrinsic variables so as to also recognise individuals, may well bring experience to bear, in addition to that required specifically by the job. To do this, it will be necessary to develop a concept similar to that proposed by Hay, and extend it to embrace a number of factors not yet clearly identified.

In order to promote debate and analysis the following factors should be considered when determining the value of the job and the amount to be paid to a person for doing that job. These factors are:

- * the Constable function
- * service
- * skill
- * responsibility

Constable function:

Every serving police officer should receive the same basic

pay component in recognition of his or her Constable function. This does not diminish or increase with rank or service, it is unique to police. A civilian employee of the Commissioner of Police would receive a comparable element derived from his or her vocation.

Service:

Recognition should be given to service within the department. A scale of equal annual increments should be introduced for all employees, regardless of whether they are sworn or civilian personnel. The importance and number of variations to this concept will be appreciated when other factors such as promotion, selection, and training and education are considered.

Skill:

A considerable amount of research and a formidable body of literature exists on this topic. Suffice to say the Hay system should be utilised to determine the skill component of every position within the department. As a threshold matter, it will be necessary to define what is meant by skill. To this end, it is suggested it embrace additional police and specialist knowledge in the widest context. In addition, experience must also be considered.

Responsibility:

This element is concerned with the responsibility of handling personnel and does not necessarily include a responsibility for resources. Perhaps another term can be used, ie, authority. However, this approach may be confused with the historical nexus with rank. In any event, it will be important that this element is defined and will exclude any of the components considered when evaluating skill. The objective of this component will be to assign appropriate ranks to positions within the force as distinct from assigning the rank to the individual. In essence, positions should be defined which include statements of the rank required to carry out the duties.

Promotion and selection

The concept of functional promotion should be adopted in recognition of the diversity of functions within the police department. The first major separation of functions that should be is that of line and staff. At the present moment it is possible to distinguish two extremes in the range of duties performed; uniformed operational police and nonoperational personnel located in administrative areas that do not impact significantly on police work. It is important to realise that we are discussing all the employees of the Commissioner, both sworn staff and public service personnel. Between these extremes lie a range of functions that can be classified under one of these two

groups. Obviously, there will be a number of functions difficult to assign but nevertheless a distinction can and should be made.

Line function:

Under the umbrella will be included all uniformed police and plainclothes personnel who are directly responsible for policing in the community. In addition, other uniformed and plainclothes personnel who provide a direct support service in this operational area will be included. A significant majority of this group would employ a range of talents and expertise in dealing with the general policing problem. By way of example, this group would include, apart from patrol personnel and inquiry staff, all CIB operatives, traffic officers and similar personnel. It would also be expected this function would include the greater number of rank positions and will be closely related to the crime command.

Staff function:

This will be the largest group within the department and will include nonoperational administrative duties as well as nonoperational support groups. It will be characterised by the absence of high ranking uniformed personnel and a preponderance of unsworn staff.

Training and education

The training and education function will assume a much wider role in any redevelopment of the department. At the moment this section is primarily concerned with educating and training operational personnel. This role will be significantly expanded to cover nonoperational areas by establishing in-house or external courses. The extent of this expanded role will be better seen when the various elements are considered collectively.

Retirement and organisational structure

The ultimate form of the organisation and the place of retirement philosophies within it becomes apparent once other elements have been put together. The former may be regarded as static, the latter as dynamic.

An integrated structure

The combined redefined elements are intended to produce a number of results; a young operational police force coupled with an older support/administrative group. In this system the department will recruit employees from a wide range of sources and employ them in equally diverse fields. The overriding philosophy will be that whenever possible, operational police will be trained and educated to fill nonoperational positions at middle and upper levels.

Sworn officers on entry will, after a suitable period of assessment, exposure and counselling, elect to follow a functional career path within the line organisation. Provision should be made to allow for the changing of streams. However, the person doing so should not be able to gain any rank promotion advantage. Rank designation within the line function will be important because it will have a direct nexus to pay levels. In this area promotion will invariably lead to command of more personnel.

The operational life of frontline officers will be relatively short, many may be expected to retire at say 45 years of age, others may elect to remain and transfer into the administrative or nonoperational areas. This concept has a significant impact on training, education and retirement. The needs of individuals should be identified at an early point, say at 25 years of age, so as to enable the appropriate career development to be planned. As a consequence of the foregoing, the community will reap the benefit of a younger, flexible, operational police force.

Other departmental employees will not have rank designations similar to the operational force (see Annex A). Uniforms will not be necessary, transfers to the operational side will not be possible. The major component in the pay structure will be that relating to skill. As a consequence, a wide range of training and education needs will be evident. In addition, some employees will have limited tenure because of the nature of their profession, while others will serve until retirement at, say, 55 years. In some areas employees may work until they are older, this should also be catered for.

Annex B is an amended organisational structure of the department that attempts to show those areas that should be treated as line/operational. The remaining areas will comprise a mixture of sworn and unsworn personnel. With the possible exception of the administration and finance function, the operation of the various units will come under sworn personnel holding appropriate rank designations. It should be noted that Assistant Commissioner positions may attract differing levels of remuneration to reflect the differences in responsibility.

Annex C illustrates four of the principal elements. The last, organisational structure, is an amalgam of them all. The wage and salary concept is simply one of defining and then adding a number of blocks together, thereby deriving an appropriate rate. Additional incremental schemes may be provided in the special circumstances referred to below.

The proposed promotion and selection process relies heavily on career planning. Line personnel should enter a functional stream at say the arbitrary age of 25 years, with a view to leaving the department at say 45 years of age, or continuing in employment. Those who continue will be placed on a path that will ensure that by age 45 they are ready to move upwards into middle management, or sideways into the administration of staff services. It is possible that a number of line officers will seek a transfer into the staff side before the age of 45 for a number

of reasons such as ill health, injury, or change in career expectations. Again, career development and counselling will play a very important role.

Training and education needs can now be identified and developed to complement the promotion and selection system. A side effect of the gradual transfer, at least in the early areas of the development of operational personnel into the staff side, will be that promotion in the operational field will be reasonably rapid. This factor will have to be taken into consideration when scheduling courses and determining quotas. It is important that a departure be made from the concept that rank promotion courses are taken as a matter of right. A move should be made to conducting this type of education on a needs basis. This will result in a more efficient utilisation of resources and will ensure that knowledge gained is current.

The last element, retirement, can be seen as complementing the philosophy of the two earlier elements. It should be geared to providing an opportunity to choose one of three outcomes. At the arbitrary age of 25 years, prior to which all employees will be in a common superannuation scheme, individuals will elect one of three options. The first option will be to retire at 45 and as a consequence will pay, say, 12 per cent as a contribution. The member electing to retire at 50 will pay, say, 10 per cent and the member who wishes to serve through to 55 years may pay 8 per cent. For those persons who wish to continue for a longer period, pension entitlements should be frozen and simply increase at the CPI rate. There will also be a need to provide for changeover between these three schemes.

Given the above broad concept, it is possible to see that training, education, selection and promotion will have important roles to play, and will continue to be modified as the proposal takes shape. There are, however, a number of other matters that concern salary administration. To encourage operational NCOs to transfer to operational administration functions, the possibility of commuting shift penalty payments, after a suitable period of service, should be considered. If an operational NCO does not wish to pursue commissioned rank, he may transfer to an additional incremental scheme. Officers who are transferred from a higher pay position to a lower one should not lose their high pay rate immediately. A member seeking such a transfer would not receive this benefit.

In time, some positions would be identified that would attract an all inclusive salary, thereby effecting further economies in administration. Most important of all, however, is the concept that whilst the position will be the prime determinant in setting the level of remuneration, the worth of the individual will also be a factor considered.

Conclusion

It would be wrong to infer that the police department is in imminent danger of collapse, far from it. The present structure and administrative philosophy will serve South Australia well, at

least until the commencement of the next century. The reputation and good standing of police in the community is the result of past sound management decisions and policies. Unfortunately, change is inevitable, this article points to just one of the directions that may be followed.

Much of what is proposed has to some degree been alluded to in the Department's recent strategic plan. The need to review effectiveness and efficiency, and promote professionalism, is implicit in its design. However, just as there is need for change within the department there is also a need for the Association to redefine its traditional position, particularly its role as a union vis-a-vis its desire to promote the police occupation. The opportunity will exist for the Association to adopt a unique position; it will have a chance to move to a more professional status at a time when other organisations are moving in the opposite direction.

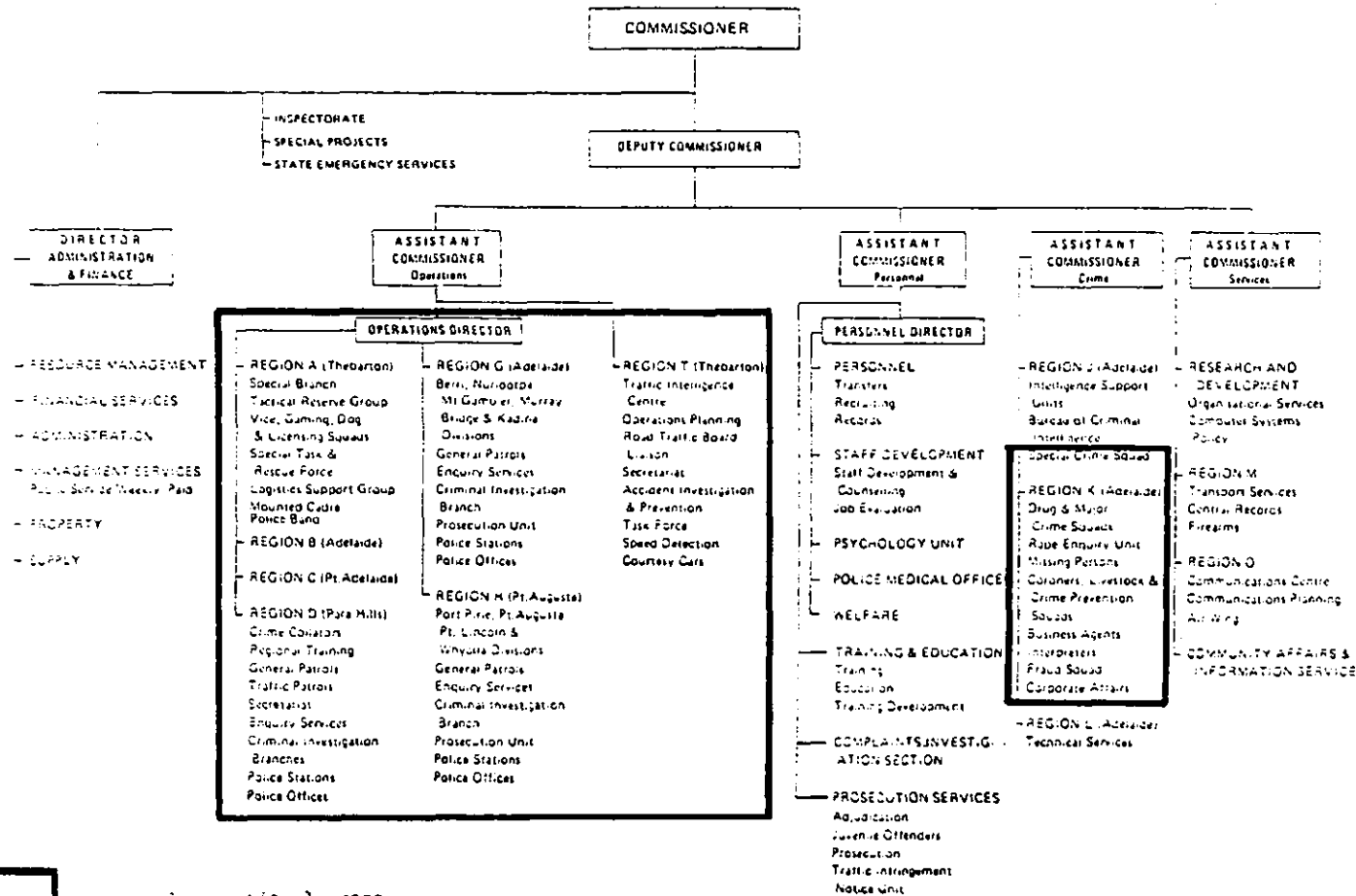
It is obvious to anyone in the present system there is an urgent need for change. The difficulty, however, is that by force of circumstance, the individual's view is narrow. Even groups take a myopic view. A number of valid arguments exist to improve the lot of some groups. But, to move in this direction now would only make the task of achieving substantial structural change more difficult in the future. If real progress is to be made, measured in terms of value to the whole of the force, it must be part of an overall strategy, not a gain for an isolated few.

To give effect to the type of proposal envisaged, members of the Association should be consulted with a view to meeting with the department in order to develop a joint approach to formulating a comprehensive plan for change. The Association cannot achieve this on its own. Co-operation will be essential.

SUGGESTED NONOPERATIONAL POSITION TITLES

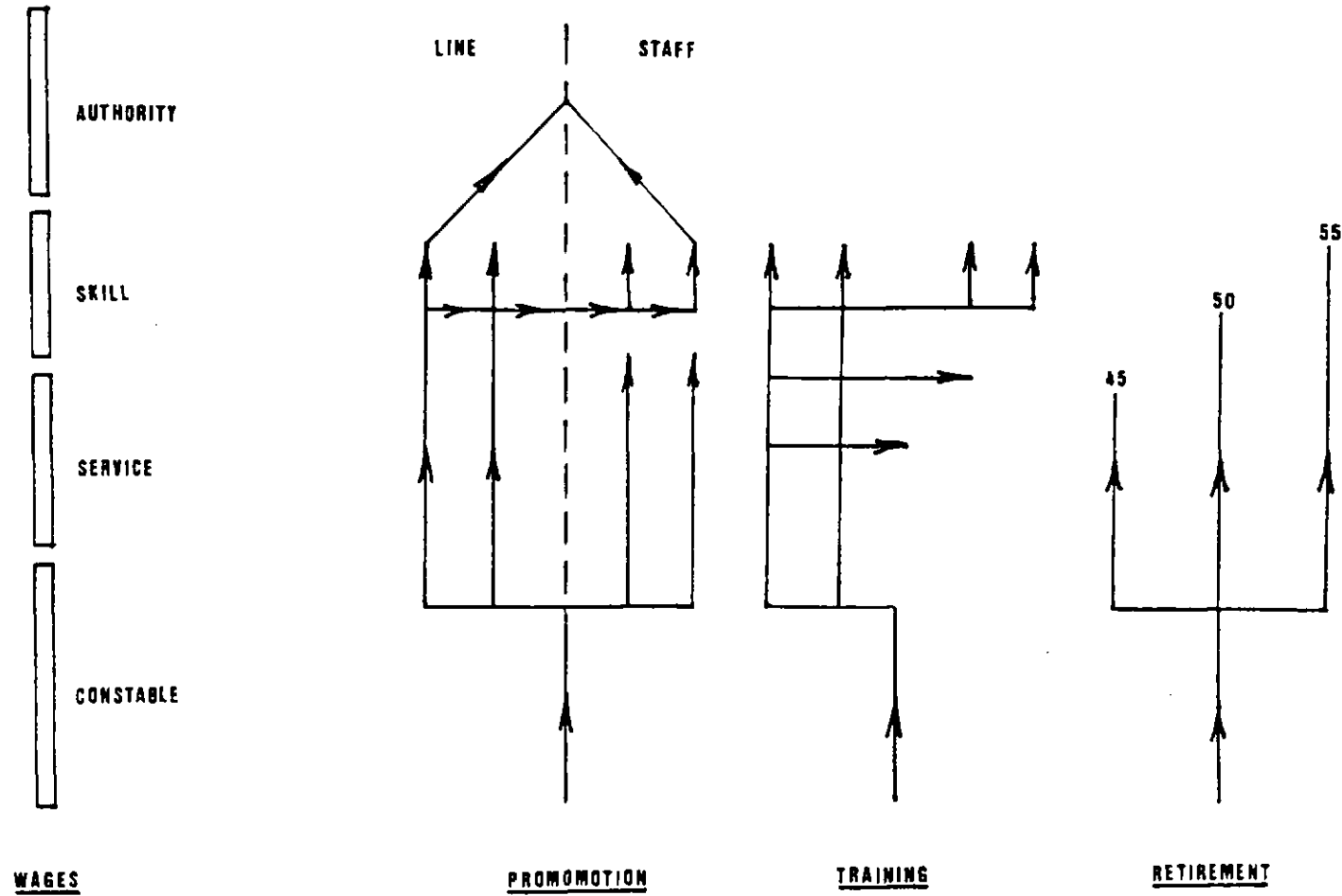
<u>Rank</u>	<u>Prosecution</u>	<u>Technical Services</u>	<u>Air Wing</u>
Commissioned Officer	Director, Police Prosecutions	Director, Tech. Services	-
Senior NCO	O/C, Police Prosecutions	O/C, Tech. Services	-
Constable	Senior Police Prosecutor	Senior Technical Officer	Chief Pilot
Constable	Police Prosecutor	Technical Officer	Senior Pilot
Constable	Assistant Police Prosecutor	Asst. Technical Officer	Pilot
	<u>Water Police</u>	<u>Communications</u>	<u>Intelligence Units</u>
- Commissioned Officer	-	Director, Communications	-
Senior NCO	O/C, Water Police	O/C, Communications	O/C (Unit name)
Constable	Master Class I	Senior Technician/Operator	-
Constable	Master Class II	Technician/Operator	-
Constable	Deckhand	Asst. Technician/Operator	Member (Unit name)

SOUTH AUSTRALIAN POLICE DEPARTMENT



suggested operational areas.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS



Annex C

ARTICLE ELEVEN

POLICE COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT, A PLANNED APPROACH
TO EFFECTIVE CRIME CONTROL

DJ Smith
Inspector
Victoria Police

Introduction

The ongoing escalation of the incidence of crime and disorder within Australian communities has placed demands on police organisations to rethink traditional strategies and seek alternative methods to reverse current trends.

Perhaps the most appealing option available to police administrators is the promotion of combined police and community action to prevent crime and disorder at the local level. While this seems little more than a commonsense approach, there are a number of inherent difficulties in 'actualising' the concept in such a way as to have a significant impact on the problem. A number of obstacles need to be overcome both within police organisations and the community. On the police side there is uncertainty as to the role of police in this field, lack of clearly defined policy and direction and reluctance to change existing traditional practices, a problem that is common to all bureaucratic organisations. Additionally there is a shortage of skilled managers to put innovative policy into effect through leadership, sound managerial practice and training.

Within the community there has been general apathy in relation to crime and a reluctance to become involved in this field of community responsibility. Fortunately, in these times of rapid social change, both police and community attitudes are changing and there is an increasing awareness of the need for a more unified effort to help society to remain intact within its framework of laws and good public order.

The purpose of this article is to examine some of these issues from a police perspective having regard to the police role overseas and experience in Australia with police/community involvement. Some suggestions as to the most effective means of developing this important field are also put forward.

The police role

Police administrators in Britain, Canada, the United States of America and Australia have for some time recognised the need for the practical application of the policing philosophy first stated by Sir Robert Peel in 1829.

Peel's Principles of Law Enforcement set down public support and willing co-operation as the criteria necessary for the police to successfully achieve their objectives. As to the priorities of those principles the Commissioners of London's New Police left little doubt when they issued the following general instruction in 1829.

It should be understood, at the outset, that the principal object to be obtained is the prevention of crime. To this great end every effort of the police is to be directed. The security of persons and property, the preservation of the public tranquility and all other objects of a police establishment would thus be better effected than by the detection and punishment of the offender after he has succeeded in committing the crime.²

Peel's principles and objectives have been the cornerstone of policing throughout the English speaking world and are as valid today as when first introduced. As policing has evolved, these goals and principles have been revised as organisational goals and philosophies, corporate plans and other forms of policy statements. Unfortunately, most police forces, while espousing the virtues of their policies, have fallen short in achieving the degree of community co-operation and support necessary to halt increasing criminal activity. The manner in which police forces organise and carry out their various functions pays scant attention to actively enlisting public support.

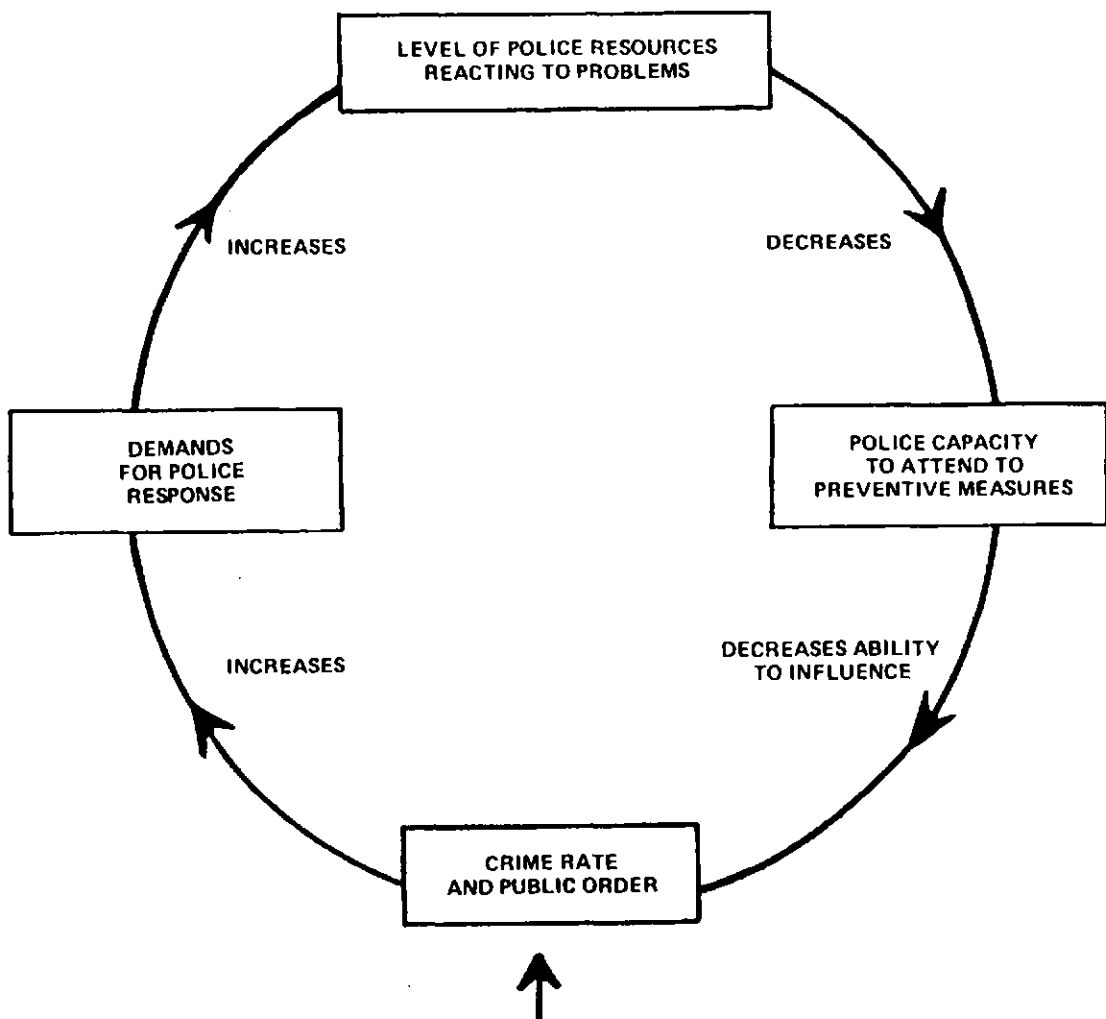
Reactive policing. Over the last several decades, police forces have become highly mobile. This has resulted in an increased public expectation for police to attend a wide range of calls for service within the categories of crime, public order and community service. In turn, police have responded by placing ever greater emphasis on their ability to meet perceived public demands, see Figure 11.1. This 'fire-brigade' approach aims only at short term resolution of particular problems. While this has been accepted as basic police practice, there has been insufficient focus, due to limited resources, on the proper analysis of problems with the aim to minimising causative factors. This function is necessary to the reduction of problems and would assist in developing more cost effective policing methods. Problem analysis could occur in terms of:

- * was the incident preventable?
- * what measures can be taken to prevent a recurrence of the incident?
- * what resources, other than police, could be utilised to overcome the problem?
- * what was the end result of police action?

These, and similar considerations, form little part of reactive policing. Sir Kenneth Newman, Commissioner of the London Metropolitan Police, stated recently:

Reactive policing places the emphasis on responding to incidents. Typically, reactive policy goals and experience are expressed in terms of activities (patrol, investigation, etc.) rather than in terms of specific areas of achievement or of defined outcomes. Reactive police managers do not attempt to influence their environment. Under reactive

Figure 11.1 – THE REACTIVE SPIRAL
(Neighborhood Policing Project –
London Metropolitan Police and Surrey Constabulary)



policy the police force is an anvil on which society hammers out its tensions.³

Undue emphasis on a reactive police role limits the capability of achieving overall force objectives. While police readily point to the failure of society to accept responsibilities for crime control, police policy and practice does little to engender the necessary public support and co-operation. As put by a former Attorney-General of Great Britain:

As society has become more complex and sophisticated, so policing has become more and more a specialist section of society's reactive organisation against breaches of law and order. It fits neatly into the pattern of commission of offence by the criminal, detection and arrest by the prosecuting authorities, sentence by the court, detention by the prison authorities. As the pattern has developed, so the police and policing have become more remote from the local community even in some areas seen as hostile to it.⁴

Proactive policing. To meet the present and envisaged challenges facing police in the control of crime and disorder, more attention will need to be given to proactive policing. The term proactive has been used to describe the preventive aspects of the patrol function which provide high police visibility and other activities in the fields of public relations and crime prevention. In the context of this paper it is given a wider definition meaning all police functioning that results in a planned course of action to influence an event positively, before it occurs.

This definition applies to all levels within a police organisation and includes the functions of planning, policy making, administration and operations. Proactive policing, if conducted on a properly planned and organised basis, can lead to a greater preventive effort with active community participation. While reactive policing seeks to control crime by directing efforts towards the apprehension of offenders, the proactive style seeks to influence events by reducing the opportunity for criminal and anti-social activity. But to do this, police need a more detailed analysis of crime at the local level. Practical information about the causes will allow a planned and better balanced approach between the reactive and proactive styles. Both the police and the community agree with this. In two recent surveys conducted in Melbourne suburbs, police and the public strongly disagreed with the statement:

Police should not be concerned with the causes of crime, but only with the prevention and control.⁵

Table 11.1 provides details of responses from police and public.

While police cannot hope to influence all the causative factors associated with crime and disorder, they can have an impact on many of them, especially with an appropriate level of planned community involvement. Only by blending reactive and

Table 11.1

THE ROLE OF POLICE - ATTITUDE SURVEY

Two surveys were conducted in different areas to ascertain police and community attitudes as to the role of police. The following table shows responses to the question:

Police should not be concerned with the causes of crimes but only with prevention and control.

Police Responses

	respondents	agree %	no opinion %	disagree %
<u>Survey 1</u> (Frankston)	N = 95	18.2	0.0	81.8
<u>Survey 2</u> (Broadmeadows)	N = 56	16.1	1.8	82.1

Comments by police who disagree with the statement:

'More emphasis should be on how to cure problems rather than finding someone to blame.'

'If we know the cause then we could carry out our role of prevention.'

Residents' Responses

	respondents	agree %	no opinion %	disagree %
<u>Survey 2</u> (Broadmeadows)	N = 600	3.0	3.3	93

Comments from residents who disagreed with the statement:

'Knowledge of causes would assist in prevention and crime control.'

'Determining cause helps prevent crime in the long run.'

'A police force's job is 75% prevention and 25% control and arrest.'

Youth Responses

	respondents	agree %	no opinion %	disagree %
<u>Survey 1</u> (Frankston)	N = 101	27.7	9.9	62.4

The following comments were made by youths who disagreed:

'They should be concerned with all aspects of crime.'

'They have to know the cause to find ways to prevent the crime next time.'

'Should be concerned with all parts of crime.'

'If they find a cause it will assist in prevention.'

'If causes are found they may be able to prevent the same type of crime reoccurring.'

Source: The Police Role - Attitude Surveys, conducted by Research and Development Department, Victoria Police.

proactive styles can police hope to control the incidence of crime and its consequences, that is, the cost and fear of crime borne by the community.

Extent of crime

In Victoria, between 1975 and 1981, there has been a population increase of 3.2 per cent, authorised police strength has increased 28 per cent, major crime has jumped by 54.3 per cent with the number of people proceeded against increasing by 31.5 per cent.⁶ This pattern is similar to those in other states as well as in Britain. For example, a recent publication noted:

we have seen police numbers rise from 86,000 to over 110,000 whilst crime has escalated.⁷

In 1981, 175,518 major crimes came to the notice of Victoria Police. This means that within a population of 3,900,000 persons, 4,500 major crimes were reported for every 100,000 people.

That Victoria has cause for concern regarding the extent of crime needs to be examined in the light of overseas experiences, not for the purpose of deciding whether we are better off but to compare like problems and learn from overseas actions. There are no policing or crime problems in other countries that are not being experienced within Australia. Differences lie only in the extent of the problem. Table 11.2 indicates levels of major crime in Victoria and a number of overseas police jurisdictions. Civilian populations and police to population statistics are included to provide a broader view. Burglary rates are included because this offence is considered a 'preventable' crime. While there are wide variations in these crime statistics, a striking feature is the low crime incidence in Tokyo compared to its population size. That Tokyo has a burglary rate of 473 per 100,000 population and an exceptionally high major crime clearance rate of 75 per cent, makes this city's effort even more remarkable.

Cost of crime. While offering some indication as to the extent of crime, police statistics do not acknowledge the level of unreported crime, the degree of which has yet to be estimated in this country. Nor do police figures calculate such other consequences as the financial losses borne by victims and society as a whole, the pervading fear of crime, psychological scarring and the degree of pain and suffering.

Recent research provides some indicators in those areas. A 1982 study by the Victoria Police Crime Department⁸ estimated the value of property stolen as a result of burglaries in this State in 1982 to be about \$42,680,000. Major financial loss related to criminal activity occurs in all other categories of crime and is reflected in the cost of the criminal justice system, medical, legal, insurance and other fields servicing the consequences of crime.

Fear of crime. As crime becomes more apparent in our society, so too does the fear of crime. Both in Australia and overseas there is mounting evidence about the extent to which our communities fear crime. In 1980, a national survey carried out in the United States revealed:

Table 11.2

COMPARISONS OF POPULATION, POLICE & CRIME IN ELEVEN POLICE FORCES

agency	population	authorised police strength	police to population ratio	reported major crime	major crime per 100,000 pop	clearance rate %	burglaries per 100,000 population
Victoria Police	3,900,000	8,186	1:473	155,067	3,976	21	1,521
Metropolitan Police, Tokyo	11,600,000	41,134	1:282	210,885	1,818	75	473
West Midlands Police, Birmingham	2,700,000	6,684	1:388	144,229	5,349	33	1,844
Royal Ulster Constabulary	1,500,000	7,500	1:200	44,134	2,942	22	1,245
Metropolitan Toronto Police	2,150,000	5,412	1:396	113,016	5,272	38	1,115
Chicago Police	3,000,000	13,000	1:230	196,605	6,553	30	1,142
Detroit Police	1,200,000	5,700	1:207	127,423	10,618	NA	3,411
Miami Police	300,000	814	1:368	52,540	15,650	16	4,576
Houston Police	1,600,000	2,971	1:538	142,385	8,899	12	3,082
Dallas Police	900,000	2,088	1:431	106,013	11,779	28	3,348
Los Angeles Police	2,900,000	7,300	1:397	293,838	10,132	NA	2,930

NB The above table has been compiled from 1980 government census data, police department annual reports and statistical analysis of crime reports. Some adjustments have been made in order to present a balanced comparison. For example, fraud cases have been subtracted from the Victoria Police major crime figure as this category is not included in the North American major crime index. Population statistics relate to the geographic area policed by the agencies listed.

...that the incidence of (increasing) crime is far outstripped by the fear of crime. The dramatic discrepancy between the incidence of crime and the fear of crime warrants serious attention... The study reveals that four out of ten Americans are highly fearful they will become victims of violent crimes... It also reveals that four out of ten Americans feel unsafe in their everyday environments - their homes - their neighborhoods - their business districts and shopping centres - due to the fear of crime.⁹

This high level of fear of crime is also present within Australian society. A 1982 survey of 541 residents in one area of Melbourne showed that 74 per cent disagreed with the statement:

It is safe for all members of your family to walk alone in this neighborhood when it is dark.¹⁰

Other surveys of various sections of Melbourne's suburbs have produced similar findings.¹¹

The extent of crime with its direct and indirect consequences of financial loss and community fear provide a challenge for police both now and in the future.

A planned approach

Police forces do not bear sole responsibility for preventing crime. While it is an overriding primary objective of police, the ultimate responsibility for prevention rests with society as a whole. In working towards the achievement of goals, police forces recognise the importance of securing public co-operation; the greater the degree of community support, the more effective a police organisation will be in its operation and purpose. This support can be measured, not by popularity polls, but by the demonstrated willingness of the public to actively participate in the processes of crime control and by the impact this has on targetted crime and the fear of crime. Police often criticise what they perceive as public apathy towards crime. But, police themselves provide limited stimulus and leadership in promoting greater community involvement. In the past, these efforts have been left to specialist units and the personal initiatives of individual police officers. Many police agencies have formed departments to deal with the preventive side of crime control, giving titles such as 'Community Involvement Branch', 'Community Liaison Unit', 'Community Relations Section', and the like. Personnel attached to these units are highly motivated and have developed a wide range of innovative programs aimed at preventing crime. A major impediment to this strategy has been a reliance on these specialist branches to involve the community in crime control while the rest of the organisation seems to have been happy to relinquish much of its responsibility in this field. Many police go so far as to term this type of activity a 'soft option', with some police strongly resenting efforts to involve them in 'community style' policing. This method of combating crime does not fit into the reactive model and is therefore not 'real' policing.

Unfortunately, this attitude is recognisable to the public which, in turn, is reluctant to become involved with police who show little interest in working with them. This has often been described as the police 'siege mentality'.

In recent times, strong influences are creating a broader understanding among police as to their roles and responsibilities. Inquiries into police administration and practices, such as the Scarman report,¹² recommend more flexibility in policing styles. Evidence about the extent, the cost and public fear of crime supports the need for development of new strategies in this field. There remains little doubt as to the direction required of police organisations. The problem at hand is not so much what to do, as how to go about it effectively and efficiently and any strategy development would need to be:

PLANNED:	having clearly defined objectives and management structure
PRACTICAL:	achievable within limits of available resources
ACCEPTABLE:	understanding of rationale and objectives and a suitable commitment to its success
COST EFFECTIVE:	most effective and efficient use of resources
MEASURABLE:	capable of measuring outcomes as to effectiveness and efficiency.

While a number of agencies have incorporated or are striving toward a balanced proactive/reactive model of policing, others have opted to retain a specialist approach to community involvement.

Formalising police/community involvement

Police agency efforts to formalise police/community involvement indicate a range of options available in this field. While various approaches may differ in many respects, from an organisational viewpoint they can be categorised as coming within either the specialist or the generalist areas of policing responsibility. Each approach offers advantages to the organisation and each has its limitations. These need to be examined not as a separate issue but in the context of broader organisational and management considerations such as policy, productivity and resource availability.

Specialist responsibility. Providing a specialist branch or unit possessing a primary responsibility for designing and implementing police/community involvement projects is the most common approach. Obvious advantages include a neat packaging of responsibility; deployment of relatively few police resources; ease of tasking and management. They can be highly visible and

promote positive publicity for the organisation. Specialist personnel develop a high degree of expertise in project development.

Such units are necessarily limited in the scope of their operations due to their number of operatives. While the intention may be to involve operational police in maintaining established projects, the experience in overseas countries as well as Australia is that this does not occur in practice. What in effect happens is that this type of proactive policing receives a low priority when deploying scarce operational resources. Because responsibility has been placed with a specialist unit, to a large extent it rests there. This abrogation of responsibility in operational policing leads to specialist units becoming, in effect, cosmetic buffer zones between police and public.

Generalist responsibility. Current developments in community policing favour a generalist responsibility in the style of proactive policing which seeks to utilise the wider community in the control of crime. Integrating the reactive and proactive roles in this way provides a balanced approach to both short and long time problem resolution. All levels of management, including first line supervisors, undertake wider responsibility and, supported by modern management processes, can more readily impact problems with greater flexibility and the likelihood of a far greater proportion of the public's active participation. The Los Angeles Police Departments' decision to place responsibility for their large scale Neighbourhood Watch Program with operational personnel points to the viability of this strategy. Recent developments in the London Metropolitan Police and Surrey Constabulary Neighbourhood Policing Scheme and the Metropolitan Toronto Police organisational restructure highlight a determined commitment by these agencies to implement community policing as a generalist responsibility, with appropriate management support, and accountability by way of productivity measurement.

The trend in developing a planned and balanced integration of the proactive and reactive police roles is based on an increasing need for police administrators to deploy diminishing resources to service an array of complex policing problems in the most effective and efficient manner. Coupled with this are requirements for increased responsibility and accountability at all levels of police management. These are productivity issues which interact with all facets of the organisation from the role of police to productivity measurement. Any effort to broaden the area of responsibility must be considered with regard to organisational and administrative matters such as defining goals and objectives; productivity management and measurement; and staff development. These aspects are common to all organisations. It is no longer valid to protest that the police function is singularly different from that of other organisations to the extent that modern management processes are not applicable.

The following comments reflect current attitudes in this field.

Organisational goals and philosophy. The goals and objectives of police forces, together with guiding principles,

provide broad direction for police effort and lay down guidelines within which police activity will be carried out.

The majority of western world police agencies have modelled their goals and philosophy on Peel's Eleven Principles of Law Enforcement, which hold that securing the willing co-operation of the community and promoting crime prevention are central to the police mission. Unfortunately, the day to day efforts of most police forces do not reflect the fundamentals of Peel's Principles. This has not been the result of a conscious re-direction but more one of being diverted through the need to respond to more pressing short term demands.

Underscoring the efforts of police administrations seeking to upgrade the proactive role of police has been the stated recognition for a return to core principles.

This is being achieved by a demonstrated strong commitment at the policy setting level of force administration. Part of such a commitment is to ensure practical and concise objectives are defined, in line with stated policy and organisational goals.

Defining objectives. The goals of a police organisation are usually expressed as the protection of life and property, prevention of crime, detection of offenders, and preservation of the peace. These are abstract terms which prove difficult to accomplish in measurable form. The need for administration to account for routine activities has led to a situation in which that which is more easily measured becomes the accepted yardstick of police effectiveness and efficiency. The wider range of police activity has long evaded clear definition and detailed measurement. As one report states:

Because police forces in general are the products of slow and ill-defined evolution, there is little consensus on the precise objectives of the police function... police lack a clear, common unit of success - as profit serves in private enterprise - to indicate whether police programmes are working to achieve their goals. Not only does the police manager lack a well-defined set of measures to indicate performance, but he often does not have the means of accurately monitoring how resources are being used, let alone measuring the results of effort.¹³

In the field of proactive policing, which includes community involvement effort, there is a distinct lack of direction in the form of clearly defined objectives. The setting of concise objectives would provide responsibility and accountability to managers and personnel, efforts in this field would then be viewed as a legitimate part of duties performed. Tasked activities could be measured and form part of the overall information base available to decision-makers. It is within this context that police forces are devising and implementing strategies to include other than traditional forms of productivity management. Central to this approach is the need to establish a system of management information.

Management information

The Miami Police Department currently collects and stores large amounts of information. The problem lies in the fact that we have failed to properly utilise and disseminate this data because of a lack of analytical capabilities. As a result, much of the planning done by the Department is based on tradition, and is reactive in nature. Commanders and line supervisors are often forced to make decisions based on available information rather than on the best information, and this situation serves to exacerbate a 'supervisory style' of management historically prevalent within the Department.¹⁴

The above extract, from a Miami Police Department management report, typifies a problem common to most major police agencies which, even with the aid of computer technology, are recognising the limitations of relying on traditional measures of policing activity and the need to extend and better manage their information base.

Traditional data. In the absence of properly organised and analysed practical information, decision makers have relied on available data obtained through traditional methods of recording activities and outcomes. This usually occurs in the following categories:

- * crimes reported and detected
- * clearance rates
- * complaints against police
- * traffic statistics
- * calls for service and response times
- * workload measurement
- * annual financial statements.

These are indicators which, in the main, offer a very general picture of what is occurring in the fields of police endeavour. In the form these data are currently analysed and disseminated, scant management information is provided as a basis for a planned effort to assess situations and effectively address problems. While effective use of data as a management tool does occur within some areas of policing, it is the exception rather than the rule. There is ample evidence to support the need for improved systems of management information to meet existing and emerging challenges in a changing environment.

Police administrators are having to adapt to changes in economic, social, demographic characteristics of their communities, challenges to their traditional beliefs and ways of carrying out their work; and increasing demands for fiscal, legal and social accountability.¹⁵

Extended data base. The type of information required to assist police managers should be tailored to meet the needs of all levels of management, including first line supervisors. Such a database would include the following type of information:

* Crime analysis. Incidence of crime by:

- . category - major crime index
 - all other offences
- . location - exact location
- . time, day and date
- . offenders/suspects
- . clearance rate - offence/no offence
 - arrests/summons
- . disposition of case - pre-court
 - post-court.

* Resource management

- . manpower - rosters/deployment
 - availability/non-availability
 - overtime/recall/on-call availability
- . calls for service - time, day, date
 - type of call
 - response time
 - outcome
- . inspections - automated correspondence register
 - warrant/summons/file summaries
 - vehicle and equipment availability/deployment
 - inventories
- . traffic - incident analysis.

* Community problem indicators. Relevant information from recording sources other than police will complement police data in identifying situations and emerging problems likely to require a police response. Such indicators could include:

- . media reports
- . demographic and social data as required, eg, census reports, victimisation surveys.

This type of information, the bulk of which is currently collected and contained in various report forms and duty summaries, needs to be converted into a format suited to users needs. In other words, the best information required by decision-makers must be available to them in such form that it is current, practical, readily understandable, usable and relate to their respective areas of responsibility.

Computers can provide police the technology necessary to store and retrieve vast amounts of data, in analysed form. Police organisations will need to align their management procedures, in order to capitalise on the advantages offered.

Managers and other police personnel will need a working knowledge of such a system, commensurate with their level of individual responsibilities.

Staff development. External education and in-service management training courses seek to provide basic knowledge in organisation and management.

While this type of training is essential in preparing police personnel for management positions, there is a growing awareness for the training role to extend to and place the greater emphasis on the motivational and field training aspects of ongoing staff development. The complexities of policing in a rapidly changing environment call for this approach in providing continuing support for the direction in which management needs to take in working towards goals. Police personnel need to be kept informed, not only of what is required of them but also of the rationale in terms of force policy and objectives. They must also have the skills and incentive to achieve their objectives in measurable form:

Training is considered to be the means by which the objectives of the organisation may be internalised by police officers as being similar to their own. This may be achieved within a training programme which actually sets out to inform officers as to what the organisation needs and suggesting areas where the answers may be found. This will provide scope for individual officers and teams to tackle problems and see the results and failures of their own efforts. This aspect is in contrast to many large organisations where successes or failure is hidden within an amorphous bureaucracy.¹⁶

This approach to staff development will assist in creating a positive working environment where police will operate to their full potential in a participatory style of management.

The community as resource. Part of a manager's function, at whatever level, is to consider the resources at his disposal which can be deployed to meet objectives.

Consideration of resources available to police suggests that the only one as yet largely untapped is the local community itself. This implies a return to the concept of a contract between the police and the public to work together in the maintenance of public order and prevention of crime.¹⁷

Overseas and Australian experience in police/community involvement has demonstrated the willingness of the general public

to actively participate in police initiated programs aimed at crime control:

- * the types of programs planned must reflect the community's attitudes and expectations - ie, the problems police seek to overcome must be of equal concern to the community
- * the type of public involvement expected must not exceed what the community perceive as their role, ie, prevention rather than enforcement
- * programs need to be 'localised' rather than rely on the more anonymous direction and personnel of a 'central' operation
- * where possible, programs should be 'owned' by the community. A sense of proprietorship will encourage stronger community involvement
- * programs should be cost effective in terms of deployment of police personnel, ie, maximum community and minimum police resources
- * efforts in this field must be capable of measurement in terms of resources used and results of efforts; this is also important in providing feedback to the community.

Ensuring the above criteria form part of any joint effort in crime control is clearly a management responsibility. It involves decision-making in the use of resources available in addressing current problems.

Victoria Police

The police force of Victoria has responsibility for policing a statewide population of 3,900,000 of whom approximately 3,000,000 people reside in the metropolitan area of Melbourne. The 8,186 sworn police personnel operate within eleven metropolitan and 12 country police districts.

Police/community involvement program. In 1980, the Victoria Police Force developed a Police/Community Involvement Program (P/CIP) to test in practice the concept of a planned and practical approach to increase public awareness of crime related problems and a co-ordinated police/community effort toward the reduction of these problems. To this end a pilot scheme, designated the Police/Community Involvement program (P/CIP) was implemented within an outer metropolitan police district.

The area for the scheme, the Westernport Police District, was selected as being 'average' in terms of crime statistics and demographic data. The district covers 885 square kilometres and comprises the City of Frankston with a population of 80,000 and a further 116,000 people residing in eight other municipalities. There are 127 schools within the area, eleven police stations, 250 police personnel service the district.

Thirteen police personnel under the control of an Inspector were seconded from operational areas to staff the project for an initial period of twelve months. The pilot project was implemented in February 1981, following a period of staff training.

Objectives of the program were to:

- * identify police and community problems, needs and attitudes relative to the police function
- * further the objectives of the Police force by the promotion of community awareness, co-operation, support and confidence
- * act as a focal point to assist police and other organisations/individuals within the community to work together towards common goals
- * provide practical assistance, through information and feedback, to police at both administrative and operational levels, in regard to police and other organisations policies and procedures
- * provide a similar informational service to other organisations within the community.

The P/CIP has worked toward these objectives with regard to both long and short term effectiveness and efficient use of resources.

The initial task was to make contact with various local agencies and organisations to acquaint them with the pilot scheme and identify police and community problems in crime related areas, the emphasis being on joint responsibility in working toward problem resolution. Resulting from these contacts a number of specific projects were developed and implemented with involvement from local police and the community. Table 11.3 contains selected details as to these projects and include the number of people participating in these undertakings. In most instances the 1982 projections were exceeded.

To date, outcomes of the P/CIP have been evaluated by means of quantitative and descriptive data including crime reduction, where this can be measured; police personnel time deployed; degree of community involvement; and citizen satisfaction.

A series of comprehensive reports detailing the development and progress of the P/CIP have been prepared by Victoria Police Research and Development Department. These reports cover the following aspects:

- Vol. I P/CIP. A Summary of the First Twelve Months
- Vol. II Attitude Survey prior to the Commencement of P/CIP
- Vol. III P/CIP. Contacts with Community - A Computer Analysis

TABLE 11.3
TABLE OF P/CIP PROJECTS

project title	purpose	police/community involvement	approx number of people participating	
			1981	1982/83
Schools Appraisal	Provide information for development of crime prevention education projects within schools	District police (11 stations), teaching staff (106 schools)	220	ongoing
The Police Role - Primary Schools	Introduce students to police role by providing positive contact with police	District and specialist police units, teachers, pupils	2,800	6,000
"Police and You" Secondary Schools Legal Studies	Introduce a segment on the police role and citizen responsibility to middle and upper level secondary school students	District police, teachers, students	1,300	800
"Bike Ed"	Improve student knowledge of road laws and road courtesy/reduce road toll	District police, teachers, students, local business, City of Frankston	40 (teachers)	60 (teachers)
Bike Identification	To deter bicycle theft by ensuring proper identification marking of bicycles	District police, rotary clubs, schools	5,000	15,000
Miscellaneous Service to Schools	Promote responsible attitudes to law and order issues/promote awareness of police role/improve communication with young people	Local police, teachers, students, various agencies	12,000	10,000
Anti-shopsteal	Minimise the incidence of shopstealing committed by juveniles	District police, teachers, students, Chamber of Commerce, Retail Traders Association, media	7,000	20,000
Safety House	Preventive measure in protecting children from harassment travelling to and from school	District police, Crime Prevention Bureau, teachers, parents, media	52 schools 3904 adults	350 schools 21000 adults
Elderly Citizens and Crime Prevention	Reduce crime victimisation of elderly citizens through crime prevention education	CIB, police, elderly citizens' groups, service clubs	1,100	1,000
Off Road Motor Cycles	Reduce problems caused by off road motor cycles by establishing recreational motor cycle park	Police, City of Frankston Municipal Recreation Officer, Neighborhood Employment Development Scheme, Frankston Motor Cycle Club, Department of Youth, Sport and Recreation, residents	10	3,600 Registered patrons
Problem Youth	Identify and assist community groups dealing with problem youth	DCWS, Pines Forest Youth Club, Pines Forest Community Centre, YMCA, Outreach Program, Blue Light Disco	500	300
Honorary Probation Officers	Assist in developing a community based probation officer service	District police, DCWS, Honorary Probation Officers' Association	60	60
Mornington Peninsula Holiday Period	Crime prevention during Christmas holiday period on Mornington Peninsula	District police, Rosebud Foreshore Committee, National Parks Committee, service clubs	100	100
Persistent Offenders	Define the persistent offender's problem from a police perspective with view to alleviating problem	Local police	50	Concluded
Small Business Security	Assist managers of small business to minimise their crime risk through the preparation of a small business security manual	Crime Prevention Bureau, Detective Training School, Frankston Chamber of Commerce, Frankston Retailers Association, Small Business Development Corporation, Chisholm Institute of Technology		30
Peninsula Alcohol & Drug Dependents Committee	To alleviate the problems alcohol/drug abuse at local level	City of Frankston, Frankston Community Hospital, general practitioners, pharmacies, schools, health & welfare workers	21	50
After-Hours Referral Service	To provide an 'after hours' service for police to refer juveniles in non-offence crisis situations	Uniform Branch, Honorary Probation Officers, DCWS		10
Victims of Crime Assistance League	Promote assistance to victims of crime through the establishing of VOCAL Branch at Frankston	CIB, community volunteers, victims of crime		110
Neighborhood Watch	Test the effect of a Neighborhood Watch project in minimising crime within a defined residential area	Uniform Branch, Crime Car Squad, CIB, Collator, Crime Prevention Bureau, City of Frankston, local residents		1,600

Vol. IV P/CIP Project Detail.

While the results of preventive efforts are difficult to measure, the greater benefits being likely to occur in the longer term, sufficient knowledge has been gained from the pilot project to make the following statements:

- * objectives of the P/CIP have been achieved in measurable form
- * projects implemented have received the necessary degree of public support to ensure their success
- * a number of problems common to both police and the community have been alleviated by joint effort
- * the extent to which local police can undertake preventive policing of this nature is limited by:
 - . the operational response commitment
 - . limited information base from which to task
- * the community is concerned regarding the extent of crime and has demonstrated a willingness to become actively involved in crime prevention measures
- * the community expects and needs police initiatives in this field
- * police/community involvement of the type undertaken within P/CIP is an effective crime prevention initiative in terms of police resources deployed compared with the extent of active public participation.

Future development. The next phase of the program, commences July 1984, integrates formalised proactive policing within existing district organisational structure. This will involve establishing two distinct functions at district level. The first, a district Information Support Centre, will provide all levels of management within the district with a system of management information in automated form. The Centre will not in any way usurp management responsibility but will supply in usable form information essential to planning, tasking, monitoring and evaluation. The Centre will be responsible for the collection, analysis and dissemination of data to form an information base for routine, or as required, management reports. This system would include detailed analysis in the categories of crime, resource management and community problem indicators.

The second function proposed is a district based Public Affairs Section. This Section would have responsibility for co-ordinating police activity in the development and maintenance of projects within the fields of crime prevention, public relation and community involvement policing. The emphasis on the role of the proposed Public Affairs Section is one of facilitating proactive policing effort within mainstream policing.

The proposed introduction of a District Information Support Centre and Public Affairs Section at district level is designed to provide advantages at local and force levels. These include:

- * a structured and balanced integration of reactive and proactive police functioning
- * improved system of resource management through planned tasking with monitoring and evaluation of outcomes
- * development and testing of computerised management information systems
- * introduction of positive change with minimal disruption to the organisational structure.

It is believed this model will greatly enhance the ability of Victoria Police to meet existing challenges within the police area of responsibility and to provide the foundation for improved productivity and professional service.

Neighbourhood watch

Necessity and desire appear to be creating a climate in which the police can gain additional public support - if the police make the effort. A starting point is an energetic Neighbourhood Watch Program.¹⁸

Neighbourhood Watch is a prime example of police/community involvement in action. The scheme developed in the United States over a decade ago, is a community based crime prevention program aimed at reducing the rate of preventable crime, particularly residential burglary. This is achieved by residents organising into neighborhood groups or zones and, through a process of crime prevention awareness and action, reduce the likelihood of criminal attack upon their property and person.

Development in Victoria. Based on the success of Neighbourhood Watch in the United States and Canada, Victoria Police conducted a pilot scheme to adapt the concept to local needs.

Throughout the development of Neighbourhood Watch in Victoria every effort has been made to adhere to the principles of community involvement policing, as mentioned throughout this article.

The following is a brief account of that development to date.

The burglary problem. Between the years 1977 and 1982 reported burglaries in Victoria increased at an average annual rate of 11 per cent. The clearance rate decreased from 20.6 per cent in 1977 to 12.2 per cent in 1983. In 1983, 78,573 burglaries were reported. Of these, 46,404 were classed as residential burglaries, an increase of 26.1 per cent over the 1982 figure.

For the first four months of 1984, residential burglaries showed a 50 per cent increase over the corresponding period in 1983.

The pilot scheme. During the early part of 1983, the Police/Community Involvement Program and district personnel carried out crime analysis and demographic studies which resulted in a neighbourhood comprising 600 homes being selected as suitable test areas for Neighbourhood Watch. A similar locality was selected as a control area.

Community involvement. On 1 June 1983, a public meeting was held in the test area, 160 residents attended and offered their support in developing a Neighbourhood Watch Program. Further regular meetings of volunteer residents and police formalised the process and committees and sub committees were formed to develop all aspects of the program, including logo design, finance, newsletters, property marking and support material.

During the six months of the pilot scheme, burglaries were reduced marginally in the test area, while increasing in the control location. A significant factor was the overwhelming support for the scheme by the residents of the test area.

Preparation for wider application. In December 1983, a decision was taken to implement Neighbourhood Watch within each of the eleven metropolitan police districts. Each district commander being responsible for selection of areas and implementation of the program. Prior to public launch of the program, training teams visited each district and briefed a total of 2,000 operational police personnel about Neighbourhood Watch. Personnel from each district were selected and received training pertinent to implementing and maintaining the program. Manuals and other support material were prepared. Funding was provided by the private sector.

On 14 March 1984, the Victoria Police Neighbourhood Watch Program was formally launched. Ninety-three media representatives attended and the wide publicity given resulted in 2,500 telephone calls being received at a central information centre.

Progress to date. Between 14 March and 31 July 1984, 21 Neighbourhood Watch Programs have been established within the metropolitan area. These programs cover approximately 14,000 residences with a population of 45,000 people.

The program is receiving strong public support and public meetings attract attendances of 150 people (average over 21 programs).

Crime analysis. Monthly crime analysis returns in respect to each Neighbourhood Watch area are being monitored and compared with control area samples. A computer program has been developed to measure this aspect of the program and to record police man hours expended in the development and maintenance of the scheme.

Program projections. It is projected that 100 Neighbourhood Watch Programs, covering a population of 250,000 residents, will

be established by 30 June 1985. Early indications point to an even larger proportion of the public undertaking the scheme in an informal way.

This large scale public support, together with the positive police acceptance of the scheme, suggest that earlier stated burglary problems in this State may be significantly reduced.

Conclusion

To promote and maintain the active and willing support of the public is critical to the success of policing in our society.

Escalating crime rates, and the consequences of this to the community, place increasing demands on limited police resources. The diminishing capability of police to provide a professional response in the traditional fashion emphasises the need to devise alternative strategies in crime control. Part of any plan to significantly impact the broad range of crime related problems must include the utilisation of the greatest resource available to police, the public itself.

The community has demonstrated a willingness to accept responsibility in this field. Police, as being the agency with primary responsibility for crime prevention and control, must provide the quality of leadership to ensure maximum community response. Any strategy which seeks to upgrade the police role in formalising the support of the public should be carefully planned to not only satisfy immediate needs, but provide a clear direction for the foreseeable future. In designing such a strategy the information contained in this report offers some focus for consideration.

The organisation and management of community involvement policing, and other proactive effort, cannot be viewed in isolation from overall police functioning. Where this has occurred it has led to a downgrading in the proactive role within the organisational setting. Part of this lowering of priority has been an inability to justify the effectiveness and efficiency of diverting scarce police resources from the clearly defined reactive role. Results of proactive policing have not fitted neatly into traditional patterns of measurement.

Recent developments in combining the proactive and reactive functions into a balanced and integrated system, with new techniques in computer aided data collection and measurement, point to a new era in police management.

In the foreseeable future it is unlikely police resources will increase in proportion to demands made upon those resources; in fact the reverse is probable. This will place added responsibility and accountability on police managers in providing alternative methods aimed at reducing crime problems. Emphasis will be on productivity improvement: deploying resources in the most efficient manner towards the most effective result, and measuring the outcome.

Police managers will rely on clear policy and concise objectives in planning courses of action. Their decisions will be based on the best available information provided through central and localised management information systems. Regular and appropriate training will update the knowledge and skills of managers and personnel to ensure a professional standard of performance. Police will need to utilise the evident range of resources available to them, including other government agencies and the community itself.

Within this framework, a planned approach to involve the community in effective crime prevention may prove a decisive factor in curbing the incidence of crime and disorder in our society.

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