

To carry out an inspection of the use of non-sworn police staff in the Police Service of England and Wales. The inspection will focus upon the following:

Overview

- Identify and examine the key organisational, structural, financial, cultural, managerial etc features of the civilianisation process and the role of police staff in policing.
- Critically evaluate the use of police staff across the service. In particular the degree of consistency across forces in terms of their numbers, use and deployment.
- Benchmark existing practice within the service with that in other public and private sector bodies and selected police organisations outside of the UK.
- Define and identify potential good practice in this area.
- Delineate areas where further research or analysis is required to develop our understanding of this issue.
- Make recommendations designed to improve the strategic and policy making framework around this issue and the effective management and deployment of police staff across the service.

Strategy, policy and business planning

- Scrutinise the strategic and policy making framework which supports and informs the civilianisation process. In particular the clarity, or lack of clarity, around strategic direction.
- Examine the role of national policy making structures and key stakeholders in supporting efforts to ensure the efficient and effective use of police staff.
- Consider the various incentives/disincentives which exist to promote a balanced and effective workforce and a resilient support infrastructure across forces. In particular how the current funding, strategic and business planning arrangements across the service and within individual forces and organisations support the 'correct' mix of officers and police staff.

Performance monitoring

- Review the process which exists to monitor the effectiveness of the civilianisation process, the use and deployment of police staff and their contribution to service delivery. Are forces and stakeholders clear regarding the meaning, objectives, benefits and disadvantages of the process? Are there demonstrable economic cost benefits, improvements to efficiency and effectiveness? Are officers released to operational duties? How will forces manage any decline in the number of posts suitable for officers no longer fit to carry out the full range of police duties?

Management and deployment of police staff

- Review the recruitment, retention and progression of police staff, in particular that of female police staff and those from minority ethnic backgrounds.
- Do police staff have an effective ‘voice’ in the service/within forces. Are arrangements for their consultation and representation regarding key issues and decisions adequate?
- Examine the supervision, management and deployment of police staff, together with their role as managers and supervisors of officers and as chief officers.
- Examine the effectiveness of current arrangements regarding leadership, development and training.
- Review current arrangements to ensure the integration of officers and police staff in the workplace. The scope for further integration, including the potential to better align terms and conditions of employment, pay, discipline etc arrangements.

Development of future roles

- Examine the changing role of police staff and possible future developments in their use. In particular the potential for enhanced involvement in frontline patrol, traffic, investigative and community policing roles and for new roles which cut across and help join up activity across various agencies in the criminal justice system.
- Examine the impact of the police and wider public sector reform programme upon police workforce organisation and staffing. How are forces responding to/what is the likely impact of initiatives, including:
 - The retention of officers beyond 30 years’ service/changes to pension entitlement.
 - Attempts to reduce ill health retirements, to create a more healthy workforce.
 - Use of CSOs to strengthen the patrol function/the role of the extended police family.
 - Increased use of support staff in detention, escort, investigatory roles.
 - Community safety accreditation schemes.
 - Attempts to enhance customer focus, satisfaction and to reduce bureaucracy.

The research methods used during the course of this inspection included the following:

- A comprehensive but focused literature review conducted by Barry Loveday from the University of Portsmouth.
- Collation and analysis of relevant statistical data.
- A review of practice outside of the United Kingdom and Ireland.
- A series of semi-structured strategic interviews with key stakeholders. Over 60 interviews were conducted which gives an indication of the complexity and the breadth of issues informing this inspection.
- A questionnaire to 3,200 police officers and police staff in 8 police forces visited during the fieldwork phase of the inspection. These were selected to provide a broadly representative mix of metropolitan and rural, Home Office and non-Home Office forces etc. A total of 1,277 questionnaires (39.9%) were returned. The questionnaire was designed to explore the attitude and individual perception of officers and police staff and to throw some light on the cultural and interpersonal issues that were felt to be significant to this work. A copy of the questionnaire is included as Appendix F.
- A questionnaire to the 43 police forces in England and Wales. This was a comprehensive document designed to gather data from across the service, regarding organisational practice and approach. A response was received from 41 forces (95%). A copy of this questionnaire is included as Appendix G.
 - A series of national workshops and focus groups were held with the following:
 - UNISON/Trade Union Side (MPS) Branch Secretaries.
 - Training Managers.
 - Scientific Support Managers.
 - Finance Directors.
 - Human Resource Directors.
 - Police Authority Members/Representatives of the APA.
 - Representatives of the Private Security Industry/BSIA members.
 - Representatives from the 43 police forces in England and Wales and the APA were invited to three workshops held across the country. It was important to the inspection team that this work was as inclusive as possible and every force had an opportunity to participate. These workshops enabled senior police staff and officers to identify significant issues, to influence emergent findings and to be updated regarding the progress of the inspection.

- A reference group was established which included representation from key stakeholders, including the Home Office, APA, ACPO, Superintendents' Association, the Police Federation and UNISON, together with those involved in public sector reform, the academic community and the private security industry. A full list of members is included at Appendix E. This group met at key stages during the inspection to discuss and review emergent findings and issues and acted as critical readers for the draft report. Members from organisations identified as lead bodies for progressing recommendations assumed ownership and agreed to progress the findings emanating from this work.
- The fieldwork phase of an inspection is crucial to its success. Following detailed statistical analysis, 28 forces and organisations were visited. The criteria used to decide which organisations to visit included the following:
 - A desire to visit a diverse range of organisations in terms of size, demography, policing area and problems.
 - Geographical spread.
 - The requirement to examine a mix of forces who have either high or low ratios of police staff to police officers.
 - Account was taken of the degree of innovation in forces and in particular the extent to which they have embraced the police reform agenda and the recommendations emanating from the Policing Bureaucracy Task Force.
 - Consideration also took place of factors such as overall performance, families of most similar forces and recent financial trends. These factors helped test hypotheses regarding any relationship between levels of civilianisation, cost of delivery of police services, performance, etc.
- As a result of this analysis seven forces were subject to full inspection and 21 forces and organisations received a more focused visit to examine particular aspects of the civilianisation process or discrete initiatives.

Full Inspection	
Metropolitan Police Service	National Crime Squad
Northumbria Police	Surrey Police
Thames Valley Police	West Mercia Constabulary
West Yorkshire Police	

Focused Visit	
An Garda Síochána	British Transport Police
Centrex	HM Customs and Excise
Cleveland Police	Cumbria Constabulary
Dyfed-Powys Police	Hertfordshire Constabulary
Humberside Police	UK Immigration Service
Kent County Constabulary	Lancashire Constabulary
Merseyside Police	Ministry of Defence Police
National Criminal Intelligence Service	Northamptonshire Police
Police Service of Northern Ireland	Serious Fraud Office
South Wales Police	Tayside Police
Wiltshire Constabulary	

- Forces were provided with a detailed briefing pack and guidance to assist them to prepare for the inspection visit. A position statement, together with documentation requested in advance of the visit. These were subsequently reviewed and analysed in order to:
 - Assist in briefing the fieldwork teams.
 - Provide an overview of the organisation's approach to civilianisation, workforce modernisation and the management and deployment of police staff.
 - Identify evidence of clearly defined strategic, policy or procedural framework to support these processes.
 - Identify at an early stage innovative and potential good practice.
 - Identify key stakeholders – who was driving the civilianisation and workforce modernisation agenda?
 - Explore how organisations were monitoring the effectiveness, or otherwise, of these processes?
 - Prompt further analysis, enquiry and reality checking during fieldwork visits.
 - Help provide evidence that may subsequently feature in the final inspection report.

A suite of protocol questions and detailed guidance regarding evidence gathering was provided to members of the inspection team and a bespoke database was created to help record the evidence gathered.

- ACPO (1988) Civilian staff in the police service: career structures and other contemporary issues
- ACPO (2003) Roles and responsibilities review
- ACPO (2004) Project 2010 (draft publication)
- Audit Commission (1992) Fine lines: improving the traffic warden service
- Audit Commission (1996) Streetwise: effective police patrol
- Cabinet Office (2003) Releasing resources to the front line
- Crawford A & Lister S (2004) The extended police family: Visible patrols in residential areas, Joseph Rowntree Foundation
- Department of Environment (1983) Police service: civilianisation and related matters
- Department of Health (2002) NHS plan
- Edmund Davies (1978) Committee of inquiry on the police
- Fitzgerald G (1989) Report of a commission of enquiry pursuant to orders in council, Queensland
- Highmore S (1993) The integration of police officers and civilian staff: a study of internal service quality, Home Office
- Home Office (1981) The Brixton Disorders, 10-12 April 1981
- Home Office (1983) Manpower, effectiveness and efficiency in the police service
- Home Office (1988) Civilian staff in the police service
- Home Office (1993) Police reform: A police service for the twenty first century
- Home Office (1995) Review of police core and ancillary tasks (Posen Inquiry)
- Home Office (1999) The Stephen Lawrence Inquiry
- Home Office (2002 & updated) National policing plan
- Home Office (2002) Policing bureaucracy task force
- Home Office (2004) Breaking through (Action plan)
- HMIC (1999) Managing learning
- HMIC (2001) Open all hours
- HMIC (2003) Diversity matters
- HMIC (2002) Training matters
- Joint Consultative Committee (1990) Operational policing review
- Loveday B (2004) Commissioned literature review, University of Portsmouth
- Parrett L (1991) Past present and future roles of civilians in the police service, Home Office

Parrett L (1998) Past, present and future role of civilian personnel in the police service of England and Wales, University of East Anglia

Police Advisory Board (1967) Police, manpower, equipment and efficiency

Police Advisory Board (1979) Civilians in the police service

Policy Studies Institute & Police Foundation (1994) Police roles and responsibilities

Policy Studies Institute & Police Foundation (1996) Independent committee of inquiry into the roles and responsibilities of the police (Cassells Inquiry)

Prime Minister's Strategy Unit (2004) Review of police reform (Draft publication)

Reuss-Ianni E (1983) Two cultures of policing: street cops and management cops, Transaction Books

Royal Commission on the Police (1960, 1962) Interim and final reports

UNISON (2002) Equal before the law: attitudes and aspirations of police staff

ACC	Assistant Chief Constable
ACPO	Association of Chief Police Officers
ADR	Annual Data Requirement
AP	Accredited Person
APA	Association of Police Authorities
BAWP	British Association for Women in Policing
BCU	Basic or Borough Command Unit
BSIA	British Security Industry Association
CCTV	Closed Circuit Television
CDRP	Crime and Disorder Reduction Partnership
CFF	Crime Fighting Fund
CIPD	Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development
CIPFA	Chartered Institute of Public Finance and Accountancy
CJU	Criminal Justice Unit
CLDP	Core Leadership Development Programme
CPOSA	Chief Police Officers' Staff Association
CPS	Crown Prosecution Service
CSAS	Community Safety Accreditation Scheme
CSO	Community Support Officer
DCC	Deputy Chief Constable
DDA	Disability Discrimination Act (1995)
DfES	Department for Education and Skills
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
ECSO	Emergency Services Community Support Officer (Lancashire)
FSS	Formula Spending Shares
FTE	Full Time Equivalent
GPA	Gay Police Association
HMCE	Her Majesty's Customs and Excise
HMCIC	Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Constabulary
HMI	Her Majesty's Inspector
HMIC	Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary
HO	Home Office
HPDS	High Potential Development Scheme

HR	Human Resources
ICF	Integrated Competency Framework
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IPCC	Independent Police Complaints Commission
IT	Information Technology
JCC	Joint Consultative Committee
LRD	Labour Research Department
MDP	Ministry of Defence Police
ME	Minority Ethnic
MGS	Military Guard Service
MPS	Metropolitan Police Service
NBPA	National Black Police Association
NCPE	National Centre for Policing Excellence
NCIS	National Criminal Intelligence Service
NCS	National Crime Squad
NHS	National Health Service
NIM	National Intelligence Model
NOMS	National Offender Management Service
NSO	Neighbourhood Specialist Officer
NVQ	National Vocational Qualification
NPP	National Policing Plan
NTO	National Training Organisation
ODPM	Office of the Deputy Prime Minister
OPR	Operational Policing Review
OPSR	Office of Public Services Reform
PAB	Police Advisory Board
PACE	Police and Criminal Evidence Act (1984)
PCS	Public and Commercial Services Union
PCSO	Police Community Support Officer
PDR	Personal Development Review
PFI	Private Finance Initiative
PIP	People Involvement Panel (Surrey Police)
PITO	Police Information and Technology Organisation

MODERNISING THE POLICE SERVICE – APPENDICES

PLPU	Police Leadership and Powers Unit (Home Office)
PNB	Police Negotiating Board
PNC	Police National Computer
PPAF	Policing Performance Assessment Framework
PRP	Police Redeployment Programme (Thames Valley Police)
PRU	Police Resources Unit (Home Office)
PSA	Public Service Agreement
PSC	Police Staff Council (formerly PSSC – Police Support Staff Council)
PSI	Policy Studies Institute
PSNI	Police Service of Northern Ireland
PSU	Police Standards Unit (Home Office)
PSSO	Police Skills and Standards Organisation
PTDB	Police Training Development Board
RDS	Research, Development and Statistics (Directorate of the Home Office)
RSG	Revenue Support Grant
SAP	Senior Appointments Panel
SDM	Staff Development Manager (Metropolitan Police Service)
SIA	Security Industry Authority
SLDP	Senior Leadership Development Programme
SOLACE	Society of Local Authority Chief Executives and Senior Managers
STEP	Specials Through Employers Partnership (Norfolk Constabulary)
TUS	Trade Union Side
UKIS	United Kingdom Immigration Service
VOSA	Vehicle Operator Services Agency
WMIF	Workforce Modernisation Implementation Fund
WFM	Workforce Modernisation

Melanie Leech, Chief Executive, Association of Police Authorities
 Jan Berry, Chair, Police Federation
 Rod Dalley, Vice Chair, Police Federation
 C/Supt Rick Naylor, Superintendents' Association
 DCC Julie Spence, British Association for Women in Policing (BAWP)
 C/Supt. Suzette Davenport, British Association for Women in Policing (BAWP)
 Martin Tiplady, Director of HR, Metropolitan Police Service
 Jane Dench, Policy Officer, ACPO Personnel Management Business Area
 Gary Pugh, Director of Forensic Services, Metropolitan Police Service
 Ben Priestley UNISON
 David Dickinson, Chief Executive, British Security Industry Association (BSIA)
 Richard Winterton, Chief Executive, Skills for Justice
 Lawrence Springall, Home Office Police Personnel Unit
 Professor Tim Newburn, London School of Economics
 Steven Chase, Chairperson, Police CIPD, Heads of Profession Forum
 Professor Adam Crawford, Centre for Criminal Justice Studies, University of Leeds
 Stephanie Somerville, Office of Public Services Reform (OPSR)
 Steve Atkinson, Society of Local Authority Chief Executives (SOLACE)
 Steven Lowden, Director of Governance, Commission for Patient and Public Involvement in Health (CPPIH)
 Ingrid Posen, formerly Home Office Criminal Justice Performance Directorate
 Clive Morris, National Black Police Association (NBPA)
 Kevin Boyle, Gay Police Association (GPA)
 David A'Herne, Regional Crime Reduction Director for Wales
 Graham Baird, The Employers' Organisation
 Barry Loveday, Reader in Criminal Justice Studies, University of Portsmouth
 Peter Ablett, Director of Training and Learning Services, Centrex
 John Saunders, Chief Executive, Security Industry Authority (SIA)

SECTION A

A1. Which police force do you work for?

A2. When you first joined the police service did you see it as a long-term career?
(Please indicate your answer by placing an 'x' in the box provided)

1. Yes

2. No

A3. Now do you view it as a long-term career?
(Please indicate your answer by placing an 'x' in the box provided)

1. Yes

2. No

A4. In which, if any, areas have police staff been of benefit in your police force?
(Please indicate your answer(s) by placing an 'x' in the box provided – you may give as many answers as is applicable)

1. Criminal justice roles

7. Control room

2. Traffic wardens

8. Community support officer

3. Support/administration

9. Investigation roles

4. Front office/public enquiry

10. Detention/prisoner handling

5. Scenes of crime officer

11. Warrant officers

6. Fingerprints

12. Police staff have been of
little or no benefit

13. Other: *(Please specify)*

A5. Which, if any, of the measures below do you think would improve the contribution of police staff to the performance of your police force?

(Please indicate your answer(s) by placing an 'x' in the box provided – you may give as many answers as is applicable)

- | | | | |
|--|--------------------------|--|--------------------------|
| 1. Improvements in training | <input type="checkbox"/> | 5. Greater co-operation between police officers and police staff | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Improvements in management practice | <input type="checkbox"/> | 6. Greater recognition of police staff in the service | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Improvements in equipment | <input type="checkbox"/> | 7. No improvements are necessary | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. More responsibility to be given to police staff | <input type="checkbox"/> | | |

8. Other: *(Please specify)*

A6. Have you at any stage in your career seriously considered leaving the police service? (Please indicate your answer(s) by placing an 'x' in the box provided)

1. Yes **(Please go to A7a)**
2. No **(Please go to A8)**

A7a. If you answered 'yes' above please give your reasons.

A7b. Why did you choose to stay in the police service?

A8. Have you had an appraisal/performance development review within the last twelve months?

1. Yes
2. No

SECTION B

There now follow a series of statements which relate to aspects of the civilianisation process and the use of police staff. For each statement, please indicate your level of agreement by placing an 'x' in the appropriate box.

MARK ONLY ONE BOX FOR EACH STATEMENT WITH AN 'X'

KEY:S/A: STRONGLY AGREE

A: AGREE

N: NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE

D: DISAGREE

S/D: STRONGLY DISAGREE

		S/A	A	N	D	S/D
B1	Only police staff should supervise other police staff.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B2	Police staff should be able to supervise police officers.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B3	I receive good levels of support from my first-line supervisor.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B4	Police staff will go on strike sometime in the future.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B5	Police staff should not have the right to strike.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B6	When going to a police station the public prefer to see a police officer.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B7	My most recent appraisal/performance development review was worthwhile.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B8	My force takes an active interest in my personal training and development.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B9	In my force officers and police staff are treated differently.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B10	The public cannot tell the difference between police officers and police staff.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B11	Police officers and police staff should be paid the same if they do the same work.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B12	You should not compare police officer and police staff pay rates.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

	S/A	A	N	D	S/D
B13 Most police officers do a good job.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B14 Most police staff do a good job.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B15 The police service is more efficiently run as a direct result of employing police staff.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B16 The police service is more effective in terms of service delivery as a direct result of employing police staff.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B17 There is no place in the police service for police staff.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B18 There is still scope within the service for further use of police staff.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B19 The role/use of police staff within the service should not be extended any further.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B20 The main reason for employing police staff is that they are cheaper than police officers.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B21 Police staff with specialist skills are required for some jobs within the service.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B22 I feel valued by my force.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B23 In my force police officers and police staff are treated equally.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B24 Police staff should be more involved in front-line policing roles.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B25 Employment of police staff releases police officers for operational duties.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B26 Most police officers are not aware of the problems police staff face at work.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B27 Most police officers do not understand the problems police staff face at work.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B28 Police staff are an essential part of modern policing.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B29 Police officers can only work effectively with the support of police staff.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B30 All police staff who have regular contact with the public should wear a uniform.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

	S/A	A	N	D	S/D
B31 Police staff generally receive too much training for their role.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B32 Police officers do not really trust police staff.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B33 The morale of police officers is generally high.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B34 My morale at work has improved over the past 12 months.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B35 In my organisation officers are always given better treatment than police staff.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B36 I feel I have received adequate training for the role I perform.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B37 The morale of police staff is generally high.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B38 I would not hesitate to recommend my job to others.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B39 In my organisation police staff are always given better treatment than police officers.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B40 The public prefer to see police officers on patrol rather than community support officers.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B41 Community support officers are an excellent way of providing the patrol presence the public wants.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B42 Only police officers should patrol public places in uniform.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B43 Forces need to reserve enough posts for officers who are no longer fit for the full range of police duties.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B44 Police officers who are no longer fit for the full range of police duties should be required to leave the service.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B45 More support should be provided to operational police officers to help them perform their role.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B46 Police officers are treated fairly in my force.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B47 Police officers still spend too much time doing routine paperwork.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B48 Some police staff in key operational/support roles should not have the right to strike.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

	S/A	A	N	D	S/D
B49 Police officers are resistant to change.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B50 Police staff are resistant to change.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B51 I am personally resistant to change.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B52 I am unsure what the 'extended police family' means.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B53 My force has kept me informed about the changes brought about by police reform.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B54 I think changes to the way public complaints and discipline issues will be handled following police reform are positive.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B55 I am unsure how public complaints and discipline issues will be handled following police reform.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B56 I am worried about changes to the way complaints and discipline matters will be dealt with following police reform.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B57 Police officer and police staff complaints and discipline issues should be dealt with in the same way.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B58 Most police officers and police staff work well together.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B59 I believe my force could do more to help police officers and police staff work well together.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B60 There is still scope in my force to better integrate police officers and police staff.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B61 Police staff make an important contribution to performance in my force.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B62 My force actively involves police staff in important decisions.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B63 Police staff do not have an effective 'voice' in my force.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B64 Police staff are rarely asked for their views regarding important issues in my force.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B65 Police staff are treated fairly in my force.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
B66 I feel I am well represented by the staff associations/unions in my force.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

SECTION C

Please write your answer in the space provided.

- C1 Which, if any, posts within the police service currently held by police officers should be filled by police staff?

- C2 Which, if any, posts within the police service currently held by police staff should be filled by police officers only, i.e., de-civilianised?

- C3 If you wish to make any further comments about the role of police staff, or any of the issues raised in this questionnaire, please use the space below.

SECTION D: YOU AND YOUR BACKGROUND

In this final section, please mark the relevant box with an 'x' or write your answer in the space provided.

D1. **Are you?** 1. Police staff 2. Police officer

D2. **Are you?** 1. Female 2. Male

D3. **Do you work?**

1. Full time 2. Part time 3. Job share

D4. **What is your rank or grade and job title?**

D5. **How would you describe your role within the organisation?**

D6. **Who is your first-line supervisor/manager?**

Police Officer

1. I am a police officer supervised
by another police officer.

2. I am a police officer supervised
by both officers and police staff.

3. I am a police officer supervised
by a police staff member.

4. I do not have a first-line
supervisor/manager

Police Staff

5. I am a police staff member
supervised by another police
staff member.

6. I am a police staff member
supervised by officers and
police staff.

7. I am a police staff member
supervised by a police officer
only.

8. I do not have a first-line
supervisor/manager

D7. Are you a supervisor/manager?

Police Officer

- 1. I am a police officer supervising other police officers only.
- 2. I am a police officer supervising both officers and police staff.
- 3. I am a police officer supervising police staff only.

Police Staff

- 4. I am a police staff member supervising other police staff only.
- 5. I am a police staff member supervising officers and police staff.
- 6. I am a police staff member supervising police officers only.

D8. How old are you?

- a. 21 years or less
- b. 22 – 30 years
- c. 31 – 40 years
- d. 41 – 50 year
- e. 51 – 60 years
- f. Over 60 years

D9. How long have you been employed by the police service?

- a. 2 years or less
- b. 3 – 5 years
- c. 6 – 10 years
- d. 11 – 15 years
- e. 16 – 20 years
- f. 21 – 30 years
- g. Over 30 years

D10. How long have you been employed in your current role?

- a. 2 years or less
- b. 3 – 5 years
- c. 6 – 10 years
- d. 11 – 15 years
- e. 16 – 20 years
- f. 21 – 30 years
- g. Over 30 years

D11. Please state your ethnic group**1. White**

- a. British
- b. Irish
- c. Any other white background

5. Mixed

- a. White and black Caribbean
- b. White and black African
- c. White and Asian
- d. Any other mixed background

2. Asian or Asian British

- a. Indian
- b. Pakistani
- c. Bangladeshi
- d. Any other Asian background

6. Black or Black British

- a. Caribbean
- b. African
- c. Any other black background

3. Chinese or other ethnic group

- a. Chinese
- b. Any other ethnic group

A – Overview

A1. Please provide details for your force in the table below of the number (actual strength) of police officers, special constables, CSOs, designated, volunteer and total police staff as at 31 December 2003 and the projected numbers over the period 2003/04 – 2005/06.

Year	As at 31/12/03	As at end of financial year 2003/04	As at end of financial year 2004/05	As at end of financial year 2005/06
Police Officer Numbers				
Special Constable Numbers				
CSO Numbers				
Designated Police Staff (detention, escort and investigation)				
Volunteer Police Staff				
Total Police Staff Numbers (including CSOs and designated staff but excluding volunteers)				

A2. Are there posts which your organisation would like to civilianise but has been unable to do so?

Yes

No (Go to question A4)

A3. If you answered 'yes' above, please specify the posts and the reasons preventing civilianisation.

Posts you would like to civilianise

Reasons preventing civilianisation

A4. What proportion of your police officers perform roles which could be civilianised?

We have not formally reviewed this area/do not know

Number of officers in roles which could be civilianised.

Proportion of police officers in roles which could be civilianised (please express as a % of total officer strength)

A5. If you answered positively above please list the roles you consider could be civilianised.

(Please Specify)

A6. Since 1997 most forces have significantly increased the number of police staff they employ. What roles have you fully or partially civilianised between 1 April 1997 – 31 December 2003?

(Please Specify)

A7. Which posts, if any, within your organisation currently held by police staff do you feel should be filled by police officers only, i.e. de-civilianised?

(Please Specify)

B – Strategy, Policy and Business Planning

B1. What stated and documented objectives, if any, does your organisation have with regard to the replacement of police officers by police staff in certain roles? Indicate with an 'X' in one or more box(es) as appropriate.

- | | | | |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| No stated and documented objectives | <input type="checkbox"/> | Improving quality of service | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Release of officers to operational duties | <input type="checkbox"/> | Enhanced continuity of staff in post | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Introduction of specialist skills/expertise | <input type="checkbox"/> | Cost effectiveness | <input type="checkbox"/> |

B2. Where are these documented? For instance, do any of your major strategic or planning documents specifically detail the role of the civilianisation process in terms of supporting organisational aims and objectives?

- | | | | |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------|
| Policing Plan | <input type="checkbox"/> | Community Safety Strategy | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Corporate Strategy | <input type="checkbox"/> | Patrol Strategy | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Crime Strategy | <input type="checkbox"/> | Public Reassurance Strategy | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Civilianisation Plan or Strategy | <input type="checkbox"/> | | |

Other document(s). (Please specify)

- B3. Is there a police staff champion and someone who has overall strategic responsibility for the civilianisation process, workforce modernisation and police reform within your organisation? Please specify name(s), rank or grade, and include a brief role description(s).

	Police Staff Champion	Civilianisation	Workforce Modernisation	Police Reform
Name				
Rank or Grade				
Role Description				

- B4. Have you issued policy or procedural guidance regarding the operational deployment of officers, special constables and CSOs on patrol which makes clear their respective roles and responsibilities?

Yes

No

- B5. Have you considered and defined a minimum level of police officer resilience, i.e. a minimum requirement to deliver operational police services? If yes please indicate in terms of the number of officers and as a proportion of total officer strength.

Yes Number of officers required

Minimum level of officer resilience %
as a proportion of officer strength

No (Go to Section C)

- B6. If you answered 'yes' above how did your organisation decide on the minimum level of police officer resilience.

(Please specify)

C – Performance Monitoring and Management

C1. Does your organisation monitor the impact of employing police staff in terms of releasing police officers for operational duties?

Yes

No (Go to question C4)

C2. If you answered 'yes' above, how many police officers were released during 2002/03?

Number of police officers released	Percentage of total police officer strength

C3. Are you able to 'track' the release of officers to ensure they are not drawn into other non-operational roles? If so please describe how you do this?

Yes

No

We are able to track the release of officers (Please Specify):

C4. Does your organisation monitor the cost/cost savings involved in civilianisation?

Yes

No (Go to question C6)

C5. If you answered 'yes' above, please indicate below the *total* cost/cost saving for 2002/03.

Total cost/cost savings (delete as applicable)

Percentage of total force budget

C6. Has your organisation conducted any analysis of posts before and after they have been civilianised in order to assess the impact of the process?

Yes

No (Go to question C8)

C7. If you answered 'yes' above please provide details of the analysis conducted, the results and how this has been used to influence future decision making?

C8. Have you conducted any surveys relating to public perception regarding the use and deployment of police staff?

Yes

No

C9. Do you routinely monitor the abstraction of police officers, special constables and CSOs from patrol duties?

Police Officers

Special Constables

CSOs

Yes

Yes

Yes

No

No

No

C10. Are there other areas your force monitors in terms of measuring the outcomes from its civilianisation and workforce modernisation initiatives? If yes please specify.

Yes

No

(Please Specify):

D – Management and Deployment of Police Staff

D1. What is the current (as at 31 December 2003) number and mix of officers and police staff in the following roles? Please express as a full-time equivalent and round to the nearest whole number.

Role	Number of Officers (fte)	Number of Police Staff (fte)	Ratio
Control room, call handling and deployment			
Front office/public enquiry			
Custody functions			
Criminal Justice Units			
Central (HQ) Intelligence Units			
BCU Intelligence Units			
Crime/Incident Management Units			
Scientific Support, Scenes of Crime, Fingerprints			

D2. How do you decide on the mix and ratio of officers to police staff in functions where they are working together performing very similar roles, for instance in control rooms? It would be useful if you could provide an example of a recent civilianisation initiative which illustrates how these decisions are made.

(Please Specify):

D3. Please indicate with a 'x' in the appropriate box whether a police officer or police staff member is the **head of department with direct line management responsibility** for the following departments and functions.

Department/Function	Police Officer	Police Staff Member
Human Resource Department		
Finance/Resource Department		
Information Technology/Services		
Estate Management		
Procurement		
Criminal Justice		
Vehicle Fleet/Transportation		
Scientific Support		

D4. As at 31 December 2003 what proportion of your police staff were graduates?

We do not monitor this area

Percentage of total police staff strength who are graduates

 %

D5. What system of job evaluation and grading of roles do you employ?

HAY

JEGS

Local evaluation scheme (please name)

(Please Specify)

D6. What procedures exist for collective consultation with your police staff? As well as any formal force wide meetings with staff associations and trade union representatives please detail any localised consultation arrangements and forum.

Other. (Please Specify)

D7. What proportion of your police staff are not represented by a trade union or other recognised body?

Number of police staff not represented by a trade union or other recognised body.	Proportion of police staff not represented (express as a % of total police staff strength).

D8. What procedures are in place to enable you to consult with police staff who are not represented by a trade union or other recognised body?

(Please Specify)

D9. Do your police staff/their representatives meet on a regular basis (at least annually) with any of the following? If yes please indicate the frequency of the meetings.

	Chief Officer	Member of Chief Officer Team	Chair of Police Authority	Police Authority Members
Yes				
Frequency of meetings				

D10. If you operate a staff suggestion scheme, how many suggestions were received from officers and police staff during 2002/03?

We do not operate a staff suggestion scheme

We do not monitor this area centrally

We do operate a suggestion scheme and **police officers** made the following number of suggestions during 2002/03 (please express in terms of the overall number of suggestions and as a proportion of police officer strength, i.e. x%):

We do operate a suggestion scheme and **police staff** made the following number of suggestions during 2002/0303 (please express in terms of the overall number of suggestions and as a proportion of police staff strength, i.e. x%):

D11. Do you monitor centrally the completion of appraisals/PDR? If 'yes' please indicate below the proportion of officer and police staff appraisals/PDR outstanding by three months or more as at 31 December 2003.

	Yes	No
Police Officer	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Police Staff	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Police Officer	Police Staff
Number of outstanding appraisals	Number of outstanding appraisals
% of total police officer appraisals	% of total police staff appraisals

D12. Are appraisals/PDR for police staff monitored in relation to the following?

Timeliness of completion	Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	No	<input type="checkbox"/>
Quality of content	Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	No	<input type="checkbox"/>
Consistency of approach	Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	No	<input type="checkbox"/>
Identified training need	Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	No	<input type="checkbox"/>
Identification of high potential staff	Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	No	<input type="checkbox"/>

D13. Does your organisation actively monitor the wastage of its police staff in terms of the following?

Gender	Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	No	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ethnicity	Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	No	<input type="checkbox"/>
Age	Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	No	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sexual orientation	Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	No	<input type="checkbox"/>
Position/posting	Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	No	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reasons given for leaving the Organisation	Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	No	<input type="checkbox"/>
Areas of unsatisfactory performance	Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	No	<input type="checkbox"/>

Other areas (Please Specify)

D14. Between 1 April 2003 – 31 December 2003 what was the wastage rate for police staff in the following roles? Please indicate where relevant whether staff are designated under the Police Reform Act.

	Overall Wastage	Minority Ethnic Staff	Female Staff	Don't Know
All police staff	%	%	%	%
Traffic Wardens	%	%	%	%
CSOs	%	%	%	%
Detention Officers (designated/not designated*)	%	%	%	%
Escort Officers (designated/not designated*)	%	%	%	%
Investigation Assistants (designated/not designated*)	%	%	%	%
Analysts	%	%	%	%

*Please delete as appropriate

D15. As at 31 December 2003 what proportion of your police staff (please express as a % of total police staff strength) were ex-police officers? Please exclude agency staff or those employed on short term contracts etc.

We do not monitor this area

The proportion of police staff who are ex-officers is

 %

D16. Do you employ retired police officers on short term, flexible contracts?

Yes

No

(Go to question D19)

D17. How do you identify appropriately skilled and trained retired officers? For instance do you use your own database or an agency? If you use an agency please name them.

(Please Specify)

D18. How do you ensure that retired officers have appropriate levels of training and experience required for the role?

(Please Specify)

D19. Do you provide documented policy or procedural guidance and/or training to police staff required to supervise police officers and volunteers, officers required to supervise police staff, special constables, CSOs, designated and volunteer police staff?

	Guidance	Training	Neither Provided
Police staff supervising officers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Police staff supervising volunteer police staff	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Officers supervising police staff	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Officers supervising special constables	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Officers supervising CSOs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Officers supervising designated police staff	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Officers supervising volunteer police staff	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

D20. Does your organisation operate a formal career development scheme to progress its police staff who exhibit high potential?

Yes

No (Go to question D22)

D21. What number and proportion of your police staff are currently (as at 31 December 2003) identified as exhibiting high potential?

Number of police staff identified as exhibiting high potential	Percentage of police staff identified as exhibiting high potential
Number of minority ethnic police staff identified as exhibiting high potential	Percentage of minority ethnic police staff identified as exhibiting high potential
Number of female police staff identified as exhibiting high potential	Percentage of female police staff identified as exhibiting high potential

D22. What proportion of your training spend was allocated to officers and police staff during 2002/03?

We cannot identify/breakdown the spend between officers and police staff

	Total training spend £	Percentage of total training spend %
Police Officers		
Police Staff		

D23. On average how many **days in total** and how many **mandatory** days training did your officers and police staff receive during 2002/03? (Please exclude probationary constables from the officer count.)

Police Officer	Police Staff
Total Training (average days per police officer)	Total Training (average days per police staff member)
Mandatory training (average days per police officer)	Mandatory training (average days per police staff member)

D24. How does your organisation take account of the need to maintain roles suitable for police officers no longer able to perform the full range of police duties when considering whether to civilianise roles? For instance have you identified and designated roles as suitable for unfit officers which will not be civilianised as a consequence?

(Please Specify)

D25. How many permanently disabled/unfit officers were retained within your organisation as at 31 December 2003?

Number of officers

Percentage of total officer strength

 %

D26. How is your force preparing for the application of the Disability Discrimination Act to police officers?

(Please Specify)

D27. What will be the impact of the Disability Discrimination Act upon your organisation's ability to civilianise posts?

(Please Specify)

D28. Have you established any quota or limit to the number of officers your organisation could support on restricted or recuperative duties? If you have please indicate the number and proportion of total officer strength in the relevant box.

Yes Overall number of officers Percentage of total officer strength

No strength

D29. As at 31 December 2003 how many officers, CSOs and designated police staff were on restricted or recuperative duties in your force?

We do not monitor this area centrally	
Number of officers on restricted and recuperative duties	
Percentage of total officer strength (%)	
Number of CSOs on restricted and recuperative duties	
Percentage of total CSO strength (%)	
Number of designated police staff on restricted and recuperative duties	
Percentage of total designated police staff strength (%)	

D30. Does the same department have responsibility for officer and police staff misconduct, professional standards, complaints and discipline and corruption issues?

Yes (Go to question D32)

No

D31. Which **department** currently (as at 31 December 2003) deals with misconduct and professional standards, public complaint and corruption issues in your force for the following categories of staff?

	Public Complaints	Misconduct/ professional standards	Corruption
Police Officers			
Special Constables			
Police Staff Volunteers			
CSOs			
Escort Officers+			
Detention Officers+			
Investigation Officers+			
Traffic Wardens			
Other police staff			

+Please include designated and contracted out staff performing these roles

D32. How many police officers and police staff were dealt with under unsatisfactory performance procedures during 2002/03?

Police Officers	Police Staff
-----------------	--------------

D33. Do you regularly survey your police officers and/or police staff in order to ascertain their level of satisfaction at work? If you answer 'yes' please insert the date of the latest survey in the relevant box below.

Police Officer

Police Staff

Yes

Date of last survey

Yes

Date of last survey

No

No

D34. To what extent, if at all, does your organisation believe its police staff will become involved in industrial action? Please place an 'X' in one box only.

Very likely

Likely

Neither likely
nor unlikely

Unlikely

Very unlikely

D35. What contingency plans, if any, exist to help your organisation cope with possible industrial action by its police staff?

(Please Specify)

D36. What involvement, if any, do Police Authority members have in the selection of senior police staff in your force?

(Please Specify)

D37. Do you monitor the ratio of higher level supervisory and managerial to lower graded police staff posts as an indicator of the availability of career paths?

If 'yes' please provide details.

Yes

No (Go to Section E)

(Please Specify)

D38. If you answered 'yes' above do you monitor the distribution of female and minority ethnic staff across higher and lower graded police staff roles? If yes, please provide details, including the relevant ratios.

Yes

No

(Please Specify)

E – Police Reform and the future deployment of non-sworn police staff

- E1. What do you consider to be the current barriers and disincentives to experimentation and innovation in terms of workforce modernisation?

(Please Specify)

- E2. Assuming there were no legislative or procedural barriers would your organisation support the use of non-sworn police staff in any of the following roles or duties, or the contracting out of any of these to another organisation or agency? Please indicate if you feel these duties should only be performed if the non-sworn member of staff is accompanied/supervised by a sworn officer. You may mark with an 'X' as many or as few of the box(es) below as are appropriate.

	Role/ Duties	Only when accompanied/ supervised by a sworn officer	Contract out to another organisation or agency
Provide an initial police response to a range of non-life threatening/non-serious incidents	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Respond to and deal with anti-social behaviour and minor disorder	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Respond to and deal with minor crime incidents, such as theft from shops	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Stop and search suspects in public areas and seize evidence	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Stop and detain suspects awaiting the arrival of a sworn officer	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Arrest suspects	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Perform the role of custody officer	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Perform the role of identification officer	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Undertake covert policing duties such as test purchase, undercover work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Role/ Duties	Only when accompanied/ supervised by a sworn officer	Contract out to another organisation or agency
Enforce a full-range of traffic regulations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Deal with road traffic collisions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Administer roadside breath test procedures	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Perform armed (with a firearm) static protection or security duties in relation to senior public officials, VIPs or vulnerable premises	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Administer evidential breath test procedures at a police station	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Undertake specialist search duties at the scene of major crimes and incidents	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Take reports of and investigate missing persons	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Proactively gather and disseminate intelligence, for instance as a field intelligence officer	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Investigate a limited and specified range of criminal offences	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Investigate a full range of criminal offences	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Undertake static, foot or mobile surveillance of suspects	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Perform specialist, drugs, explosive etc police dog handling duties	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

- E3. Please indicate with an 'x' in the appropriate box below whether you use or intend to use police staff in any of the following roles. Please indicate if you have designated and/or contracted out detention or escort roles.

Role	Currently used	Designated Staff	Contracted out	Plan to use in the future
CSOs				
Detention Officers				
Escort Officers				
Investigation Officers				

If you do not currently use CSOs please go to question E17.

- E4. Do you monitor the performance of CSOs in any of the following areas?

Number of citizens arrests	<input type="checkbox"/>	Response to incidents	<input type="checkbox"/>
Persons detained	<input type="checkbox"/>	Public reassurance, e.g. impact on the fear of crime	<input type="checkbox"/>
Quality of files and reports completed	<input type="checkbox"/>	Number of intelligence reports submitted	<input type="checkbox"/>
Number of FPT notices issued	<input type="checkbox"/>	Quality of intelligence reports submitted	<input type="checkbox"/>
Number of complaints recorded	<input type="checkbox"/>	Dealing with anti-social behaviour	<input type="checkbox"/>
Number of expressions of appreciation	<input type="checkbox"/>	Proportion of time spent on patrol	<input type="checkbox"/>
Levels of sickness	<input type="checkbox"/>		

Other areas (Please Specify)

- E5. On average what proportion of CSO time was spent on patrol and how many citizens arrests were made between 1 April 2003 – 31 December 2003?

Average number of citizens arrests per CSO	Average proportion of CSO time spent on patrol

E6. Have you reviewed the role of beat officers, special constables, traffic wardens, or other operational staff since the introduction of CSOs?

	Yes	No
Beat Officers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Special Constables	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Traffic Wardens	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other operational staff	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

E7. Please indicate the number of days training received by the following staff before they are able to perform their role independently, i.e. without direct supervision by a police officer or member of police staff? If you do not have a policy or guidelines regarding this issue please state so.

We do not have a policy or guidelines regarding this issue

Role	Days training
Special Constables	
CSOs	
Traffic Wardens	
Detention Officers*	
Escort Officers*	
Investigation Officers*	

*Please include designated and/or contracted out staff

E8. Have you conducted any comparative cost analysis regarding the employment of CSOs in comparison to police officers? If yes please indicate the full cost below.

Yes Average annual cost of a CSO

No Average annual cost of a police officer

E9. Does your force actively encourage and target CSOs as potential police officer recruits?

Yes

No

E10. Do you have a documented deployment or patrol policy to inform your use of CSOs?

Yes

No

E11. Do you have a formal process to authorise CSOs as being fit for independent patrol?

Yes

No

E12. What number/proportion of CSOs (express as a % of total CSO strength) have been deemed physically unfit to perform front-line patrol duties to date, up to 31 December 2003?

Number	Percentage %

E13. Do you intend to increase the number of CSOs operating in your force area over the next 3 – 5 years?

Yes Don't know (Go to question E15)

No (Go to question E15)

E14. If you answered 'yes' to the above, is this dependent upon additional government funding, or funding from other external sources?

Yes

No

E15. Are any of your CSOs funded through the local authority, business or other public or private finance initiatives?

Yes

No

E16. If you answered 'yes' to the above, please provide brief details of the organisation(s) involved, the funding provided and the number of CSOs employed etc.

(Please Specify)

E17. Have you already established or do you intend to establish a **community safety accreditation scheme**?

Currently established

Intend to establish

Yes

Yes

No

No

E18. If you have not/do not intend to establish a scheme please specify why you feel unable to support this initiative?

(Please Specify)

E19. Does your force outsource any of its functions to private contractors. If 'yes' please provide details below, including when the contract commenced, who the contractors are and whether the scheme has been evaluated?

Yes

No

Function	Month/Year contract commenced	Contractor details	Evaluation conducted (y/n)
Custody			
Front counter/public enquiry			
Handling of warrants			
Managing lost and found property			
Other (Please Specify):			

E20. Does your force operate any form of police staff volunteer scheme?

Yes

No

E21. What is your force doing to improve its recruitment of special constables?

(Please Specify)

E22. What is your force doing to improve its retention of special constables?

(Please Specify)

E23 Do you monitor centrally the performance of special constables in the following areas? If 'yes' please provide relevant information for the period 1 April 2003 – 31 December 2003.

Yes

No (Go to Section F)

Average hours worked per special constable

Average number of arrests per special constable

Average proportion of time spent on patrol per special constable

 %

F – Good Practice

The final section of the questionnaire provides an opportunity for you to identify initiatives relating to workforce modernisation, the civilianisation process, the use, deployment and management of police staff which you feel could be considered as good practice worthy of promulgation to other forces.

Whilst we are interested in all good practice we are particularly keen to identify initiatives in the following areas:

- Enhancing the role of police staff/their status within your organisation.
- Improving the integration of officers and police staff.
- Enhancing the profile/marketing the role of special constables, CSOs, traffic wardens, investigation, detention or escort officers.
- Use of police staff, including volunteers, to reduce the administrative burden on officers, to support and release them for operational duties.
- Frontline operational use of police staff.
- Use of police staff to support and reassure minority groups, vulnerable victims.
- Use of police staff and special constables to support community policing or partnership initiatives.
- Use of police staff to generate income.
- Innovative use of special constables and police staff volunteers.
- Creative use of the mixed economy approach to service delivery, including collaboration with other police forces, public or private sector organisations to deliver services in an innovative manner.

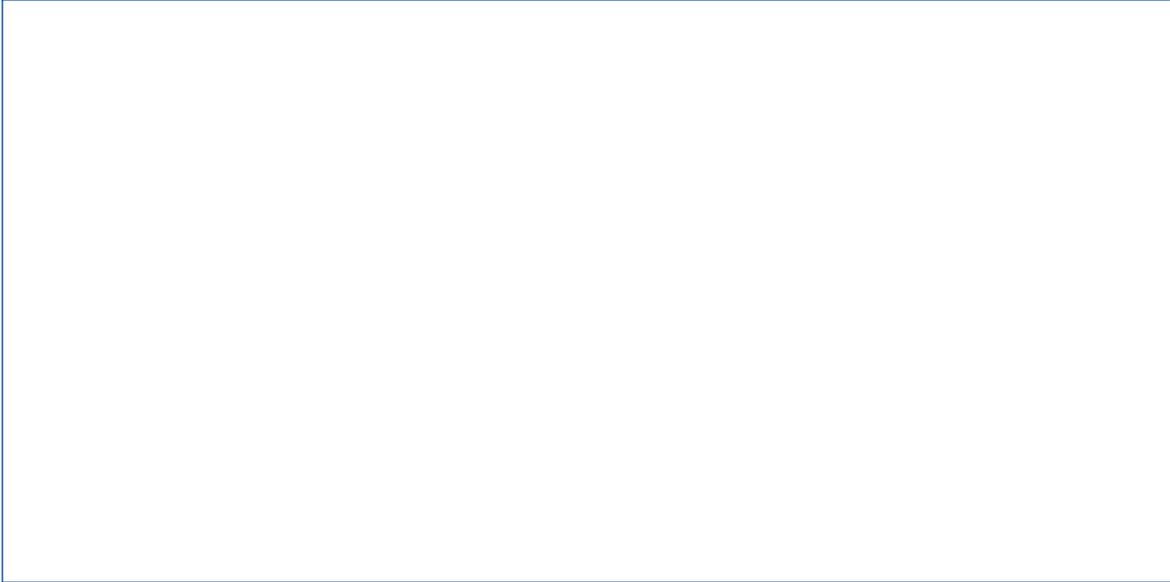
Please provide details of up to a maximum of 3 initiatives.

F1. Good Practice Initiative 1	
<p>A. Title/brief description of initiative.</p>	
<p>B. Name of individual to contact for further information</p>	
<p>C. Contact details e.g. Tel/Fax/email.</p>	
<p>D. Description of the initiative and why you feel it may be ‘good practice’. Please include details of any evaluation conducted. For instance:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Evaluation by professional independent external body ● Evaluation in-house ● Interim evaluation only ● Too soon to evaluate ● Not evaluated 	

<p>F2. Good Practice Initiative 2</p>	
<p>A. Title/brief description of initiative.</p>	
<p>B. Name of individual to contact for further information</p>	
<p>C. Contact details e.g. Tel/Fax/email.</p>	
<p>E. Description of the initiative and why you feel it may be ‘good practice’. Please include details of any evaluation conducted. For instance:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Evaluation by professional independent external body ● Evaluation in-house ● Interim evaluation only ● Too soon to evaluate ● Not evaluated 	

F3. Good Practice Initiative 3	
A. Title/brief description of initiative.	
B. Name of individual to contact for further information	
C. Contact details e.g. Tel/Fax/email.	
F. Description of the initiative and why you feel it may be 'good practice'. Please include details of any evaluation conducted. For instance:	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Evaluation by professional independent external body ● Evaluation in-house ● Interim evaluation only ● To soon to evaluate ● Not evaluated 	

F4. If you wish to make further comment about any of the issues raised by this questionnaire, or any aspect of the use, deployment or management of police staff in your force, please use the space below.

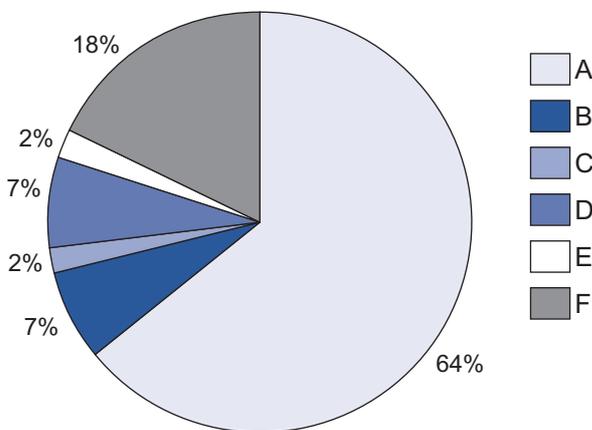
A large, empty rectangular box with a thin blue border, intended for providing further comments on the questionnaire.

Responses to Question Relating to which Categories of Staff Could Potentially Undertake a Range of Policing Tasks

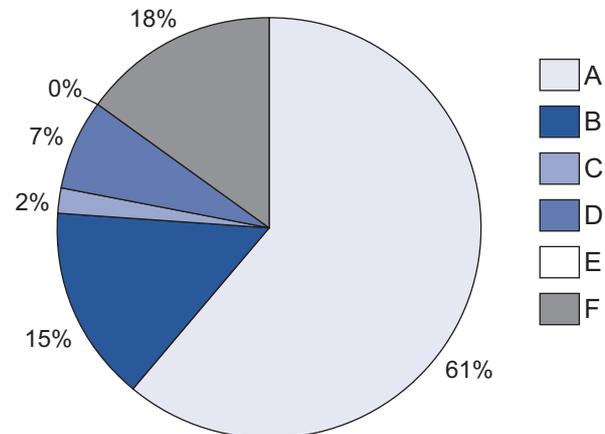
The following charts show the percentage of respondents that stated that certain roles or duties could:

- a) be conducted by **unauthorised/unaccompanied** non-sworn employee but would not be contracted out to an outside organisation
- b) be conducted by a non-sworn officer who is accompanied or supervised by a sworn officer but would not be contracted out to an outside organisation
- c) Could be outsourced to another organisation but could not be conducted by a non-sworn employee (irrespective of whether they were accompanied/supervised by a sworn officer or not)
- d) Could be outsourced to another organisation or could be conducted by an **unaccompanied/unsupervised** employee
- e) Could be outsourced to another organisation or could be conducted by an accompanied/supervised employee
- f) Could neither be outsourced or conducted by a non-sworn officer.

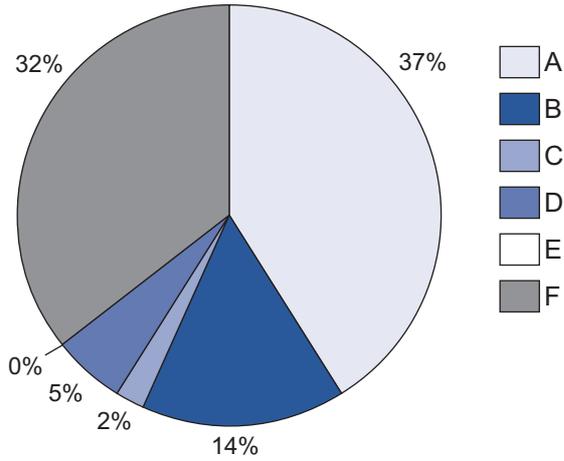
Provide an initial police response to a range of non-life threatening/non-serious incidents



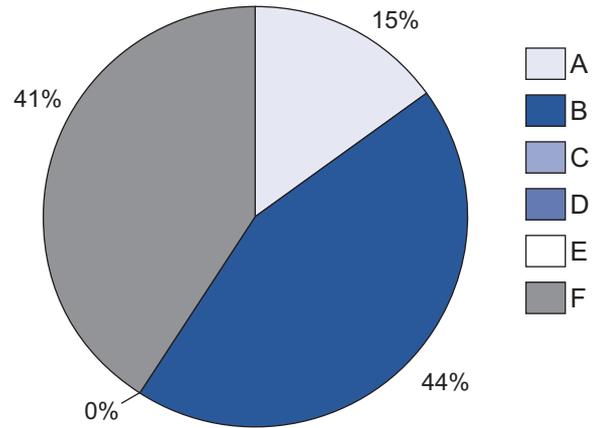
Respond to and deal with anti-social behaviour and minor disorder



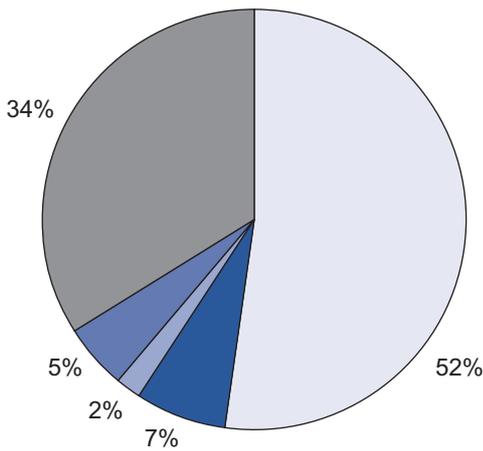
Respond to and deal with minor crime incidents such as theft from shops



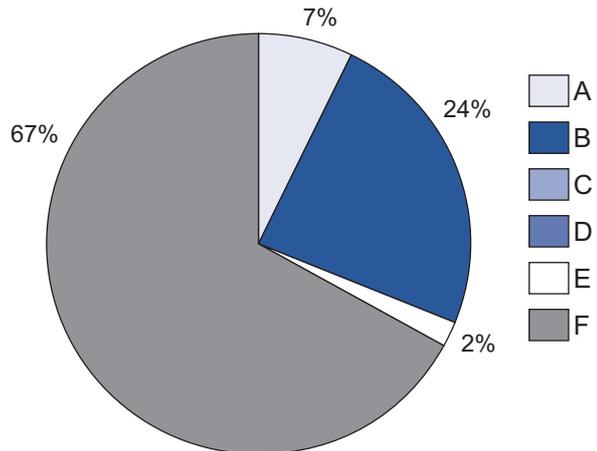
Stop and Search suspects in public areas and seize evidence



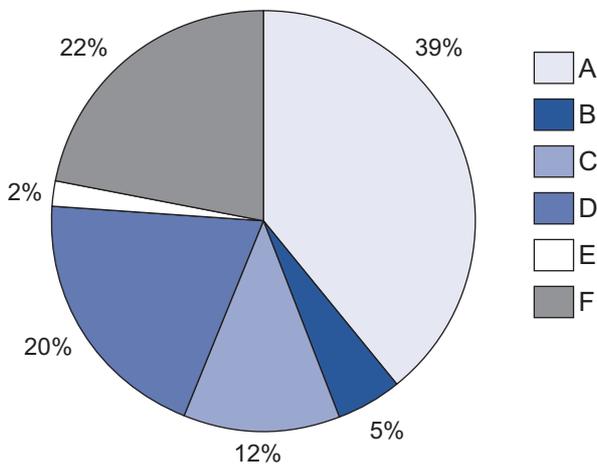
Stop and detain suspects awaiting the arrival of a sworn officer



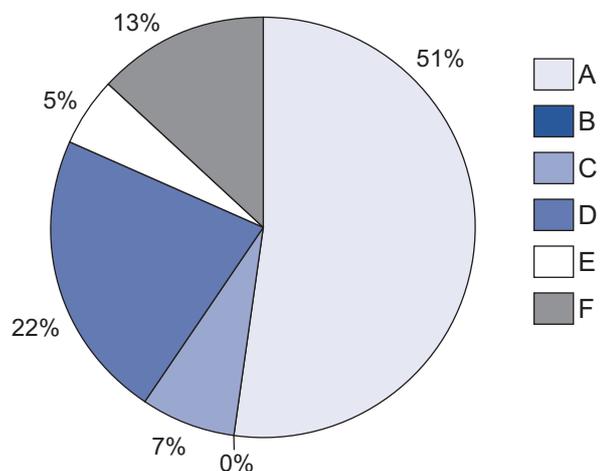
Arrest suspects



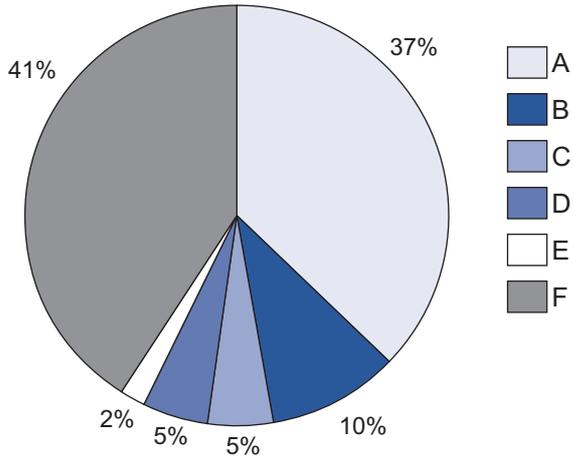
Perform the role of a custody officer



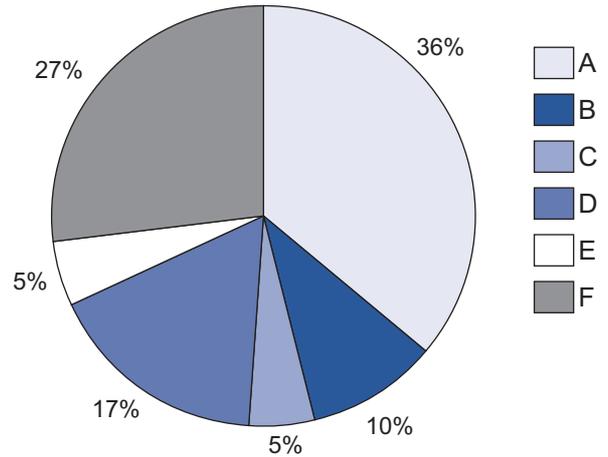
Perform the role of identification officer



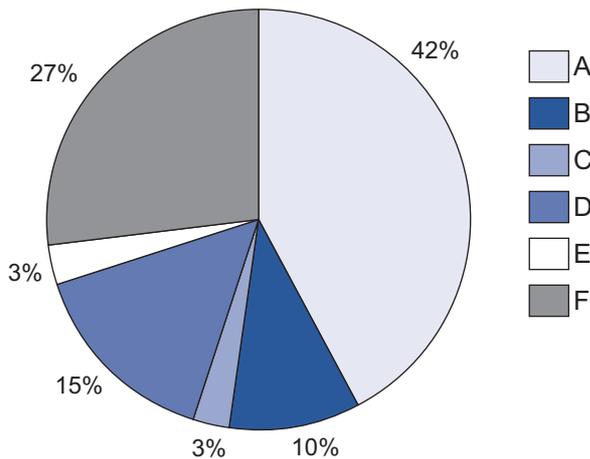
Undertake covert policing duties such as test purchases, undercover work



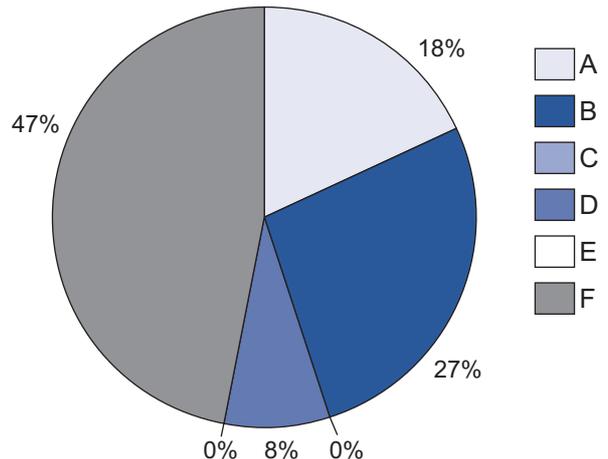
Enforce a full-range of traffic regulations



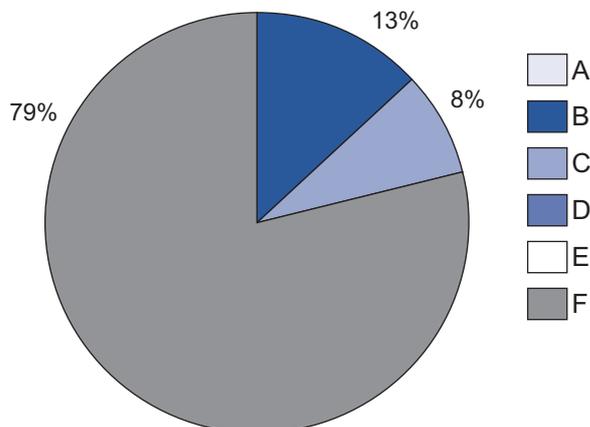
Deal with road traffic collisions



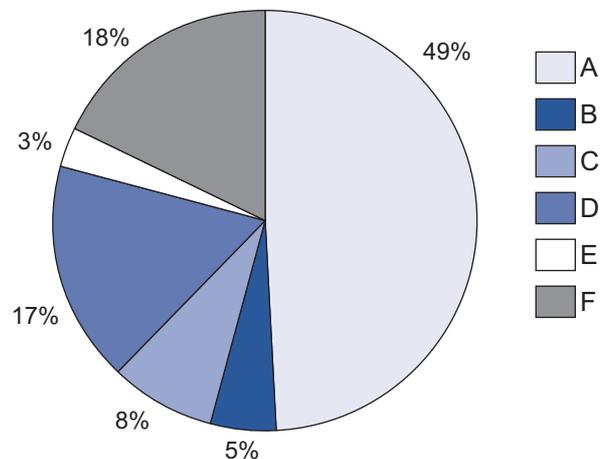
Administer roadside breath test procedures



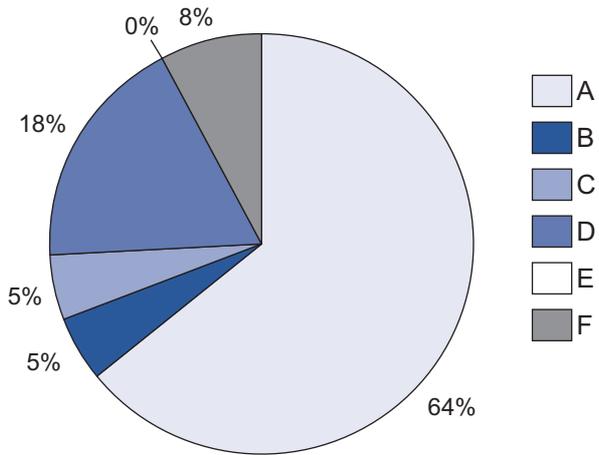
Perform armed static protection or security duties in relation to senior public officials, VIPs or vulnerable premises



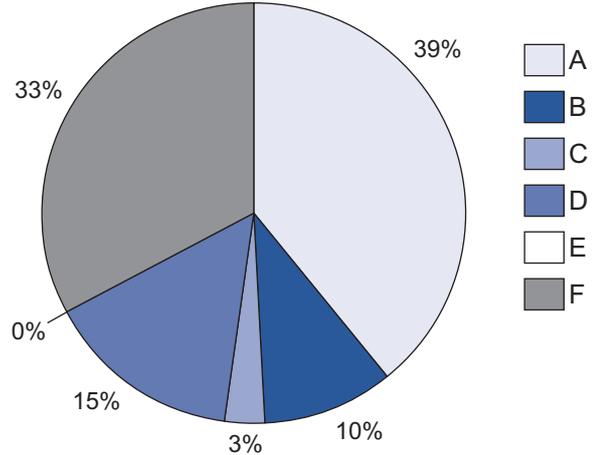
Administer evidential breath test procedures at a police station



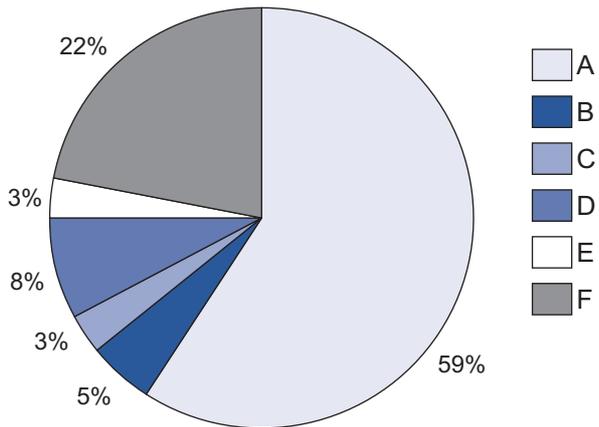
Undertake specialist search duties at the scene of major crimes and incidents



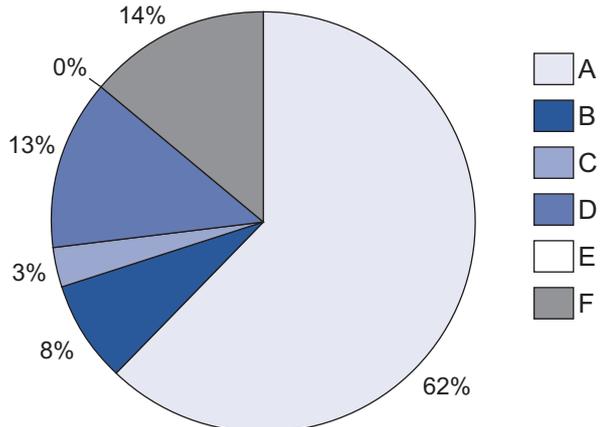
Take reports of and investigate missing persons



Proactively gather and disseminate intel. E.g. as a field intel. officer



Investigate a limited and specified range of criminal offences



Three workshops were held at the DeVere Daresbury Park Hotel, Cheshire (20 January 2004); Bramshill (22 January 2004) and Wyboston Lakes (27 January 2004). Each Home Office force was invited to send two representatives to one of these workshops, with forces being encouraged to consider nominating BCU Commanders and senior members of police staff. There had been an unprecedented level of interest in joining the fieldwork teams for this inspection. In recognition of this, all those who had expressed an interest in joining the fieldwork teams, but who were unable to be accommodated were invited to attend in order to give them a means of contributing to the thematic. Other invited guests included representatives from HMIC (Scotland), the Association of Police Authorities, the Home Office and those non-Home Office police forces that were visited during the fieldwork phase of the inspection. In total, 99 delegates attended.

The aims of these workshops were to:

- Continue the process of consultation and engagement at a national level
- Gain a broad range of perspectives on the key issues relating to this thematic
- Enable all forces to contribute to the vision for the future of the service

This document summarises the issues raised at these workshops. They have been grouped around six key themes that had emerged during the inspection. It does not attempt to cover every point raised during the workshops, but focuses on recurring themes and in some cases develops these in the context of other work carried out during the inspection.

Strategy, policy and planning

- Clarity is needed about the outcomes that are being sought from civilianisation/modernisation.
- It is difficult to disassociate this debate from the need for a fundamental review of what policing is and what the police will and won't do.
- Need to look at viability of 43 forces – hard to see change being effectively delivered within the existing structure.

Performance management

- How do we capture the customer perspective on different models of service delivery? This is hard to do hypothetically – pilot schemes offer the opportunity to test out public satisfaction with quality of service.
- The threat of terrorism may impact on public opinion.

Finance

- Full account needs to be taken of all the on-costs when making financial comparisons – civilianisation is not always a cheap option.
- Strong message about the negative impact of a simplistic focus on police officer numbers (both from government and at police authority/local political level).
- Efficiency savings need to be better identified from civilianisation/modernisation initiatives.
- Uncertainty over future funding (e.g. CSOs) makes medium – long term planning impossible.
- Too much funding is of a short-term, ring fenced nature which is highly restrictive.

Diversity/cultural issues

- Different terms and conditions for officers and police staff, extending to the rank structure of the police service, do not support effective integration. Need to move towards harmonised arrangements for terms, conditions, pay, rewards systems, etc. which would be a major step in addressing this issue.
- Cultural integration – need for leadership at the highest levels of the service to drive this forward (HMIC).

Management and deployment of police staff

- The lack of effective career structures for police staff is an inhibiting factor.
- The service needs to move away from the outdated concept of the omni-competent police officer.
- Disability Discrimination Act – lack of clear thinking about what the impact of this is likely to be. Confusion about whether it will mean more unfit staff being pensioned off or a stronger emphasis on retaining staff who become unfit.
- Use of retired staff – mixed views expressed on whether this was broadly a good or bad thing – danger of perpetuating the “old” culture.
- Need to ensure the right balance in the workforce mix to ensure flexibility and resilience. Use of part-time staff in particular can increase flexibility significantly.
- Vetting issues need to be addressed as more police staff are employed in operational roles (although an alternative view is that the highest organisational vulnerability comes from e.g. typists, cleaners who may have access to very sensitive material but be subject to little if any vetting).
- Concerns expressed about the potential over-use of agency staff – questions over commitment, paying premium rates.

Future roles/police reform

- Mixed views on whether sworn officers should essentially perform the only 24/7 emergency response role.
- Vision expressed of the police being a true emergency service, co-ordinating internal and external support areas and wider community safety resources.
- Transferability of skills across public sector and security industry should be an aspiration (this will be supported by the development of National Occupational Standards).
- Potential for modernisation to lead to the marginalisation of specials.
- Vision needs to be developed for call-handling? – Should we be developing tri-service HQs?
- If we are to become a better employer of police staff we need to accept that staff will move to other organisations. Equally of course staff would move more freely from other organisations to the police service. Again the development of National Occupational Standards should help facilitate this, which is consistent with broader reform principles as promoted by the Cabinet Office (OPSR).

LITERATURE REVIEW FOR HMIC THEMATIC INSPECTION ON CIVILIANISATION

Conducted by Barry Loveday, University of Portsmouth*

MAY 2004

CIVILIAN STAFF IN THE POLICE SERVICE

COMMENTARY

Although civilian [non-sworn] staff now constitute a third of the total police workforce in England and Wales and fill a wide range of duties and responsibilities very little research has been conducted into this important and expanding workforce. Indeed one of the most striking features of the literature review is how much more attention within official and academic literature and research has been directed to immediate operational and other aspects of policing and how rarely this has extended to the work of 'non-sworn staff'. Despite the fact that it is now commonly accepted that police forces could now no longer function effectively without civilian support staff this is rarely identified as a central element to contemporary policing [O'Byrne 2001].

This interesting feature of the low or non-salience of civilian staff within current police management has it should be acknowledged been reflected within HMIC which has in the past identified police force efficiency and effectiveness exclusively in terms of police establishment [O'Byrne 2001]. Recognition of the work of civilian staff has traditionally been associated with the identification of police functions which could be subject to civilianisation. The low salience accorded to civilian staff may only reflect however the reality of the police organisation and culture which continues to attach high status to the work of sworn officers and relatively low status to civilian personnel.

The relative absence of research into civilianisation is perhaps surprising if only because of the problems which have attended the expansion of employment of civilian staff in the police service. Described by one commentator as 'a time bomb waiting to go off' the expansion of civilian employment has, from time to time, created some tension between police officers and civilian staff which may have impeded service delivery.

Police organisational culture has also served to sustain a clear differentiation between police officers ['members of the police force'] and civilian 'employees'. This may to some degree have been a reflection of the nature of earlier civilian employment. Until 1994 civilian staff were either employed by the Police Authority or by the local authority and as a consequence were seen as being outside the police organisation. With the Police and Magistrates' Courts Act [1994] however, Chief Constables for the first time assumed responsibility for all police staff.

The low status accorded to civilian staff within the police service may also have been a function of the nature and rationale of their employment. Within the police organisation civilian staff were to be given relatively menial tasks and were viewed by most police officers as being a cheap substitute which allowed police officers to return to operational duties [Parrett 1998].

These two perceived features of earlier civilian employment were unfortunately widespread at a time when in the 1980s the recruitment of civilian staff began to increase significantly. One consequence has been a continuing tension between 'sworn' and 'non sworn' personnel within the police service and a residual resistance particularly among police officers at the lower end of the police hierarchy to further expansion of the civilian role.

The problems experienced by civilian staff have been further compounded by the relative absence once joining the police force of any established career path. The absence of any planned career progression for civilians presented [and continues to present] a stark contrast to that which is on offer to police officers [Parrett 1998]. This may of course only reflect the nature of civilian employment which has traditionally been either directed to low grade clerical support duties or alternatively highly specialised functions which did not cater for further career development. One consequence of this pattern of employment has been the creation of many 'mini-pyramids' of functional hierarchies none of which match that provided for police officers within an established police hierarchy.

A not dissimilar situation was to characterise civilian training where very significant differences were to be accorded to both the length and intensity of training offered to civilian personnel and that required for police officers. Most recently this particular feature was to be identified in the training period provided for Community Service officers recently recruited by a number of forces following the 2002 Police Reform Act.

It was to be discovered that just 6 weeks training was required to enable those appointed to the CSO function to fulfil their public duties. This contrasted to some degree with the 6 months training given to probationer officers. The absence of initial training and in-house training may have only reflected the fact that most civilians employed were not expected to do more than fulfil the job description and carry out the limited function for which they had been recruited. Additionally the absence of any defined promotion or career path may have precluded any perceived need for further training. When taken together these features of civilian employment [among others] have only served to emphasise the significant division and gulf in status between 'sworn officers' on the one hand and non sworn [civilian] staff on the other which has to date never been effectively addressed.

Civilianisation and the role of civilian staff. Historical Background.

Contrary to expectation the history and role of civil staff in the police service has been a long one. Civilian staff were first appointed by the Home Secretary to help administer the new Metropolitan police force in 1829. The role of civilian staff thereafter within the Metropolitan Police Receivers Office was to be significant. As was to be argued by one former Receiver in 1929 around 300 clerks worked within the Commissioners Office which when added to the larger body of clerks and professional, technical and manual staff employed by the Receiver within the Metropolitan Police at that time constituted a distinct ‘Metropolitan police civil service’ separate from the general civil service but organised on the lines of executive departments in it. Not being constables they were not members of the police force he concluded but were members of the police service and had been an integral part of the Metropolitan police organisation since 1829 [Moylan1929:121].

The role and status of civil staff in the Metropolitan Police may have been heightened by reference to and application of general civil service gradings which provided some pay comparisons while also offering some opportunity for promotion. In addition pay rates for some senior civil staff were linked to those of higher officer ranks within the police force. The ‘national’ dimension to policing provided by the Metropolitan police meant that the expansion of civilian staff would take place by reference to general national civil service conditions of service not unlike that which pertained in the [then] War Office [Howgrave-Graham 1947:104].

For a number of reasons the experience of civil staff in the Metropolitan Police service [MPS] could not be replicated elsewhere. In the provinces police forces were much smaller and would not have been able to justify or sustain the level of civilian employment carried by in the MPS. Outside of London local police forces were almost wholly dependent on police officers for all ‘in house’ services. Indeed prior to the second world war civilian staff nationally accounted for under 2% of all police employees. What functions were allocated to civilians were largely menial being confined to domestic functions such as cleaning and catering [Highmore 1993:3]. This may have only reflected the fact that police officers were through this period cheap to employ while the absence of police abstractions meant that they provided good value for the range of tasks that grew around policing over time. Police officers as members of a disciplined body could also be used for any other tasks as and when the need arose. This flexibility was and remains, it might be noted, a significant benefit for senior police managers which was not replicated within civilian staff conditions of employment [Loveday1993: 118].

Following the end of the second world war there was a perceived need to re-establish police numbers. The Oaksey Committee [1949] established to consider the efficient

use of police resources was to make a number of important recommendations for the police not the least of which was within the final report a strong recommendation to release police officers for police duty 'wherever possible by the employment of civilians'. It is estimated that on the basis of the Oaksey report numbers of civilians employed rose from 4000 in 1949 to 8,500 in 1966 although that figure also included 2,500 traffic wardens first introduced in 1960 [Highmore 1993:3].

In 1966 a further inquiry into the employment of civilian staff was to conclude that a more comprehensive programme of civilianisation should be initiated. The Taverns Report was to recommend that clear criteria should be applied for further civilianisation. Where police posts did not require police training, the exercise of police powers or the special qualifications or personal qualities of a police officer then such posts should be civilianised. Unlike Oaksey the 1966 Taverne Report went on to identify specific functions which should be civilianised to release police officers and also to enhance career the career structure of civilian staff. These posts were to include SOCO, fingerprinting and photography.

Outside of the Metropolitan Police one consequence of the Taverne report was that civilian employment began to assume the shape which characterises it today. In effect two types of civilian support staff began to develop. At one end of the employment spectrum general clerks/administrators providing a routine support function were established while at the other civilians were established as specialised post-holders with technical skills. The Taverne Report and the arrival of specialist civilian posts was to be seen as a significant 'turning point' for the role of civilian staff. After Taverne it was to be argued 'civilian staff were now considered an essential part of the police service' [Highmore1993:4].

It was not considered either appropriate or desirable to develop from this a general civilian career structure. This was made more difficult by the fact that civilians were recruited to fulfil specific posts and functions which with the absence of an overarching Personnel/Human Resources capacity made responsible for career development meant that what career planning was available was largely the responsibility of the police. The issue of career progression was however to be addressed by ACPO which in its Report 'Civilians in the Police Service' [1975] was to argue for the full integration of civilian staff, representation of civilian staff on the Police Advisory Board and for civilians to become employees of the police authority. The issue of who employed civilian staff was to prove to be a further problem in the integration of civilians within the police service. Civilians could be employed by the police authority but many continued to be employees of the local authority. While civilians were under the ostensible direction and control of the chief constable and the responsibility for identifying posts to civilianise remained that of the chief officer, they were not his [sic] employees.

The 1970s did however see a steady expansion of civilian recruitment within the police service with the Metropolitan Police alone employing some 15,135 civilian staff by 1970. One commentator was to note that civilianisation proposals at this time were far-sighted and included the planned development of specialised civilian units to deal with domestic disputes and the creation of a civilian traffic corps to take over all traffic work from the police [Whitacker 1982:100]. The end of the decade was however to experience a period of financial retrenchment and government spending cuts which was by way of Home Office Circular 75/79 to place clear restrictions on further civilian recruitment [Highmore 1993:4].

While during the 1980s many public services were to experience pressure on budgets this did not extend to law and order services. Under the first Thatcher government the recommendations of the Edmund Davies pay award for the police service was to be met in full. There after police officers were to receive quite generous pay settlements through the 1980s which doubled police pay and which were to make police officers steadily more expensive to employ once pension, housing allowance and other benefits were taken into account [Loveday 1993:121]. Despite this the Government remained committed to improving the efficiency and effectiveness of all public service including the police. Home Office Circular 114/83 was to put civilianisation back on the police agenda by linking future increases in police establishment to the civilianisation of posts which did not require police powers or police training. Thereafter Home Office circulars 105/88 and 106/88 were to provide detailed guidance on further civilianisation and also identify procedures for establishment applications from individual forces.

Although there was to be increasing opposition within some police associations to the growth of civilian staff at this time increasing demands placed on police manpower made such recruitment inevitable [Whitacker 1982:100]. These demands were generated in a number of ways. First as conditions of service improved and as police training increased abstraction rates rose. When taken together with sickness rates nearly 40% of police manpower could be abstracted on this basis alone by the late 1960s and early 1970s [Martin and Wilson, 1969]. Second where increases in manpower did occur this appeared to have little net effect on the number of patrol officers available for beat duty. Throughout the 1970s and 1980s while police establishments rose the number of officers available for uniform patrol duty fell [Martin and Wilson 1968; Loveday 1990].

An explanation for this interesting phenomenon drawing on the experience of one operational officer in the late 1970s was to be identified by Whitacker. Most manpower increase to date had been swallowed up by 'paperwork and the specialist departments' [Whitacker 1982:99]. This observation by an operational officer deserved, in retrospect, more attention than it received. It suggested that the process of

civilianisation could not of itself guarantee the provision of additional uniform patrol officers, the visible police presence which the public increasingly wished to see.

Civilian staff expansion

Following Home Office circular 105/88 civilian employment began to escalate. But while generally encouraging the extension of civilian employment to maximise the operational use of existing police officers there appeared to be no longer any clear long term plan for what was to prove to be a major increase in civilian staff. The movement towards greater civilian employment encouraged by Home Office circulars exhibited far less future staff planning than had been undertaken with earlier initiatives. Instead there was a suspicion that civilianisation in the late 1980s was seen as a primary method of increasing police establishments. Within the circular establishments could now only be increased if former police posts had been identified for civilianisation. In a relatively short period of time civilian staff had moved from a 'side issue' to becoming a central concern for all police forces but with little evidence of any 'forward planning' for the long-term for the new influx of civilian staff.

By the late 1980s police forces had become dependent on civilian personnel and could not successfully operate without their support. Yet while the increase in civilian staff was to reach major proportions in the late 1980s it became readily apparent that very little consideration, thought or planning had been given by either chief officers or police authorities to the consequences of such investment. The future status function and career structure of civilian staff had not been addressed. This problem was to be compounded by the local nature of policing in England and Wales which made the recruitment of civilian staff a local police authority responsibility. In this context it was also to become evident that the Home Office was to provide perhaps a less than complete appreciation of the long-term consequences of a policy which it had been happy to encourage local police forces and police authorities to pursue. In what was to prove an enlightening insight into bureaucratic thinking Parrett was to highlight the apparent lack of appreciation or understanding within the Home Office at this time of a programme which could in a relatively short time expect to change the composition of all police forces in the country [Parrett 1993].

One additional issue which was to become more salient was a perception that the employment of civilian staff was driven by 'economy' and that civilian staff provided a cheap alternative to the employment of police officers. This perception may have helped generate a cultural and status gulf between police officers and 'police staff' which continues to confront the police service today. This feature of the process of civilianisation was to be identified later. In an enlightening study designed to gauge the impact of Circular 105/88 it was to be argued that the Circular served to reinforce the idea that civil staff cost very much less in public expenditure terms than police officers

and that their use assisted both the police 'economically and operationally' [Operational Policing Review 1990]. A professional perception of civilianisation as a measure of economy was one that was shared abroad. As was to be argued in relation to the use of civilian staff within American Police departments at this time although there were a number of justifications for their employment such as the need to recruit specialists or the desire to increase organisational flexibility the most common benefit anticipated from hiring of civilians was economy. As was argued:

'In most positions which can be filled by a civilian especially those positions which are routine or unspecialised, it is proposed that a civilian employee will cost less than a sworn officer' [Heininger and Urbanek 1983:200].

The emphasis placed on 'economy' as the driver of civilianisation in England and Wales was to be highlighted at the time by the then President of ACPO. In 1989 he was to comment that while he had agreed to the draft circular [105/88] he expressed concern about the different perceptions that might exist 'particularly in the Home Office' of what the circular meant and where it might take the service and added that far too much emphasis was being placed on the financial aspects of the process [Operational Policing Review 1990]

Officially however it was clear that the advantages of economy civilian staff represented overrode both a belief among some officers that police experience was needed to perform the job successfully or professional concern about where this policy might ultimately lead the police service. However even with Circular 105/88 which required further civilianisation of posts it was evident that not all posts identified by police forces would necessarily be civilianised. It appeared to be acceptable to the Home Office that in some cases police presence or police supervision would be required while other positions might be left open to police officers 'for career development or to provide positions of employment to sick or injured officers' [Operational Policing Review 1990]. Police forces were therefore able to exercise a discretion in the determination of civilian posts which could mean that more senior positions could be held by serving police officers. This would however necessarily curtail any career progress for civilian staff below.

Nevertheless it is evident that the Home Office appeared to be satisfied with the progress of the programme when in 1988 the then Minister of State at the Home Office was to congratulate police authorities for increasing the percentage of civilians in the police service from 16.8% in 1966 to over 30% in 1988 [Operational Policing Review 1990:6]. By 1989 it was to be calculated that, excluding the Metropolitan police, there was approximately one civilian staff member to every three police officers in England and Wales. HMCIC was to report in 1988 that outside of the Metropolitan Police over 10 years police establishment had risen by 3249 while during the same

period civilian staff numbers had increase by 6475. It represented a recruitment rate of 2 civilians to every 1 police officer.

This rapid recruitment was to be explained in part by comparative costs. As an Audit Commission paper was to argue at this time that police officers cost substantially more than clerical staff employed on similar comparable duties citing a comparative pay figure at this time of £20,700 per annum for a police constable and £6,400 per annum for a civilian clerk [Audit Commission 1988]. If the Audit Commission was to highlight the financial benefits of civilianisation as a cheaper alternative to police officers it overlooked 'the long term consequences for the police service of the dependence on low paid lay personnel' [Operational Policing Review 1990:6].

Some reservations in relation to the policy of further civilianisation of posts may have been warranted at this time. As the Operational Policing review was to highlight a major problem of staff retention was already beginning to impact on a number of police forces which had engaged in the recruitment of significant numbers of civilian staff. By 1988 for example Thames Valley Police were to report that no less than one third of civilian support staff aged between 21 and 25 years left the service of Thames Valley Police Authority in one year. It argued that:

'This single statistic underlines the gravity of the problem facing the Force in attempting to maintain its support service. The overall turnover of civilian staff was 26%, some posts remained unfilled for the whole of the twelve months' [Cited in Operational Policing Review 1990:10].

Nor was the problem confined to single police forces. A survey conducted by Devon and Cornwall Police [1989] was to discover that 40 police forces reported that the number of civilian staff leaving employment in 1988 ranged from 6.2% to 28%. While the lower figure fell within a traditional 'wastage rate' the higher rates were seen as being a matter of concern [Operational Policing Review 1990:10].

While in some forces it was evident that any local economic development could lead to much more attractive salaries being offered elsewhere, the primary explanations for high 'wastage' identified by way of survey of police forces related to low pay and the absence of career prospects. Survey results demonstrated that 29 forces at this time believed that low pay explained high staff turnover while 15 responding forces made reference to 'poor career prospects' [Operational Policing Review 1990:11].

Highest turnover of staff was found to be highest among the lower administration grades, that is among the majority of civilian personnel whose work was often both repetitive and unrewarding. The 1990 Operational Review was to recommend a number of initiatives to attempt to alleviate the problem. This included the development of possible 'role sharing' to enable civilian staff to gain a more varied overview of the service. Nonetheless it was to conclude at this time that:

‘In the absence of appraisal or career improvements then high turnover [of civilian staff] can be expected to continue’ [Operational Policing Review 1990:11]

One further issue explored by the Operational Policing Review pertained to the potential impact of the employment of retired police officers as civilian staff. Despite some concern expressed by police associations as to the exclusion from recruitment of those already receiving a public pension survey data provided at the time demonstrated that there was no evidence of any attempt to exclude retired police officers from taking up civilianised posts. As the same review was to note however while these results might be thought encouraging for police officers ‘ it might also have a significant implications for the morale of civil staff, particularly if retired police officers are employed in higher-grade civilian posts’ [Operational Policing Review 1990:12].

The primary conclusions of the survey work conducted for the Operational Policing Review were to relate overwhelmingly to the issues of pay and career progression. As it noted:

‘For the majority of police forces the main concern was the recruitment and retention of suitably qualified civil staff. This in turn related to the low pay offered to civil staff and also to the lack of career prospects which are currently on offer. This suggests that in the near future police forces are likely to reach the crossroads in terms of pay and employment opportunities for civil staff. The issue relates primarily to the calibre of staff employed by police authorities which will grow in significance as specialisation develops. Career prospects will need to improve and there will also need to be a better pay structure if civilian staff are to be retained’ [Operational Policing Review 1990:24].

The Operational Policing Review was to cover a very wide range of issues which confronted the police service at this time. It is however instructive that in relation to the question employment of civilian staff it was to demonstrate considerable prescience. It provided evidence at least that within the police service the problem of civilian staff recruitment, retention and career development was one that had been recognised by senior police managers even if this did not appear to be shared within the Home Office [Parrett 1996].

One additional factor at this time which may have impeded a more efficient implementation of civilianisation revolved around the question of who employed civilians. Chief Officers believed that civilian staff were under their ‘direction and control’ and that they were in effect his [sic] employees, not least because they were subject to police disciplinary action. While ACPO was to take this view it was not shared by either the AMA or ACC then the main local authority associations who believed that civilian personnel should remain closely allied to local government structures. As was to be argued by one commentator an important factor in the

development of civilianisation was to prove to be the 'power struggle' between 'integrationists' and those who viewed civilians as 'fundamentally local government employees' [Parrett 1998:53].

ACPO and the Superintendents Association as 'integrationists' argued for civilian personnel to form an integral part of a unified service, a position which was not shared by many police authorities. The resulting impasse may have contributed to the problems experienced by civilian personnel. Police authorities sought to sustain links with local government by way of the application of similar staff gradings and conditions of employment. Chief Officers however favoured national agreements and the integration of civilian and police personnel [Loveday 1993:127].

One result of this conflict of view was that civilianisation developed within a power vacuum which was only amplified by the position taken by the Home Office which appeared unable to provide clear policy guidance on this matter [Parrett 1998:53]. It is nevertheless of interest in relation to the debate over integration of civilian personnel that many senior civilian staff did not appear, at this time, to be strongly persuaded as to the benefits of such a development. This was because civilians believed that their interests were better protected by reference to an authority other than that emanating from chief officers. The existence of the police authority [or lead authority] as employer could provide a useful counterbalance to the police decision-making process and was seen as providing one important means of protecting civilian interests [Loveday 1993:127].

Additionally in the absence of any direct input into senior police management within the police force the police authority acted very frequently as the only channel of communication for civilian staff to the chief officers management team [Loveday 1993:127]. The problem of adequate representation of civilian interests at chief officer level was not resolved by the presence of civilians as assistant chief officers. Where recruited these as members of the command team had clear functional responsibilities which did not extend to responsibility for civilian staff [Loveday 1993:128]. It was for this reason that many civilian staff were unconvinced as to the perceived benefits of integration. They believed that if integration did take place it would do so on 'police terms' and this might not be in their own best interests.

Police – Civilian integration: Themes and Problems

As the forgoing commentary demonstrates the introduction and expansion of civilian staff within the police service has proved to be problematic and has failed to date to lead to the level of integration which an important emergency service might require. There follows hereafter a literature review of publications and research on civilian staff in the police service. This will be approached thematically and will seek to explore the central challenges to police-civilian integration and perceived problems which have

arisen in relation to it. It should be noted at this point that such a review is necessarily determined by the extent and degree of research into the issue of civilian staff in the police service.

In their study of civilianisation of American police conducted in the 1980s Heininger and Urbanek were to comment that despite the managerial complexity of the issue and the strong feelings generated by the process civilianisation had received 'surprisingly little attention' [Heininger and Urbanek 1983]. While in the UK there has since the 1980s been some close analysis of the problems surrounding civilianisation it remains the case that this issue has been a relatively under-researched area, particularly when compared with the publication and research output dealing with operational policing in recent years.

Yet it is now the case that civilian staff account for around a third of all police staff and that police forces are now dependent on civilian support services over a wide range of specialisms.

Despite these developments it would appear to be the case that police-civilian integration remain a problem which to date has failed to be addressed with any success. The problem does not appear to have been resolved by legislation which may have been expected to encourage the unified service which ACPO has consistently sought to achieve. As Parrett comments despite the implementation of the Police and Magistrates' Courts Act [1994] which passed effective responsibility for all civilian staff from the police authority [or local authority] to the chief constable, little or nothing has resulted from this significant change in responsibility. While for all practical purposes this responsibility was already that of the chief constable the legislation provided an 'important and symbolic' opportunity for chief officers to welcome civilian staff into the police service and for the service to 'unequivocally present its vision for the civilianisation process'.

As Parrett notes it proved to be an opportunity which appeared to have been entirely missed [Parrett 1998: 219]. The result has been a continued professional acceptance that police organisations could be characterised as incorporating two distinct workforces differently constituted, rewarded and afforded remarkably different status [Parrett 1998:223]. In this the police service has demonstrated a sharply different attitude [and experience] to the majority of public services where support staff have been integrated into the workforce. It may have raised some doubt as to the commitment of senior police managers to the civilianisation process in relation to the delivery of police services to the public. There must also be some suspicion that the continuing differentiation between police officers and civilian staff has been sustained as a consequence of this lack of commitment from the chief officers.

Integration of Staff

The issue of integration of civilian staff with police officers has proved to be a significant and long-standing problem. The first official public reference to the issue of police-civilian roles was to be made by Moylan then Receiver for the Metropolitan police service in 1929 [Moylan 1929:121]. He was to argue that any perceived 'antithesis' between police and civilian staff was a 'false one' and that the functions of the civil service establishment and police at Scotland Yard were to a large extent 'interchangeable' [Moylan 1929:122]. He went on to add however, that the use of police officers 'with their special powers, pay and pension privileges' would not be used for sedentary office work 'unless it was such as required the status of a constable or previous experience of police duty or was a necessary qualification for future police work' [Moylan 1929:122].

It was nevertheless clear that this perception was not one altogether shared by serving police officers. As was to be argued by the then Secretary to the Metropolitan Police in 1947 the question as to what work 'was best done by policemen and what sort by civilians' had never been settled in any final way [Howgrave-Graham 1947:104]. The same writer was to go on to state the case for those who believed that there was no place in the Scotland Yard organisation for any civilians and also those who believed that the bulk of Scotland Yard work was not appropriate for policemen and could be done better and more economically by civilians [Howgrave-Graham 1947:104].

The 'anti-civilian' position was based on a perception that those who had not done police work, who had not lived the lives of policemen who had not been through the 'hard school' of beats patrols and night duty 'were not fit persons to direct police activities and settle questions which vitally concerned the day to day life of police officers'. The best training for police administration was felt to be police work while administrative positions gave police officers both valuable experience for those aspiring for promotion while also offering 'sheltered posts' for those officers no longer entirely suited for normal police duties [Howgrave-Graham 1929:105]. The same commentator noted that within the police it was felt that the police were a disciplined force more analogous to the army than a Government department and as such would 'take their orders and directions more naturally from others of their kind than from a lot of black coated civilians who were not in any sense police officers themselves and had therefore no natural right to lay down the law in police matters' [Howgrave-Graham 1929:105].

Although the Metropolitan Secretary was to stress that the suggestion that 'only police officers' could give orders to police officers was founded on a 'complete misapprehension' it is evident that the problem of police civilian integration has a long history. It is also the case that the relationship between police and civilian staff has

often proved at times to be one of 'uneasy co-operation' rather than integration. This was to be identified in successive research studies into civilian-police relations.

Us and Them?

In his 1993 study of integration of police officers and civilian staff Highmore was to identify a number of factors which contributed to the creation of a division between civilian staff and police officers. These ranged from the perceived lack of knowledge of the policing role on the part of civilians and poor police attitudes to civilian staff through to civilian inflexibility in terms of job specification [Highmore 1993:41].

Interestingly the same research was to discover that in terms of the perceived division between police and civilian staff, the latter were much more frequently likely to say that an 'us and them' attitude existed within the police organisation. While the identification of such division tended to reflect the relative age and experience of the civilian staff member it was found that the greatest prevalence of 'us and them' attitudes was usually located at centralised police headquarters. No less than 83% of civilian staff based at headquarters surveyed for the research were to identify a feeling of 'us and them' between themselves and police officers [Highmore 1993:47].

Factors perceived by civilian staff as contributing to this division included 'officers acting in a superior manner'; police officers lack of respect for their civilian colleagues; a tendency for police officers to treat civilians as second class members of the police service; an underestimation of both their worth and responsibilities as civilian staff and rejection of requests for information or advice from civilian personnel by police officers [Highmore 1993:48]. In the same survey civilian staff were also to emphasise structural differences between the police and civilian staff which were also responsible for generating 'us and them' attitudes. These related to pay differences, differential conditions of service and contrasting job roles. They were each identified as promoting 'negative inter-group attitudes' [Highmore 1993:48].

Interestingly the survey of police officers was to discover perhaps contrary to expectation that many police officers shared some of the perceptions of police officers held by civilian staff. While officers felt that civilians did not always appreciate job stresses and police workloads Highmore found that a number of police officers believed that police personnel were themselves the perpetrators of disharmonious attitudes. A number of officers supported the civilian view of police arrogance and superiority towards their civilian colleagues while others were to be self critical about their limited understanding of the civilian role and their own tendency to form 'closely-knit insular groups' [Highmore 1993:49]. Police officers were also to identify differences in pay, conditions of service and job roles as possible causes of the 'us and them situation'

Limited interaction and mixing of police and civilians as a result of locational segregation and different working hours were seen as only compounding this problem [Highmore 1993:49].

The problem of 'integration and corporacy' was to be identified within later research. In 1998 Parrett was to comment on the problems of integration and acceptance of civilians by officers. The same research study was to recognise by way of interviews with serving police officers the existence of a 'them and us' attitude which frequently emerged during the course of the interviews [Parrett 1998:97]. The lack of integration was seen as being one consequence of the absence of any sense of corporacy where respondents were to identify the existence of an 'organisation within an organisation' within which civilian staff were often ignored in terms of communication of information [Parrett 1998:97]. While it was felt among civilians that their presence served to 'weaken the police culture' and referred to the 'humanising effect of civilian staff' it was also clear that police officers continued to believe that the disadvantages of civilianisation could outweigh the benefits. The disadvantages revolved around civilian job flexibility; the lack of police knowledge; problems of integration; financial problems and the failure of civilian employment to actually release officers for operational duties [Parrett 1998:106].

The continuing division between civilian staff and police officers discovered in the research conducted by Parrett was to be associated with at least in part, the very different conditions of service and discipline pertaining to them. As was to be noted by Parrett during his research a number of respondents were to suggest problems in terms of the existence of two sets of rules within one organisation. While the police service had traditionally had a quasi-military structure, there was a certain incompatibility between this and civilian personnel management. Many police supervisors were found to have only a limited knowledge of civilian conditions of service and discipline arrangements while a very different control structure also existed between the two groups. The duality in employee control could it was felt 'lead to a perception of unfairness and differential treatment of officers and civilians' [Parrett 1998:129].

In addition the employment of civilian staff was perceived as having a potentially adverse effect on officers as they could restrict career opportunities by taking a number of administrative and managerial posts which would thereafter be close to them. As Parrett was to note one consequence of this was the need to provide varied police careers which did not depend on specific administrative experience as lateral and upward administrative career options were progressively closed to police officers though civilian employment [Parrett 1998:130]. If officers were to have a much more limited exposure to the police organisation outside of patrol and investigation functions this might lead to the adoption of a narrower perspective among officers who would

see their role as being that of 'enforcer'. By way of interview Parrett was also to elicit the view of the Police Federation at this time which proved insightful. Morale of police officers the Federation believed was affected as they saw the nature of the service changing from one which 'cared for its own' to one where efficiency and effectiveness came first [Parrett 1998:131]. This perception within the association representing most operational officers was unlikely to help facilitate civilian integration but does provide an insight into the attitudinal barriers that might be erected within the organisation in reaction to the influx of civilian staff. This too would have only added to the potential and real divisions within the police workforce.

Research was to also find that the perception of clear differences between police and civilian staff was unlikely to be significantly eroded over time. Once again this was found to be a function [and failure] of the organisation rather than one associated with specific personnel. No real attempt had been made to encourage either 'side' to understand the responsibilities and duties associated with their differing tasks, either as operational police officers or as civilian administrators. In an insightful summary of this problem Highmore was to comment on the way that the most frequent problem identified by both police and civilians was the 'lack of understanding of each other's roles within the organisation' [Highmore 1993:42].

As this commentator was to add many other problems appeared to be linked to the lack of understanding between police and civilian staff. Highmore was to note that many officers felt that civilians lacked police knowledge and sufficient training while civilian staff criticised their police colleagues for their limited communication [Highgrove 1993:42]. The absence within forces at any attempt to develop mutual self awareness of the role and function of police and civilians was also to be identified by Parrett.

Arguing that it was an area that called for further research Parrett was to note that problems of integration in the absence of any initiative from chief officers were compounded by the 'police culture' which was often characterised as being both insular and resistant to change and which had generated problems in relation to civilian integration. He found that cultural problems were encountered at a number of levels, resentment from officers as civilian staff took jobs traditionally performed by them and civilian morale issues 'as they feel themselves to be outsiders to the police service' [Parrett 1998:131].

Civilian Career Development and Staff Retention

One element which is common to most of the literature on civilian staff concerns the absence of a career structure for those recruited into the police service. This problem was to be compounded by the nature and type of work which was to be civilianised. This could range from relatively low level administrative duties through to highly skilled

functions in technical areas. One result of this pattern of employment was to be an absence of shared career opportunities as administrative and technical civilian staff in terms of function, status and pay did not exhibit much commonality. Having joined the police service civilian staff were confronted with a whole series of mini-pyramids consisting of civilian specialists and generalists. While specialist staff might be better remunerated than generalists as 'dedicated technical specialists' they were unlikely to be offered the opportunity of wider managerial responsibilities. For generalist staff however usually at the base of the pyramid there was little opportunity of higher remuneration as career progression was either severely limited if not altogether closed to them [Loveday 1993:126].

In addition to this there has been a substantial recent growth of civilian staff with specific, dedicated functions which may preclude further career development. These range from crime analysts and inquiry desk officers to force control room personnel.

The problem of career development and the implications of this for staff retention has been recognised for some time. Parrett notes that as early as 1967 the Police Advisory Board was to highlight the need to open up, improve and advertise the career structure on a national basis to recruit high quality personnel. In the same year a management review of the Metropolitan police argued the case for the Home Office to establish a national structure and conditions for all civil staff 'which would apply to all police forces employing a similar category of staff'[PA Management Consultants 1967:14].

Only a national structure, it believed, set up outside of existing local government arrangements would provide the opportunity for staff to be transferred or promoted from one force to another 'so that their career prospects could be enlarged' and to enable them to widen their experience. In the absence of any national guidance local authorities and police authorities continued to employ civilian staff often in an ad hoc way and on different gradings and pay scales. The absence of any standardised career structure was made more difficult by the absence of standardised pay, conditions of service and qualification requirements [Parrett 1998:140].

While encouraging police forces to explore the opportunities of career development for civilian staff by way of 'inter force moves' Home Office Circular 105/88 was of itself never likely to overcome the structural problems of earlier 'ad hoc' recruitment within local authority conditions of service which depending on the function often continued to differ between police forces. While this inevitably created an extremely fragmented basis for civilian employment Parrett was to discover that from the local authority viewpoint greater scope for career development for civilians was seen as lying in movement between the police force and local government [Secretary to ACC quoted in Parrett 1998:140]. Evidence suggested however that police civilian personnel did not transfer easily from the police force to a local council and that this was not seen as a

viable career move [Interview with HMIC Quoted in Parrett 1998:146]. This was seen as being made more problematic by the absence of a common grading system for civilian staff within the police service.

Problems arising from the absence of national conditions of service and pay scales for civilian staff was also seen to compare very unfavourably with serving police officers. As was to be noted by Parrett 'officers and civilians are subject to totally separate pay structures and there is no relationship between the two' while the Edmund Davies pay award in 1979 was to exacerbate this situation greatly. However successive surveys conducted by ACPO were to highlight the low pay grades to which the majority of civilian staff were linked. In its 1988 survey ACPO was to find that 73% of civilian posts were either scale 3 or under while in 1990 a second survey found that 80% of civilian posts were within the manual APT and C categories 1-3 scales and of these 38% were clerical/administrative; 20% domestic; 15% control room staff; 6% SOCOs. just 5% of civilian staff were held at senior or principal officer level, although this ironically was seen by ACPO as being big enough to claim that a career structure 'did exist' within police forces [Parrett 1998:141].

Low pay rates for civilian staff may have explained in part the most common management problem identified among police forces by the Operational Policing Review of 1990. This related to staff retention and high levels of staff 'wastage'. The Operational Policing review was to discover that on the basis of returns from 40 police forces the percentage of accountable civilians leaving the service in 1988 ranged from 6.2% to 28%. Forces were found to be experiencing difficulty at this time in recruiting high calibre professional staff while also finding it difficult to retain lower administrative staff all of which represented loss of continuity and expertise for the forces concerned. There was inevitably a regional imbalance with London and Home counties forces experiencing highest staff turnover at this time. However the Operational Policing Review was to note that an expanding economy could mean a widening of the problem as greater job opportunities and better pay became available outside of the police service [Operational Policing Review cited in Parrett 1998:148].

In 1991 a further survey conducted by Parrett was to find that while the then economic downturn had eased the problem of staff turnover considerably many forces continued to experience problems with civilian recruitment and retention. The posts where either recruitment or retention problems were worst included computing posts; SOCO; accountancy/financial; clerical/administrative and control room personnel [Parrett 1998:148]. The same researcher was to be 'surprised' at this time that the majority of responding forces did not conduct any formal analysis of reasons given by civilian staff for leaving the service [Parrett 1998:148]. Only a small number of forces had introduced exit interviews or questionnaires.

The problem of staff retention confronting police forces in the early 1990s was to be identified within a National Audit Office Report in 1992 considering civilianisation within the [then] Royal Ulster Constabulary. It noted that during 1990-1991 a total of 252 civilian staff had resigned from employment out of an average staff in post of 3000 and that this represented an annual wastage rate of 8.4% which compared very unfavourably with the rate of 3.1% for the Northern Ireland Civil service as a whole. While costs of recruitment and retraining of these staff was estimated by the National Audit Office to be 'in the region' of £300,000, it was to find that 'to date no detailed investigation has been carried out by the [Police] Authority to analyse the causes of this high rate of staff turnover with a view to remedial action' [National Audit Office Report 1992:19].

A further survey of police forces in relation to force recruitment and retention problems conducted by Parrett in 1997 was to find that over half of responding forces experienced recruitment and/or retention problems. While some forces had responded by offering increased [market related] salaries and allowances or adjusted gradings to retain staff the majority of forces failed to conduct any formal analysis of the reasons given by civilian staff for leaving the service. Of those forces that had conducted exit questionnaires the most common reason given by civilian staff for leaving the service proved to be 'lack of career prospects' [36%]; poor salary [30%] and domestic reasons [15%] [Parrett 1998:149].

Civilian Career Structure and Training

In his 1993 study of civilianisation Highmore was to note that to some extent a grading structure did exist for civilian staff which constituted an 'informal form [sic] of rank or status structure among civilian staff' [Highmore 1993: 74]. The same commentator also found that civilian staff appeared to be very conscious of the grading structure and the differences between various levels of civilian grades 'not least because of the inherent salary implications'. Interestingly Highmore was to find that while civilians were highly conscious of status and pay differentials 'police officers appeared to be relatively unaware of the grading structure within the civilian hierarchy' [Highmore 1993:74]. It was for this reason that the same commentator was to recommend a civilian rank structure which might serve to both enhance civilian status and stimulate interest in career development while also improving civilian staff morale generally.

Highmore went on to note that one consequence of such a civilian rank structure might be that 'police officers might find it easier to accept and respect a civilian workforce'. A rank structure while being of real potential value would not be of itself, enough. Highmore was to also argue that there was also a need to bring civilian pay more in line with that of the police and that while there was a need to retain clear differentials between police officers and civilians 'such a move would help to reduce

the perceived status differentials between the two groups and improve civilian morale' [Highmore 1993:75]. As argued by Highmore 'Police officers cannot be expected to treat civilian staff with respect if they feel civilians are cheap labour substitutes. Similarly civilian resentment of high police pay must be overcome' [Highmore 1993:75]. The same commentator went on to note both planned legislation following the 1993 White Paper on Police Reform by giving chief Officers responsibility for civilian personnel could provide an opportunity to bring all staff under the same employing body and assist in the development of internal civilian career structures which would help to reduce the divide between police and civilian personnel while also dispelling the 'second class image of civilians within the police service' [Highmore 1993:74]. Little was in fact to be achieved in this regard and the opportunities offered by the 1994 Police and Magistrates' Courts Act for civilian staff integration appeared to be missed.

The effect of a lack of career opportunities for civilian staff was however well understood within the police service. Parrett was to comment that the 'evident lack of development opportunities 'sends out depressing signals to civilians regarding their worth to the organisation which in turn has the potential to detract from organisational aims and objectives and could extend in particular to quality of service provided to the public [Parrett 1998:143]. In relation to this a member of the Superintendents Association in a highly enlightening interview was to comment that:

'It is important that someone who happens to be a traffic warden or a civilian driver or a telephone operator has the chance of career satisfaction and career development. They need to feel an important part of what is happening and not like some poor sod who is at the bottom of everybody's list, including the civilian establishment. Because you come back to serving the public, the way in which the traffic warden or switchboard operator perceives his or her job is part of the public image and service delivery of what we do' [Parrett 1998:143].

While this view may be commonly shared by many senior officers it is also the case that this has not frequently translated itself into the creation of career planning and training opportunities for civilian staff. While new opportunities have been identified, in relation to civilian attendance at Centrex Strategic Command Modules since 2001 [formerly open only to prospective chief officers] there has been a continuing failure to provide civilian training which would go anywhere near matching that provided for police officers. Parrett has pointed to the 'marked contrast between the provision and structure of officer and civilian training with the latter 'very much the poor relation'. He has noted that while police officer training was generally well defined structured planned budgeted and evaluated the civilian system remained 'ill defined and frequently dependent on finance becoming available' rather than being determined by identifiable need' [Parrett 1998:143]. The same researcher was to identify one deputy

Chief Constable who clearly shared a concern that not enough was being done to provide training opportunities for civilian staff.

This officer was to comment that he had a particular concern that in all the forces in which he had served 'the civilian training budget [was] miserly compared to the very generous police training budget' [Parrett 1998:143]. A survey of the Metropolitan police service demonstrated the evident disparity accorded to police and civilian staff. While for the police there was around one trainer per seventy one police officers, just ten trainers had responsibility for 14000 civilian staff covering 250 grades, representing a ratio of one trainer per 1,400 civilian staff [Parrett 1998:144]. This and similar data for other forces suggested that while clear standards were set for police officers in the belief that this was an important determinant of quality of service it had failed to do the same for civilian staff even though many would in a variety of functions have immediate contact with the public.

Civilian Supervision of Police Officers

While the problem of adequate civilian training may be addressed by the provision of greater resources being directed to this, the literature makes clear that the problem of civilian career development cannot be so easily resolved. This is explained by the absence of a career path between the lower administrative and specialist levels and that of senior civilian officers at chief officer level and a recognition that unlike police officers specificity of function for many civilian does not allow for or encourage a normal career progression for such staff. This suggests that only by creating functional hierarchies which encompass both police and civilian staff can any effective career structure be established for civilian personnel. This would inevitably mean that civilian staff would become, in possibly many situations, responsible for the supervision of police officers.

This development has been identified within the literature and is not in any sense a 'new' issue. It is the case that already in a number of specialised areas civilian staff supervise police officers. A survey conducted in 1988 by ACPO survey was for example to find 8 forces where civilians supervised police in such areas as fingerprint/Scenes of crime, coroners officers; computers and personnel departments. A later survey conducted in 1990 was to find that the number of forces where this relationship pertained had nearly doubled and now included such functions as telecommunications, scenes of crime; crime prevention; training posts, computing and some administrative areas. No forces however, were to identify officers supervised in an operational context [Cited in Parrett 1998:149].

However subsequent investigation made it clear that it was important to distinguish the relatively high number of forces which had indicated that civilian staff supervised police officers from the small number of posts and personnel involved. Examples cited

related to 'one force administration officer supervising one police officer' and a civilian head of R and D supervising a small group of officers [Parrett 1998:149]. While limited in practice and in terms of the numbers involved it was noted that it would be wrong to underestimate the 'cultural impact of this development' or that it might present the early stage of an evolutionary process' [Parrett 1998:149].

While recognising the positive features of these developments it is nonetheless the case that in developing a career structure for civilians which will necessarily lead to potentially direct supervision of police officers some frictions within the police service are likely to arise. As has been noted by one researcher in relation to this, the issue of supervision, particularly any suggestion that officers should be supervised by civilians "proved emotive" [Parrett 1998:149].

The potential supervision of police officers by civilian staff was to be explored by Highmore in some detail. Within a comparative survey of 3 police forces he discovered that overwhelmingly [73%] police responses to the question 'How acceptable do you think it is for police officers to be managed by a civilian member of staff' found this proposal either Very/fairly unacceptable while 39% of civilians surveyed found the proposal Very/fairly acceptable [Highmore 1993:21]. Of those police officers who felt it was not acceptable to have civilian staff as police managers just under 50% stated that it would be inappropriate for police officers to be managed 'by someone lacking in police operational experience and training'. While police officers surveyed were to also comment that civilian staff would not understand police matters, appreciate police problems or possess sufficient knowledge of police work in general it was apparent that much depended upon whether the civilian was a manager within an operational or non-operational setting [Highmore 1993:21].

The same survey data suggested that police officer acceptance of civilians as police managers 'would largely be determined by the skills qualifications, knowledge and experience of the particular person involved'. Additionally survey data was to show that those officers who managed civilian staff 'were more likely to accept the idea of civilians in police management posts than those who were not managing civilians'.

It suggested that contact brought about through a direct management relationship 'might enable a police officer to appreciate better the capabilities of civilian staff and acknowledge civilian management potential' [Highmore 1993:21]. Interestingly in the same survey it was found that the more highly graded the respondent the more likely the individual would find the management of police officers by civilians acceptable [Highmore 1993:21].

Operational Policing and Police Culture

This data may provide some grounds for encouraging an extension of management roles for civilian staff within the police service to include police officers. There does

however appear to be a very clear line dividing 'operational' and 'non-operational' policing functions where such an extension of civilian roles might be implemented. Recent research in to the role, function and influence of civilian crime analysts would appear to support the reservations expressed within the survey data identified earlier. In an important assessment of the work of crime analysts within the police service recent research has highlighted the problem surrounding police officer acceptance of either advice or recommended action made to them in relation to operational policing [Cope 2004].

Despite the recognised value of and investment in, crime analysis by police forces over recent years the evidence suggests that very little notice is taken by operational police officers of such analysis which was often only identified by them if retrospectively supporting an earlier operational decision. While considerable importance is now attached to both Intelligence-Led policing and the introduction, following on from the 2002 Police Reform Act of the National Intelligence Model within all police forces' research suggests that there is still some way to go before this new and important strategic approach encouraged by the government, HMIC and ACPO is made operationally effective. Recent research has found that irrespective of the current emphasis placed on 'intelligence and crime analysis' by dedicated civilian analysts, rather than being used proactively, 'analytical products were demanded [by the police] at the end of an operation to summarise the outcomes or used to justify an operation that was already planned' [Cope 2004:192].

A number of factors were to be identified in relation to the problems surrounding the use of crime analyses and may provide some indication of the potential limits to civilian supervision of police officers and an insight into the problems surrounding gender, civilian ranking and police organisational culture. As with the majority of civilian personnel employed by police forces, Cope was to draw attention to the gender composition of civilian crime analysts. It was felt that police perception of analysts and analytical products was significantly influenced by the gendered nature of the police organisation. Of the 16 analysts observed during the course of the research only 5 were male [Cope 2004:198]. This may well have encouraged police officers to identify crime analysts as 'office cops' who could be sidelined by operational police in 'pursuit of masculine crime fighting roles'.

The action orientated nature of policing and the traditional male hegemony within the organisation led it was believed to a perception of the analysts role as being one that was administrative, office based and in support of 'real' policing which influenced officers attitudes to analysts 'and how they exercised their power in relation to accepting or rejecting analytical products' [Cope 2004:198]. Much street intelligence held by individual police officers was not transmitted to crime analysts which served to undermine the value of their work. In interview analysts were to regularly explain the

reason for their expertise being overlooked by reference to their civilian status. It would appear that many officers thought that analysts were in effect little more than office secretaries [Cope 2004:198].

Even when they were assigned ranks equivalent to serving officers this appeared to be never really accepted by most police constables. Where grading had been introduced senior analysts were often found to outrank everybody in an intelligence unit including middle ranking police officers. The rank was as a result seen as being irrelevant while how the role of the civilian was defined became much more significant [Cope 2004:198]. Irrespective of the pay and contract differences between civilians and police officers accorded the same rank, the research was to emphasise the need for the adoption of networks rather than traditional police hierarchies to accommodate the integration of the 'new expertise' required within more complex policing. Within this staff would be recognised for their role rather than rank although this would require 'a fundamental shift in how police and civilian roles were conceptualised' [Cope 2004:199].

Police Management

Elements of the police organisational culture are seen inevitably as influencing both the nature and character of internal police management of both police and civilian staff. A disciplined and hierarchic system has tended to emphasise an authoritative culture within which civilian staff have had to work. Although civilian staff are not subject to police discipline regulations and their conditions of service differ substantially from those of police officers [sworn officers] they will often be managed or supervised by police officers. Interestingly in its 1990 Survey ACPO was to learn that the majority of police forces did not provide any training for officers who either worked with or supervised civilian staff, despite the clear differences in disciplinary arrangements and conditions of service [Parrett 1998:153]. Although some chief officers have recommended the scrapping of the entire police discipline code and its replacement by a code of ethics this has yet to become a reality [Parrett 1998:153]. One consequence of this can be that supervisory practices may exist which are seen as being inappropriate in terms of effective management of civilian personnel. This problem was to be highlighted in research conducted by Unison of its members working as police civilian staff [Unison 2000; Mason 2000].

In its survey of police civilian staff Unison was to discover that among respondents to the its postal questionnaire 64% of police support staff claimed to have either witnessed or experienced bullying at work. One in five respondents claimed to have been bullied in the previous six months while a similar number had decided to change their jobs because of witnessing bullying at work. Among respondents 35% were to state that police civilian staff were more likely to be bullied by police officers rather than other civilian staff although the same survey indicated that bullying was not

confined to police staff [Mason 2000:19]. The most common forms of bullying within the police service appeared to be 'social exclusion, withholding information and belittling remarks' although a minority of respondents claimed to suffer 'verbal abuse including being sworn at and shouted at in public' [Mason 2000:19]. Where staff had confronted the manager about this it was found that most taking this course of action thereafter reported 'that the bullying had become worse' [Mason 2000:20]. The same survey was to find that the majority of civilian staff who thought that bullying was widespread believed that 'a major contributing factor was that managers undervalued staff' [Mason 2000:19].

In highlighting the evidence from their survey Unison officials were to comment that employers had an implied duty of care to protect their workers from workplace bullying and also had a duty under health and safety legislation to take steps to prevent work related stress. However they were also to note that employers had a range of counter measures to prevent work place bullying 'although to start with they wanted them to acknowledge the extent and seriousness' of the problem [Mason 2000:20]. While workplace bullying is not confined to the police service and may extend across the public services [Mason 2000:19] it is clear that potential and real dangers relating to inappropriate styles of management exist within the police organisation.

Indeed the Association of Police Authorities [APA] has most recently provided revised guidance on issues relating to discrimination, oversight and scrutiny of grievance procedures and employment tribunals [APA 2004]. While this guidance applies to all police staff and was the result of one specific case [that pertaining to PS Viridi] arising within the Metropolitan Police Service, it is offered on the basis that 'grievance and employment tribunal cases provide a significant insight into the health of any organisation' and that 'one high profile case can be extremely damaging to an organisation both internally in terms of staff morale and externally in terms of public confidence' [APA 2004:4].

The ramifications of poor or inappropriate management styles has been also identified in relation to the employment of community support and custody officers [Wachter and Hodge 2003]. While these operational staff are technically civilians they will inevitably feed in to the police service's existing culture and management structures. As is argued the police service will however have to accommodate and integrate into its authoritative culture, workers who have been accustomed to management styles which are 'prevalent within industry as a whole' [Wachter and Hodge 2003:27]. This matter may become more pertinent in light of the planned Equality Bill which seeks to maintain dignity at work. Within the proposed legislation an act of harassment will become 'any single act which prejudices the dignity at work of the employee [Wachter and Hodge 2003:27]. As such this legislation is likely to present a significant challenge to current police management and culture, particularly in relation to the continued

expansion of 'non-sworn' police staff. Senior officers it is considered will have to exercise new vigilance over an organisational culture which has traditionally dominated the police service where 'robust language and general banter' could be misinterpreted and where incidents may arise which can be construed as affecting the 'dignity of people at work'.

Relating to this is the potential claim of constructive dismissal where an employee resigns from his employment in response to a breach of contract on the part of the employer. Examples of breaches which would entitle employees to resign would include: discriminatory conduct, harassment and failing to investigate grievances and complaints [Wachter and Hodge 2003:29]. As is argued one significant issue with the growth of CSO staff will prove to be management style not least because it is 'settled law that undermining a supervisor in front of subordinates can amount to a breach of contract, entitling a supervisor to resign and claim constructive dismissal'.

Senior officers need therefore to be mindful of this in their treatment of Community officers. In order to limit the potential damage which could arise from unfair treatment of CSOs it is argued that 'new people management skills will need to be learned and good human resources practice will need to be adopted' [Wachter and Hodge 2003:29]. Any failure here can be expected to lead to increased claims in employment tribunals. Additionally as CSOs will be employed on a fixed term basis they will have certain rights extended to them, not the least of which is the right 'not to be less favourably treated than a comparable permanent employee' [Wachter and Hodge 2003:29].

The commitment on the part of government to extend the 'police family' could therefore present a major challenge to the current police culture. The current literature suggests that failure to do so could lead to both substantial financial costs for police forces along with the possible loss of public confidence. As a result there would appear to be a clear need to provide for effective integration of 'non-sworn' officers covering both existing civilian employees and recently inducted 'non sworn' operational personnel. Here the additional discipline of employment and equality statutes can be expected to penalise those forces that fail to achieve such integration.

Integration

Recognition of the problems surrounding the dual employment system which has characterised the expansion of civilian employment within the police service is a matter of record. Successive police researchers and HMIC were to identify the need to develop effective means to integrate police and civilian personnel as being essential management need [Highmore 1993; Parrett 1998; HMIC 1997]. Some recommendations made to encourage both integration and corporacy have been realised. The suggestion that all civilian staff should be brought under the same

employing body as their police colleagues was to be effectively achieved within the Police and Magistrates' Courts Act 1994. More challenging proposals to end the division between personnel were also put forward. These included the adoption of a standard and easily identifiable rank and status structure for civilian personnel and the adoption of an alternative title for civilian staff. More complex issues were also to be addressed. These related to reviewing conditions of service of both police and civilian staff with the aim of achieving greater harmonisation between them. A further review of pay scales with the aim of reducing pay differentials between police and civilian staff was also to be recommended [Highmore 1993:82]. The latter recommendation would it was believed begin to enhance the perceived status of civilian staff and improve morale.

Other recommendations were to be made by HMIC Scotland in order to encouraged integration [HMIC 1997]. In stating that police and civilians often worked alongside or managed/supervised support staff [but very seldom the other way round] the 1997 Report was to note that with support staff beginning to occupy 'ever more senior positions' it was inevitable that they would have to act as line managers for some police officers [HMIC 1997:26]. The same Report was to recommend the combination of personnel and training departments for police and civilians; that forces should include 'integration of support staff as a specific goal' in human resource strategies and make specific written guidance on the management and supervision of support staff available to all those with line management responsibility for support staff [HMIC 1997 29].

Recognising also that some 'aspects of the police culture' would be resistant to change HMIC were of the view that this could be overcome with 'patience, tact and constant dialogue' [HMIC 1997:26].

Nevertheless it is the case that more far-reaching change within the police service would be needed to ensure integration was effective and was to be reflected within the literature. This included the need at force level to developing civilian career structures and linked to this the creation of more senior civilian posts; giving civilian managers full management responsibility for police officers within their department where this fell within a non-operational police role; ensure that civilian staff have the opportunity to make significant contributions to force policy and have effective representation on working parties, and committees; continue to develop joint training programmes and ensure that the work of civilian staff is fully recognised within the Chief Constables annual report and also all other internal publications relating to the management and delivery of police services by the force [Highmore 1993:83].

Community Support Officers

While it is still too early for effective evaluation of the CSO initiative to have been undertaken it is clear that the development and use of civilian staff in a limited operational policing role represents a significant development within the civilianisation process. Although there has been considerable opposition to the programme emanating most noticeably from the Police Federation it is clear that earlier professional reluctance to support the scheme is being eroded as it goes forward. In an interesting assessment of the impact of CSOs in one OCU in the MPD it has been found that professional judgement as to the impact of the CSO was one of a growing recognition of their value. Once sceptical senior officers were now 'trumpeting the benefits community support officers have brought to their divisions and more importantly to the streets' [Francis2003:18]. One operational officer has concluded that street crime within his area [Holborn] had fallen dramatically since they invested in CSOs [Francis 2003:18].

Of equal interest was the composition in terms of ethnic origin age and gender of the CSOs employed to date in this area. As the report noted 'What is striking is that many are from ethnic communities and most of them are young' [Francis 2003:18]. Many of those joining as a CSO saw this as a first step toward an eventual career in the police service. The work of the CSOs had in the Holborn area contributed to a 22% fall in street crime while also deterring anti social behaviour. CSOs had also allowed sworn officers to prioritise their work while also getting into more problem solving activity. They had also become the 'eyes and ears' of the OCU as they picked up information from the many contacts with the public. Public reassurance also appeared to be strengthened as patrol activity was clearly appreciated by residents. One member of the public stated that 'I have lived on this estate for 18 years and it is the first time I have seen police patrolling it' [Francis2003:19] Ethnic minority recruitment had also strengthened the ability of the police to communicate with ethnic groups and with specific offences which have occurred within the police area.

The same report was to suggest that while the training for CSOs lasted for just 3 weeks this was seen as being adequate. However their lack of an arrest power was seen as working against them as many of those people engaged in anti social behaviour were aware of what limited powers CSOs had and that they could not be arrested by them [Francis 2003:20]. The report was to highlight the fact that the CSOs had already appeared to have built up an extensive knowledge of where problems were likely to occur and had also established an 'impressive network of informants on the estates [Francis 2003:20]. This may have been a consequence of CSOs having no paper work to complete 'whereas regular officers could be taken off the streets for hours to fill in forms' [Francis 2003:20]

CSOs can earn up to £22,000 a year and are issued with protective vest and radios but do not carry batons, CS spray or handcuffs. Their training includes human rights awareness, diversity and ethics, emergency life saving evidence gathering and the powers they exercise. They have the power to detain suspects pending the arrival of a police officer but they do not have the power to arrest. They can issue fixed penalty notices for a number of offences. They have been recruited from a diverse range of working backgrounds. The report suggests that the CSO initiative dubbed by the Police Federation chairperson as an 'experiment' are beginning to pay dividends 'especially in central London'[Francis 2003:18].

Most recently it has been argued that while CSOs were not immediately accepted into the wider policing team in every area within which they were deployed 'once they had demonstrated their worth by supporting and supplementing regular officers supervisors realised that police officers could be 'freed for tasks that needed their level of training and expertise'" [Wilson 2004:21]. As the same commentator notes, with only five forces not using available funding 'it shows that the concept of using other resources to supplement officers and provide additional uniformed presence on the streets makes sense' [Wilson 2004:21]. It is the case however that while CSOs 'have already proved to be a valuable asset to policing' the existing training and professional development of CSOs will need to be addressed. 'Properly trained CSOs can enhance the ethos of policing by the consent and support of the community' it is argued [Wilson 2004:21]. Their role as potential witnesses could also be vital in bringing criminals before the courts and this particular function is one which has been highlighted by the Mayor of London recently [Lund 2004:9]. However there would appear to be some need to ensure that proper vetting of potential CSOs is in place prior to their employment [Herbert 2004:7].

Further evidence as to the value of the CSO initiative has been identified. In Lancashire CSOs are now being used to support the 'Community reassurance collection system' which is designed to assess community information as opposed to the collection of criminal intelligence [Hartley 2003:19]. It is argued that community beat managers and community support officers have a significant role to play in identifying local priorities which may be at variance with what the police and local authority perceive to be the priorities for the community [Hartley 2003:18]. Identifying these priorities through the use of CSOs led by community beat managers can be of real value it is argued 'particularly in areas of high tension and sensitivity'.

Their work complements that within the NIM and in reassuring communities [Hartley 2003:18]. Community beat managers and CSOs make contact with key individuals on a regular basis and gather their perceptions and expectations and are thereafter able to provide information which will assist the police the local authority and other agencies [Hartley 2003:19]. The work of the community manager and CSO is seen

as being of particular value in relation to weekly multi agency scanning meetings ‘where agencies discuss and agree responses’ [Hartley 2003:19].

The development of the CSO management function for community beat officers as developed in Lancashire may well bring further benefits for the police service. As has been argued in relation to the increased use of non-sworn personnel in American police departments this can serve to propel individual officers ‘toward professional responsibility’ [Guyot1991:85]. As has also been argued in America as a result of civilianisation:

‘Across the nation an important yet little-noticed consequence of civilianisation in police work has been to raise the status of the police officer rank by creating positions below that rank’ [Guyot 1991:85].

It is in part for this reason that Guyot identifies the substantial employment of non-sworn personnel as forming the second stage of the Two Transformations in American policing providing one step toward the development of Professional [Police] Officers [Guyot 1991:9].

Conclusion

At this juncture it may well be of value to revisit an ACPO Report on Civilians in the Police Service published in 1975. In its Summary and recommendations it was noted that ‘ the civilian component within the police service ‘does not merely make a significant contribution to the day to day work of the Police Service; it is now an essential part of the service and without it the maintenance of law and order in the community would be in grave danger of breaking down. Members of this civilian component see themselves as part of the Police Service and regularly demonstrate in their work and by their loyalty that they are motivated by a fine sense of public duty’ [ACPO Report 1975:39].

The same report was to draw attention to the fact that despite this loyalty and commitment there had been no real attempt to give civilians a proper sense of status and that the arrangements for their appointment grading and training was varied and confused while their special functions and the demands made upon them went ‘unrecognised’. Within the Report ACPO was to therefore argue that there was an undoubted need to take more positive steps to create a career structure within the service particularly if persons ‘of the right quality were to be attracted and retained’[ACPO 1975:40]. It was to specifically recommend that joint representative machinery be set up for the civilian component within each force along with representation at Police Council level. Further recognition of the contribution of the civilian component would come through representation on the Police Advisory Board. More immediately steps needed to be taken to develop an in-service career structure and to extend the number of senior administrative and technical posts available [ACPO

1975:42]. Interestingly the same report was to recognise the need for clear guidance from the centre in relation to the civilian staff issue. As the report was suggest:

‘Since the civilian component plays an effective part in the general countrywide arrangements for the maintenance of law and order a more positive and constructive approach should come from the centre at the Home Office. There needs to be more guidance on the civilian element of establishments and on appropriate gradings. An experienced responsible civilian with perhaps one or two specialist staff should be attached to HM Inspectorate for these purposes’ [ACPO 1975:42].

The same report was to conclude that there needed to be a name for civilian staff other than the ‘misleading and colourless ‘police civilian staff’ and its replacement by ‘some term such as ‘police administrative and technical service’ which it was felt would have the effect of unifying all members of a common service ‘and which would give them status that is merited’. While making no positive recommendation as to the title it was hoped that this would emerge in the ‘process of consultations which hitherto have been noticeably lacking’ [ACPO 1975:42].

Unfortunately this early but prescient report by ACPO was in the event not to be acted upon. Civilian status was not to be addressed by way of formal representation nor was the development of career structures within police forces to be addressed either. Neither was the Home Office then or later prepared to recognise the national dimension of the problem and the likely solution which would involve both the encouragement and intervention of that department in placing civilian staff on a more secure footing.

The role of Civilian Staff within other European Police Forces

In an albeit limited survey conducted by HMIC of Workforce Modernisation in Europe[2004] it became apparent that while the employment of civilian staff by police forces appeared to be a shared and on-going phenomenon it was very largely confined to administrative functions within the police service. Although it was difficult to generalise because of the limited nature of the data collected very few police services in Europe appear to have given civilian staff an operational managerial responsibility. In Belgium and France for example senior civilian support staff while increasing in numbers hold non-operational ‘administrative’ positions [HMIC Survey 2004].

In France 1,800 police personnel held management positions while just 291 civilian staff had an administrative management function. In Spain within the Guardia Civil 232 management positions were held by police officers while just 20 were in the process of being developed as civilian management posts. Within the Spanish National Police 6,400 police officers held management positions and just 10 civilians were found to be exercising a management function [HMIC Survey 2004]. A similar situation was reported in Sweden where with civilian staff making up 29% of total police personnel

just 3.1% [210] were found to hold a management post with the police service. It was found that within both the 'old' and expanded EU there was a continuing disposition to use police officers in most managerial and operational roles. Within the Police Grande Ducale in Luxembourg, for example, other than the Directors of the Budget and of Equipment all management positions were held by police personnel. In Poland, it was discovered that while 1878 police officers held management posts no civilian staff had been given management positions within that country's police service [HMIC Survey 2004].

Limited data on the employment of civilian personnel within Europe does suggest however that the UK police service would appear to be leading rather than following in terms of this development. In France up until recently most police functions within the National Police were the responsibility of police officers and this could extend from control room and Scenes of Crime personnel through to police drivers and all internal administrative duties, including police finance, personnel and telecommunications [Horton 1995:121]. Within the Gendarmerie where the military tradition of self sufficiency has existed the role of civilian staff has been even more limited than within the National Police. As a result until recently members of the Gendarmerie could be found employed in a whole range of jobs which were 'non-policing' in nature. These included secretarial and administrative work; working as car mechanics, telecommunications experts, nurses and architects. Indeed until 10 years ago 'most office cleaning was carried out by gendarmes' [Horton 1995:124].

One issue identified in France that has demonstrated a strong similarity with the employment of civilian support staff in the UK has proved to be that of pay. In the National Police it was found that the starting pay of for uniform police officers was a third higher than the starting pay of the majority of administrative staff and that at the end of their career uniformed police officers could expect to earn between 50% and 100% more than administrative staff [Horton 1995:124]. It was also found that civilian staff were frustrated by the lack of career development open to them and that of the 3 main administrative grades in public services in France none employed by the national Police at this time were located in the top 'A' Grade. Just 1000 belonged to the second 'B' grade while the rest were located in the bottom 'C' administrative grade [Horton:1995:124]. While there has been increasing pressure to increase police street patrol presence through the employment of more civilian staff within the National Police, the Gendarmerie was found to be very reluctant to end its tradition of self sufficiency [Horton 1995:125].

The slow growth of employment of civilian support staff in France has however coincided with a significant increase in both the number of municipal police forces in France along with a substantial increase in the number of municipal police employed by local authorities in France [Loveday 1999]. Currently a large number of municipal

authorities using their powers under the 1891 Act have recruited personnel to provide a uniformed patrol presence within the municipality. In terms of their role and responsibilities they resemble the Community Support Officers now being recruited by police forces across England and Wales. Unlike the UK CSOs the French Municipal Police are accountable to the Mayor and not the local chief of police [Loveday and Reid 2003]. They are committed to a general uniform patrol function in the towns and cities which the National Police found it increasingly difficult to fulfil [Loveday 1999].

Within France therefore local employed 'non sworn' officers have had an operational role which has been exercised autonomously of the National Police, although the degree of autonomy has been recently eroded by national government legislation [Loveday and Reid 2003]. Elsewhere as in the Netherlands major internal police force reorganisation has meant that less attention has been given to the employment of civilian staff [Jones 1996?]. However the reformed police services within the Netherlands are now engaged in a major drive to employ more civilian staff on the basis that qualified police officers should not be engaged in basic administrative tasks but should be engaged in street policing or criminal investigation. There has also been some involvement of 'non sworn' personnel in street patrolling. Thus civilians make up the 'City Guard' who are uniformed personnel with a strictly limited street presence. Originally established to provide work for the chronically jobless there are currently plans to upgrade the City Guard which to date has received only a low level of co-operation with the police [Loveday and Reid 2003]. Additionally Dutch police forces have made long use of voluntary police-officers in currently more than 2000 civilian volunteers are active in the Netherlands performing the basic policing tasks. The objective is not just to increase police strength but also to 'strengthen bonds between police forces and civilians'. A recent development has been the introduction of 'voluntairs' who are civilians assigned to specific tasks such as basic forensic research and camera surveillance [Politie, The Hague 2004].

Use of Non-Sworn Personnel in North American Police Departments.

In the USA there has been a longer history of the use of 'non sworn' civilian personnel in policing than has been the case in Europe. However it is also evident that there has been strong opposition to the expansion of non-sworn officers particularly from police unions in America. One consequence of that opposition has been a reasonably clear demarcation of roles along police operational and non operational lines. In their 1986 study of police innovations in six American Cities Skolnick and Bayley were to report that in some forces uniformed but unarmed non-sworn police service officers [PSOs] performed many service delivery duties including initial crime reports and traffic accident investigations. These were seen as support functions allowing sworn officers to deal with more immediate policing issues while also providing an estimated 40% cost saving [Skolnick and Bayley 1986].

The same study was to conclude that while policing styles differed between cities the finding suggested that ‘civilianisation’ enhanced community orientated policing and that community mobilisation was the key variable intervening between civilianisation and crime prevention success. The role of civilian personnel in relation to the development of community orientated policing has also been identified by other police commentators. It is suggested that community orientated policing has opened the door to using civilians across a range of functions ‘in key management positions’ as a way for police departments to tap into the managerial experience available in the private sector and where a civilian upper management can serve as a bridge between the community and the police department [Colletti 1996]. It is noticeable that while encouraging the use of civilian managers their prospective functions do not extend to or encompass operational policing. Embracing administrative functions ranging from Accounts, audit and inspection, crime analysis environmental design review, jail management, personnel, risk management and training programmes, Colletti argues that while the list of managerial duties could be continued ‘what is most noteworthy is a task the list does not include’ which is that of making arrests [Colletti 1996:9]. In this sense civilian managers are not seen as technicians and would not be involved in what is described as the ‘specifics of policing’ [i.e. operational policing].

Where civilian commanders are employed however there is a recognised need to ensure that they are treated equitably and are considered equal to their sworn counterparts [Colletti 1996:10]. It is also recognised that chief police officers will need to take steps to gain the acceptance of civilians ‘in the police culture’ and to emphasise that employing civilians in no way devalues the work of sworn officers [Colletti 1996:10]. Interestingly while it seen as imperative to persuade police officers to accept civilians it is of equal importance to prevent ‘civilian law enforcement professionals from becoming co-opted by traditional police thinking’ [Colletti 1996:10].

The problem of co-option may not be as salient an issue for non-sworn officers within American police departments. Research conducted by Shernock on the differential significance of sworn status and organisational position in the civilianisation of the police communications division was to highlight the very different values exhibited by civilian staff and police officers in relation to their work and organisational loyalties. Shernock was to find that civilian staff placed a higher value on efficiency and effectiveness in their jobs and less value on loyalty to fellow employees than sworn officers.

In general sworn officers interpreted their membership in the police department in terms of their group identification with fellow officers while civilians tended to interpret their membership in terms of their identification with the organisation itself [Shernock 1988].

Elsewhere research in America has highlighted the need for all levels of police management within a police force to 'collectively support' civilianisation in order to 'sell it to the rest of the department' [Wilkerson 1994]. Noting that persuading police officers to embrace the concept of civilianisation can provide the greatest challenges for the police administrator Wilkerson argues that the monetary savings which can be realised from such a programme while significant are overtaken by the greatest benefit which is putting more sworn officers on to the street to serve the community [Wilkerson 1994].

Within a recent text dealing with police leadership strategies in Canada it has been argued that the disciplined expansion of civilian positions within police forces will go a long way toward 'the appropriate integration of civilians within the public policing model' [Drennan 2003:143]. Identifying the six core functions of policing as being: response to public calls; referral to other agencies; prevention of offences; public education; crime solving and law enforcement, Drennan suggests that 'on the surface at least' these appeared to be manageable by non police personnel within the police service [Drennan 2003:137]. If these are not functions where it is necessary to have traditional police status and rank to carry them out then, Drennan concludes, police forces must consider how these functions can be fulfilled 'while maintaining the integrity of the police profession and police services' [Drennan 2003:137].

A number of problem related to the employment of civilians are identified by Drennan. These include the issue of 'same standard but different status' which arises between civilians and police officers with such employment. Where civilians are trained to police standards there may be little to set them apart from police officers and civilians may then consider themselves 'entitled to demand the same salaries and benefits that are provided for serving officers' [Drennan 2003:137] If however these demands for equality of pay are met then the 'cost-cutting' objectives of civilianisation 'cannot be satisfied' and as a result 'civilian employees might as well be police officers'. Although it is clear that this police commentator has strong reservations about civilian employment both in terms of future pay demands and civilian staff turnover this is seen as being a better option than potential privatisation which is seen as being the alternative to civilian staff expansion.

Delegating services that are traditionally performed by public police agencies to private security companies is seen as being the most controversial form of civilianisation and also one which presents the greatest threat to the convention of 'police independence' as private companies are profit driven enterprise [Drennan 2003:139]. However, in a climate of fiscal restraint police agencies may fall prey to the 'ever increasing incursion of private security companies moving into the public policing domain' [Drennan 2003:139]. It is for this reason that police officers [and police associations] should, it is argued, be encouraged work with management to encourage 'new initiatives in civilianisation'. For as Drennan suggests 'closing the door on the private security

industry will be much easier if the police leadership sees that the police association is prepared to work with government and examine new uses for civilians in policing' [Drennan 2003:143]. By embracing the compromise of accepting the expansion of civilian positions within police forces and exploiting the strengths of the civilianisation movement, Drennan concludes that police associations will be able to do all they can to 'avoid the unacceptable dilution of the quality of modern policing' which private security, in his view, represents [Drennan 2003:144]. One question, however, which arises from this and which all police associations will need to address is posited [but not answered] by the author. This relates to how the police organisation ensures that reporting to civilians is accepted by the police? [Drennan 2003:144].

One further feature of civilianisation which is identified within the Canadian experience but which might be thought to have a wider application relates to gender issues. In Canada the recruitment of female police officers has proved in the past to be difficult. In the 1970s just 1% of police officers were female. By 1997 this figure had increased to just 9%. However the rapid increase in civilian personnel was to change the gender makeup of the police service significantly. A gender breakdown of civilian personnel in Canadian police services was to find that overwhelmingly recruitment to civilian functions involved the employment of females. In 1970 50% of civilian staff were women. By 1994 it was found that 68% of non-police personnel were women [Seagrave 1997:45]. The Canadian experience would appear to replicate the UK experience where a gender difference is equally pronounced among sworn officers but which is reversed in relation to civilian personnel.

Civilian staff in the Australian Police Service

Australian Police forces have experienced considerable change and management reform in recent years as have other public services. However it would appear to be the case that in relation to the employment of non-sworn staff Australian police services have gone much further in attempting to establish a more unified service [Chappell and Wilson 1996]. Most Australian police services have introduced human resource reforms particularly in education, training and promotion by merit. Among the most innovative are those introduced by the Australian Federal Police. Increased civilianisation of police organisations it is argued has brought with it 'the problem of how to balance the interests of sworn officers and non-sworn officers' [Chappell and Wilson 1996:121]. The Australian Federal Police has integrated or 'unified' police officers and non-police employees into one workforce under its governing Acts. These are the Australian Federal Police Act 1979 and the Australian Federal Police Legislation Amendment Act [No 2] 1989. Based on these statutes both police and non-police officers are subject to the same code of conduct and the same salary scale [Chappell and Wilson 1996:121]. Within the unified system the guiding principle for filling any position 'is to employ the person with the most appropriate skills' [Chappell

and Wilson 1996:121]. One consequence of this, it has been argued, is that 'taken to a logical conclusion this could mean that positions with changing demands could be alternately staffed with police or non-police members' [Chappell and Wilson 1996:121].

The 1979 Australian Federal Police Act provides for the recruitment and employment of, other than a Commissioner and Deputy Commissioner, commissioned and non-commissioned police officers and commissioned and non-commissioned protective service officers [Section 6 [c]and [d]]. Here by non-commissioned officer [or non-commissioned protective officer] is meant a non-commissioned police officer [1979:Section 25[4]]. Further, within the act the Commissioner 'may direct a person who is a non-commissioned officer or a commissioned officer in a component to act for a specified period in a commissioned rank or a higher commissioned rank as the case may be in either component [1979: section 25 [2]]. Additionally the Commissioner may promote a non-commissioned officer in a component to an equivalent rank in the other component 'being a rank that the person is competent and qualified to hold' [1979:Section 25 [c]].

For the purposes of promotion the determining factor is identified within the 1979 Act as being 'the relative efficiency of the members available for promotion' and in the event of 'equality of efficiency' of 2 or more members ' then the relative seniority of those members' [1979: Section 36[1]. The identification of 'efficiency 'as the determinant of promotion means 'the possession by the member of special qualifications and aptitude for the discharge of duties of the kind to be performed by members holding that rank, together with merit diligence and good conduct' [1979: section 36[2] [a]]. As can be readily ascertained there is an integral inter-change built into the legislation particularly in relation to promotion and therefore future function between commissioned and non-commissioned staff. As is recognised by Chappell and Wilson this would allow for very wide flexibility and create management structures where commissioned police officers reported to non-commissioned officers. As the determining factor for promotion is identified as being a mix of 'efficiency and merit' the exercise of police powers by commissioned officers is not seen as being a specific requirement for further promotion within 'components' established within the Australian Federal Police.

Along with this unified employment structure has gone a reduction in the number of ranks from 9 to 5 and the introduction of a five year fixed term appointment renewable on satisfactory performance [Chappell and Wilson 1996:121]. The same commentators note that within the reform programme in Australia merit based promotion has improved the calibre of both senior police managers and recruits while also increasing the number of female officers reaching higher ranks within the police service. However the fact that reform has been implemented in a 'top down' fashion while also involving a heavily civilianised headquarters staff has helped to increase the

‘habitual tension’ between the field and headquarters [Chappell and Wilson 1996:121]. It has also served to alienate many first line supervisors whose promotion opportunities and salary increases may be limited within a merit system through insufficient education qualifications [Chappell and Wilson 1996:121]. The result may be that resistance from first line supervisors has the potential to undermine the very reform programme which they believe while increasing their responsibilities has actually served to disenfranchise them [Chappell and Wilson 1996:122].

Interestingly the same commentators note in relation to police reform and first line supervisors in Australia that:

‘Many feel present organisational reform undervalues police knowledge and experience and overvalues the generalist management approach. If police organisations fail to win the commitment of this group it could become the Achilles heel of police reform’ [Chappell and Wilson 1996:122].

The decision on the part of the Australian Federal Police to introduce a unified workforce may have reflected concern expressed within the Fitzgerald Inquiry which had earlier recommended a greater use of civilian staff within the police service. In response to this Inquiry the Queensland Police service among others was to introduce a new classification of employee-the Police Support Officer – who would not be a fully trained or qualified police officer but a multi-skilled officer able to support police officers in ‘police’ work. Areas of potential employment were seen as being communications centres, watchhouses and station front counters [Queensland Police Service 1994:106]. Police Support Officers are made members of the Police Union, wear uniforms and are authorised to exercise a limited number of police powers. It was recognised that in terms of developing the Support Officer role ‘this would be more akin to the creation of an additional police rank than an extension of civilianisation’ [Queensland Police Service 1994:106].

Earlier experience within the Queensland Police Service of civilianisation had demonstrated that while there was no strong opposition to this process ‘there appeared to be resistance to civilians in supervisory roles’ [Queensland Police Service 1994:113]. This had been demonstrated in relation to the Regional Education and Training Co-ordinators [sworn police officers] and Regional Personnel officer [civilian] positions. Where attempts had been made to establish integrated ‘personnel units’ consisting of all human resource functions headed by the Regional Personnel Officer [civilian] and where the Regional Education and Training Co-ordinator reported to that civilian officer these arrangements had proved to be ‘largely unsuccessful’ [Queensland Police Service 1994:114]. The problem of integration was compounded by the recognised problems emanating from different working conditions with differing salaries, hours and vacation entitlements. There was a common perception that

civilians were 'second class citizens' within the organisation and that despite the employment of civilians to key senior positions within the service it was not clear what effect these appointments would have either on how civilians felt they were regarded or the extent to which this would encourage effective staff 'integration' [Queensland Police Service 1994:114].

Support Staff in other public services

[I]. The Education Service.

The introduction and development of support staff within the public services has been a noticeable feature in the growth of these services in recent years and may provide some useful parallel data in terms of future expansion of civilian staff within the police service. One service which has seen the biggest expansion of support staff [outside of the National Health Service] is that of state education in England and Wales. Figures derived from the Annual School Census indicate that the total number of support staff currently employed in the education service, excluding nursery schools stood at 225,400 in January 2003. The total number of support staff rose by 8,400 and the number of teaching assistants rose by 16,000 to reach 122,400 in the same year.

Given the nature of their work which is seen as being complementary to that of teachers the Literature review is primarily concerned with the introduction use and success of Teaching Assistants who demonstrate the closest parallels to civilian staff in the police service. Within this Teaching Assistants [excluding special needs support staff and minority ethnic pupil support staff] accounted for 73, 200 of the total figure [Source Annual School Census 2003]. The introduction of Teaching Assistants therefore represents a major on-going investment within the education service by Government over the last number of years.

It is however clear that there are strong and contested views as to the merits of this expansion in teacher support. While the primary aim of the Government has been to use teaching assistants as a means of improving educational standards by releasing teachers from many minor administrative duties this is not a perception shared by all participants within the education service. Most recently the role and scope of teaching assistants has been a source of challenge from the National Union of Teachers [NUT] which in relation to recent 'teaching workload' agreements has decided to boycott the agreement in the belief that it could allow assistants to replace qualified teachers. The perception within the NUT that the potentially wider use of assistants could threaten the position of qualified teachers, particularly in relation to their possible use to cover for absent staff, has been given some support by a recent study which represents the first published analysis of work done by classroom assistants in England since 1997 when the Labour Government came to office.

The study by a senior government adviser was to find that the large increase to 120,000 of teaching assistants in schools had failed to raise classroom standards and were not seen as being a substitute for qualified teachers [TES 2004]. This was seen as significant as teaching assistants while involved in 'collecting dinner money, taking the register and supporting children's learning' could also be involved in working with children specifically on literacy and numeracy [TES 2004]. The authors of the study were to also comment that it appeared to be ill-advised to seek to solve teacher shortages by replacing them with an 'army of learning assistants' unless entry qualifications, training and rewards were substantially improved [TES 2004].

Research conducted for the study discovered that the use of teacher assistants to help primary children struggling with mathematics while offering extra support to small groups within the class did not lead to any improvements in results. The research did not provide much support for the use of classroom assistants as a way of improving the ability of low achieving students 'or as a means of increasing child-adult contact without employing more teachers' and appeared to match similar findings from other countries [TES 2004]. Moreover the use of assistants appeared to have made the classroom 'more complex' for the existing teachers and therefore any training would have to include qualified teaching staff and not just teaching assistants [TES 2004]. In response the NUT stated that surveys of teachers had told them that while teachers thought that the role of the assistant teacher was helpful they were opposed to assistants 'taking over classes and covering for absent staff' [TES 2004].

The 2004 study appeared to support earlier research conducted by the London University Institute of Education of 2002. Its research results in to pupil adult ratio differences and educational progress was to conclude that there were no clear effects of additional staff and adults on children's educational progress 'in any of the three years of key stage 1' [Blatchford et al 2002]. The research was to find that the most noticeable effects on children's educational progress was as a result of class size 'and there was no obvious effect of extra staff or parents' [Blatchford 2002:5].

However the same research was to note that while the teaching assistant role was originally identified as one of 'augmentation' where the assistant was involve in activities that enabled the teacher to provide enhanced curriculum it frequently involved 'substitution' where the assistant was regularly delegated routine tasks.

As a result of the blurring of these roles in practice there was a shift towards teaching assistants 'engaging in pedagogic activity and not merely implementing programmes of work' [Blatchford 2002:12]. This was seen to have clear implications for the 'training and education as well as status and working conditions' of teaching assistants.

While the Government encouraged the expansion of teaching assistants and saw them as playing an increasingly important role in schools, educational research has

identified clear weaknesses in their role. As a result of their function in supporting children 'the pedagogic practices of teaching assistants was often uninformed'. Not being involved in the lesson planning process they were 'often not aware of the learning aims of a particular task or activity' and as a result were unable to provide the appropriate teaching and/ or support for the children [Blatchford 200:12].

While teaching assistants were able to perform like a teacher 'outwardly' they were unable to conceptualise the deeper pedagogical understandings required for the teaching task [Blatchford 2002:12]. Despite these shortcomings 'teaching assistants were often used in primary classrooms to work with children in lower ability groups in order to enhance their literacy and numeracy skills'. Although identified in some research as behaving as 'novice teachers' rather than 'experts' it was felt that this classification while valid for teachers 'was questionable' when applied to teaching assistants 'who have not had similar training and education to teachers' and who 'unlike teachers have not been socialised into the profession' [Blatchford 2002: 13].

In summarising the results of the research it was to be concluded that adult help in the classroom varied in terms of its effectiveness which explained why there was found to be no clear quantitative evidence of the benefits of classroom support on children's educational progress. In some classes staff and adults were effective and were used effectively by teachers but in others they were not. In some cases it was found 'support staff and adults did not appear suited to an educational role with young children' while it was also thought unlikely that training would be successful either [Blatchford 2002:6].

Where such training was considered to be worthwhile this would need to be integrated into classroom practice and connect with a teachers aims and lesson plans while also 'taking account of the often deeply held views of teaching assistants about their role and contribution' [Blatchford 2002:7]. As however support staff were involved in direct 'face to face' interactions with pupils there was a need to identify what kinds of pedagogy were relevant to them to inform the training of teaching assistants. There was also a need to develop a model of classroom teaching to help 'position the contributions of teachers and teaching assistants' and help inform support and training for teaching assistants' [Blatchford 2002:7].

Within the Government's National Agreement on raising standards and tackling workload, its aim has been to improve working conditions and workloads for teaching staff. As the Raising Standards document makes clear the National Agreement develops a seven point plan for creating time for teachers and head-teachers and also time for standards [Raising standards 2003]. The central elements within the agreement are:

- 1] A progressive reduction in teachers' overall hours over the next four years.

2] Changes to teachers' contracts to ensure teachers do not routinely undertake administrative or clerical tasks; have a reasonable work/life balance; have a reduced burden of providing cover for absent colleagues; have a guaranteed planning preparation time within the school day to support their teaching; have a reasonable allocation time in support of their leadership and management responsibilities.

3] A concerted attack on unnecessary paperwork and bureaucracy

4] Reform of support staff roles to help teachers and support pupils. Personal administrative assistants for teachers, cover supervisors and high level teaching assistants to be introduced.

5] Recruitment of new managers with experience outside of education to contribute to schools leadership teams.

6] Additional resources and national change management programmes to help school leaders achieve the necessary reforms of the teaching profession and restructuring of the school workforce

7] Monitoring of progress

Within the national agreement it is clear that significant changes in status will be experienced by support staff in schools. Support staff it is stated will be increasingly recognised for the contribution they make in raising school standards and support staff will 'all be important members of the school team [National agreement 2003:13]. As is stated within the Agreement:

'These support staff will have access to expanded roles and improved choices and career opportunities including proper recognition for existing responsibilities' [National agreement 2003:14]. During the period of funding for the Agreement the government intends to employ an extra 10,000 teachers and estimates that schools will be able to appoint at least 50,000 extra support staff of all types during the same period [national agreement 2003:15].

The Agreement is based on a common acceptance of a number of principles which are expected to guide the implementation of the programme. These inter-alia include a commitment on the part of all signatories to the agreement to the principle of 'devolution and delegation' reflecting the need for greater freedom and innovation at the 'front-line' and an acceptance of the principle of 'flexibility and incentives' which will encourage greater flexibility and less demarcation in delivery of education services [National agreement 2003:18].

Within the agreement it is expected that support staff will be 'recognised for their contribution to raising standards and have more opportunities to take on extended roles in support of teaching and learning supported by the right training and new

career paths with remuneration that reflects their level of training and with overall numbers growing to deliver reform' [National agreement 2003:20].

A central element to the reform programme concerns cover for absent teachers. Within the agreement limits are placed on the extent to which teachers can be required to cover for absent colleagues with the aim of ensuring that this would happen only rarely [National agreement 2003:30]. In place of teacher cover schools will have access 'to a range of options for providing cover' through supply teachers 'high level teaching assistants' and cover supervisors [National agreement 2003:33]. Within the section on 'managing cover' it is argued that:

'High level teaching assistants will be able to cover classes and should be able to ensure that pupils can progress with their learning based on their knowledge of the learning outcomes planned by the classroom/subject teacher' [National agreement 2003:33].

The development of a new stream of high level teaching assistants is central to the agreed reform programme. Their remuneration will reflect their level of training skills and responsibilities [National Agreement 2003:60]. However while working in tandem within the classroom teachers and high level assistants will not be seen as interchangeable and the fact that 'high level assistants will be working with whole classes for some of the time does not make them substitutes for when pupils need a qualified teacher' [National Agreement 2003:61]. The role of the high level assistant is seen as being one which provides support to qualified teachers over teaching and learning and their duties will always be in line with their relevant training and expertise. This is seen as being particularly important when they are working with a class when the assigned teacher is not present [National Agreement 2003:61]. Pay and career structures will be developed that reflect the roles and responsibilities of support staff so that teaching assistants can make a substantial contribution to the teaching and learning process in schools to raising standards of achievement by pupils [National Agreement 2003:61].

While all staff associations and unions other than the NUT have signed up to the National agreement the NUT remains the single biggest union representing teachers. In a recent report made prior to that union's annual conference in April 2004 it was noted that the NUT intended to 'step up' its opposition to government workforce reforms [Halpin 2004]. The NUT general secretary was quoted within the same report as stating that:

'There will be many governing bodies who will not want to employ unqualified people to teach. We will take the case to the schools and say "you must not do this, you must hire teachers"' [Halpin 2004].

The NUT believes that current under-funding and rising costs by 2005-06 could mean that many governing bodies will be facing hiring options which could encourage them to deal with this by hiring cheaper but unqualified teaching assistants to replace qualified teachers. The NUT was to consider the option of strike action in the event of job cuts in schools facing budget problems. The NUT was also concerned that the recent [March 2004] Gershon Review of public sector efficiency had suggested that civil servants made redundant under efficiency measures 'could be redeployed as frontline staff such as classroom assistants. This could free good teachers to teach very large classes of as many as 90 pupils' [Halpin 2004]. This would appear to question an earlier government commitment to class numbers not rising above 30 pupils per class. It also raises some questions as to the long term application and use of teaching assistants and may explain the evident reluctance on the part of the NUT [but not other teacher unions] to accept the National agreement. Long-term there is a suspicion that the recruitment of teacher assistants and other support staff could undermine the professional status of the teaching profession. The stance adopted by the NUT has led to the refusal on the part of the secretary of state for Education for the second year running to attend the annual conference of the union. The Government rejects the argument made by the NUT as to implications long or short term of the expansion of support staff in schools.

Other Public Services

[2] Legal Services and Paralegals

This section considers Legal services with particular reference to the legal profession equivalent to support staff which constitute Paralegal personnel. The expansion of non-legally qualified personnel within this sector has been exceptional and has taken place both in the UK and USA at a cumulative rate.

The definition of a Paralegal is someone who is not a lawyer and is a legal assistant who is qualified through education in legal studies training and /or work experience in a law environment. Paralegals are employed or retained by a solicitor in private practice, law office corporate or in-house solicitor, government agency or other entity and works under the ultimate direction and supervision of a solicitor. They will perform substantive legal work which is deemed to be work that requires sufficient legal knowledge that without the assistance of a paralegal it would be performed by a solicitor [Trends 2002 Glossary].

Paralegals are now accepted professionally within the Law Society which within its own Law Society Recruitment has a section dedicated entirely to paralegal recruitment. The same source states that the Law Society's consultants have been at the cutting edge 'of the paralegal revolution' and have long recognised their benefits to

legal environments [Law Society 2004:1]. The Law Society notes that there are two classifications of 'paralegal' which are in common use in England and Wales. The first is the 'temporary paralegal' consisting of an LPC graduate gaining legal experience before embarking on a training contract. The other classification relates to 'the career paralegal' who is looking for a permanent legal position and to specialise in a particular field. Paralegals are deemed to be able to assist in all areas of the law which will include litigation, property corporate and family law[Law Society Recruitment:2004]

The most significant growth in the use of Paralegals has been in the USA particularly within the administration of justice [Nemeth 1987]. As has been argued the steady almost unparalleled growth in this occupation was not predicted although it is projected for the future. It is now accepted that being a paralegal or a legal assistant has in some circles become a profession a vocation 'most similar to a teacher, police officer or other public service occupation [Nemeth 1987:149]. It has also been the case that the paralegal profession has become a popular career choice for a wide variety of people who vary in educational level, gender and overall career aspirations.

It is also the case that the rise of the paralegal has been the most radical change to take place within the law profession in America where lawyers are 'turning over more of their responsibilities to assistants who handle many tasks previously a lawyers domain' [Nemeth 1987:149]. Moreover the combined interest in profitability and productivity is giving a new and highly significant impetus to the paralegal movement. It is noted that dissatisfied with only marginal improvements in efficiency 'a few entrepreneurial visionaries are working to completely transform the practice of law from a college craft into a mass production service industry' [Nemeth 1987:149].

Although the use of paralegals was to be confined initially to the private sector it is argued that they would have equal value within the public sector and this was to be supported by the Civil Service Commission of the US State Government which was to identify occupational descriptions by delineating the paralegals functions as being inter-alia:

- analysis of legal materials;
- preparation of digests;
- maintenance of legal files;
- law research;
- interpretation of government statutes and regulations.

Paralegals in America are already employed in a variety of government agencies including the Departments of Justice, Health and welfare and the Federal Trade Commission. Within the Department of Justice there have been recommendations for an expanded role to be given to paralegals which would include: The Police Department- Investigation; Public defenders Office; Trail preparation; Correctional departments.

The use of paralegals within the Police Department within the Investigative phase has already been established within some Police departments [Baltimore; Dallas and Philadelphia PD's]. It is argued that paralegals could take on a number of mechanical tasks which currently overwhelm the police. These would include:

- Interviewing victims of crime.
- Completion of arrest reports and other documentation
- Field investigation
- Co-ordination of all forensic examinations
- Witness and assist in the acquisition of all voluntary confessions and consent to searches
- Assist in witness drug and alcohol tests
- Act as liaison with Prosecutors office

Similarly it is argued that within the Public Defenders Office a range of tasks can be allocated to paralegals. The paralegal can interview the defendant and open a file with all the required information. Paralegals can process bail applications. Additionally paralegals would be able to make regular visits to incarcerated clients. A similar allocation of responsibilities can be identified within the Prosecutors Office. Here the paralegal can be used to:

- Maintain contact with the victims of crime and inform them of trial dates
- Maintain contact with all witnesses
- Preparation of all documents and exhibits
- Serve as liaison with forensic laboratories
- Perform research functions in response to defence pleadings
- General investigative work.

As is argued by Nemeth if the recent past is an index of the future paralegals have begun to influence how the administration of justice occurs within America. Given the demands placed on the criminal justice system it is argued that 'the system needs the paralegal for its survival' [Nemeth 1987:159]. Moreover to the extent that the rise of the paralegal begins to allow lawyers the time to listen care and feel for their clients they may begin to challenge the current public perception of lawyers in America who are currently perceived as symbolising 'elitism, big money power politics and special interests' [Nemeth 1987:159].

A Law Society Research study of Paralegal staff in solicitors' firms was to define paralegals as 'non admitted fee earners' which excluded trainee solicitors but covered a wide variety of job titles including legal executive, matrimonial executive probate clerk etc. A survey of solicitors firms was to find that nearly all firms of five or more partners employed at least one paralegal while the largest firms of 11 or more partners employed on average around 20 paralegals. Those firms with between 5 to

10 partners employed 5 paralegals on average [Law Society 1997]. Those firms which specialised in certain arrears of the law in particular family and matrimonial work, personal injury and crime would be more likely to employ paralegals. In addition, those firms which dealt with legal aid work were also more likely to employ paralegals than those firms which did not. The Research survey found that in all but the largest firms almost 60% of paralegals were female. Only in the largest firms where 53% were males was the reverse found to be the case [Law Society 1997:v]. Nearly half of all paralegals were found to be aged 35 or under but on average paralegals had worked for around 8 years for their current firm.

Many had been previously employed of a non-executive nature outside of the law between leaving school and joining their current firms. Few had started out as 'career' paralegals and while most had 'O' levels less than half had achieved 'A' levels and just 15% had a university degree. Later research suggests that there has been an increase in the number of graduates who have become paralegals.

Paralegal work was directed very largely to specialist areas consisting of conveyancing; family and matrimonial work; personal injury; wills and crime [Law Society 1997:v]. Among those firms surveyed for the research 75% of those employing paralegals said that 'paralegals sometimes conducted the first interviews with clients and nearly 50% said that they conducted all first interviews for their own cases' [Law Society 1997:vi]. In addition paralegals were found to spend three quarters of their time on fee earning work. The rest of their time was spent on administration, secretarial or accountancy work. Around 50% of paralegals said that some of their time was spent on litigation but one third of respondents were found to spend 'most of their time on tasks associated with litigation [Law Society 1997:vi]. Just over half of all paralegals said that some of their time was taken up by legal aid work and nearly a third stated that 50% of their time was occupied in this way.

Median salaries for paralegals were found to be £15,000 for men and £10,000 for women. In the largest firms with a higher proportion of male paralegals the median salary was found to be just over £18,000. Working hours were found to be for around a third of respondents on average over 40 hours per week. Most time worked in addition to normal working hours was unpaid [Law Society 1997:vi]. Over 50% of paralegals did not have a written contract with their firm; only a minority of paralegals had a job description [Law Society 1997:vi]. While many firms had a policy to encourage paralegals to study for the Institute of Legal executives most firms spent relatively little on external training for their staff.

Within the same research an evaluation of paralegal attitudes to work and career development was made. Most paralegals found their work interesting and challenging and believed only a few of the tasks they were assigned were mundane. There was

little demand for more challenge or more responsibility. There was however less satisfaction with rates of pay and this was related to the degree of responsibility paralegals felt they exercised and the number of hours worked [Law Society 1997:vii].

While ambition for future employment was found to be higher among younger paralegals 'this tended to fall off somewhat sharply after the age of 35 by which age many had presumably accumulated a lot of experience and were relatively well paid' [Law Society 1997:vii]. Of those who did wish to progress most expressed a desire to become a solicitor.

The research found that the main advantages of employing paralegals were seen to be that they allowed solicitors to concentrate on more complex cases. However the employment of paralegals also increased the productivity of the firm. They were also seen as being loyal and dedicated to their firm [Law Society 1997:viii]. The few disadvantages identified by solicitors to the employment of paralegals was that they could not appear in open court and that they might miss 'the potential complications of a case' [Law Society 1997:viii]. However most firms employing paralegals stated that they would continue to use them and that they expected to make greater use of them over the next five years. Among those firms which did not employ paralegals between one third and two-fifths 'considered that they were likely to employ them over the next five years' [Law Society 1997:viii].

Although there has been a very significant growth in the employment of paralegals it would appear that there remains a strong cultural boundary between qualified lawyers and paralegals within the profession in general. It has been suggested that within many firms "if you are not a 'fee-earner' then there is every risk that you are part of the law firm underclass"[Stoakes 2002:311]. The underclass would include non-lawyers; non-qualified; non-partners and 'non-chargeable time' within which there is an assumption that anything which is 'non-chargeable time' is seen as being a 'waste of time' [Stoakes 2002:311]. While the term underclass can extend to professional support lawyers it is clear that qualified fee earners identify paralegals as forming a large part of it. As has been argued:

'The newly-coined term 'paralegal' proves the point. The term on the face of it appears to be perfectly acceptable. But the spurious use of 'legal' implies respectability but the 'para' lets it down. Most paralegals are recent graduates and you have a vision of a squad of young dare-devils: energetic but possibly expendable' [Stoakes 2002:311].

The perceived expendability of paralegals was seen as being of interest if only because 'nowadays in many firms there are more non-lawyers than lawyers and among fee-earners more non-partners than partners'. A further cultural dimension within law firms was reflected in the view that the 'more partners are prepared to

confer a title of spurious dignity the less in their heart of hearts do they believe the job is worth doing' [Stoakes 2002:311].

However despite the cultural problems the need for paralegals has been recognised. In 1994 it was to be argued that 'there is an increasing recognition of the need for staff who are trained and accredited to perform basic tasks' [The Lawyer 1994:16]. At this time it was difficult to judge how many paralegals were working in law firms in the UK but it was estimated to be around 20,000 paralegals operating in private practice. There was some debate as to whether the UK would 'go the same way as the US' but it was thought that as the employment market became more flexible there would be an increase in paralegals. At this time a major law firm Clifford Chance had already taken a deliberate policy decision to increase the number of paralegals employed by the firm [The Lawyer 1994:17].

The reference to developments within the US at this time was of interest because the American Bar Association in 1995 was already warning its members that lawyers needed 'to change their approach to legal practice and compete for work with paralegals if they wanted to retain the bulk of their business' [The Lawyer 1995:5]. The report noted that 'paralegals had a greater role to play' in providing legal services and that lawyers had to find better ways to meet the needs of people on moderate incomes.

The same report noted that if lawyers wanted to retain their caseload they had to stop being complacent about the abilities of paralegals and recognise that they could 'fit into' practices. They would have to become more competitive and 'if they could get paralegals to do more things than they currently do then they could reduce the cost of the service and make lawyers more accessible' [The Lawyer 1995:5].

Although in the UK there was to be concern within the profession as to pay rates for paralegals which are often on salary rates 'well below the Law Society minimum salary for trainee solicitors this has not impeded the expansion of the paralegal phenomenon. The explanation has been identified by some practitioners who suggest that as the cost of running a practice is growing and profit margins are falling 'it is now more cost effective to employ more paralegals [more bodies for a lesser salary' than a lower number of trainee solicitors at greater cost' [The Lawyer 1998:18]. Despite this it was reported in 2000 that Matrix Chambers in what was seen as being the 'first move of its kind' was to employ paralegals. Although commonly employed by solicitors this was the first barristers set to do so [The Lawyer 2000:3]. The chief executive of Matrix Chambers was to comment that they would be trying to 'establish a pool of paralegals – a panel – who can be brought in for specific matters to assist with research and case preparation'. The paralegals would also be used to assist Matrix's legal information officer to offer 'a new legal research service' [The Lawyer 2000:3].

A recent report from Scotland suggests that a 'quiet revolution' has begun in Scotland as hundreds start training as 'American style paralegals' [Evening Times Glasgow 2003]. Changes in Scottish law practice has resulted in hundreds of jobs and the opportunity for those with a non-academic background to achieve university level qualifications. It notes that while paralegals are currently a new phenomenon in Scotland they are common in America where their role is to help lawyers with their legal workload and assist them with cases by doing the leg work interviewing clients and compiling research and background information. They are qualified to assist lawyers but not to practice law. The explosion in the number of people in Scotland wanting to become paralegals has been compared to that of the paramedic in medicine with an increase in students training with Central Law Training Scotland Ltd from 40 to 400 a year [Evening Times 2003].

It was noted that for many years legal secretaries – mostly women – would do a certain amount of legal work but their efforts were not officially recognised and their status and opportunities remained limited. Now by taking a paralegal course they could 'substantially increase their professional and financial prospects'. This was because lawyers would be able to pass on a large part of their workload to paralegals who could do the background work at a much cheaper rate than hiring a partner in a law firm. It would also be cheaper for clients too [Evening Times 2003] Paralegal salaries ranged between £15,000 and £25,000 per year with good paralegals becoming now a 'much sought after commodity'.

A further issue relating to the employment of paralegals concerns the decision of law firms to withdraw from legal aid work following recent reform of the funding and allocation of legal aid. This has been paralleled by the decision of many barristers to withdraw from legal aid work [Gibb: 2004]. As the Law Society research study identified many firms employing the most paralegals were involved in legal aid work. It is therefore uncertain what impact the reform of legal aid will have on paralegal employment. It may mean that former opportunities are significantly reduced. However it may mean that those firms who continue with legally aided work are likely to employ more paralegals as a means of responding to reductions in legal aided income. Recent recommendations concerning the use of professionally unqualified staff being given right of audience for minor offences in the lowest courts could also significantly propel a further increase in the employment of 'paralegals'.

Other services [3]

The Health Service and NHS reform programme

Although great emphasis has been given within the media to the future role and management of Foundation Hospitals the real revolution in the delivery of services

within the NHS lies with major reform of personnel practice and responsibilities. As has been argued by the [government the improvement of service within the NHS will require major changes in function and roles within it with a commitment to breaking down the old hierarchies which have traditionally characterised it. Not least within the reformed system is the major role which will be given increasingly to 'non professionally qualified support staff' [IPPR 2002]. Indeed the IPPR study was to suggest that 'support workers' would be key to the success of NHS reform where they would be expected to play an increasingly important role in delivering patient care.

These support workers would include nursing auxiliaries occupational therapy assistants, dental nurses local authority domiciliary care workers and care assistants in nursing homes. The IPPR report noted however that there was insufficient regulation for support staff which contrasted with the raft of new measures brought in to regulate doctors and nurses. The same report noted that progress could only be made if the government was committed to the goal of a fully-qualified support workforce and mapped out the range of occupational titles and roles and consults on the options for regulation of non-professional staff in health care settings [IPPR 2002].

The government's proposals for the health service are outlined within its Plan for the NHS. It argues that 'radical changes are needed in the way staff work to reduce waiting times and that there was a need to make maximum use of the talents of the NHS workforce. The aim will be to break down the old hierarchical ways of working to establish more flexible team working between different clinical professionals. It cites nurses in A and E departments who are now freeing up doctors time by treating patients with minor injuries and ailments themselves [The NHS Plan 9.2]. With the expansion of support staff it is expected that nurses will be in future given much wider responsibilities which are identified within the Chief Nursing Officers 10 Key roles for nurses. Together these give a much greater proactive role than before which is designed to 'empower' appropriately qualified nurses midwives and therapists [The NHS Plan :9.5]. They will be given the right to prescribe a limited range of medicines which is likely to be extended in future.

It is argued that 'the NHS has neglected for too long the need to invest in the skills and potential of staff who do not have a professional qualification' [The NHS Plan :9.13]. There will be training investment for all such staff to make better use of 'health care assistants, operating departmental practitioners, pharmacy technicians and others'. It is argued that 'these staff will play a key part in raising standards in the fundamentals of patient care' and that there will be effective regulation of support staff in place later [The NHS Plan 9.13].

There will be a general loosening of the divisions between all health workers. There will be training opportunities for staff to take on new roles. There will be a new position

of assistant practitioner in radiography ‘appropriately trained to take mammograms under the supervision of a radiographer’ [The Plan: 9.14]. This will release radiographers to extend their role into some of the tasks undertaken by radiologists. The same principle will be applied to plans for a ‘physicians assistant and will extend to many other specialities ‘where waiting times are longest and workforce shortages greatest’ [The NHS Plan: 9.15]. In addition there will be put in place a common foundation programme to enable students and staff to switch careers and training paths more easily. ‘Nurses midwives and therapists who want to become doctors for example will no longer have to start their training from scratch’ [The NHS Plan: 9.18]. Similar changes are planned for consultants who will be required to accept new contracts and will be joined by ‘senior doctors’ who will have contractual arrangements more closely allied to NHS requirements. Just as nurses roles would be extended including some of those now carried out by doctors so senior doctors would take on some of the roles now held by consultants.

Other Public Services

[4] The Prison Service.

The prison service is a large and complex organisation. During 2002-2003 it was responsible for 136 establishments and a workforce of approximately 45,000 staff of various disciplines. It cost over £2 billion to run which represented 16% of total spending on the Criminal Justice system [HM Prison Service Annual Report 2003:12].

There is an ongoing commitment within the Prison Service to improved performance and performance targets within which there is a ‘continuing search for internal efficiencies’ and where it has to find ‘funds for other necessary initiatives from within its existing budgets’. To improve efficiency the service will need to become ‘more radical and challenging in examining and changing the current activity base and current business processes’ [HM Prison Service Annual Report 2003:7].

The introduction of new management arrangements for Correctional Services will it is stated ‘bring changes to the service and include ‘an increased stress on competition’ and partnerships with the voluntary sector [HM Prison service Annual report 2003:7] The same report notes that despite very great pressure placed on the service arising from significant increases in prisoner numbers ‘the increasingly pro-active and ‘can-do’ approach from staff at all levels meant that the Service made real and sustained progress over the previous year [HM Prison Service Annual Report 2003:8].

The ‘can-do’ culture alluded to in the 2003 Report contrasts considerably with that which pertained in the prison service 10 years ago. Then the Prison Service was seen as being overly subject to the influence of the POA. One consequence of this was the

decision taken by Derek Lewis as Director-General of the prison service to 'set out to break the power of the POA by successfully challenging their right to take strike action' [Kelso:2001]. Within section 127 of the 1994 Criminal Justice and Public Order Act the right of Prison Officers to take strike action was removed. At the POA conference in 2003 the Home Secretary set in motion legislative procedures to remove the ban on Prison Officers taking strike action. This followed on from the success of the Voluntary Agreement between the POA and the Prison Service Agency. It is however clear that the power of the POA to disrupt the Service has been substantially eroded by a number of other developments which can be seen as being more significant. In many respects the prison service provides the most radical example of outsourcing and organisational reform within the public sector.

This was a result of the perception within the Home Office that the prisons system appeared to be hostage to the whim of the Prison Officers Association.

The first and most important development was seen to be the move toward private provision of prison services and there has been a continuing commitment to such outsourcing since the 1990s. At the present time there are 9 private prisons contractually managed by private companies such as Group 4, Premier and Securicor. These are identified below:

HMP Altcourse – Group 4 Securitas

HMP Ashfield-Premier Custodial group Ltd subsidiary of Serco Group plc

HMP Bronzefield-UK Detention Services [UKDS] [Prison opening June 2004]

HMP and YOI Doncaster-Premier Prison Services Ltd

HMP/ YOI Forest Bank-UK Detention Services [UKDS]

HMP Lowdham Grange-Premier Custodial Group Ltd

HMP/YOI Rye Hill – Group 4 Securitas

HMP Wolds-Group 4 Securitas.

Governors of private prisons are called 'Directors' and the prisons are the ultimate responsibility of the Commissioner for Correctional Services.

The second development has been the continued use and expansion of 'performance testing' of prisons by the Prison Service. During 2003 four prisons were to be subject to 'performance testing' which included Liverpool and Dartmoor prisons. The response to this announcement the POA was to comment that it was 'deeply disturbed at this selection of establishments as they have both made significant cost reductions in the recent past' [POA New and Events 2003]. In response the POA was to state that

‘every assistance would be offered to the branches concerned in order that the prisons remain within the Public Sector’ [POA News and Events 2003].

The potential threat of privatisation of public prisons has allowed the prison service to embark on a number of reforms to encourage greater flexibility within the workforce. This was to be reflected within the 1991 document ‘Custody Care and Justice’ within which two objectives were identified as being to ‘increase the opportunities for providing more fulfilling work for prison officers with prisoners’ and to continue to encourage Governors to ‘identify jobs which can be undertaken by staff other than prison officers to help free prison officers for the work requiring their particular skills’ [Cm 1647 1991].

These proposals were to be reflected ultimately in the development of the National Offending Management service [NOMS] where prison officers work with the probation service and the introduction of the Operational Support Grade within the Prison Service.

The Operational Support Grades are now employed on a wide variety of duties and these include:

- Checking in visitors
- Supervision of visitors
- Patrolling perimeter and grounds
- Supervising small selected inmate work parties
- Escorting contractors and vehicles
- Searching Buildings
- Searching inmate property
- Stores duties
- Routine administrative work
- Night patrol duties
- Drivers and Navigators
- Switchboard duties
- Canteen and kit exchange duties

All of the posts are open to part-time and job share applicants and this may help in the recruitment of more female support officers. While the expansion of Operational support officers has taken place it appears not be driven entirely by costs. This is because pay rates for the majority of officers are currently around £15,000 a year. As has been noted in relation to prison officers ‘salaries are comparatively low particularly in the south-east, and where 21,000 men and 4,000 women officers take home as little as £15,000 a year’ and where the entry-level salary can be exceeded by a ‘security guard working similar hours at a fraction of the risk’ [Kelso:2001].

Other efficiency measures introduced to improve prison performance include the 'cross deployment' of officers so that they are required to carry out different tasks each day 'rather than sticking to the same inmates' [Kelso 2003]. Despite this there remain serious management problems. It was reported that in 2003, some 99 officers were suspended nationwide on suspicion of a range of offences including 'absence, fraud, racist abuse, and assaulting prisoners and fellow staff' [Kelso 2003].

It was also reported that despite the reforms introduced into the Prison Service the influence of prison officers could not be underestimated. As was argued:

'Nothing moves in a prison without the co-operation of officers leading opponents to claim that the POA wants the jails run for the benefit of officers' [Kelso 2003].

NOMS

It is however the case that the new Commissioner for NOMS Martin Narey has every intention of sustaining the initiative in relation to the future management of the prisons. He has accepted that 'contestability' will be central to the future strategy of NOMS. Contestability means that the opportunity will be provided for a number of service providers to bid for work within NOMS to ensure that it gets the 'best quality product for the best price' [Travis 2004]. As is argued by Narey in relation to contestability:

'It is about competition. We are not privatising large pieces of work. If the public sector competes and proves it is best it will keep the work'. [Travis 2004].

The contestability process will start next year in 2005 with the 'testing' of a number of prisons that will be put out to tender. This may mean that the public sector loses management of those prisons if they do not return the best tender in terms of quality and cost. Because the private sector carries higher overheads per prison it has also been decided that they would benefit from the 'economies of scale' and therefore it is intended that 'market testing a small group of prisons' will be the next development in the prison management programme [Travis 2004]. Narey as head of NOMS is keen to see more service providers being encouraged to compete. Personal contact with a number of American companies has identified two US providers that are not yet operating in the UK. He is encouraging them to bid for work in the UK [Travis 2004]. This follows on from the Carter Report of 2003 on Managing Offenders. As was to be argued within the Carter Report:

'The performance of private sector prisons has generally been very good with the quality of the service improving quickly after start-up. The proportion of prisoners held in privately managed prisons is now greater than in the United States' [Managing Offenders 2003:23].

In addition decisions about prison population management will be removed from public sector prison services and will be managed in future by NOMS. This is because prison

population management will increasingly apply to both public and private sector prisons. Prison Governors will also lose the responsibility for deciding who gets released on 'home detention curfews' which will in future be decided by NOMS alone [Travis 2004].

Other Public Services

[5] The Probation Service/NOMS

The National Probation service has a total staff complement of 18,000. Their responsibilities include minimising the impact of crime on communities and especially of victims of serious crime. They are committed to the rehabilitation of offenders given community sentences and those released from prison. They are responsible for enforcing the conditions of their court orders and release license 'and to take whatever steps in their power to protect the public' [National Probation Service 2004].

Each year the probation service commences supervision of some 175,000 offenders and the case load on any given day is in excess of 200,000. Approximately 90% of offenders are male and 10% female. One quarter of offenders are aged between 16-20 and the rest are aged 21 and over. 70% of those supervised will now be on community sentences and 30% imprisoned with a statutory license period of supervision in the community as part of the sentence. All members of the National Probation service are involved in continuous assessment and management of risk with the provision of expert supervision designed to reduce offending. The NPS is responsible for 100 approved probation hostels and staff are also heavily involved with YOTs prisons and a range of crime reduction partnerships [National Probation Service 2004].

The Probation Service has been subject to very considerable upheaval in the recent past moving in 2001 from an organisation of 54 quasi-autonomous independent probation services to the National Probation Service that year. In January 2004 it was announced however that the National Probation Service would itself be replaced by a new body entitled the National Offender Management Service which would combine both the probation and prison services [Reducing Crime-Changing Lives Home Office 2004]. Together it is intended that the NOMS will provide a new 'correctional service' with a dual responsibility of punishing offenders and reducing re-offending. The Chief Executive of NOMS is expected to appoint a new 'National Offender Manager' who will be responsible for managing the budget. However for purposes of integration the service will be regionalised to encourage the development of 'joint strategies' and links established with complementary services. 10 Regional Offender Managers will have immediate responsibility on a day-to-day basis for the management of offenders [Reducing Crime-Changing Lives 2004:26].

Along with the planned major restructuring of the probation service, it is intended that there will be also major changes in the provision of service. This follows on from the influential Correctional Services Review conducted in 2003 by Patrick Carter [Managing Offending-Reducing Crime Home Office 2003]. In his review Carter was to highlight the benefits of competition-from the private and voluntary sector 'which could be extended further across both prison and probation' [Managing Offending 2003:4]. Indeed the Carter report was to argue that both effectiveness and 'value for money' could be further improved through 'greater use of competition from private and voluntary workers' [Managing Offending 2003:5].

Within the planned structure of the new correctional service it was argued that regional Offender Managers would oversee the supervision of offenders and commission custody places fine collection and interventions 'whether in the public, private or voluntary sector' [Managing Offending 2003:5]. It was argued that by using a range of services from both public and private sectors the proposed NOMS would be able to ensure 'greater value for money by encouraging the greater use of the private and 'not for profit sectors' in the prisons and in the community 'wherever it can demonstrate its greater cost effectiveness'.

As was to be argued within the Carter Report in relation to the role of probation services:

'In the community in particular we want to make much more use of the 'not for profit' and voluntary sector by involving communities in the supervision of offenders and the reduction of crime' [Managing Offenders 2003:27].

Within an Annex – 'the Governments response to the Carter Report' it was apparent that almost all of the recommendations within the Carter Report would be implemented. This was particularly the case in relation to both the structure of NOMS and the encouragement of 'increased contestability' in the provision of 'correctional services' [Managing Offenders Annex – 2003:43].

In its response to the Carter Report the Government states that while it is not interested in using the private sector for its own sake whether in prisons or the community 'it wants the most cost-effective custodial and community sentences no matter who delivers them' [Managing Offenders 2003:43]. It adds however that the experience with the Prison Service's use of the private sector 'has been extremely positive' where 4 private companies now successfully run 9 prisons which will 'shortly grow to 11'prisons. It argues that many prisoners and visitors speak positively about the way they are treated by staff. It adds:

'More significantly the threat of contestability in running prisons has led to dramatic improvements in regimes and reductions in cost at some of the most difficult public sector prisons. So effective has contestability been that the public sector have won two

prison contracts back from private sector operators, responding to the threat of the private sector’ [Managing Offenders 2003:43].

As a direct result of this experience the Government therefore intends to encourage both private and ‘not for profit’ sectors to compete to manage offenders in the community. It intends to encourage partnerships between public and private sector providers and the voluntary and community sectors ‘which harness their respective strengths’.

It adds:

‘As the market develops offender managers will be able to buy custodial places or community interventions from providers from whatever sector based only on their cost effectiveness in reducing re-offending’ [Managing Offenders Annex 2004:43].

It is also noted that ‘while currently there is minimal contestability’ in the front-line provision of probation services internationally ‘especially in the United States’ there is strong evidence of a wide range of potential providers ‘especially from the voluntary sector’ [Managing Offenders 2003:24]. The Carter report also makes clear that the first Chief Executive of the NOMS would have an immediate responsibility for ensuring ‘contestability’ in the provision of prison and probation service ‘by attracting new providers into the market ‘through a planned programme of market testing’ [Managing Offenders 2003:34]. Within the new NOMS the Carter Report was to also outline the general responsibilities of the Chief Executive. These are described as being given responsibility for ensuring contestability in the provision of custodial sentences by way of ‘performance testing’; running ‘competitions to manage prisons’ and introducing a planned programme of market testing [Managing Offenders 2003:37].

Within the Probation service the Carter Review was to recommend that proposed ‘offender managers’ would be recruited from a range of providers in the public, private or voluntary sector. While it was expected that initially the majority of offender managers would be from the public sector ‘over time however new providers would emerge’ [Managing Offenders 2003:37]. Moreover as with prisons so with the probation service the Chief Executive of NOMS ‘would have a responsibility for ensuring contestability’.

This would it is stated:

‘Include replacing failing managers, running competitions for new providers and a planned programme of market testing’ [Managing Offenders 2003:38].

The same Review was to propose that within 5 years of its creation NOMS would have ensured that ‘contestability would have been introduced across the whole of prisons and community interventions with outcome based contracts’ [Managing Offenders 2003:41].

In its response to the Carter Review the Government accepted all of the recommendations and this is reflected within its Report 'Reducing Crime-Changing Lives' [2004] where NOMS and the use of 'market-testing' are seen as central to future progress.

Chief Executive of NOMS

In a speech to delegates Martin Narey, attending the 2003 NAPO Annual Conference as Chief Executive designate for NOMS, while praising the outstanding work of probation staff and acknowledging excessive workloads was to admit that 'he was a convert to competition'. While this, it was reported, "dismayed members who voiced opposition to any threat of further privatisation in the NPS" [Napo News 2004], it did fulfil one of the basic requirements of the post as identified within the Carter Review 2003. Napo has made clear its opposition to the NOMS 'particularly the introduction of the 'purchaser/provider' model and privatisation which it believes 'will fragment and undermine probation service work and threaten the jobs pay and conditions of Napo members'. In 2004 it initiated a campaign to 'protect the work and values of the Probation service; oppose privatisation and defend members' jobs and conditions of service' [Napo 'NOMS Campaign 2004].

In the course of a debate in the House of Lords on NOMS it was to be argued by Baroness Stern that after the complete re-organisation of the service in 2001 members of the NPS were told in January 2004 that 'their service would not exist in June and that its work would be subject to contestability "which I understand is another word for privatisation"' [Napo News April 2004]. A meeting with the Minister for Probation Paul Goggins by the All Party Criminal Justice Trade Union group of MP's was to lead to the Minister emphasising that 'individual prisons and probation services would have a statutory responsibility for reducing re-offending and that 'the failure to do so could lead to penalties such as contestability' [Napo News April 2004].

Napo have initiated a 'NOMS campaign' to protect the integrity values and professionalism of the probation service'. It opposes the introduction of NOMS and the purchaser /provider model along with the implied expansion of privatisation within the criminal justice system. Its opposition is with a view 'to ensuring that the Probation Service and members jobs are retained wholly within the Public Sector' [Napo News February 2004]. It believes the introduction of NOMS will have the power to affect the professional livelihoods of all staff currently employed in both [prison and probation] services as it 'will open up work with offenders to the market' [Napo News February 2004].

Napo now argues that the case for NOMS has not been made and that 'the introduction of privatisation will fragment and even lead to the demise of the Probation

Service. The re-organisation will not be the subject of a parliamentary bill or any other form of parliamentary scrutiny' [Napo NOMS Campaign February 2004].

To the issue of NOMS has been added the current funding arrangements of the Probation Service. It has been argued that unless funding streams are at the right level 'then the Probation service as we know it could disappear without trace, only to be replaced by separate privatised agencies such as Securicor or Group 4' [Chairman's Address to Napo Annual Conference 2003]. It was also noted that it was known that the National Probation Directorate 'had been holding talks with these private companies in recent months. This has been made easier by at least one area asking a private company to transport clients to groups' [Chairman's Address 2003].

The decision to move to market testing had been made despite the expansion of the Probationer Support Officer role. As was to be noted the PSO grade had been subject to 'hugely increased participation in case management and accredited programmes' and for which 'many of those staff were not being paid the rate for the job' [Napo Chairman's Address 2003]. Preliminary results of job evaluation were already indicating that 'most PSOs were underpaid' [Napo Chairman's address 2003]. This suggests that any expansion of a support role will not necessarily mean that public services investing in this will avoid some future form of 'market-testing' involving the private sector. In addition as in the case of the probation service, the voluntary sector could form another source of competition.

Other Public Services

[6] The Fire Service.

There are 58 separate fire brigades in England and Wales run independently under the command of a chief fire officer. In Scotland there are 8 brigades under the command of a Firemaster.

Within the fire service there are three types of personnel. The first consists of full-time 'fire fighters' who are represented by the Fire Brigades Union; the second is composed of paid but volunteer Retained Personnel and the third consists of Support Staff who work in wide range of support capacities within the fire service. Unlike the FBU the Retained Firemans' Union is committed to non-strike action but in terms of influence and effectiveness has not in anyway been able to match that of the BCU in relation to the national internal management of the fire service.

The Fire Service provides 5 main services which are: Community Fire safety which is a preventative role; Legislative fire Safety which ensures that buildings comply with fire safety legislation; Fire and Rescue emergency Response; Special Services which

would include vehicle accidents, storms and floods, trapped animals and Emergency Planning which involves planning and preparation for large scale emergencies.

As is identified within the Fire Service Recruitment literature when joining the Fire Service 'whatever your educational achievements' the new entrant will receive the same basic training required to start the operational duties of a firefighter. Following the successful completion of training, full time firefighters will become a 'responsible member of a closely knit and well organised team' ['the watch'] where it is stated 'your life and the lives of others depend on teamwork'. After induction firefighters as a condition of service will work a 48 hour week with a shift system of 2 days of 9 hours and 2 nights of 15 hours per week.

Call-outs to incidents can be comparatively infrequent and in the absence of call-outs the 'typical Day Shift' is identified as being heavily directed towards checking and cleaning all equipment within the station and fire appliances; training and fitness and afternoon visits to schools to deliver community fire safety lectures [Fire Service www.fireservice.co.uk].

At weekends the day shift will 'clean the engine house out and all the station gets a clean' while every Sunday involves testing the Hydraulic Platform and 'cleaning it from top to bottom'. Following the afternoon Break time the station is tidied and the appliances once again washed and cleaned. At 1800 there is a parade where the on-duty watch are detailed the positions they will be riding on 'call-out'.

The typical night shift for 'whole time fire-fighters' starts at 1800 and in the absence of 'call out' will start by inspecting the appliances and all equipment. Further checks are then made of lights and sirens, water and fuel levels. Following fitness/gym activity the rest of the evening up to 20:30 will be taken up with testing equipment; cleaning; training or drill. Saturday and Sunday nights are classed as 'stand down time'. The shift will then, in the absence of a call out return to duty following the 6.45-07.30 'wake up and morning brew time'. Following this the station is then tidied and appliances washed ready for 'stand-down time' from 08.00-09.00 with a final parade at 09.00 [Fire Service: www.fireservice.co.uk].

In 2002 the fire Service was the subject of the Independent Review which was to make a number of recommendations concerning the management and operation of the fire service and upon which the government are now in the process of acting. While the Review was to be impressed by the quality of service given by the Fire service to the community it also found that it operated within a system of 'rigid prescriptions and restrictive practices' which meant that it was not always in the right place at the right time to respond most effectively and efficiently to the community's needs. Because the structure of the fire service was out of date and inflexible it was to conclude that change was 'long overdue' [Independent Review 2002:3.3].

The Review was to support the calculations of earlier official Reports concerning the actual time spent by fire fighters on fighting fires as standing between 3 and 10% and 5 and 10% of a firefighters total time [Independent Review 2002:3.6].

It was to conclude that much more effort needed to be directed to fire prevention than was currently the case while noting that community fire safety work was not a statutory responsibility placed on the fire service.

It was to also conclude that the location of fire stations was not always near either those areas of social deprivation where most fires occur or near the large arterial routes where most car crashes occur and which together constituted the source of most call outs to the fire service [Independent Review 2002:3.24].

Although the amount of time devoted to firefighting was only a very small proportion of the total time spent by firefighters on duty it was discovered that fire stations were nevertheless staffed under a system known as ‘constant crewing’. With this staffing is not reduced at any time no matter how low the incidence of emergency calls might be. Working practices also dictated the crew levels for each appliance and these could not be varied [Independent Review 2002:3.29]. Additionally the Review noted that the shift system also involved certain ‘stand down’ times which could include ‘part of every night shift, Saturday afternoons, Sundays and Bank holidays’. This meant that firefighters ‘only responded to emergency calls and did no other work Often they were able to sleep’.

“One firefighter told us that he reckoned on there being about 14 productive hours on a 4 day watch” [Independent Review 2002:3.31]. One consequence of the shift system used by the fire service was that ‘many firefighters have a second job which can be planned around the requirements of the current shift’. The employers were, in evidence to the Review, to comment that second jobs ‘were common’ and that the requirement to seek official permission to do so was usually ignored [Independent Review 2002:3.35].

While the Review was to find that in theory varied skills could be recruited in to the service to carry out specialist work this did not occur as they could not be recruited directly into particular jobs because of the ‘single point of entry where the only way into the fire service is a recruit into the bottom rank’ [Independent Review 2002:3.40]. One result of this was that firefighters were not a ‘diverse group’. The service was found to be 98.3% male and 98.5% white.

One consequence was that the fire service was ‘failing to draw on the wider population at large’ and was also ‘failing to match the demands of community fire safety work to the characteristics of those it recruits’ [Independent Review 2002:3.41].

Yet it was also concluded that even if the right people were recruited their skills would be lost to the service at an early age as on average 43% of firefighters retired early on ill-health grounds each year [Independent Review 2002:3.42].

The Review noted that the fire service also employs retained fire officers who are paid a retainer and a call out fee and respond to emergencies when required. The Retained Service covers around 60% of the UK's land area, mainly rural areas. Retained officers have to live within 5 minutes travelling time of the fire station but where stations have both retained officers and full-time firefighters 'union rules say that the appliances used must be operated separately'. This meant that where there were two appliances but not enough full-time firefighters to crew the second appliance this would not be crewed to respond to an incident 'even if there was a retained firefighter available' [Independent Review 2002:3.44].

Within the Review recommendations were made for the 'Fire Service Tomorrow'. As the service was organised around the need to respond to fire incidents which made up no more than 5% of its total activity the Review was to recommend the major expansion of responsibilities to include:

- Risk reduction and risk management
- Community fire safety and education
- Fire safety enforcement
- Emergency response to fires and emergencies
- Emergency preparedness.

In order to carry out the additional functions given to firefighters the service will 'require a wider range of skills and competencies than in the past' [Independent Review 2002:4.9]. One result will be the need to remove or reduce the 'rigid national prescriptions such as staff cover or level of staffing through the day [constant crewing]'. This will provide flexibility to local managers who will in future 'be ready and equipped to take decisions about priorities and who does what when and where'. In addition a more diverse range of people will be recruited 'and they may enter at a range of levels' which would reflect their relevant skills and experience' [Independent Review 2002:4.12]. In the reformed service 'there should be no distinction between the value of whole-time and retained firefighter to the Service 'or between them and control room staff or '*between uniformed and non-uniformed staff*' [Independent Review 2002:4.12].

All groups should be trained to a consistent professional standard and offered a range of opportunities where their skills and commitment can be used for the benefit of the community.

The Review notes that in future 'the Service will have a culture which welcomes this diverse range of people and also offers a family friendly environment'. It will also offer

a range of shift patterns for staff to fit in with the need for local risk assessments ‘which reflect when and where incidents take place’ [Independent Review 2002:4.13]. More of the working day will be spent outside of the station on community fire safety work and this will also go some way to ending the ‘watch culture’.

The Review was to also judge that radical reform was needed in relation to entry into the service. It was to describe the provision of development of future fire service leaders as deficient and suggested that there was a need to revisit the ‘single tier entry system’ given that firefighters on entry needed no educational qualifications. The absence of a fast stream meant that there were few incentives for graduates or other groups of aspiring to future promotion in the service. The evidence was to ‘confirm the view of the members of the Review’ about the insularity of the training and development structures and ‘*the failure adequately to tackle the over-riding culture*’ [Independent Review 2002:7.37].

The Review was to express particular concern about the issue of diversity in the fire service. As was to be stated in relation to this:

“We have been frankly appalled at some of the stories we have heard of bullying and harassment. Harassment has been both racial and sexual, even given the very small numbers of non-white and female employees in the service. Such behaviour is illegal as well as being morally repugnant; it is also not in the best interests of the service.” [Independent Review 2002:7.40].

The Review was to reference Fire Inspectorate Reports [1999] which identified incidents of sexual harassment in all the Brigades visited by the Inspectorate. This ranged from men urinating over the floor and toilet rolls in the women’s toilet to the display of pornographic videos at fire stations ‘to more serious harassment in some brigades’ [sic]. Members of the Black and Ethnic Minority members group of the FBU told the Inspectorate of the ‘real difficulty faced by many members as the result of the conscious and unconscious actions of their colleagues.

Inappropriate humour and language also caused offence [Independent Review 2002:7.41]. The Review concluded that in its view the ‘watch system’ was one of the main barriers to progress in increasing diversity. The ‘Watch’ to which all firefighters were assigned was a closed world which took on ‘the characteristics of a family rather than a team’ where each watch ‘eats, sleeps and works together’. Together this emphasised a culture which did not tolerate diversity [Independent Review 2002:7.42]. However with the new emphasis on community fire safety ‘there was simply no chance of real progress being made unless the Fire service became more diverse’ and needed to engage with the local community through a service which is rooted in local communities [Independent Review 2002:7.45].

In 2002 the Review found that nationally ‘only 1.7% of firefighters were women and 1.5% were not white’. To change this it recommended a move to more flexible shift patterns and a move away from single tier entry. Recruitment practices were needed to attract more women and people from ethnic minorities. The Inspectorate will be required to monitor recruitment trends with the aim of reaching a target of 15% female firefighters and 7% minority ethnic communities by 2009 [Independent Review 2002:7.49].

The adoption of the ‘Integrated Personal Development System’ is also required as a national framework to remove barriers by applying equally to non-uniformed as well as whole time retained and part time fire service personnel [Independent review 2002:7.52]. Within IPDS the key component is the grouping of competencies into a hierarchical role structure. Each role is defined in terms of skills, competencies and responsibilities ‘where many of the skills are transferable’. Progression will depend on the acquisition of skills by way of NVQs and will have implications for the ‘current appointment and promotion system’ [Independent Review 2002:7.54]. In future instead of paying firefighters for time served they will in future be paid for specialist skills they acquire.

As the Review comments the changes taking place ‘will affect not only the uniformed and control room staff but also the support staff’. Currently it argues many of the specialist functions within the brigades are run by support staff and ‘they play an important part in the operation of the service’.

It notes that:

“It is impossible to imagine a modernised fire service without these specialist support staff who deliver a wide range of services including: property management, information and communications, vehicle maintenance, health and safety, procurement, HR management and public relations and media”.

The Review goes on however to comment that:

“They are often highly qualified specialists in their field managed by fire officers who in many cases do not possess the professional qualifications for the role. They should receive proper recognition for their role in the service and be brought into IPDS with its recognition of skills and competencies. This will also provide a career structure and bring them into line with similar roles in other areas of local government” [Independent Review 2002:7.61].

The Review recommends that ‘To reinforce the concept of the fire brigade as a single service we recommend brigades review the role of support staff and ensure they are brought into the new IPDS structure’ [Independent Review 2002:7.62].

Within its list of recommendations the Review was to highlight the need for significant managerial change in service delivery. The terms of what are identified as the ‘core conditions of service’ must allow managers to propose and seek to agree locally:

- shift patterns that fit with demand
- different crewing levels at different times of day
- mixed crewing of appliances by whole-time and retained firefighters
- arrangements for staff to move more easily between fire stations etc
- arrangements for overtime working
- diversity objectives and monitoring
- approval for taking second jobs
- up-to-date working environment
- family friendly working practices.

Additionally it is recommended that the Appointments and Promotion Regulations should be repealed and replaced with a set of 'core requirements'. Along with that should go the repeal of the Discipline Regulations which it argues, should be replaced by a system based on 'modern good practice'. It is suggested that the ACAS Code of Practice on Disciplinary and Grievance Procedures would be a good basis for such a system [Independent Review 2002: List of Recommendations].

Other Public Services

[7] Immigration and Nationality Directorate [IND].

In its Strategic Overview it is stated that the aim of IND is to regulate entry to and settlement in the UK in the interests of sustainable growth and social inclusion. Its primary purpose is to develop immigration policy and enforce the immigration laws; to consider claims for asylum; decide who can stay in the UK and decide applications for work permits. Most recently it has been concerned with the delivery of the strategy set out in the 1998 White Paper for a 'fairer, faster and firmer approach' to immigration while also being responsible for the implementation of the 1999 Asylum Act. This provided IND with new powers which included new fingerprint powers and technology to prevent fraudulent applications; wider enforcement powers for immigration officers and a 'range of measures to help operate immigration controls' in the UK and overseas [<http://www.ind.homeoffice.gov.uk>].

The IND is a part of the Home Office and its HQ is based at Croydon. Its main functions are to formulate immigration and interpret immigration policy, to consider applications from foreign nationals and consider asylum applications. Over 90 million people enter the UK every year although the great majority enter for holidays or business reasons. However a significant number are now applying for asylum and this has increased over recent years.

The IND employs 11,000 staff [4000 of which were recruited between January 2000 and 2001]. These are made up of administrative staff, junior managers, Immigration

Officers and Assistant Immigration Officers. These are responsible for the prevention, detection and enforcement services and are based at both ports of entry and as caseworkers at Croydon. Many of the staff are young, while the workforce 'is also diverse' and the IND 'remains committed to ensuring IND is an organisation which fosters diversity and pursues a policy to that end' [IND Annual Report 2000-2001]. In 2001 the IND also took responsibility for Work Permits [UK] which before had been the responsibility of the DEE.

There has also been expansion both in staff, accommodation and IT [Strategic Overview 'About Us' IND 2004]. Along with a huge expansion of staff, a stream of additional detention space has also been central to INDs 'removals strategy' [About Us IND 2004]. The detention space has been given to the private sector to manage and control. There have been a number of complaints and allegations of racism, abuse and violence at 'detention centres' for asylum seekers run by these companies. In one case the Prison Ombudsman was to uphold the complaints [Report into Allegations of Racism at Yarl's Wood 30/4/04].

Despite the highly sensitive nature of the work it was discovered that private companies, particularly Global Solutions Limited, had no training provision for their employees on race relations or cultural awareness. It was also to be recommended that these staff should also be banned from the wearing of 'badges, tie pins etc bearing inappropriate insignia or designs' [Report into Allegations of Racism Yarl's Wood 2004].

While the detention centres involve the private sector, within IND at its HQ at Croydon the majority of personnel are either administrative or executive officers with the majority classed as Immigration Officers or Assistant Immigration Officers or caseworkers. Some information about the respective duties of the latter are provided. The Immigration Officer can expect to deal, inter-alia, with matters relating to people entering the UK on a temporary or permanent basis; process immigration applications; check passports and visas; organise surveillance and collect relevant intelligence; conduct 'detailed interviews' with members of the public and detain those without legal right to enter the country. For these positions a degree is preferred although entry at Job Band 2 Administrative Assistant level may be possible with GCSE's [Immigration Officer The Work IND 2004].

Assistant Immigration Officers have responsibilities which do not appear to be very different from those of the higher 'Immigration Officer'. These responsibilities range from 'helping to set up interviews; taking fingerprints; arranging passenger removals and carrying out some surveillance work'. On occasions these officers will also be part with police assistance of 'immigration visits'. Assistant IOs work at airports and seaports and at the Channel Tunnel. Their rate of pay extends from £14,550 to

£18,417 per year and the qualification needed is 5 GCSE's [Job Summary Civil Service assistant Immigration Officer 2004].

One major development within IND is the creation of the National Asylum Support Service [NASS] which in the recent past has been the primary response to the growing burden of asylum seeker processing by IND. A Review of the NASS in 2003 was to comment about this service that since its creation it had 'wrestled constantly with the inherent contradiction in the role of NASS'. While providing welfare support to vulnerable people 'it worked within a framework of deterrent-based policies and legislation'. Getting the balance right was not seen as being easy 'and the challenge it presents to junior staff in particular should not be underestimated' [NASS Review 2003:8]. In 2003 NASS was providing welfare support for around 93,000 asylum seekers at a cost of £1billion a year [NASS Review 2003:7]. The same Review was to recommend major changes to improve its 'standards of customer care' along with a planned shift to using local authorities within a new consortium to provide accommodation for asylum seekers.

Other developments within IND has been the creation of an 'independent trades union' for IND workers. The Immigration and Nationality Workers Union suggests that management-staff relations may not be particularly consensual. The INWU 'News' for example draws attention to what it believes to be plans by IND to 'reduce the number of caseworkers' in IND. It is also hoping that 'caseworkers' will be recognised as 'specialist workers and that casework will become a core competency' [INWU 4 May 2004].

The same INWU newsletter makes reference to the way 'support staff' are subject to differential treatment within IND by the HRD within IND. It asks 'why support grades are not offered the same promotion opportunity as administrative grades in internal job notices?' [INWU News 26/4/04]. The same INWU publication refers to the collapse of morale within IND the resulting part of the 'dizzying changes in policy and in operational guidance as a result of ministerial manipulation. It argues that:

'Increased targets imposed by ministers and political appointees has resulted in the collapse of morale and a drop in standards among civil servants' [INWU 2/4/04].

Further evidence of problems of internal management are alluded to within the same publication. This relates to the fact that the highly critical NASS Review[2003] although completed 9 months before was only released to the public in April 2004. Had it been released before then a better informed 'open discussion' of the work of IND with asylum seekers may have been encouraged. It adds that the more recent Sutton Report 'goes further than the NASS Review in criticising IND management practices in implementing and interpreting policy'. The same Report was to highlight the need to recognise 'case-working as a specialism' [INWU 1/4/04]. It is noted that:

‘Caseworkers in IND have been complaining for years that their efforts are not recognised least of all by their senior managers most of whom have little or no background in casework... [Within the] Sutton Report the implication is clear that senior managers, senior civil servants, must accept responsibility for issuing clear guidance to their subordinates’ [INWU 1/4/04].

The politicised nature of the work of the IND has clear implications for staff within it. It is argued that in relation to IND where new immigration Acts are expected almost every year that:

“Most of the work in immigration matters is carried out by junior civil servants who are not highly paid yet they pay the price of ill-conceived legislation and unrealistic ministerial targets” [INWU 1/4/04].

The problems of staffing within IND are not new. As long ago as 1998 it was to be reported that the immigration service was ‘grinding to a halt’ as the number of asylum seekers rose and with it staff turnover within IND. As was to be argued at that time by the Immigration Service Union ‘In the last 18 months we have lost 10% of staff. That could go up to 20% by 2000. When you add to that the rush of asylum seekers, the whole lot could collapse’ [BBC OnLine Network 19/9/98]. As both the NASS and Sutton reviews suggest there are ongoing problems with both management of IND particularly staff management.

While the IND relies very largely on low paid support staff [Assistant Immigration Officers/Caseworkers] to achieve target set by government senior administrative civil servants do not appear to be able to provide positive management or encouragement. As the INWU notes in relation to this civil service culture:

‘INWU would like to know how, when a minister orders an enquiry all the stops are pulled out to complete the enquiry in ten days. Meanwhile our members in IND regularly wait years to hear the result of enquiries or investigations in matters raised internally over discipline, harassment and grievances’ [INWU 1/4/04].

Indeed the HRD problems within NASS and IND were to be the subject of critical comment within the NASS Review of 2003. It noted that ‘despite NASS’s dependence on its staff to conduct its business HR issues appeared neglected’. While HRD had been very successful in running a large scale almost continuous recruitment campaigns ‘there had been little effort to deal with the specific needs and problems within NASS. Improving HR is critical to NASS’s improvement’ [NASS Review 2003:11].

One consequence of this internal failure was that NASS did not have in place any ‘robust process to address and resolve’ the key issues within it which were seen as being staff ‘vacancies, long-term promotions, numerous agency staff and poor or non-existent training’ [NASS Review 2003:25].

Summary and Conclusions

1] As the Literature Review demonstrates every service identified for the review has or is in the process of experiencing significant change. A very similar situation was found in relation to Legal Services within which the rise of the 'Paralegal' is now an accomplished fact. The primary feature of the 'reforms' to which each public service is subject would appear to be an extension of duties and responsibilities to staff who do not possess professional qualifications which were once associated with these duties. This is most evident in both the Education and Health Services within which the 'Assistant Teacher' and 'Nursing Support Staff' now play a significant role and where there is a clear aim to redistribute existing responsibilities between professionally qualified and non-qualified staff.

2] There may be conflicting interpretations about these developments. For many professionals these 'reforms' would appear to be concerned primarily with 'de-professionalising' public services by extending functions to those who have no formal qualifications. This view is one that is shared among Trades Unions and Associations representing professional staff interests. Most recently both the NUT and BMA have declared against significant elements of reform planned for their respective services. The NUT have rejected the National Agreement in the absence of a sufficient boost in funding for schools. The Association representing clinical consultants have encouraged their members not to sign 'new contracts' which would more closely regulate their hours of work within the NHS.

3] It is the case however that the reform of public services could in fact be viewed as a means of empowering ancillary and junior staff within them. Within the Health Service it is intended that while support staff will assume a number of duties formally those of qualified nurses the latter will be made responsible for a much wider range of functions which before were the responsibility of doctors. There would appear to be moreover a strategy of 'inclusion' and 'unification' within which support staff are seen as being a valuable resource rather than a mere adjunct. The use of IPDS and NVQs will offer opportunities for career advancement for support and other staff and a merit based promotion system. There is also a new opportunity for qualified nurses to train to become doctors within which previous nurse training will contribute to the final qualification. These developments would appear to have an additional benefit of maximising the utility of all existing staff by ending or eroding the 'professional demarcations' that previously characterised these services.

4] The wider use of support staff may also entail a further expansion of responsibilities for those whose functions they now 'support'. It is expected that within the NHS qualified nurses would have some wider 'management function' where immediate responsibility for the work of support staff would fall to them. Similarly it is

expected that within the education service qualified teachers would have a general 'management' responsibility for Teacher Assistants working within the classroom for which they have immediate responsibility. There may be some similarity here with the use and future management of the CSO within the police service where the day-to-day responsibility for support officers becomes the responsibility of the police constable. That already appears to be happening in some police forces [as identified in the Review in Lancashire Constabulary]. Here the observations of Gyott with regard to American police departments is of interest. As is noted by Gyott:

'An important yet little-noticed consequence of civilianisation in police work has been to raise the status of the police officer rank by creating positions below that rank' and by also propelling individual police officers toward 'professional responsibility' which the employment of civilian 'support' officers entails [Gyott, 1991].

5] Within the context of qualified professional staff in public services further consideration would need to be given to long term demographic trends within the UK. These suggest that the availability of manpower is likely to become acute and that current employment opportunities within a near full employment economy may make staff recruitment more problematic. One consequence could be an even greater emphasis being placed on the recruitment 'support staff' which could be thereafter encouraged to use training opportunities within an IPDS for future career progression. As the pool for manpower recruitment declines there should be range of recruitment [and retention] strategies in place to attract personnel to join the public services.

6] The Literature Review demonstrates that there a number of services which are currently fragmented between 'serving fulltime officers' and support staff. Perhaps the most fragmented service identified within the Review is that of the Fire Service. That Service has indeed been divided between 'whole-time' firefighters and 'retained firefighters' on the one hand and also in terms of the division between firefighters and support staff on the other. It is interesting to note how this clear division has been addressed by the Bain Report 2003 and the government thereafter. In future 'whole time' firefighters will be required to work with 'retained officers' as and when required.

7] Retained officers will receive the same pay benefits as 'whole-time' firefighters. Both whole-time and retained firefighters will in future be promoted or paid salary increments on the basis of merit awards which will be linked to IPDS and the successful completion of NVQs. The same merit award system will be extended to all support staff. One consequence of this would be that on occasion 'retained firefighters' could be promoted over 'whole time' officers to whom they would report. Of equal interest the Bain Report recognised the potential and real damage that had been occasioned by the organisational culture engendered within the fire 'watch system'.

8] The new emphasis will be placed on community fire safety' where the need for the 'watch' will be significantly reduced. This it is expected will erode the current fire-fighter culture which appears to be deeply antipathetic to racial diversity. Additionally the new emphasis placed on community fire safety, to be successful, will now require that future recruitment must be drawn from the diverse communities served and targets have been set for ethnic minority recruitment for all fire brigades. There has been an important corresponding decision to abandon the Disciplinary Code within the Fire Service and to introduce an ACAS based system which may again begin to challenge the existing organisational culture.

9] It might be argued that there are specific examples of what the police service should not be prepared to embrace in terms of reform. The evidence to date relating to reform in prisons and probation might be a case in point. While there are perhaps advantages within the prison system of private provision of service the principle of 'contestability' appears to be a return to 'compulsory competitive tendering' originally developed by the Conservative government in the 1980s. This may have some application within a service which has been traditionally highly unionised and where the union has been aggressive in defending 'members interests, as has the POA in the past.

10] However it would appear to have less application to probation within which both qualified and support staff have traditionally projected a more professional orientation to their responsibilities.

Under NOMS however it would appear that 'market testing' will be aggressively pursued by the Commissioner who intends to widen service provision to the voluntary sector which will be able in future bid for contracts within a 're-branded' probation service. Recent reports concerning NOMS identify low staff morale as a critical issue within probation along with a serious financial crisis which now threatens to engulf the entire service [Davies, 2004].

11] In terms of the police service there are a number of issues coming out of reforms in other services and other police forces. These would include in relation to reform within other public services a recognition that a 'unified' service is achievable and desirable. The use of a merit based reward and promotion system is of immediate interest when it extends across current boundaries. Its application in both the Health and fire services is of interest as within each there has been traditionally very clear barriers between professional or operational and non-operational groups. Promotion systems under IPDS could clearly have some application to the police service. Interestingly it was discovered that a not dissimilar approach had been adopted by the Australian Federal Police within a strategy of integration for officers and civilians within

that service where all promotion was based on merit and was made open to all those serving within it.

12] It is also evident that as the Literature Review demonstrates there has been long recognition within the Police Service of the need for fundamental integration of civilian staff within the service. Here the ACPO 1975 Report was to demonstrate considerable prescience by identifying both the nature of the problem and the means to resolve it. As that Report noted the absence of Home Office direction at a national level along with a perception within it of civilianisation as primarily a 'measure of economy' was to lead to a piecemeal incremental growth of civilian support staff within local police forces where planned recruitment and career progression were entirely absent. This by itself may have contributed within the police service to a view that civilian staff were 'second class' officers. While this was the case it is also noticeable that the opportunity provided by the Police and Magistrates' Courts Act 1994 to chief officers was also missed.

13] The delegated responsibility for the budget along with creation of an independent police authority and the removal of the police authority from local authorities should have enabled chief officers to act to unify personnel within their forces. This unfortunately they did not do. The result has been the continued existence of an uneasy relationship between police officers and 'police staff' where major differences in pay and promotion opportunities create fissures within the police service and must as a result reduce its ability to deliver an effective service.

14] As the concept of the 'extended police family' becomes a reality there is a clear need to revisit the future of 'non-sworn' officers. What is of interest here is that contrary to some expectations within senior police ranks and police associations the use of CSOs has proved to generally very successful and has been recognised as such by operational officers. Rather than proving to be a threat to full time police officers it would appear that CSOs have provided a useful additional arm to the patrol function. They have provided more visible policing while also generating additional local intelligence. As in Lancashire the CSO can be managed by the local constable which may also serve to enhance that officer's status and role.

15] Within the context of the reform of other public services the unification of the police service might be seen as relatively uncontroversial and would only reflect a more general pattern of internal re-organisation within which 'qualified personnel' may share [or lose] some responsibilities to 'support staff' while, at the same time, taking on wider service delivery and 'managerial' responsibilities. While in relation to policing the UK is well ahead of many countries in Europe in terms of the use of civilian 'non sworn' officers this is not the case when the UK is compared with either the US or Australia. Comparative data suggests that in both the US and Australia the wider use of civilian

non-sworn staff has been well established and in the case of Australia has moved to a position regarding unifying the service from which the UK could itself learn.

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