ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE AND RECRUIT SELECTION IN THE SOUTH AUSTRALIA POLICE DEPARTMENT

Doug. Knuckey B.A. (Hons.) Grad. Dip. Bus. Admin.

Thesis submitted to the University of South Australia
in fulfilment of the conditions for the
Degree of Master of Business

International Graduate School of Management
The University of South Australia
Adelaide South Australia

January, 1996

Table of Contents

			Page
	List of Tables		vii
	ABSTRACT		viii
	DECLARATION		ix
	ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS		x
CHAPTER	**1.**	**INTRODUCTION**	1
CHAPTER	**2.**	**BACKGROUND**	4
	2.1.	Overview of Pressures for Organisational Change	4
	2.2.	Impact on Australian Organisations of Global Pressures for Change	7
	2.2.1.	The Australian Public Sector	7
	2.2.2.	The Public Sector in South Australia	8
	2.2.3.	The South Australia Police Department (SAPOL)	12
	2.3.	The Focus of Traditional versus Contemporary Change Programmes	13
	2.3.1.	The Significance of HR in Successful Organisational Change	14
	2.4.	The HR Function and Change in SAPOL	15
	2.5.	Chapter Summary	15
CHAPTER	**3**	**THE PHENOMENON OF ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE**	17
	3.1.	Contemporary Organisational Settings and the Change Phenomenon	17
	3.1.1.	The Domestic Impact: The South Australian Public Sector and SAPOL	19
	3.2.	Organisational Change: An Evolution of Theory and Practice	21
	3.2.1.	The Historical Perspective	21
	3.2.2.	The Contemporary Approach	26
	3.3.	Organisational Change: Matching Process and Context	29
	3.3.1.	Structure	30
	3.3.2.	Technology	31
	3.3.3.	Culture	32
	3.3.4.	Strategy	35
	3.3.5.	Policy	36
	3.3.6.	The Design Components: A Summary	36

CHAPTER	**3**	**(continued)**	
	3.4.	Organisational Change: Conditions for Success	37
	3.4.1.	The Ownership of Change	39
	3.4.2.	The Driving of Change	39
	3.4.3	Communication Channels and Styles	40
	3.4.4.	The Role of Culture in Change	42
	3.4.5.	The Dynamism of Change	43
	3.4.6.	Organisational Specificity	44
	3.5.	Organisational Change: A Critique of Process	44
	3.5.1.	The Endemic and Contrary Nature of Organisational Change	45
	3.5.2.	The Extent of Influence	46
	3.5.3.	The Importance of Relevance	48
	3.5.4.	The Decision to Change	49
	3.6.	Organisational Change: A Model for Application	50
	3.6.1.	The Choice of Organisational Change Models	51
		(1) The Individual Model	51
		(2) Group Dynamics	52
		(3) The Systems Approach	52
	3.6.2.	The Choice of Organisational Change Process	54
		(1) Action Research	54
		(2) The Three Step Model	56
		(3) the Phases of Planned Change Model	57
		(4) The Transformational Approach	58
		(5) Summary	59
	3.7.	Organisational Change: The Decision to Change	60
	3.7.1.	The Importance of Environmental Assessment	61
	3.7.2	Critical Aspects of the External Environment	64
		(1) Physical	64
		(2) Technological	64
		(3) Economic	65
		(4) Political	65
		(5) Social	65
		(6) Demographic	66
		(7) Cultural	66
		(8) Summary	67
	3.8.	Organisational Change: Introduction to the HR Focus	68
	3.9.	Summary	69
CHAPTER	**4**	**ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE AND STRATEGIC HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT**	70
	4.1.	Organisational Strategy: Definition and Context	70
	4.2.	Organisational Strategy: Categories of Focus	72

CHAPTER 4 (continued)

4.2.1.	Corporate Level Strategies	73
4.2.2.	Business Level Strategies	73
4.2.3.	Functional Level Strategies	73
4.3.	Organisational Strategy: Corporate Level Human Resource Management	74
4.3.1.	Accommodative Relationships	76
4.3.2.	Interactive Relationships	76
4.3.3.	Integrated Relationships	76
4.4.	Organisational Strategy: Human Resource Planning	77
4.4.1.	Labour Demand Forecasting	78
	(1) The Qualitative Approach	79
	(2) The Quantitative Approach	79
	(3) Summary: Which Technique to Use	79
4.4.2.	Labour Supply Analysis	80
	(1) Internal Sources of Labour Supply	81
	(2) External Sources of Labour Supply	82
	(3) Summary	83
4.5	Organisational Strategy: Human Resource Recruitment and Selection	85
4.5.1.	The Importance of Organisational Recruitment	85
4.5.2.	Recruitment: A Definition	86
4.5.3.	Recruitment Strategies	88
4.5.4.	Recruitment Activities	89
4.5.5.	Selection Strategies	93
4.5.6.	Selection Activities	95
	(1) Focus of Selection Process	96
	(2) Job analysis	96
	(3) Identification of relevant job performance behaviour dimensions	96
	(4) Identification of knowledge, skills and aptitudes	97
	(5) Development of assessment tools	97
	(6) Validation of assessment tools and process	98
	(7) Use of Process	98
	(8) Evaluation of Process and components	100
4.6.	Organisational Strategy: SAPOL HR Recruitment Strategies	100
4.6.1.	South Australian Crime Rates and Trends	102
4.6.2.	Australian Police Agency Recruiting Policy and Practice	103
4.7.	Chapter Summary	104

CHAPTER	**5**	**THE POLICE EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT: CRIME IN AUSTRALIA**	106
	5.1.	Crime in Australia: An Overview of Balance	106
	5.2.	Crime in Australia: Facts and Fiction	108
	5.2.1.	Public Awareness	109
	5.2.2.	Political Awareness and Response	109
	5.2.3.	The Effect of Awareness	110
	5.2.4.	The Effect of Police Activity on Crime	112
	5.3.	Crime in Australia: Causal Factors	113
	5.3.1.	Urbanisation	115
	5.3.2.	Economic Change	116
	5.3.3.	Population Growth	117
	5.3.4.	Societal and Cultural Change	118
	5.3.5.	Unemployment	119
	5.3.6.	Additional Correlates	120
	5.3.7.	Summary	121
	5.4.	Crime in Australia: An Alternative View of Cause and Effect	123
	5.4.1.	Crime Increases as a Myth	123
	5.4.2.	Summary	126
	5.5.	Crime in Australia: Control and Prevention	126
	5.5.1.	Traditional Methods of Control versus Accountability	127
	5.5.2.	The Demand for Alternatives to the Traditional Approach	134
	5.6.	Crime in Australia: Constraints on Police Reaction and Change	136
	5.6.1.	The Traditional Paradigms	136
	5.6.2.	Paradigm Shifting	138
	5.6.3.	Impacts on HR Policies	142
	5.7.	Chapter Summary	145
CHAPTER	**6**	**THE ENVIRONMENTAL ASSESSMENT: DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS**	147
	6.1.	Crime Trends and Forecasts: A Discussion	147
	6.1.1.	'The Problems with Facts'	147
	6.1.2.	The Problems of Collection	148
		(1) Purposes of collection	151
		(2) Data analysis	152
		(3) Definition of offences	152
		(4) Recording/processing offenders and offences	154
		(5) Changes in legislation	154
		(6) Social attitudes/mores	154

CHAPTER	**6**	**(continued)**	
		(7) Summary	155
	6.1.3.	Crime Data	156
		(1) Data Collection	156
		(2) Statistical Analysis	157
		(a) Stage One	159
		(b) Stage Two	159
		(c) Stage Three	159
		(d) Stage Four	160
		(e) Stage Five	160
		(f) Stage Six	160
		(g) Stage Seven	161
	6.1.4.	Results of Crime Data Analysis	161
	6.2.	Australian Police Agencies Recruiting and Selection Programmes: A Discussion	163
	6.2.1.	Collection of Data	164
		(1) Cautionary notes	165
	6.2.2.	Discussion of Australian Police Agencies Recruiting Procedures	167
		(1) Recruit Selection Procedures	167
		(2) Entry Requirements 1994	169
		(3) Selection Process 1994	171
		(a) Marketing activities	171
		(b) Entrance examination	171
		(c) Background checks	171
		(d) Panel interview	172
		(e) Medical examination	172
		(f) Psychological assessment	172
		(g) Physical agility tests	172
		(h) Final reviews	172
		(4) Entrance Examination and Psychological Assessment 1994	172
		(5) Recruit Interview Panel Composition 1994	173
		(6) Medical and Physical Testing 1994	174
	6.2.3.	Summary of Process	175
	6.3.	Chapter Summary	175
CHAPTER	7	**SAPOL RECRUIT SELECTION AND STRATEGIES FOR CHANGE**	177
	7.1.	Readiness of SAPOL for Change - An Overview	177
	7.1.1	External Pressures	178
	7.1.2	Internal Dissatisfaction	178
	7.1.3	An Alternative Model	180
	7.2.	Choosing between Transformational and Incremental Change	182

CHAPTER	7	**(continued)**	
	7.3.	The Changing role of the Police	186
	7.4.	SAPOL Recruit Selection: Corporate Strategies	190
	7.4.1.	A Model of Recruit Selection	191
	7.4.2.	The Focus of the Selection Process	192
		(1) Marketing	193
		(a) Market research	194
		(b) Marketing activity	195
		(2) Applicants versus the SAPOL Recruiting Process	196
		(3) Successful Customer and Organisational Focus	197
		(a) Considering the Customer	199
		(b) Considering the Organisation	199
	7.5	Conclusion	203
	7.6.	Recommendations	204
	7.6.1.	The Strategic Importance of Recruit Selection	204
	7.6.2.	Incremental Changes	205
	7.6.3.	Management Support	205
	7.7.	Future Directions	206
	7.7.1.	Shortcomings of the present study	206
	7.7.2.	Directions for future research indicated by the present study	207
	7.7.3.	Final Comments	210
APPENDICES			212
BIBLIOGRAPHY			236

LIST OF TABLES

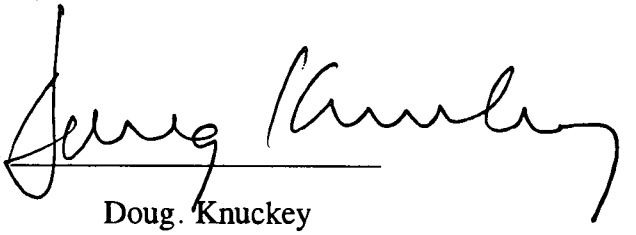
			Page
TABLE	4.1.	Selection Process Development Model	95
	6.1.	Characteristics of the categories of common serious crimes	158
	6.2.	X^2 Analysis of Crime Mix	162
	6.3.	Abilities and Skills assessed by Australian Police Departments at Entrance Examination	173

ABSTRACT

This Thesis deals with the issues confronting the South Australia Police Department (SAPOL), in relation to its achievement of corporate goals in the face of dwindling resources, an increasing crime rate and a decreasing clearance rate. The phenomenon of organisational change with respect to the SAPOL human resources function was discussed in detail as an aid to assisting SAPOL enhance organisational success and the recruit selection process was chosen as a focus, due its primary position along with human resource planning in providing the right people to carry out SAPOL organisational activities. The South Australian crime rate and the recruiting practices of other Australian police agencies were examined as important facets of the extra-organisational environment, to provide information for discussion and recommendations for changes in SAPOL recruit selection procedures. Recommendations concerning a range of strategic incremental changes were made in relation to the marketing of police careers, the expansion of selection activities to focus on a wider range of critical skills and abilities and the attraction of persons from a diverse range of cultures and backgrounds. Finally, the report emphasises the importance of management commitment to recruit selection as strategic to corporate success, both in its immediate activities and through its integration in to organisational systems.

DECLARATION

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other Degree or Diploma in any University, and, to the best of my knowledge and belief it contains no material previously published or written by any other person, except where due reference is made in the text.

Signed 

Doug. Knuckey

January 1996

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author expresses his sincere gratitude to Associate Professor Margaret Patrickson for her interest, guidance and constructive advice and for her sense of humour and tolerance, throughout the preparation of this thesis.

Thanks are also due to the staff of the South Australia Police Recruiting Unit; to Sergeant Jeff Clifford and Pauline Parham in particular.

I gratefully acknowledge my good friend John Pilla for advice on matters statistical and, lastly, my wife Beth and son, Simon, for their tolerance, perseverance and editorial assistance.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This thesis concerns itself with the nature of policing in the context of the communities which together make up the population of the State of South Australia. It is about the way that the South Australia Police Department, named hereafter, by the acronym SAPOL, conducts its business, in the way it chooses the resources it uses to achieve its corporate objectives.

The business SAPOL historically finds, chooses, or is expected to be in, may be regarded as threefold. Traditionally police, in western democracies have been called upon to fulfil a law enforcement role; the detection and prevention of crime. This invokes a second role, that of the safety of the community, and SAPOL does this by enforcing the law and by also engaging in the third broad function; that of the resolution of emergencies. In conjunction with services like an Ambulance and a Fire service, SAPOL is expected, and expects of itself, to engage in 'life saving' activities and emergency rescue situations.

The present discussion will focus on the first aspect of that very broad police function in the South Australian context;- the detection and prevention of crime. This is of particular interest to academics, political observers and police practitioners alike, because, as will be demonstrated later, the rates of crimes across most categories, certainly those which are of concern to the community, are in both the Australian and the South Australian context, increasing. This is occurring in the context also of the steadily decreasing clear up rate, despite the fact that police are more numerous, generally better paid, certainly better educated than ever before.

This apparent failure to succeed at what is generally regarded, certainly by police managers and officers, as a core business activity, has come under increasing scrutiny from the party political arena and from community interest groups. In the contemporary realities of diminished or at least constrained resources, and the socio-political changes seemingly engulfing the 'post industrial age', demands to do more, to be more effective and more efficient with less, have become inexorable. Australian industries, including policing, are scanning the environment, assessing the economic, social and political climate, and recognising that organisational survival and growth rests on individual corporate ability to adapt.

The need to do more with less applies to all the resources necessary for organisational activity, technical, financial and human. This last has become, more recently, if not belatedly, the focus of academic and practitioner attention and activity, and is one focus of the present discussion.

A service organisation such as SAPOL, relies very heavily on its members for the achievement of its corporate objectives. This rests on the recognition of the importance of placing able, appropriately skilled, and motivated personnel into organisational workplaces. To achieve this, SAPOL, depends on the effectiveness and efficiency of its Human Resource (HR) Function and activities. The present study will address the enhancement of SAPOL corporate core business activities by focussing on one critical aspect of the SAPOL HR function activity:- the successful recruitment and selection of new sworn employees (called recruits), to the SAPOL operational workplace. It will consider problems faced by SAPOL in achieving corporate objectives, and concomitantly, the need to adapt to the social and political stringencies in its environment and the appropriateness of the current SAPOL organisational HR

structures associated with the attraction and selection of recruits in the face of those constraints. Finally, recommendations for the facilitation of new and improved recruitment policies and practices for SAPOL and the policing industry in general will be made.

CHAPTER TWO

BACKGROUND

This chapter will discuss the existence of internal and external forces which may exert some influence over the activities and success of a work organisation. These forces, which may be global or primarily domestic in nature and influence, will be observed as providing pressures for organisational change in both the private and public sectors in Australia. In the present discussion, the focus will be the public sector in South Australia, and in particular, one of its significant agencies, the South Australia Police Department, (SAPOL). The initial discussion of pressures for change will also provide a foundation for subsequent analysis in Chapter Four and the choice of South Australian crime rates and trends, because of the pressures these place on SAPOL management to consider changes to organisational policy, practices and behaviours in relation to the achievement of corporate objectives. Within this chapter, and the context of SAPOL corporate activities, the importance of the Human Resource (HR) function will be highlighted, and the discussion will be further narrowed to one aspect of that function; SAPOL recruitment policies and practices.

2.1. Overview of Pressures for Organisational Change

The environment external to the work organisation is replete with ecological, economic, political and psycho-social forces, some benign, others less so. Each is capable of exerting some influence on the performance of a work organisation, but in

response to which, the latter, often has only minimal direct control, (after Churchman, 1968).

Once identified and analysed however, these influences, rather than presenting an uncontrollable threat, can provide opportunities for strategic renewal and enhanced organisational survival, (Corkindale *et al*, 1989). Despite the possibility of the organisation finding itself in a subordinate position in the power relationship, opportunities may exist or be created, for it to align and harness that power and improve organisational effectiveness and efficiency. Wilson, (1992) noted that strategies for organisational realignment and the reduction of organisational resistance to such change, have in the 1990s, become a byword for the maintenance of competent organisational performance and sustainable organisational growth.

The need for recognition of, and realignment to external pressures, and for a more rational and efficient method of organisation was described by Osborne and Gaebler (1992) as having developed into a serious struggle for organisational survival: a narrowing of the focus provided by Toffler (1984), who had described the scale of events broadly, across the contemporary industrial, social and economic boundaries;

> "... we are passing through a total restructuring, not merely of our economy, but of our whole society and way of life." (Toffler, 1984, p10).

Morgan, (1988) and others, (for example, Cullen, 1987; Mascerenhas, 1990; Wilson, 1992), concurred, describing the globalisation of the world's economy and the

proliferation of international trade, (the economic 'global village'), spurred by improved transportation and communication since the 1970's. Associated with the diminished growth of markets and economies in the developed countries, this created internally and externally driven pressure for cost reduction in the face of increasing market competition and capital costs. Vast advances in technology nurtured transformations in business emphasis: away from the mass production of standardised products to more information intensive flexible production systems, (Perez, 1983). In addition, there were moves away from reliance on the manufacture of goods to a focus on service industries. Decreased or static market growth, has gradually forced organisations to channel more organisational energy away from incremental and reactionary improvements to existing products, to service quality and service 'products' via the incorporation of new and increasingly sophisticated technologies. (Naisbitt, 1984).

Cullen (1987), and Mascerenhas (1990), identified aspects of global change for inclusion as critical elements in the formula for organisational survival and emphasised that these were not constants: that the organisation had to accept that change was an integral part of organisational culture and life. This emphasis underlines the notion that organisational success could depend on positive acceptance of the requirement to base organisational activities on anticipation and planning, adapting to a dynamic external environment continually, rather than merely implementing a finite change which could quickly become dysfunctional.

> "Change is no longer discretionary, it is mandatory. Change is no longer a major once off adjustment: it is now a transition to new ways of managing which remove the structural rigidities which have shaped our approach to management for most of this century." (Cullen, 1987, p10).

2.2. Impact on Australian Organisations of Global Pressures for Change

Australia's position on the world business stage, while not perhaps central, has meant that Australian organisations are exposed to those unprecedented changes in the global economic and social environment, (Hughes 1988). Transformations in the international market place have influenced Australia's economy and its own domestic markets. This has resulted in local organisations, in both the public and private sectors, who have recognised the signs, engaging in realignment activities: transforming organisational objectives, strategies, structures, technologies and cultures in response to these pressures to achieve greater effectiveness and efficiency, (Naisbitt and Aburdene, 1986; Dunphy and Stace, 1992).

2.2.1. The Australian Public Sector

Naisbitt (1984), described how Australian public sector organisations since the early nineteen eighties, have been faced with demands for increased accountability by successive governments, stemming ultimately from the new world economic order, but more obviously from domestic market forces and community pressures. This demand

for increased accountability has manifest itself in the expectation that the Australian State and Federal public services should become less bureaucratic and more responsive to market forces, particularly in terms of client focus. A business-like and adaptive approach to corporate activities was expected to make agencies more relevant to the needs of government and the community and, it was hoped enable them to survive and flourish in the face of variable environmental forces.

> "Efforts at public sector reform should amplify the internal capacity of public organisations to manage variety effectively, rather than attenuate such variety. By adopting this alternative strategy, the emphasis of reform is on continuous innovation." (Mascerenhas, 1990, p77).

2.2.2. The Public Sector in South Australia

In 1993, in the South Australian context, the State Government served the South Australian Public Service, with formal notice to improve its productivity, versatility and commercial competitiveness, both in the South Australian and the external market-place, (South Australian Government, 1993). The South Australian Department for Industry, Trade and Technology, (DITT) in association with the Centre for South Australian Economic Studies, identified specifically, the need for change in the way the South Australian Public Sector conducted its core business activities. The Office of Public Sector Reform in South Australia assessed local, national and global economic and social organisational climates and iterated the importance of commitment to continuous change by South Australian public sector managers.

> "Governments around the world are changing the style of public service from being bureaucratic, to being enterprising, responding flexibly and co-operatively to the communities they serve so as to do things differently."(Office of Public Sector Reform, 1992, p2).

Managers were not however, expected to bear the responsibility for significant public sector agency change unaided. The responsibility was placed on all South Australian Public Sector employees by the then Labor Premier of South Australia, Lyn Arnold, in an open letter, (1993). In it, he affirmed his government's commitment to improved productivity and accountability via sector-wide change programmes; described by him as an integral aspect of a wider commitment by government to initiate and oversee an economic and social revitalisation of South Australia. The 1993 South Australian Government publication, ***A Bias for Yes***, summed it all up;

> "We need to challenge everything we do. We need to benchmark ourselves against international best practice and we need to accept a culture of continuous improvement." (S.A. Govt., April, 1993, p2).

Management and staff in all government agencies were expected to involve themselves in critical examination of all structures and processes; in paradigm shift thinking and analysis, (after Handy 1980; also Chambers 1993).

Following the December 1993 State Election in South Australia and the victory of the Liberal Party led by Dean Brown, continued commitment was evident in the revitalisation of the State Public Service business activities. In April 1994, The Commission of Audit, which had been appointed on December 15th. 1993, one week

after the change of government, presented its final report to State Cabinet. Its Terms of Reference had been wide ranging, involving a review of the financial health of the South Australian Public Service and of the efficiency and effectiveness of all areas of government. The Report, titled ***Charting the Way Forward***, noted the reform processes which had been introduced in the State Public Sector since 1990, award restructuring, the Government Agency Review (GARG) process and the work of the former Office of Public Sector Reform. It maintained however, that these were insufficient, largely focused at agency and ministerial level, and that further organic reform, at the internal level, was necessary. South Australian public sector organisations, it claimed, were consuming a substantial proportion of the State's resources and were doing so ineffectively and inefficiently. The Report placed emphasis on the need for increased flexibility in business practice, conditions of employment and awards, the adoption of bench marking and best practice principles and the outsourcing of support functions. Agencies were individually targeted via specific recommendations which were accepted by the Government.

> "The challenge for the government will be for it to better manage the public sector to improve its operational efficiency. It is vital that the state public service performs effectively and efficiently to improve South Australia's economic performance and thereby enhance the well-being of all South Australians. This will necessitate a major cultural change throughout all of the public sector."
> (S.A. Commission of Audit, 1994, p 41)

The challenge taken on by the South Australian Government in adopting the Recommendations of the Commission of Audit is substantial. This is highlighted by their acceptance of the need for cultural change in the South Australian public sector, for, as many observers have pointed out, the effort required to implement changes to culture is enormously difficult, (for example, Dunford 1991). Patrickson, Bamber and Bamber (1995), remarked, on the particular difficulty of that task.

> "Corporate culture might be so deep-seated that little perceptible modification might be possible in the available time."
> ((Patrickson, Bamber and Bamber, 1995, p3).

This may be particularly so with respect to conservative, 'closed' and para-military organisations such as law enforcement bodies. The culture present in police organisations is generally regarded as one of the most predominant, pervasive and enduring aspects of those agencies, (Palmer, 1992). Nonetheless, the Commission of Audit identified SAPOL as in particular need of change, justifying its decision via reference to SAPOL spending, reported as being, on a comparative basis, 15% higher than other states, correlated by the Audit Commission with an apparent higher than average police to public ratio. This simplistic measure and argument is not however, supported by figures released by the Australian Institute of Criminology, (1994), which in 1992-1993, placed South Australia as being second only to the Northern Territory with the lowest police to public ratio, (see **APPENDIX A**), but its use signalled Premier Dean Brown's intentions clearly to SAPOL management.

2.2.3. The South Australia Police Department (SAPOL)

The need for SAPOL management to address the appropriateness, effectiveness and efficiency of SAPOL corporate activities, had also been signalled earlier, from within. South Australia Police Commissioner, David Hunt, in a document to South Australian police employees in 1990, wrote that;

> "Policing is at a cross-roads. Perhaps the clearest indication that this is true is the ever increasing crime rates. Traditional methods have neither reduced nor contained crime... the pattern which has emerged in the past is one of a society which is becoming characterised by rapid change, growing complexity and diminished resources...[Police] administrators must recognise the finite resources the community has as its disposal to combat crime. Then within this framework, they must plan and develop programmes for the future which have the capacity and flexibility to respond effectively to the needs and demands of the society they serve." (SAPOL, 1990, p3)

This represented formal organisational recognition at least at the executive level, of the existence and growing influence of the economic and social transformations confronting police organisations in Australia. These external changes; finite and diminished resources, increased demands of communities (in the face of concern about increasing crime rates), increasing pressure from governments for increased efficiency and accountability, were acting to change the expectations that society, government and police management have of police employees and police organisational activity. In turn they were, very gradually it appears to this author, forcing SAPOL management thinking away from a Darwinian-style evolutionary survival and reactive process of

incremental change, to the acceptance of the need for a more radical, proactive adaptation:

> "...a paradigm shift that redefines mission, operational methods and basic organisation. Such innovations are heralded by changed thinking about policing, both outside and inside police departments." (Sparrow *et al*, 1990, p 199)

2.3. The Focus of Traditional versus Contemporary Change Programmes

Traditional change processes in police agencies had been limited to practicalities;- the technical aspects of police business activities, (Moir and Eijkman, 1992), focusing on police practice, policies and legal principles. Other organisations, at least before the 1990s, in their attempts to facilitate the improved alignment of the organisation business activities with the operating environment and their customers, had also focused on 'practical' facets of the organisation. Some concentrated on the adoption of programmes which introduced new information technology and 'smart' machinery, (Huse and Cummings, 1985). Others identified change programmes appropriate for organisational structure, and systems. The role and significance of the HR function and its systems however, at least to the advent of the 1990s was regarded as peripheral in its importance to organisational success and to the success of organisational change programmes, (Dunphy and Stace, 1992).

2.3.1. The Significance of the HR Function in Successful Organisation Change

More recently, the importance of the organisation's human resources and its HR function has become recognised as a critical issue and factor in the survival and development of the organisation, There is growing acceptance that people represent,

> "...a fundamental input into the quest for alignment. Successful alignment depends in part on management's ability to attract, retain and develop people..." (Collins, 1988, p35).

These activities of attraction, retention and development involve a number of HR systems and processes, including the activities of selecting, training, developing, promoting, controlling by encouraging and remunerating organisation members. It is these which are a foundation of corporate success, particularly where that organisation's activities focus on the behaviour of employees and the entity is engaged, as SAPOL is, in the provision of human services.

Underpinning the range of HR management systems are those activities which focus on providing the right people needed to ensure both the success of the HR systems themselves and in the broader corporate context, the success of the organisation in its business activities. This rests at least initially, on HR processes of job analyses, planning and recruitment. The success of these predetermines the success of all other organisational strategies, (Schuler ***et al***, 1992).

2.4. The HR Function and Change in SAPOL

The present study is concerned broadly with the quality of services provided by the those human resources employed by SAPOL through an assessment of appropriate change programmes aimed at HR management (HRM) and HRM systems as SAPOL management face the corporate challenges presented in the twenty first century. Specific focus will be on SAPOL recruitment and recruit selection processes in order to provide some HR options for the longer term enhancement of police service quality from the initial entry point. The approach and success of past SAPOL change processes in general and the recruitment and selection strategies in particular will be examined in the context of present environmental constraints and pressures affecting police corporate performance. These include government and community demands and the present and expected levels of crime and social disorder. Finally, recommendations will be made for the enhancement of SAPOL recruitment and recruit selection policies and processes aimed at, in turn ensuring the achievement of the SAPOL corporate objectives.

2.5. Chapter Summary

This chapter sought to introduce the notion of the breadth and depth of opportunities and threats facing contemporary work organisations on a global scale. Attention was directed at the South Australian situation and in particular a public sector agency, the South Australia Police Department, (SAPOL). The importance of the HR function in

determining the success of organisational alignment to environmental constraints was noted, as was its particular significance in SAPOL as a service organisation, rich in human resources. The focus of the present study, the critical analysis of human resource recruit selection processes as an agent of successful organisational alignment in the SAPOL context was introduced.

CHAPTER THREE

THE PHENOMENON OF ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

This chapter focuses on the phenomenon of organisational change as a construct and as a process to be applied in contemporary work organisations. It briefly traces a history of the Organisational Development Movement which developed into the theory and practice of organisational change. Preconditions for successful change and models for change designed in relation to differing facets of the organisation and organisational life, are described. Integrated models of change are presented and lead into discussions of the importance of the decision taken by an organisation to select, adapt and implement change. The chapter concludes with a narrowing focus of change processes, firstly, in terms of change and HR systems, and secondly, HR change programmes within the context of SAPOL.

3.1. Contemporary Organisational Settings and the Change Phenomenon

> "... the more relevant criterion of organisational effectiveness, is not as it used to be, that of efficiency, but rather that of adaptability to changes in the environment." (Organ, 1978, p510)

Those whose profession is to study the phenomenon of work organisations and those in the Australian business community in both the private and public sectors, have recognised the turbulence and growing internationalism of the business operating environment (Blunt 1989), and understand the need to break with the traditional 'once-

a-decade review'; a sedentary approach which often led to incremental changes in the way an organisation conducted its business activities, (Dunphy and Stace, 1992). A more responsive, proactive style of adaptation is gradually appearing and organisational change and its management has become a significant focus across the breadth of management activity in contemporary western organisations, (Limerick and Cunnington, 1993; Nankervis *et al*, 1993). The challenge is to break with the past, adapt, and continue to do so, applying innovative change techniques to suit the business environment of the nineteen nineties and beyond, into the twenty first century, (Wade 1992).

> "We must break the chain of the old mindset if we are to grapple successfully with the task of managing adaptive organisations. ... The enemy within ourselves is the old mindset." (Pascale, 1990, pp 88).

The nature of the pressures exerted on this 'old mindset', demanding recognition and adaptation were summarised by Dunphy and Stace, (1992), and others (e.g., Naisbitt and Aburdene, 1986; Osborne and Gaebler, 1992), as follows;

(a) the changing nature of the organisation's external environment;

(b) increasing need for improved product and service quality;

(c) the need for improved flexibility of work/HR systems;

(d) increased internal and external scrutiny of managerial activity, and

(e) increased demands for organisational subsystems to fit into organisational strategic plans.

These pressures have been redefined as themes providing focus for organisational change processes, in the context of the pervasive, discontinuous pace of environmental 'turbulence', which would demand continuous innovation by organisations as an integral component of organisational and management practice. These precepts have become unavoidable organisational realities and their effects have percolated down through the corporate, industrial and economic levels of the Australian business sectors.

> "Organisations in both the private and public sectors face a tougher world - one in which they are judged more harshly than before on their effectiveness and in which there are fewer protective hedges behind which to shelter." (Handy, 1989, p70)

3.1.1. The Domestic Impact: The South Australian Public Sector and SAPOL

These pressures for change are evident in and have driven the initiatives and policies of governments of both persuasions, the recent Labor and the present Liberal Government, in South Australia. They, in their turn, placed pressure to change on the methodologies of, and business activities employed by, South Australian Public Sector agencies, including SAPOL. During the 1990s agencies have been expected by government to engage in metamorphic-like transitions to more effective and efficient corporate activity and to assist government and the community to integrate the new order of economic and social exigencies.

The corporate acceptance by SAPOL since 1990, that significant improvement in organisational performance was required and its undertaking to consider formal and novel change programmes to achieve that result, represented a metamorphosis in management thinking and activity.

This is not to suggest however, that this paradigm shift resulted solely from a desire by SAPOL management to align itself with Government demands. By the late 1980s for example, Australian police administrators were concerned that upgraded technology and the increased qualifications and professional status required by police staff were eroding police effectiveness by increasing agency operating costs and increasing the detachment of police; making them more remote from communities they were serving,(Goldstein, 1990). Consequently, interest was renewed in various concepts of community policing (Sutton, 1994), such as Crime Prevention Units and Neighbourhood Watch programmes, (McMillan, 1992). This focus towards community policing principles was significant in itself as it flagged management thinking's shift away from the 'if it's not broken, why fix it?' approach, (Costello, 1994), to a style which recognised that things not broken or breaking, could, nonetheless be worn or dysfunctional when aligned with critical aspects of the operating environment. It identified the acceptance of a contemporary mode of thought which typified change or innovation as an essential and desirable corporate activity.

3.2. Organisational Change: An Evolution of Theory and Practice

The contemporary popularity of Organisational Change and change programmes should not be taken to imply that the concept is new, either with respect to organisations changing, or as a construct involving theoretical and practical models. Work organisations have always, in some way or other, responded to changes in their operating environments. They have done so over different time frames, with various levels of formality, perceptiveness, speed, level of complexity, and with varying degrees of accuracy and success. Organisational change been the focus of academic and scientific interest, for many years; at least since the Second World War.

3.2.1. The Historical Perspective

Historians of organisational change generally acknowledge (e.g. Huse and Cummings, 1985; and McCormick and Ilgen, 1987), that the development of theoretical frameworks, empirical enquiry and practical application, commenced with Kurt Lewin's work in the 1940s with the National Training Laboratories. In 1946, Lewin demonstrated the importance of feedback to work groups concerning assessments of their interpersonal work dynamics in terms of the positive effect it had on team bonding and subsequent work performance, (Bradford, 1967; Marrow, 1967).

Lewin was also involved in the early research on the use of organisational surveys. This work was expanded by the Institute for Social Research in Michigan where it was demonstrated that data collected via surveys from employees at different organisational

levels on work topics such as attitudes to supervisors and promotion opportunities could, when transmitted back to organisation members, be a powerful process for change and could influence work dynamics like job satisfaction, (Mann, 1962).

In Europe, in the 1950's, research focused on broad-based techniques of improving productivity and quality of work life (QWL), via the development of work designs aimed at the better integration of technology and people, (see Trist and Bamforth, 1951). Their approach formed a foundation for the later emergence of the theory and practice of Total Quality Management (TQM) processes and programmes.(Huse and Cummings, 1985; Burnes, 1992). Using these processes, change programmes were initiated or influenced by groups of employees trained in problem solving who met regularly to consider and resolve work environment, productivity and quality control concerns.

These and other early investigations into the theory and process of formal organisational change processes represented important steps in the birth and development of the discipline of Organisational Development, (OD);- a,

> "...process by which behavioural science knowledge and practices are used to help organisations achieve greater effectiveness, including quality of work life and increased productivity."
> (Huse and Cummings, 1985, p1)

These approaches and programmes were however, not without their shortcomings. TQM, for example which flourished more recently in Japanese organisations and came to be regarded as essentially Japanese in style and innovation, despite being originally developed in the United States and Britain in the 1950s and '60s, (Juran 1988), had, in the early 1980s been reconsidered and adopted by a number of western companies, particularly in the United Kingdom, (Burnes, 1992). In these western applications it was described as organisation-wide efforts to improve quality through changes in structure, practices, systems and attitudes, (Dale and Cooper, 1992).

Crosby (1979) however, one of the early western proponents of TQM stated that in reality, TQM was too complex and difficult to implement and he reported that the significant majority of British and American TQM initiatives failed. Clegg and Symon (1991), and Dale and Cooper (1992), concurred, observing that the failure rate was due to TQM change processes not recognising that other organisational transformations were required to, at the very least, expedite the success of the technological and quality control change focus that typified TQM. These other aspects included job redesign, organisational structure and culture; (Dale and Cooper, 1992); aspects which involve HR functions, which, at least until the end of the 1980s did not appear to be considered as critical to the success of any change process. Blackler and Brown, (1986) observed more pragmatically, that failure of many TQM change processes, stemmed more from the organisation's lack of skill and experience in planning and managing organisation-wide changes.

This last criticism could be reasonably expected to apply to many applications of organisational change and it would be unreasonable to target TQM in isolation. It does suggest that the greater the depth and breadth of the planned change, the more complex it is likely to be, and the more resources, including knowledgeable practitioners, financial, technological and time that should be devoted to its development, implementation and evaluation. In fact, this complexity tended to result in many criticisms and failures of OD-inspired change programmes, because OD techniques tended to focus on the *gestalt* of the organisation, its interaction with particular aspects of the organisational operating environment, and the impact of the latter on the organisation by emphasising that work organisations and their members needed to adapt behaviour patterns and business activities, to take into account rapid rates of changes in the organisation's operating environment, (Naisbitt, 1984).

Despite criticisms and shortcomings, Cummings (1984), reported that OD change programmes have been successful in a number of diverse settings and organisations; from the public sector (Golembiewski *et al*, 1981), including schools, (Schmuck, et al, 1969), to private sector manufacturing firms, (Norstedt and Aguren, 1973). It is apparent that change processes, based on different themes and different variations of themes, going under titles like Management by Objectives (MBO); quality circles; employee consultative committees; performance management programmes and worker-management participation; and productivity programmes, have had some impact on the survival and growth of organisations, internationally and in Australia where some of the change techniques mentioned have been employed effectively, (Stace and Dunphy, 1994).

These reported findings have strategic significance: they imply that successful change is possible, but is the result of interventions that have been adapted and are organisation specific. Gowler, *et al*, (1986), noted that what worked well in one organisational setting and climate could be quite inappropriate in another organisational culture and framework. This is the basis for the so-called *Contingency* approach to management (after Likert, 1961: see also Palmer, 1988), which recognised that models for change and change management programmes should not be ranked against each other in isolation of an organisational context. Organisations and operating environments were specific, requiring individual analysis and approaches to change. In fact, change processes and change practitioners, had to practice what they were preaching : that is, they had to adapt to the variations in their operating environment to be successful.

The OD movement and its involvement in organisational change programmes was a foundation for, and had a seminal influence on the organisational change philosophies and processes of the 1990s. It was, for example, the inclusion by OD practitioners, and some innovative business managers, of aspects of the HR function in the OD change process equations that helped to demonstrate the centrality of HR and HR practitioners to successful organisational change. This led to OD-inspired planned organisational change programmes in spheres of organisational activity other than the technological, emphasising and focusing on the organisation's people;- their motivation, integration and effective, efficient utilisation within the organisational framework of structure and technology.

3.2.2. The Contemporary Approach

The development of Organisational Change as a series of constructs and a useful agent of organisational survival and growth has, more recently, itself, undergone significant adaptations which persist to the present. By the late 1980s, in response to accelerating world-wide transformations to society which had commenced in the 1970s, and included the globalisation of business and market economies and the arts, and turbulence in both social change and business technologies, (Naisbitt and Aburdene 1990), management theorists and some managers, understood that organisational adaptation to environmental change was critical to business survival and success. They realised that business activities, how managers co-ordinated those activities, and how staff performed those tasks directed at the achievement of corporate objectives would need to be different than those which had been successful in the past.

These global transformations were translated by theorists and practitioners over the last decade, in terms of the need to regard the individualism of business and concurrently, on the need for focus on transformed organisational and management practices, tailored to meet that organisation's needs, (Peters, 1988; Coates *et al*, 1989; Limerick and Cunnington, 1993), in the face of that external organisational climate, described also by Kanter (1989), and Pascale (1990), as 'discontinuous' They observed that survival and growth required transformational change which in turn would rely on an integrated organisational response driven by managers unencumbered by the baggage of past management styles and mindsets; managers not

> "...bogged down by cumbersome structures or weighty procedures that impede action." (Kanter, 1989; p20)

The abandoning of old frames of reference and the identification and embracing of new formulae for organisational and management activity and success is however very difficult. Bullock and Batten (1985) and Limerick and Cunnington, (1993), emphasised that it was probably the most difficult aspect in any enduring organisational change process. This would be expected to be particularly so if the changes required are organisation-wide and 'transformational' as observers, as mentioned above, have agreed may be necessary through the 1990s.

Limerick and Cunnington (1993), believed a concomitant transformation that occurred to organisational change theory and practice, first appeared during the late 1980s in response to the 'transformed' organisational operating environment. In such a milieu, traditional approaches were inapplicable, as these had been designed for times of continuous incremental, even predictable change. They did not assist organisations who, in the late 1980s and the 1990's were attempting to align themselves to an environment which was in a state of unprecedented and discontinuous patterns of change. To meet the challenge, a number of change theorists and practitioners (e.g. Dunphy and Stace, 1992; Kanter, *et al*, 1992; Nankervis, *et al*, 1993; Limerick and Cunnington 1993 and Costello, 1994), identified critical points of interaction between contemporary organisations and environmental events and prescribed change processes and programmes, aimed at the creation and maintenance of successful and dynamic business entities.

Limerick and Cunnington (1993), for example, proposed change programmes designed to implement novel and successful organisational formats and based on a model of management thought and action they described as *Collaborative*. The basic tenet of this model was that present and future successful organisational form would rely on the ability of the company to collaborate;- to network internally and externally but if necessary, to break away. Hence organisational culture and structure would have to be dynamic; typified by strategic partnerships; a freedom of autonomy or association as required or desired, (see also Modic, 1988), described also by Orton and Weick, (1990) and (Ghoshal and Bartlett, 1990), as *Loose Coupling*.

The essence of collaborative organisational form and management is reminiscent of Contingency management theory, (Likert, 1961; Palmer, 1988), and the Open Systems Model, (Buckley, 1968; Mullins, 1989), which it spawned. Open Systems described the organisation as a system of interrelated parts which operated in a dynamic environment. The nature of the environment determined the nature (and survivability) of the system; hence the description of 'open', (from Johnson, *et al*, 1967; Learned *et al*, 1969).

Miller and Mintzberg (1988), and Limerick and Cunnington (1993), observed that organisational management paradigms in the nineties and beyond, could be built from similar blueprints. The Open Systems approach would encourage individual organisational structure, strategies and cultures suited to the variable environments faced by different organisations and designed in recognisable interrelated, integrated and dynamic configurations.

Given the broad range of work organisations, whether classified by sector, industry, size or location, and given the premise that an organisation's external environment is subject to constant and turbulent variability, an individualised and collaborative 'tailor-made' approach to organisational activity and concomitantly to programmes of change provides a practical solution with a sound theoretical base.

3.3. Organisational Change: Matching Process and Context

The appropriateness and applicability of a programme of organisational change is determined by the extent to which it can be matched with the individual organisational context; the latter typically described in terms of categories of organisational design components, *technology*, *structure* and *culture*, (Huse and Cummings, 1985). These authors also identified *organisational measurement systems/processes* and *HR systems* as significant individual design components. While the importance of these components is not disputed here, particularly the latter, which forms a foundation of the present study, and which will be expanded upon below, it is appropriate, in the context of this discussion, to include them as aspects of the three original components, depending on the organisational context.

3.3.1. Structure

> "[Structure]... includes the ways an organisation divides labor.... Horizontally, ...by function...product or service. [and]...Vertically [into] managerial levels....Structure is concerned with integration - joining and co-ordinating departments for overall task achievement. It also involves specifying rules, procedures, goals, and plans..." (Huse and Cummings, 1985, p41).

Structure is about how an organisation arranges itself . Structural approaches to change are generally mechanistic, concerned with organisational design and with organisation-environmental linkages and functioning (Wilson, 1992). As transformational change philosophies and models appeared, organisational structures and their usefulness, became the subject of intense scrutiny.

Surveys in Australia (e.g. CCH, 1989), reported that sixty five percent of Australian organisations had made significant structural changes in the previous two years; from functional to divisional, and from grouping people by expertise and job, to complementary or interdependent groups based on product or service supplied, (Dunphy and Stace, 1992). 'Flatter' organisations emerged, redesigned to increase speed and accuracy of communications between management and customer contact employees and providing a devolution of accountability:- bringing the decision making closer and potentially more responsive to, the needs of the customer and raising questions about the 'use-by-date' of the traditional hierarchical bureaucracy, (Burnes, 1992). Whether the anticipated successes and increasing popularity of 'flatter', less hierarchical organisations will mean the complete demise of the bureaucratic

organisation is debatable and beyond the present discussion, but the application of alternate models should encourage practitioners and managers to examine the appropriateness of such structure in particular contexts; particularly where speed of flexibility and adaptation is crucial.

3.3.2. Technology

> "[Technology involves]... the way an organisation converts raw material into products and services. It includes production methods, work flow and equipment." (Huse and Cummings, 1985, p40)

Naisbitt (1982) observed what he termed *megatrends,* an exponential rate of change and transformation of manufacturing technologies, and information and communication systems. Their impact was radical and dramatically changed the techniques of production and other. 'support' organisational systems, including managerial, clerical and HR. Improvements to the technological aspects of the organisational activities can result in improved products and services and increased flexibility in the technical aspects of work systems, but they rely on a number of interrelated aspects of organisational endeavour such as simple management responsiveness to rapidly changing and available new technologies and organisational structures which can absorb them and maximise the benefit to be gained from their implementation, (Hammer and Champy, 1993).

Perrow (1983), emphasised the importance and influence of technology within the context of the organisational survival/growth equation and he described the design and

application of technology as being appropriate to the extent that it reinforced existing structures and power hierarchies. This represents a shift in his earlier thinking (e.g. Perrow, 1967; 1970),when he argued the case for the dominance of technology and maintained that organisational structures should be developed to suit available technologies. This was representative of the school of thought in management theory and practice that technology was best able to provide competitive edge and that HR systems and functions for example, were regarded as were of relatively trivial importance, (Deery and Nash, 1988). In the predictable business environment that was prevalent up to the 1970s, primary management roles were that of administrator and technocrat, maintaining increasingly complex technical work operations. Labour was simply another commodity, in plentiful supply, to be taken on or retrenched as necessary, (Dunphy and Stace, 1992).

3.3.3. Culture

> "[Organisational Culture is]... the prevailing beliefs, values, symbols and rituals which define the ways members of the organisation behave." (Dunphy and Stace, 1992, p50),

and,

> "... the beliefs and values shared by organisational members. It represents the character or the organisation as seen and experienced by its members. Culture is largely perceptual." (Huse and Cummings, 1985, p41)

Organisational culture refers to the organisation's philosophies, values, beliefs, work systems and practices, and expectations and limitations on employee behaviour. It stems from two major sources; the employees and what they bring with them to the work place, (extra-organisational) and secondly, those aspects which emanate, at any one time from within the organisation itself, (intra-organisational). The global social, political and technological transformations and the resultant 'new world order' described above, could be expected to influence the work force itself from both intra- and extra-organisational perspectives.

The existing beliefs, values and rituals which comprise the culture of the organisation and which define the way in which employees behave, may be peculiar to that organisation (and are influenced by the organisational history, technological, and structural aspects), as they also reflect those peculiar cultural aspects which the members of that work force bring with them from their non-work, external environment. This involves their personal, social and political belief and value systems which may include for example strong opinions about the relevance of full time, part time. permanent or casual employment, or the role of women in the workplace. Dunphy and Stace (1992), described for example, the emergence of the *organisational nomad:* employees with skills that are in demand allowing them to be more geographically and organisationally mobile; seeking work that provides personally acceptable levels of intrinsic and extrinsic levels of reward, and less committed to a single organisation across the span of their working life.

Examples of internal organisational culture would include apparently simplistic aspects such as dress code and punctuality (Nankervis *et al*, 1993), relationships, both formal and informal between supervisors and subordinates, attitudes towards work and management, communication and participation, (Beer *et al*, 1985). Culture may in some ways therefore fulfil the role of organisational glue, and act as an overlay or umbrella on the other design components. Hassard and Sharifi (1989), and Burnes (1991), highlighted the singular importance of culture in the organisational change for survival/growth equation. They argued that the traditional approaches to change; focusing on fine tuning or improving organisational technology and structure, could have been more successful and enduring if the significance of organisational culture had been appreciated and included in the change equation.

Changing individual beliefs, an important aspect of organisational culture, particularly in relation to attitudes about change could be crucial to the success of change processes, particularly in the contemporary situation where change processes are promoted as being based on collaborative staff effort. Tailoring a change process to the specific organisation should therefore include considering taking its internal, idiosyncratic culture, as well as relevant aspects of the external culture, into account.

The change literature during the 1980s, reveals that change programmes, traditionally focused on one or other of the three components; technology, structure and less frequently, culture, (Miller and Mintzberg 1988). Dunphy and Stace, (1992), argued that contemporary change programmes, the transformational and collaborative

approaches, need to address the significance of these components not in isolation but collectively, even if only one is a primary focus of the intended change programme. This follows rationally from the reality of the contemporary work organisation; that its design components are inextricably bound together; forming a particular dynamic *gestalt*; an individual and systematic configuration.

It has been argued by some, (for example, Mintzberg and Quinn (1991), Chandler (1991) and Burnes (1992)), that this so-called dynamic whole also includes two additional organisational components, critical to the success of the design components in their context and to the success of change processes. These are *Strategy* and *Policy*.

In the present discussion, they are viewed as the vehicles which bring together the components of culture, structure and technology into a cohesive whole and which carry or facilitate the change programmes.

3.3.4. Strategy

Chandler, (1991) defined strategy as ,

> "... the basic long-term goals and objectives of an enterprise, the adoption of courses of action and the and the allocation of resources necessary to carry out goals." (Chandler, 1991, p30)

Strategy includes the development of future organisational goals and plans designed to achieve these goals and should consider a range of intra- and extra-organisational

variables, with enough flexibility to deal with unforeseen contingencies. Mintzberg and Quinn, (1991) argued that strategy development and strategic management were not possible without the information provided by regular environmental scanning. The assessment of relevant aspects of the extra-organisational environment (the extra-organisational variables), which could be expected to impinge on the organisation and its achievement of corporate goals, could result in organisational action and change to enhance rather then inhibit the organisational capacity to maximise customer satisfaction, (Corkindale *et al*, 1989).

3.3.5. Policy

Policies are guides to action in organisations which are developed to carry out chosen strategies, (Nankervis, *et al*, 1993). They reflect management philosophies, principles and organisational and environmental realities as they drive organisational activities. They can be broad, concerned with the organisation's place in a market or community, or they could be more limited and specific, covering for example, dress codes and extra-organisational communication formats. Policy formally communicates the actuality of change and the strategies to be implemented, whether they involve aspects of structure, technology, culture or any combination of these.

3.3.6. A Summary

The relationship between the design components, and strategy and policy is in the context of any organisation, complex and organisation specific, dependent on the size,

history, market niche and business activity of that organisation, (Nankervis *et al*, 1993). Strategy and policy, can drive culture, technology and structure or *vice versa*. Hence the influence is not unidirectional, but some combination of interdependence depending on the specific nature of the factors involved. In the present context, organisational change programmes need to take into account the organisational positioning, importance and relationship between the components. In turn, change practitioners need to understand the use of these aspects of organisational existence and activity in order to facilitate the change programme deemed appropriate. This accounting process and knowledge base however is not sufficient. The components need to be examined for evidence of factors deemed to be significant in their influence on the success of any change programme. Change agents need to ascertain that these preconditions for change are present within the organisation.

3.4. Organisational Change:- Conditions for Success

Healthy work organisations like the people that staff them, are those which choose to stay active. In the organisational context, this means staying competitive, and choosing to change proactively, rather than waiting until they have to respond to coercive and destructive forces, (Hammer and Champy, 1993; Costello, 1994). Environmental change is a natural and inevitable phenomenon which can be harnessed to provide a means of improving and renewing organisational vitality. Those who have either studied work organisations or worked at change initiatives within them, recognise this as reality, but they are also aware of the converse reality. Human beings tend to a state

of inertia and generally prefer to maintain the *status quo.* Burrell (1984), observed this phenomenon and added that organisational members will sometimes ignore significant warning signs by employing defence mechanisms such as rationalisation or repression, particularly if positions or perceptions of personal power or control are threatened.

Therefore, to maximise the benefits of any change programme, the forces working against its success, must be understood and minimised, while the processes and organisational phenomena which will nurture it should be in place and maximised as far as is reasonably possible.

Secondly, as Burnes (1992), observed, change programmes move the organisation from the known to the unknown, with the possibility of ultimate loss as well as gain. Under the circumstances , even with the ideal amount of planning and forecasting, checks and balances, it is very difficult to anticipate every possible reaction and result. So, while there is no *one* best way to design or change an organisation, ultimate efficiency and effectiveness of the change process, (and of business activities), does stem from the general principle of the creation and maintenance of proper fit amongst organisational elements, and between the organisation and its own larger environment, (Mitchell *et al*, 1988). The best fit is more likely to be achieved if a number of preconditions are understood and as far as possible, met by management and by those who are directly responsible for driving the change processes.

3.4.1. The Ownership of Change

Change strategies which emerge from staff, at all levels, and which are subsequently implemented, whether by suitably qualified staff or by some external, experienced change agent will create an organisation which can cope with and thrive on change, (Peters, 1989). Involvement in decisions and changes within the workplace are more effective if significant input to the change process by incumbents has been encouraged. This provides a measure of ownership and is more likely to result in commitment to the new organisational conditions.

> "... managing change... is less a question of managers telling people what to do and when to do it, and more a case of creating the space and conditions in which those most closely affected can also play a leading role in the process of change." (Burnes, 1992, p242).

3.4.2. The Drivers of Change

Whereas in the 1990s organisational paradigms, managers determine jointly with those employees affected, the necessary changes, (from Burnes, 1992 and see above), it is imperative that management create the conditions for change and establish the corporate commitment to change. To do so managers must communicate effectively with staff, convincing, and educating them in relation to the importance of the change process, (see also below), and it is therefore also important that managers themselves be educated and convinced. Kanter (1989), observed that many managers who largely relied on traditional paradigms, found meaningful communication to the levels required

by the change process, very difficult. Grinyer *et al* (1988), reported that organisations which transformed radically as a necessity to meet the challenges of the future, often found it necessary to replace existing senior managers.

3.4.3. Communication Channels and Styles

Managers and others who are driving the change process need to understand the intricacies of the organisation's peculiar internal environment and, depending on the nature of the change programme, relevant understanding of the interface between the organisational components and the external environment. Nonetheless, a good knowledge of human behaviour and individual differences, what motivates people and how they learn and a thorough understanding of the need for effective personal and organisational communication processes, are also essential, (Gagne, 1984). The need for meaningful communication styles is supported by extensive research on management work activities and change implementation. Successful managers spend from 70% to 80% communicating with others, (Lawler, Porter and Tannenbaum, 1968; Mintzberg, 1973), and they regarded effective communication as the lifeblood of an organisation, (Janis and Mann, 1977).

Effective communication processes can indicate a willingness on the part of management to get staff involved in the change context and can involve a number of specific aspects:-

(a) management should make employees, particularly 'change recipients' aware of the need for and the reasons behind the decision to implement change. This can

be done by providing information about the relevant aspects of the external operating environment and then the associated strategic plans aimed at turning environmental threats into opportunities. Specific benefits which would accrue to employees as a result should also be highlighted, (Kanter *et al*, 1992).

(b) Secondly, the reasons provided in (a) should be translated into specific information concerning levels of employee performance required if the organisation is to change; particularly, for example, if a discrepancy exists between actual production output and desired future output, (Hammer and Champy, 1993). This assists (a) in emphasising to organisation members that the change is necessary and in explaining and quantifying desired planned output, places pressure on management to prove that the changes are both reasonable and desirable.

(c) It follows therefore that management should develop and maintain open communication channels; disseminating for example, the results of successful and unsuccessful aspects of the change programmes as they occur. The honest marketing of failure emphasises lessons learnt and helps to reinforce assertions that the communication is accurate. It is probably also the mark of a mature organisation:- one which has faith in, and has the faith of, its employees.

(d) Communication channels should also be open and sensitive to the information from staff, before, during and after implementing the change programme. Employees will have fears and concerns, about the effects of the change on their *status quo*. Failure to recognise that fears may exist, even if, in fact they are groundless, could result in unnecessary and costly friction and delays, and other

long term adverse consequences involving, for example, the effectiveness of future communication between management and employees, (Burnes, 1992). An organisational culture which does not include trust and interpersonal effectiveness, typically adversarial-style communications or that which is spasmodic and limited to the broadcasting of bad news, will require considerable effort to change communications channels; format and content.

3.4.4. The Role of Culture in Change

Organisational culture impacts significantly on change programmes. If the focus of change is not culture, and that aspect and culture are not matched, or if one changes and the other does not, then conflict will often arise, (Handy 1986). Organisational culture and change programmes must be symbiotic and, more particularly,

> "...the types of behaviour and procedures involved in bringing about successful change require cultures which encourage flexibility, autonomy [and] group working..." (Burnes, 1992, p263)

Changes to culture, however difficult to implement, may need to be considered, (Gordon 1985). At the very least, culture needs to be taken into account as a variable which will affect the success of any change programme, (Peters and Waterman 1982). Schein, (1985), and Hassard and Sharifi (1989), acknowledged the difficulty of including culture meaningfully in the change equation, but observed that analyses of recruiting and induction procedures, informal, unwritten rules of behaviour and the

beliefs and values of the 'guardians' of that culture, followed by dissemination of the results as a basis for group discussions and opinion seeking, had been effective.

Schwartz and Davis, (1981) maintained a pragmatic approach, accepting that while in some cases, changes to culture could be too difficult, given organisational and temporal factors and the type and scope of the planned change, (see also Patrickson and Bamber, 1995), the decision to include culture in a change programme should depend on the calculation of the degree of *cultural risk*. That is, the likelihood of cultural factors being significant variables in the organisational change equation. Following that assessment, the decision to ignore the culture, manage around it, attempt to change it to fit the strategy or change the strategy to fit the culture, could be made.

3.4.5. The Dynamism of Change

Successful change, that is change that creates and sustains organisational health, involves dynamism; the maintenance of the momentum initiated by the process, (Wickers, 1987). This may be achieved in several ways but will depend as has been mentioned earlier, on executive management providing adequate resources, financial and human, and sustained commitment and moral support, for both the programme and for the change management team members. In addition training in the relevant new competencies should also be provided to allow organisation members to work comfortably within the changed framework, work activity or work place. The reinforcement of desired work behaviours is also necessary as a means of keeping the necessary pace of the new formats once the change has been implemented. Training

should include techniques for programmes of continuous improvement and dynamic responsiveness,, a focus for change as well as of change, crucial for continued organisational success, (Peters, 1989).

3.4.6. Organisational Specificity

Finally; the uniqueness of an organisation, both internally and in terms of its operational setting has been mentioned as necessitating the tailor-made specificity of change programmes undertaken. The format and content of the change must suit the organisational need. This is a significant aspect and should not be ignored. To do so can result in change programmes failing to live up to even modest expectations, (Burnes, 1992), and creating the problems that typically accompany failure in any field of human endeavour, including increased resistance for future change and change agents and programmes, as well as potential increased risk to the continued survival and growth of the organisation. So, change programmes offered for specific use by consultants or designed for use by external or internal change agents need to be closely and critically examined for usefulness. The cost of failure, as identified above, can be extremely high; beyond the direct cost of the programme purchase and/or development.

3.5. Organisational Change: A Critique of Process

Formal change programmes, aimed at the achievement of sustainable improvements in organisational activity through an emphasis on the importance and roles of leadership,

training, effective communication and motivation, have been the subject of scientific method and application in the work place since the rise of Organisation and Management Theory, arguably born with the publication of Frederick Taylor's ***Principles of Scientific Management***, in 1911. Then as now, they had as their key, techniques to,

> "...help them [*organisations*] to analyse and rectify the weaknesses and problems of their current situation and to assist them to ... achieve their future objectives." (Burnes, 1992, pp 53-54)

3.5.1. The Endemic and Contrary nature of Organisational Change

Organisational change however, is not and has never been, the exclusive domain of the change theorist or practitioner. Burnes (1992), noted that change is a pre-eminent and ever-present feature of organisational life, which will occur whether monitored, catered for, or ignored; this last, regarded by Burnes (1992) as a perilous organisational response.

Even those organisations which appear to be unchanging, are in fact, over time, evolving, sometimes almost on a daily basis as management and staff respond to situations that confront them. Change occurs by accident or design (or both); is evolutionary or planned, (Wilson, 1992). The difficulties faced by the organisation in developing and implementing planned change have been mentioned and will be discussed further below, but it is important to emphasise, as Howarth (1988), observed, that organisations can also experience serious adaptational problems dealing

with evolutionary or spontaneous change. This is most noticeable when those changes are driven by external environmental influences and conditions and beyond the direct control of the organisation These forces, (as mentioned in Chapter Two), despite planning and managerial action aimed at the formulation of, coherent and cohesive corporate objectives and goals,

> "... are pushing an organisation to change, sometimes in unwanted or contradictory directions." (Kanter *et al*, 1992, p56)

Moreover, Kanter *et al* (1992) noted that external forces and evolutionary dynamics sometimes may simply overpower organisations and swamp attempts by managers to control or direct them. In these instances managers can be playing a mere secondary role in organisational change. The planned and anticipated outcomes of the deliberate, intended process, can be supplemented by consequences not envisaged as part of the original project, (Bamber and Lansbury, 1989).

3.5.2. The Extent of Influence

That the organisation's various design components will impact on a change process has been identified above. Conversely, evolutionary and planned change, creates ripples in the organisational pond; emanating from the centre or focus of the change and having an impact on all organisational components. These effects are hard to quantify with complete accuracy but if planned change programmes are to be integrated successfully and evolutionary changes are to be identified and melded into planned corporate

realities, the effects should be included as far as anticipation, prediction, time and resources, will allow.

Changes to structural aspects for example, may necessitate a consideration of the informal and formal reporting networks and work sharing relationships between individuals, work groups or sections. (after Hunt, 1972). New goals, products or processes may involve reviews to work practices and job redesign, internal or external recruitment, and/or skills or multi-skill training, (Dunphy and Stace, 1992).

The success of technological change, once regarded as the 'clean cut' method of improving organisational effectiveness and efficiency, (Child, 1984), is also now recognised to be dependent on the consideration and impact of specific organisational contexts, (Bamber and Lansbury, 1989). Changes in technology, even in one small work area will still involve aspects of organisational culture, and the harnessing of strategy and policy which will reflect the total system or *gestalt* that is the work organisation, (Huse, 1979).

The impact of internal change on the organisation's operating environment however, should not be ignored. Work organisations exist as they have always done, in communities; in political, social and industrial contexts. Limerick and Cunnington (1993) described this contemporaneously as the new organisational paradigm which involved mutually advantageous transient associations or *loose couplings* between organisations. Governments and political systems, the community, existing and potential customers and other organisations had their own operating environments and

their network of relationships. All could be involved in these couplings and therefore could be affected in some way by one organisation's internal changes. They then assessed the actual and potential impact of those changes, the organisation introducing them, the environment that they both, together with others operate within, and finally, their own external and internal business activities. A decision to react to that change would in turn affect the operating environments of the organisation implementing the initial change; and so on.

Miles and Snow (1984), assessed that it was critical for organisational management to understand this ripple effect. This highlighted the importance of regular environmental scanning and assessment, which could then be translated, if necessary, to organisational activity, aimed at re-alignment of the organisation's processes, components and business activities.

3.5.3. The Importance of Relevance

Wilson, (1992), however, expressed concern that over that time, to the present, theorists and practitioners may have become obsessed with the topic of change, so that,

> "Far from being a leitmotiv within a wider frame of reference,
> change has become for some the opus itself." (Wilson, 1992, p7)

Certainly, many writers have identified strategically focused, contextually specific change as *the* key to any corporate success and competitive advantage, (Peters and

Waterman, 1982; Kanter, 1983; Morgan, 1989). Kanter *et al,* (1992), do however concur with Wilson, that change for change sake is dangerous. For example, attempts to change organisational form in line with the best available knowledge about teamwork and communication styles in flatter organisations, should not stem from 'bandwagon' thinking and exuberant optimism but rather, an understanding of the existing structures, technology and culture against what is necessary and desired in the context of a particular organisation, its operating environment and its optimal market niche.

Kanter *et al* (1992), argued also however, that the modifications to Change Theory and its application has changed in the 1980's and 1990's, reflects continued efforts of change theorists and agents to maintain contact with the reality and contexts of work organisation and with the nature of contemporary environmental changes. Nonetheless, change agents and organisations need to ensure against *paradigm paralysis*, (from Costello, 1994); the tendency of paradigms to be used as filters; screening information and influencing decisions in a predetermined and restrictive way, so that if inputted information does not pass through, it runs the risk of being changed or filtered out altogether.

3.5.4. The Decision to Change

Organisational change, evolutionary or planned, is generally triggered by environmental and/or internal disruptions, (Nadler and Tushman, 1986). There is no guarantee that they can be successfully harnessed and that the organisation can be adapted, adopting if necessary a new organisational paradigm, but a decision to try will

precede the attempt. Successful change activity has been demonstrated as having as its foundation, an understanding of the complexities of organisational components and their intangible aspects, (Schwartz and Davis, 1981), particularly culture, (Davis, 1984; Gagliardi, 1986; Dunford, 1991). Porter (1980) believed that successful organisational change was impossible if culture was not analysed and incorporated into the basis of the planning and change process, but as Allaire and Firsirotu (1984), observed, the effects on organisational culture of change processes, to that time, had been largely ignored. More recently, Burnes (1992), noted that over the last decade, since Allaire and Firsirotu, the role and significance of culture, enhancing or inhibiting organisational change programmes has been generally included in the change equation. Walton (1985); and Schein (1987) for example reported that the success of business initiatives and organisations was increasingly being attributed to the development of committed employee groups and a positive relationship between labour and management, both sharing a distinctive organisational culture.

3.6. Organisational Change: A Model for Application

Once the decision is made to commit organisational resources to a change programme, the decision to use those resources in the most cost effective and efficient manner in terms of the success of the process must also be taken. This involves choosing a model for development and application.

3.6.1. The Choice of Organisational Change Models

Change management processes that have been theoretically modelled, can generally be attributed to one of four schools of thought. These include the traditional approaches, typically described in terms of particular focus or perspective: i.e. the *Individual*, *Group Dynamics* and *Systems* Schools, (see Burnes, 1992). The fourth, and most recently developed model, *Transformational*, focuses on appropriate organisational responses to environmental transformations taking place from the 1980s onwards.

(1) The Individual Model

As its name implies, the Individual School focused on the individual employee and the unit for intervention. Psychological principles of the behaviour of individuals alone and in groups, were applied to manipulate organisational factors in order to change individual employee behaviour. The framework of this model has been absorbed into those with a broader perspective, although its tenets relating to motivation, perception, attitude change and so on, are still relevant when considering one on one relationships for example between employees or between employees and supervisors, (Buchanan and Hucznski, 1985; Mitchell *et al,* 1988).

(2) Group Dynamics

The Group Dynamics School (following Schein, 1969) can be traced back to the work of Kurt Lewin, (e.g. Lewin, 1958), who believed that the basic unit of person in organisations was not the individual employee, but the work group. Individual behaviour was more appropriately considered and modified in the context of those groups, (see also French and Bell, 1984; Cummings and Huse, 1989). Mullins (1989), observed that the Group Dynamics School was influential in the development of the theory and practice of change management as organisations increasingly regarded themselves as consisting of teams and groups rather than of individuals.

(3) The Systems Approach

The Systems School argued that the most appropriate focus was on the organisation as a whole rather than on individuals or work groups; describing it as a system comprising a series of interconnected subsystems, which impacted on each other, (Scott, 1987). Organisational effectiveness was more effectively and efficiently enhanced by analysis of the subsystems and their interdependence, and application of the change programmes at subsystem level. The relationship between subsystems is often described as 'open' and the model the *Open Systems Model.* because each is open to interaction with each other and the external environment. This open interaction indicates that changes to one subsystem will affect others and relevant aspects of the external operating

environment, (Buckley, 1968). In this way, the Systems Model provides the opportunity to include critical aspects of the extra-organisational environment, (Dunphy and Stace, 1992), which will influence organisational goals, values, technologies and psycho-social subsystems, (after Miller, 1967).

The Systems School in its attempts to understand the organisation in its entirety, invokes the notion of a *gestalt*; (after Koffka, 1935), where to dissect and analyse the parts is to lose an appreciation of, and fail to understand the organisation as a whole.

All three models provide qualitative input to further an understanding of organisational behaviour and each can provide some assistance to change management programmes. The Systems Model has appeal because of its recognition of the *gestalt* of the organisation, and its emphasis on cause and effect in the broadest sense; on the consequences and ramifications of organisational action, both internally and externally. Nonetheless, an organisation consists of individuals and groups of individuals. To forget this is to lose the perspective that assists in an effective and efficient HR function. Individual human beings comprise the organisation, and as a basic 'unit ' of the organisation, particularly one providing a human service, they are critical to its corporate success. It is wise to remember that,

> "...whether the perspective adopted is organisation- wide, or limited to groups and individuals, in the final analysis, what is it that is being changed? The answer surely is the behaviour of individuals and groups because organisations are, as the proponents of these perspectives admit, social systems." (Burnes, 1992, p 159)

Recognising the importance of the individual will enhance the possible successful outcomes of organisational change, because the latter requires some level of co-operation from groups and individuals, particularly those who are the target of the change. Their work output is the manifestation of the idea of change, and it drives organisational structures, technology and systems.

3.6.2. The Choice of Organisational Change Process

The level of co-operation gained from employees also depends on factors such as the perceived and actual applicability of the model underlying the change process. This can be translated into the style of change process chosen. Three process models or variations of them, *Action Research*, *Three Step* and *Phases of Planned Change*, (Burnes, 1992), are generally promoted, all of which involve planned and structured organisational change activities, (French and Bell, 1984; Bullock and Batten, 1985).

(1) Action Research

This model is based around a collective approach to problem solving; and the manipulation of dependent variables. Research data about some aspect of an

organisational system are gathered empirically, preferably by managers and those working in that system; guided by an internal or external change agent, and then fed back to the system with selected variables altered. Data are again collected, and analysed afresh to determine the effects of the change, (French and Bell, 1984). The change process itself becomes a learning process. Participants learn problem solving techniques from the actual research, as well as about the effectiveness of the collaborative process, (Bennett, 1983). This can come about because the three groups, (managers, incumbents and change agents), come together under mutually agreed terms of reference. The change agent co-ordinates the project and facilitates activities, discussions and problem solving by the combined group, (Heller, 1970). Subsequent action for change is based on the analysis of data collected, identifying the range of alternative solutions and choosing by research result and consensus, the most appropriate, thus preventing the *paralysis by analysis* syndrome described by Peters and Waterman (1982).

This model is highly regarded, (Cummings and Huse, 1989; Burnes, 1992) but is difficult to implement without high levels of co-operation and trust between management and the chosen work area incumbents, (Clark, 1972). The importance of the organisational culture is once again highlighted: that is, whether the management/worker relationship is adversarial or is based on mutual trust; whether the employees are change oriented and believe that the change is needed and what impact they perceive it will have on them personally.

(2) The 3-Step Model

This was originally developed by Lewin (1958) following his observations that while group performance could be enhanced by a change process, it often eventually reverted to performance levels particularly if incremental one-off changes were implemented. He argued therefore that old behaviours had to be discarded completely before the new could be expected to replace them and be retained. As for the Action Research Model, this would involve employee commitment: that is, belief in the subject and object of the change.

The three steps which comprise this model are Unfreezing, Moving, and Refreezing, as follows. **Unfreezing** involves the activities of convincing those who are the subject of change, that a problem exists and that the change is needed to resolve it, (Bowers *et al*, 1975), and then determining the most appropriate techniques of implementing the change. **Moving** is the activation of the change process; the development of new work behaviours and attitudes through changes to structure and processes. Finally, **Refreezing** aims to stabilise the organisation at a new state of equilibrium to avoid regression. This is done through training and support; the reinforcement of new cultures and norms, policies and procedures, (Cummings and Huse, 1989).

This model reflects traditional models, providing incremental and discontinuous improvements, at odds with contemporary thinking about organisational change as a continuous process in response to a turbulent environment. The pace of

change required, the size of the project and the motivating forces however, may still provide reasons to consider the Three Step Model. Certainly the concept of cementing or 'refreezing' the new norms, policies and so on in place to prevent regression is not inappropriate, despite the reticence the terminology may produce in contemporary theorists and change agents. Moreover, this model has provided the basis for the development of more sophisticated and specific change processes. The *Phases of Planned Change* Model is one of the progeny.

(3) The Phases of Planned Change Model

This model provided a number of elaborations on the 3-Step Model. Lippitt *et al* (1958) produced a seven phase process, while Cummings and Huse (1989) recommended eight phases. Bullock and Batten (1985) created a four phase version, having reviewed and analysed a number of multi-phased techniques. They recommended two layers, describing planned change in terms of the phases or **states** the organisation moves through, and secondly the change **processes**, the methods used to move an organisation from one state to another. The states and associated processes were termed Exploration, Planning, Action and finally Integration. It is at this point that the implemented change becomes the norm and requires little further specialist action or support.

The Phases of Planned Change Model received some critical acclaim with a sound theoretical base, proven practical applicability in a wide range of contexts and incorporating key aspects of a number of other change models, (Cummings

and Huse, 1989). It is regarded however, as a dominant model arising from the 'OD stable', concerned primarily with incremental as opposed to radical change, (Dunphy, 1981; Kanter, 1983; Gagliardi, 1986). Nonetheless, as has been suggested above, and as Quinn (1980), and Shaskin (1984), argued pragmatically, incrementalism could be effective. Changes that involved small or incremental steps, were often more acceptable and digestible, allowed for progressive adjustment and created less insecurity in employees who would then respond with more confidence, thus maximising the chance of the change taking firm hold and flourishing. In addition of course, the acknowledged contemporary need for radical change programmes in many circumstances does not preclude the particular usefulness for incremental change in other cases.

(4) The Transformational Approach

The Transformational approach to organisational change, evident since the late 1980s, was spawned in response to massive, discontinuous changes to the social, economic and political environments, as mentioned earlier and the impact of these on work organisations, forcing them to rethink the way they did business. Proponents of Transformational change believed that in the face of this apparent changing of the 'rules of engagement', traditional models of gradual or incremental change were no longer appropriate. Beer and Walton (1987), for example, observed that incremental approaches focused on internal factors and failed to include the role of aspects of the external environment. Extra-organisational influences were more turbulent and unpredictable (Peters,

1989), and more non-linear, (Dunphy and Stace, 1992), and as such demanded very close scrutiny from organisations, and in many cases corporate responses and changes that were far more radical and transformative, (Harris, 1985).

Nadler and Tushman, (1986) observed that critical elements of transformational change comprised a process which involved;

(a) internal and extra-organisational disruptions as triggers;

(b) consistent and active commitment from executive management, and,

(c) significant innovation and learning, all of which led to,

(d) significant change to physical and psychological organisational processes, and,

(e) the implementation of a new organisation paradigm.

(5) Summary

A chronological overview of traditional incremental and contemporary transformative schools, particularly when placed in the context of organisational and environmental reality, suggests that, rather than the contemporary superseding the traditional, or the two being in some way adversarial, they could be regarded as complementary. The context of any change programme, the means by which its appropriateness can be gauged, is critical to its success, and the level and type of change appropriate for each problem situation, will vary depending on the organisation and environment and the assessed need. Even in turbulent times, there is likely to be a range of

successful organisational change models and applications; from fine tuning and incremental adjustment, to sub-system transformation and even transformation at the corporate level. In response to an increasingly variant and flexible organisational environment, models and applications of change processes should be flexible and tailored to meet identified and expected needs; a model of contingencies, (after Dunphy and Stace, 1992).

Successful modification may be more easily achieved where the planned change programmes are small and incremental rather than radical and organisation-wide, (Ansoff 1987). Despite the contemporaneous relevance of the transformational or discontinuous change model, management decisions should still include a determination of the relevance of that model to any need for change.

3.7. Organisational Change: The Decision to Change

The decision to implement organisational change at whatever level and complexity, should to be made in the face of a rational assessment of need. Organisations have the benefit of several decades at least of organisational theory and practice having produced an array of sophisticated models from which to choose, developed as existing models failed to satisfy the need, (Pettigrew, 1985). The challenge for the organisation, in assessing the need for change, may be to go beyond the incremental and reactive approach, to a radical and more proactive anticipatory change style, via

transformational models,(Spencer and Pruss, 1993), even involving changes to the 'flavour' or culture of the organisation; (Hofstede, 1986). As has been indicated however, this is very difficult, particularly given the planned scope and time frame of the change process, (Patrickson *et al*, 1995), and the complex intangible nature of many aspects of organisational culture.

Nonetheless, management decisions have, in the late 1980s and 1990s, enhanced the attractivity of transformation organisational change as managers embraced the concepts and practice of strategic change; the rational planning following systematic analysis of the operating and global environment of the organisation, (after Ansoff, 1987). According to Mintzberg (1990) and Stace and Dunphy, (1994), as part of ensuring the success of corporate strategies, an organisation chooses appropriate change processes most able to assist in the implementation of those strategies. The breadth and depth of strategic change in the 1990s, by definition, often indicated that the required changes tended to be more radical and transformative.

3.7.1. The Importance of Environmental Assessment

Nadler and Tushman (1986), listed both internal and external disruptions as potential triggers to the management decision to implement change programmes, (see above, page 59). These were identified as an important element of transformational change programmes. Nonetheless, the assessment of potential external triggers is an appropriate process to go through as a means of checking the 'goodness of fit' between the organisation and its environment, and may result in a decision to implement

incremental or transformational change. Walker (1992), termed this activity *environmental assessment*, whereas Schreiber (1982), and Dunphy and Stace, (1992), labelled it *environmental scanning*. It involves the scanning of information from internal and external sources concerning those factors in the operating environment which impinge on organisational activity and which suggest future trends and changes required from the organisation in anticipation of some future need. Walker (1992), described two ways of scanning for relevant environmental changes; from the present incrementally towards some chosen point in the future, and attempting a vision of the future via analysis of the present (termed *futures analysis*). He noted that these two techniques gave better results when applied in tandem, and could be used to identify shortfalls between present business and desired present and future corporate activity.

Yet the extent to which an organisation is able to conduct a meaningful and detailed environmental assessment is dependent on the perceived need by management to undertake the activity, the ability of the organisation to do so, (given the sophistication of the approach utilised), and the extent of time and economic constraints . This may also include the decision to buy in or use internal expertise.

Environmental assessments can consider a variety of issues at different levels to be integrated into organisational activity. At its broadest perspective, Certo and Peter (1988), observed that the process was more effective if it was conducted at three levels, from the 'micro' to the 'macro', the 'home' business, other relevant organisations and the overall broad business environment. Burns and Stalker (1961), and later, Child (1984) and Mullins, (1989), focused on the significance of correlation they perceived

between the operating business environment and organisational structure. Burns and Stalker (1961), for example, identified five different environments in terms of degrees of predictability and stability and cross referenced these against organisational structures which they labelled from *mechanistic,* (hierarchical; high levels of task specialisation), to *organic*, (flexible structure subject to constant adjustment depending on work tasks). They reported that mechanistic structures were more effective if the organisation was operating in a stable (placid), external environment, while those with organic structures functioned better in unstable, discontinuous, (turbulent), operating environments, such as exist in the 1990s, (Blunt, 1989; Walker, 1992). Child (1984), and Mullins (1989), extended these findings, both emphasising a more fluid, non-dichotomous approach: managers needed to be aware that a relationship existed between structural efficiency and organisational effectiveness, and the external environment. The structure adopted by any work organisation therefore, needed to be considered in the light of the particular environment, (see also Thompson, 1967; Robbins, 1987; and Scott, 1987).

At the other extreme of the continuum described by Lawrence and Lorsch (1967), where the environment was extremely dynamic and changeable, organisations who were more likely to succeed were those whose work areas were differentiated and dynamic and were highly integrated; a greater degree of interdependence and effective communication existed between them. While this structure could involve significant conflict, it was a measure of the organisation's success that it encouraged constructive criticism and openly confronted conflict, turning it to organisational advantage.

3.7.2. Critical Aspects of the External Environment

Critical aspects of the work organisation such as its design components, have been described in some detail. The external environment has, so far, been described in very general terms, almost as an amorphous whole; an assumption and a description which is incorrect. Nankervis *et al* (1993), for example, categorised those aspects of the external environment which provided potential influences on the organisation as impetus for change. These were described in terms of their physical, technological, social, demographic, cultural, political and economic nature.

(1) Physical

Physical factors refer to the climate, location, transportation facilities and attractiveness of the areas in which the organisation is located, for example. People's attitudes to work are influenced by how far they have to travel, the ease of transport, whether the job entails moving from area to area, and the social climate of the surrounds, (Schuler *et al*, 1992). These aspects could also determine the most efficient marketing strategies of the goods or services.

(2) Technological

These aspects involve the quality. price and applicability of available technology. Technology can provide a competitive edge, or, in a public sector agency like a police service, a more efficient and effective service. Technological changes can have significant impact on employee numbers (full

and part time or casual), work skills and the need for re-skilling, and career opportunities, (Gowler and Legge, 1984; Giles, 1992).

(3) Economic

Economic factors include levels of unemployment and inflation, industry competition and profitability. Government policies and Treasury allocations will influence organisational behaviour in public sector organisations. Economic and market pressures, the demand for increased productivity with reduced growth rate, for example could exert considerable influence on the size and nature of an organisation's workforce,

(4) Political

Political aspects of the external environment may include legislative changes particularly in the areas of industrial relations and taxation in both the Federal and State arenas. Political environments or climate can exert considerable influence on organisational activities, particularly in the public sector as governments demand public sector agencies to be more accountable, leaner and more flexible, (Mackay, 1986).

(5) Social

This category includes those aspects of the overall educational level of the workforce, its level of expectations and opinions concerning employment offered and its conditions. As quality of work life is more of a priority, employees become more demanding, supported often by contemporary

industrial legislation concerned with occupational health and safety, discrimination and enterprise bargaining.

(6) Demographic

Demographic factors involve changes to the population age and distribution, the numbers and types of individuals in or seeking employment. A significant demographic trend in Australia is the ageing work force. It has been rising since the 1970s as the result of lower birth rates and lower mortality rates at most ages. The proportion of the population aged 65 years and over has risen from 8.3% in 1971, to 11.4% in 1991, (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1992). Rising educational level of employees and the associated rising expectation concerning fulfilling jobs, career progression and higher salaries has also changed people's attitudes to work. Valenta, (1992), also noted that participation rates for women in the Australian workforce increased from 46.2% in 1981 to 53.7% in 1992 and is expected to continue increasing. Other demographic issues include legislative requirements to consider the employment of the aged, and the physically or intellectually disabled are demanding organisational attention.

(7) Cultural

Finally, cultural factors, involving the attitudes, beliefs, values and customs of people in the community who are likely to be employees, who may influence employees, or be customers. These will affect the work behaviour of employees and can be expected to change over time. Nankervis *et al* (1993),

described a shift in Australian work culture from that of a ***work ethic*** to the ***psychology of entitlement***; that is,

> "The work ethic emphasises the responsibility of the individual employee, but the psychology of entitlement stresses basic employee entitlements, or rights, as the responsibility of the employee." (Nankervis *et al*, 1993, p75)

(8) Summary

The categories described above indicate the potentially pervasive influence of the external environment on the activities of the organisation and highlight the seriousness with which management should scan and assess these ubiquitous and interdependent aspects on a regular basis. It is significant, both with respect to the totality of influence on organisational activities and the present study, that a common thread through all these factors is the people component; in organisational terms, human resources, (HR). The rise of the OD movement described earlier in this chapter, involved the emergence of the organisational HR component as one of importance to organisational success. The 1980s and 1990s and the rise of strategic management and transformational change programmes have involved an increasing focus on change processes involving aspects of the HR function, (Nankervis *et al* 1993). It will be this focus which will be expanded as part of this Thesis.

3.8. Organisational Change: Introduction to the HR Focus

The internal and external sources of pressure on an organisation and its corporate activities inevitably impact on its HR management systems. Dunphy and Stace, (1992), however, identified that strategic human resource management (SHRM) approaches provided a means to assist managers achieve organisational objectives via the organisational change programmes with an HR focus. SHRM practitioners offered expertise in the conduct of behavioural environmental scans, by surveying the needs, expectations and activities of key stakeholders and groups, reporting on relevant demographic trends. SHRM could also, by identifying and expanding critical knowledge and competencies within the organisation's workforce, improve that organisation's competitive edge.

> "It [does] ... this through developing the commitment of its workforce to service... and ultimately building, the distinctive human capabilities within the organisation." (Dunphy and Stace, 1992, p185)

Using this knowledge, HR managers could develop working relationships with line management and assist in the design of change programmes, appropriate in scale and style and targeted to suit the organisation as a whole, its design components of structure, technology and culture, depending on the nature of the required change, but in any case involving the human resources of that organisation. In addition, given that the pressure to change the organisation, at whatever level and depth, will incorporate in some way, some aspect of the HR component, any change will be assisted by an interface with SHRM can have on the change process from inside the organisation.

Organisational survival, success and growth is dependent to some extent therefore, on the involvement of HR practitioners in any mooted change programmes.

3.9. Summary

This Chapter introduced and discussed the concept phenomenon of Organisational Change and its practical applications, from an evolutionary perspective within the discipline of Organisational Development, and contemporaneously, in terms of the development of Transformational Change processes, which emerged following radical social, political and economic changes, taking place in the environment external to the organisation. Organisational design components, typical targets of change programmes were identified as were the various models and approaches to the implementation of change. Finally, given the decision to implement change based on the assessment of critical aspects of the external environment, a process known as environmental assessment, the importance of the organisational HR component, and the use of Strategic Human Resource management, (SHRM), in the implementation of successful change was introduced.

CHAPTER FOUR

ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE AND STRATEGIC HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Chapter Three emphasised the significance of the HR function and its elements as contributing to the success of change processes and the chapter closed with an introduction to the contemporary manifestation of HR involvement in corporate strategy:- Strategic Human Resource Management. This Chapter will expand the notion of organisational strategy at various levels, and then focus on SHRM. Discussion concerning levels of strategy involving the HR function will lead to a description of HR planning, its crucial role in corporate survival and growth and its importance with respect to the success of other aspects HR management; specifically the recruitment and selection of new employees. A model of recruit selection will be proposed.

4.1. Organisational Strategy: Definition and Context

Chapter Three also emphasised how the unpredictability of change in all areas of contemporary society required work organisations to develop adaptational skills and strategy, based on regular if not continual, assessment of the suitability of organisational technology, structure, strategy, policy and culture, in that turbulent environment. Organisations are now more than ever, required to think strategically, more creatively and obliquely long-term, while conducting business in the present, (Burnes, 1992), and are under pressure to consider changing their structure, practices

and culture, (Allaire and Firsirotu, 1984). Strategic management was described by Chandler (1991) as,

> "... the basic long-term goals and objectives of an enterprise, the adoption of courses of action and the allocation of resources necessary to carry out goals."(Chandler, 1991, p30).

Unlike some earlier strategy theorists (e.g. Ansoff, 1965), Scott (1987), Chandler (1991), stressed the need to include organisational structures, technology and external factors in strategic considerations, on the basis that they were interdependent. This is consistent with *gestalt* philosophy and the pragmatic Open Systems theory, identified and supported in this Thesis: that is, different internal components affect external aspects and vice versa in a somewhat symbiotic relationship, (see also, Andrews, 1980; Scott, 1987; Burnes, 1992).

Definitions of strategy in relation to organisational activities like long range planning have been open to debate. Naylor (1979) described strategic planning as long range planning with a time limit. Andrews (1980), Smith (1985), and Hamel and Prahalad (1989), however, more realistically portrayed it as involving some aspects of long range planning, but also including the complex, social and political processes of culture as well as the outcomes of these processes. Burnes (1992), observed that strategy could be described in very broad and loose terms;

> "... the capability of an organisation in terms of its structure, systems and management style can be seen as constituting a strategic solution..." (Burnes, 1992, p93)

Given that questions have arisen about the contemporary relevance of traditional long range planning processes however, the appropriateness of describing strategic management in these terms needs some reconsideration. Handy (1989), observed that more recently, organisations realised the necessity of incorporating more flexible change programmes, rather than long range fixed planning based on traditional mathematical models and incremental forecasting techniques. These are being replaced by strategic management thinking and processes which accept that firstly, steady and adequate growth cannot be assured, and that secondly, there is a strong possibility that unexpected changes in identified trends do take place, particularly in a discontinuous environment, (Elliot and Lawrence, 1985). Consequently, the focus of strategic management is more to do with analysis of environmental assumptions that underlie market trends and activities, (Mintzberg and Quinn, 1991).

In the 1990s, strategy is regarded as emerging from patterns of decisions taken to achieve desired goals, in the face of increasingly complex and changeable operating environments and an increasingly uncertain future. Strategic formulation, like organisational and change theory has developed of necessity beyond the mechanistic, market and quantitatively based orientations, to more organic and holistic approaches.

4.2. Organisational Strategy:- Categories of Focus

Burnes (1992) described strategic decision making in terms of the breadth or level of focus; from the Corporate, to the Business and then down to the Functional levels.

4.2.1. Corporate level strategies.

At the Corporate level, strategies are concerned with corporate philosophy and mission; the direction, composition and co-ordination of the organisation's corporate objectives. The setting of major organisational objectives and the corporate direction of structure technology and policy is involved (Pearce and Robinson, 1985).

4.2.2. Business level strategies.

These relate to the direction of the operations of each major function or component of that organisation. In the context of the present study, this level would be concerned with the function of Human Resource Management, (HRM). HR practitioners should implement strategic HR planning activities to anticipate and resolve staffing problems, ensuring the achievement of organisational objectives, (Nankervis *et al*, 1993), and forming part of Corporate level Strategies.

4.2.3. Functional level strategies.

This level, also termed the *Operational* level (see Thompson and Strickland, 1983), is concerned with individual business activities. In the context of the HR function at least at the Business level this could include HR planning or, given the topic of this Thesis, recruit selection policies and procedures. Strategies formulated at the corporate and business levels must be capable of being translated to the Functional level and understood by employees responsible for their implementation, so they can contribute

to overall organisational effectiveness. They must integrate with other organisational activities and functions, so that they ultimately reflect the corporate objectives.

These three levels express strategy differently, in terms of the breadth of scope and the different resources and techniques at their disposal for the activation of strategic decisions. They are however, interdependent and each thread of each strategic decision can be identified whether examined from the top level down or the bottom level up. As they go up, the focus broadens, down, the focus narrows and intensifies. It is important also, that management and staff perceive the levels, and where they and their work input fit into each. Being kept informed, and being able to plot the significance of individual performance up to a corporate level can have the effect of enhancing work motivation.

4.3. Organisational Strategy: Corporate Level Human Resource Management

The strategic management of people has become a critical factor in achieving organisational excellence, particularly in organisations which are service-oriented and where organisational success and competitive edge derives largely from employees' skills. This emphasis on HR has been brought about by the realisation that employees are a significant organisational resource, and are encouraged by business emphasis on service quality, given the high financial cost of employing and maintaining employees and increasingly prescriptive HR focused industrial legislation, (Dunphy and Stace, 1992).

Human resource management (HRM) developed from a set of loosely connected personnel functions, (from Hilmer, 1991) into the more professional practice of activities, integrated with each other and strategically with corporate objectives, (Copplestone, 1991). It has been accepted as an essential component in corporate and business strategy formulation and has itself, developed into a range of components known collectively known as strategic human resource management (SHRM), (Nankervis, *et al*, 1993), the corporate role of which is,

> "... not just to rigidly implement a pre-conceived business strategy but, in fact, to create an environment in which the appropriate strategy is likely to emerge." (Williams, 1991, p 10)

The necessity of the interpretation of corporate level strategies to the business and functional levels has already been emphasised. In this context, HR practitioners are required to align and integrate HR strategies with others at the three levels:- to devise HR plans and policies which support the adaptation of organisational structures and cultures align with the dynamic changes occurring in the social, political and industrial arenas in Australia and internationally, (Nankervis *et al*, 1993).

Chandler (1991), emphasised that many organisations had not yet incorporated HR strategies and policies completely into organisational level objectives, as they continue to struggle with the complexity of survival and growth issues and come to terms with the most appropriate approaches to deal with radical change in their operating environment. The relationship between organisational and HR strategies was described by Chandler (1991) as conforming to one of three styles as follows,

4.3.1. *Accommodative relationships,*

Accommodative styles reflect the traditional approach; where HR strategies merely mirror organisational counterparts by accommodating the HR needs of those business strategies as instructed.

4.3.2. Interactive relationships

These are less one-sided. The HR function contributes and reacts to overall strategies, from a distinctive HR perspective as requested.

4.3.3. Integrated relationships

Finally, integrated styles involve the HR function and its practitioners intimately in the overall strategic process of the organisation, at a corporate level.

The Accommodative, traditional relationship, results in an organisational milieu in which HR practitioners and managers find it difficult to develop and implement effective change programmes, even at the functional level, (Dunphy, 1987). This is exacerbated if a significant proportion of HR activities are still the formal responsibility of work supervisors and line managers, as was the case in Australia in the majority of organisations in the early 1980s, (Nankervis, *et al*, 1993)). Purcell (1990), observed that the traditional approach had not been completely replaced by more appropriate systems, and reported organisational studies from the United Kingdom which

demonstrated that HR had almost no influence on corporate strategy. On the other hand, Fombrun *et al* (1984), found significant executive level support in American (USA), for the use of HR tools and practitioners in the development and implementation of corporate strategies. Lewis (1989) demonstrated similar results in Australian studies, where organisations were using HR activities to reinforce corporate activities and to propagate change in what was as at least an interactive relationship, (after Chandler, 1991).

4.4. Organisational Strategy: Human Resource Planning

Human resource planning, (HRP), is a crucial organisational HR process which could be considered to operate, strategically at the Business level (after Burnes, 1992). It is concerned with ensuring that the organisation's future needs for labour and skills are met (Clark, 1992). Additionally, it is involved in devolving organisational objectives to the functional or operational level so that employees' work skills, places and behaviour can be properly aligned to meet these objectives, (Robbins, *et al*, 1986). HRP in its broadest sense, takes a strategic medium to long term approach to comprehensive forecasts and staffing plans, (Werther and Davis, 1989), covering the HR activities from recruitment and training, to development and career management; and finally to the separation of employees from the organisation. It is required to do this while maintaining a clear focus on organisational strategies and objectives. The cost to an organisation without active HRP can include reduced efficiency, financial losses through hasty staff replacement decisions and *ad hoc* recruitment, over

employment or disjointed career management and professional development. These in turn create the risk of poor morale, increased voluntary separations and a loss of employee talent to competitors.

The HRP process, to be effective and to provide the organisation with the most efficient service, should be continuous, monitoring internal and external conditions and modifying or recommending modifications to objectives and plans as necessary. Compton and Nankervis (1991), and Nankervis *et al* (1993) described HRP as the process of balancing the results of *labour demand forecasting* and *labour supply analysis* through the development of staffing strategies to meet organisational needs.

4.4.1. Labour demand forecasting

As the phrase suggests, labour demand forecasting involves the specification, in advance, of the number and type of employees needed to meet organisational objectives, (Nankervis *et al*, 1993). To be effective, it should involve regular environmental assessment, and, taking intra-organisational factors into account, calculate both the employee skills required by line managers and sources and availability of potential employees. The fluid state of the external environment alone can make this a process of best estimates, based on HR practitioners' experience and professional judgement (qualitative), as well as statistically based procedures (quantitative), or some combination of the two. The choice of which to apply would rest on the size of the problem, the sophistication of the organisation and its managers, particularly its HR professionals and their familiarity with the various techniques.

(1) The qualitative approach

Qualitative techniques like 'rule of thumb', Delphi (after Gannon, 1979), Nominal Group Technique, (Murningham, 1981) or Managerial Estimates, (after Walker, 1980), rely on information gathered from observations of, or discussions with employees, supervisors, managers and HR practitioners.

(2) The Quantitative approach

The second approach, utilising inferential statistics, applies instruments such as regression analysis, (Atwater *et al* 1982). Projections of future demand are based on calculations of past relationships such as employment level related to sales, or sales related to marketing expenditure. If a significant correlation can be established from past figures, forecasting one variable allows quantitative predictions of the other, the dependent variable and the focus of the analysis, to be calculated. Other techniques applied to the problem include productivity ratios, (Makridakis and Wheelright, 1979), personnel ratios, (Hinrichs and Morrison, 1980), and work study models, computer- generated simulations and scenarios (Anderson *et al*, 1986).

(3) Summary: Which Technique to Use?

Schuler *et al* (1992), observed however, that more research was needed to validate the reliability of the use of inferential techniques in HRP, given the

radical and unpredictable nature of changes in environmental conditions described in the 1990s.

It is important to remember also, that even given the production of sophisticated indices and forecasts, the responsibility for the ultimate decision making is not removed from the managers' domain. Hence the most reliable methodology should involve both the qualitative and quantitative methods in tandem. The two approaches can complement each other and by involving employees in particular in the process is in accord with the contemporary industrial and social climate and can enhance positive and proactive aspects of organisational culture. Inclusion of employees in qualitative HRP forecasting and decision-making can give them ownership in the changes, which in turn can ensure increased commitment and the reduced likelihood of work performance slipping back to pre-change levels.

4.4.2. Labour Supply Analysis

When conducted conjointly with labour demand forecasting, labour supply analysis, identifies whether the number and types of employees needed by the organisation, are available from internal or external sources, in attempts to achieve a balance of supply and demand.

(1) Internal Sources of Labour Supply

The forecasting of an internal labour supply can be based on the information which would flow from structured staffing establishment flow charts and skills inventories (Macken, 1989). Information can be extracted using, again, qualitative (judgmental) or quantitative, (statistical) approach or a combination of both.

Qualitative techniques include replacement planning and succession planning programmes, (Scarborough and Zimmerer, 1982). Replacement planning involves the development of charts which show job incumbents and names of likely replacements. Succession planning tends to be longer term and more developmental, with more flexibility (Walker *et al*, 1979), identifying and developing pools of talent.

The quantitative or statistical approach used in supply forecasting may involve simulation (Milkovich and Krzystofiak, 1979), or goal programming (Bres *et al*, 1980). Schuler et al (1992), observed, that the statistical approach was less commonly used in supply than demand analysis due to the lack of reliable databases and the restrictive conditions under which mathematical models are applicable.

(2) External Sources of Labour Supply

If internal supply analysis results indicate that there is a lack of available or appropriately skilled current employees to fill anticipated or existing job vacancies, then external sources could be tapped. External recruiting may also be a preferred option if particular specialist expertise is required, there is a desire to change the culture, or the organisation is strictly hierarchical in structure, recruiting only at base levels with employees moving up through the structure.

External labour supply is determined by a number of factors, largely outside the control of the organisation, including economic climate, population demographics, government policies, competitive demands for employee skills, cultural and attitudinal factors, (see above, Chapter Three, and, Nankervis *et al*, 1993). Nonetheless, relevant aspects of these should be included in the HR planning equation as they can influence organisational strategies, policies, and practices.

Consideration and use of external labour sources indicates the existence of an important interface the organisation has with the operating environment, additional to the day to day business and service relationship that exists. The marketing of the organisation as a preferred employer, targeting reliable sources of applicants and liaisons with educational institutions to produce appropriately skilled potential recruits (as well as 'state of the art' HR processes and models

of application), can all enhance the effectiveness of HRP and of the organisation.

(3) Summary

HR plans and the availability of employees to fill existing and anticipated vacancies is influenced by various aspects of the internal and external environment.

" External factors provide pressures and opportunities for change, internal environments may hinder or assist the achievement of desired organisational and HR strategies." (Nankervis *et al*, 1993, pp. 77).

The relationship the organisation has with its employees and its customers is dependent upon, and determines important aspects of the internal environment such as the type, size and structure of the business activity and the organisation, as well as the organisational culture. These aspects can determine for example, effectiveness and efficiency of lines of communication between workers and management, and between organisation and customer, who could also be prospective employee. The former at least, can be reflected in the attitudes of workers to management and *vice versa*. A corporate philosophy which values workers will be reflected in HR planning activity which is different from that created out of simple mechanistic need, or where there is an adversarial relationship between management and staff. An organisation with a positive corporate image, sound staff programmes and a good industrial relations record

can maintain positively motivated high performers and attract like-minded recruits. On the other hand, employers with an acknowledged history of inconsistent, discriminatory or negative HR practices may experience recruiting difficulties and a costly high separation rate.

When all the information has been factored into the equation; corporate and HR strategies, labour demand and supply, market information and so on, HR plans can be formulated. These can provide recommendations for future work plans and job design, recruitment, selection, training and development requirements and possibilities, performance and career management programmes, succession, remuneration and reward systems, separation processes and the provision for constant evaluation, review and adjustment (Dyer, 1982). Thorough analysis, particularly in an organisational climate indifferent or hostile to HRP will also include some identification of cost. The undoubted costs of the programmes discussed above need to be measured against the benefits. For example, if a good person-job fit can be achieved through proper selection and recruitment programmes, employee job performance and satisfaction will combine with improved productivity to produce a cyclic positive effect on managers, workers, and customers alike.

4.5. Organisational Strategy: HR Recruitment and Selection

Business level strategy development, the middle and second level in the model proposed by Burnes (1992), was described in terms of HRP and its components. One such component was recruitment and selection. This will be discussed at the functional level, the third and lowest, the organisational 'coal-face' level, of the three levels at which Burnes (1992), postulated that strategy was formulated within the organisation.

4.5.1. The Importance of Organisational Recruitment

The change processes described in this Thesis, have been devised to improve organisational productivity by focusing on the need to be responsive to change in the extra- as well as the intra-organisational environment, (Nankervis et al, 1993), and to do so continuously; the process of dynamic adaptation, (Pascale, 1990). All are concerned, in some way, with improving employee work performance.

This can be made more difficult if the change process proposed, accepts an assumption that the job incumbents at the focus of the change programme and the jobs are suitably matched; and even that the organisation has been successful in placing individuals in appropriate work places and situations, (Gatewood and Feild, 1990). If staff do not possess the relevant knowledge, skills, abilities and attitudes, the successful introduction of change programmes can be impaired and employee performance may even deteriorate. This could happen, if for example, job restructuring involves adding

value and complexity to a job beyond the capability of the incumbent, or if the changes are such that they alienate employees. The achievement of corporate objectives can be interpreted (as is required in any change process or organisational activity), at this operational level, in that worker performance can subsume all other factors for organisational success. Given that performance levels achieved depend to a significant extent on the goodness of the person-job fit, the importance of the recruiting process, that HR activity which tries to match the person to that job is highlighted. Conversely, if the person's position within the organisation is protected by an enterprise bargain or regulations in the case of areas within the public sector, then unsatisfactory employees are difficult to remove and may remain to hamper workplace success.

Recruitment of new employees thus provides opportunities for organisations to maximise the person-job fit from the outset and to enhance organisational change processes via the planned introduction of individuals with desired skills, attributes and attitudes.

4.5.2. Recruitment: A Definition

Recruitment is regarded as the process of attracting individuals who consider themselves or were encouraged to do so by organisational members, as potential employees, (after Gatewood and Feild, 1990). This winnowed group included those assessed as having the necessary skills, abilities and aptitudes, required by the organisation for a particular job, and completed the recruiting process with the

selection process now about to commence. Gatewood and Feild (1990), however, also reported on an extensive review of recruitment and recruit selection processes and concluded that to separate the two was naive; that selection was a logical extension of recruitment activity and actually involved aspects of recruitment such as continuing to market the organisation in a positive light through the manner in which the selection process was conducted by staff members. In addition, they are both concerned with the identification and processing of individuals to place them in jobs within the organisation. For ease of analysis and discussion, the processes of recruitment (marketing and attracting potential employees), and selection, (objectively choosing recruits from that group), will be discussed separately, but will regarded as components of the one function.

Recruitment from internal or external sources was discussed earlier in this chapter, (see *4.4.2. Labour Supply Analysis*), and for the purposes of the present discussion, the focus will remain on the latter. At the time of writing, the organisation under discussion, SAPOL, conducts internal promotion and specialist selection activities exclusively from internal sources, based on each member having entered the organisation at the same point, the most junior level, that of general duties uniform constable.

This last aspect is not exceptional. Entry level recruitment is usually focused externally, (Walker, 1992). Selection for higher positions may be focused both internally and externally, but Gatewood and Feild, (1990), observed that it was common for organisations to aim to fill higher positions from internal sources, thus

motivating employees by providing career opportunities and mobility for organisation members. The cost and risk of internal selection is the encouragement of cloning; promoting those who fit the senior managers' views of attributes necessary for success, and the management structures, hierarchy and system eventually becoming jaded, lacking vitality and new ideas. To the extent that this is avoided, can be a reflection of the size of the organisation, the commitment of senior management to objective selection processes and the importance placed on these aspects of the HR function.

External recruitment is an important technique for the introduction of fresh abilities, skills and novel approaches to problem solving to the organisation. It imports cultural, intellectual and organisational diversity and can bring less experienced and less costly talent in for longer-term development, (Walker, 1992). The significance of recruit selection processes lies in their ability to elicit sufficient, legally defensible and appropriate information about applicants who are relatively unfamiliar with the culture, the formal and informal networks that exist in the organisation, (after Hunt, 1972), policies, work methods and performance standards.

4.5.3. Recruitment Strategies

Recruiting strategies should flow from and be compatible with the organisation's mission, corporate and business objectives, (Collins, 1988; Burnes, 1992). In so doing, recruitment activities serve three major purposes, (after Gatewood and Feild, 1990). They aim to increase the pool of job applicants, meet any legal and social

obligations the organisation has regarding the demographic composition of its work force, and lastly, to help increase the economic viability and success rate of the selection process by discouraging those applicants who are poorly qualified.

4.5.4. Recruitment Activities

The activities which together form a recruiting process and the organisational recruiting function vary with the sophistication of the organisation and its HR processes, the range of outside sources from which employees are to be recruited, the type of job to be filled, the state of the labour market and the importance the organisation places on the process.

In times of high unemployment, suitable applicants may be found among those who take their own initiative to apply. This unfortunately can also result in a significant number of applicants who do not meet basic criteria, occupying staff time and highlights the importance of identifying and targeting desired populations carefully. Adding filters in marketing activities helps to discourage unwanted and time consuming applications, (Wallage, 1991)). More sophisticated marketing may be required in times of full employment. An employer may have to resort to expanded marketing campaigns to maximise the size of the pool of qualified applicants. Mathis and Jackson (1989), demonstrated however, that different applicants are motivated by different sources and that not all are influenced by media marketing, In addition, Caldwell and Spivey (1983) observed that those applicants who are typically prompted to apply as

self referrals or following employee recommendations of the organisation as an employer, remain longer than those who respond to media advertising.

Media advertising is nonetheless, a typical recruitment activity. It makes as many people as possible aware that a vacancy exists, and attempts to persuade them to apply. The utilisation of specialist trade and professional magazines and journals can be used to target particular groups of preferred or more suitable applicants and also, to create and reinforce a particular corporate image. This latter needs to be kept in some perspective as flamboyant marketing of the organisation's image and style is costly and may encourage inappropriate public attention and prospective applicants. Breaugh (1981), for example, observed that advertisements which were complete *and* accurate were more likely to result in a successful recruitment result.

The organisation may also decide to use the resources and expertise of employment and recruitment agencies. Private sector agencies and consultants tailor their service to suit the organisation as the client, but often command a significant financial fee. Consequently, many organisations choose these firms only for executive selection and appointments. The decision to use an external recruitment consultant agency is usually tempered by the professional resources available within the organisation, the cost and time available, and the need for independence and objectivity, (after Torrington and Mackay, 1986).

The public sector alternative to private consultants is the Commonwealth Employment Service, (CES). Each state in Australia has an office of the CES and the resources of

this organisation are offered free to employers and employees. The service undertakes to place employees across a wide range of jobs throughout Australia and is often a source of potential applicants for base grade, skilled and semi-skilled trade personnel. Secondary educational institutions are a good source of young applicants with formal training and education but with little work experience. Tertiary institutions, such as Technical colleges and universities, provide applicants with more maturity, who if they are engaged in part-time study, may have some relevant, if not extensive work experience.

Other applicant sources include referrals and recommendations made by current employees. In some instances, this can attract accusations of nepotism and result in a cloning effect, but motivated employees can be positive ambassadors for the organisation and potential applicants may identify and be encouraged by these contacts Some recruits approach recruiting staff unsolicited, applying on their own volition. As has already been stated, this can be the source of nuisance applications but Breaugh (1981) found that those hired through self-initiated contact tended to be more productive employees than those who applied following advertising campaigns.

Finally, the size and complexity of the organisation and its HR component may determine whether permanent employees perform the recruiting function. Larger companies may employ permanent professional recruitment staff, but they may also prefer external consultants, contracted on a needs basis. Smaller organisations may include it in the job of the HR generalist, or the administrative manager. It is important to remember that staff who implement the recruiting process are, themsleves

a marketing activity. It is they who publicise the organisation as a preferred employer at secondary and tertiary institutions and elsewhere in the market place. They advise potential applicants about the selection criteria, (competencies that lead to effective performance), organisational career opportunities and other benefits and conditions that may relate to that employment. In so doing it is often they who represent the first formal contact the applicant has with the organisation. This makes the selection of recruit applicant contact staff a significant HR matter. Applicants make inferences about the organisation from the personal style and behaviour of these representatives, and the exhibition of a supportive and positive approach by them can influence the applicant similarly (Rynes and Miller, 1983). HR personnel involved in the recruitment process can herald the essence of the HRM style of that organisation to the applicant (Taylor and Bergmann, 1987).

Nonetheless, SAPOL recruiting practices are driven primarily by the desire to minimise short run costs. This is despite the fact that they are focused on entry level recruitment of future sworn personnel. These, as 'recruits, undergo training at the SAPOL academy for the role of uniform general duties; a 'front' line operational role where 'new' officers traditionally learn about police culture and the policing craft, and from which position they can aspire to the specialist policing roles such as Criminal Investigation (CIB), Special Tasks and Rescue (STAR). These recruits form the basis of future HR strategies and the achievement of corporate objectives. Despite, therefore, the singular importance of this employee entry point, recruiting staff numbers and activities are kept to a bare minimum, precluding for example, any formal, sustained or planned marketing programme and any flexibility when dealing with the needs of

applicants from diverse backgrounds. More detail is provided in APPENDIX D1 and D3.

4.5.5. Selection Strategies

Once the recruitment processes have identified a pool of applicants, their suitability is then subject to close scrutiny against the requirements of the job for which they are applying. This process is a cornerstone of all HR activities.

> " Making a selection from among applicants from within or outside the organisation to fill existing or projected job openings is a major HR function that has far reaching effects." (Nankervis *et al*, 1993, p193)

It is the first move by the organisation to make a person-job match with that employee, and as such, can have significant impact on the motivation, retention and development of the new recruit in relation to the achievement of corporate objectives. Failure at this level can have long term direct and indirect costs, (Fitz-enz, 1984). These can be measured in terms of reduced organisational effectiveness and efficiency and can include the costs of increased absenteeism and separation, replacement and extra recruitment and training and orientation, (Dowling, 1988). In addition, legislative sanctions in some industries and sectors can make it difficult to discharge employees whose work performance is unsatisfactory, so selection decisions and the organisation's HR activity in general may end up under close scrutiny in tribunals and courtrooms, (Tharp, 1983).

If appropriate selection decisions are to be made, then those members of the organisation who are responsible for implementation of the selection process need adequate information about both the applicants and the job for which they are applying. The success of the process of gathering and using this information relies on the utilisation by the organisation, of an appropriate selection strategy. Successful strategy implementation will depend in turn on the design and development of appropriate selection models, typically involving a number of steps, both in the development and in the final placement and use in mainstream organisational policy and activity, (Cascio, 1982).

The development of HR selection processes has become more sophisticated in the face of those pressures on organisational activity already documented; the rising costs of human resources, legislative constraints and changeable environmental conditions and so on and have been documented in detail elsewhere, (see for example, McCormick and Ilgen, 1987 and Schuler *et al*, 1992). The developmental programme proposed here as Figure 4.1 below, was extended from Gatewood and Feild's (1990), six stage process, to include the identification of a Focus of the Process as Stage One and an evaluative feedback loop as Stage Eight. This model is typical of those which have been proved to enhance the success of selection decision making in the 1990s,(Schuler *et al,* 1992), by relying on quantitative and adaptational systems approaches to embrace change continuously and thus, to survive and grow. It is proposed here that the application of this model to SAPOL recruitment policy and practice (and to internal assessment and selection processes), could drive SAPOL's HR strategies, and by providing a better person-job match, make positive contributions to the achievement of corporate objectives.

STAGE ONE Focus of Selection Process
STAGE TWO Job Analysis
STAGE THREE Identification of relevant job performance behaviour dimensions
STAGE FOUR Identification of knowledge, skills and aptitudes necessary for job
STAGE FIVE Development of assessment tools to measure knowledge, skills and aptitudes
STAGE SIX Validation of assessment tools and process; (content, construct and predictive)
STAGE SEVEN Use of process in the assessment and processing of job applicants
STAGE EIGHT Evaluation of process and component assessment tools

TABLE 4.1 SELECTION PROCESS DEVELOPMENT MODEL
(Adapted from Gatewood and Feild, 1990, p15ff)

4.5.6. Selection Activities

The incorporation in HR strategies of a selection programme and evaluative process as recommended above, rests on the utilisation of the various stages of that model, both in its development and its placement within 'operational' HR activities, while being

subject to regular assessment. The stages identified in Figure 4.1 comprise those processes and are described immediately below.

(1) *STAGE ONE: focus of the selection process*

Before any analysis and description of jobs and so on, can be completed, a decision has to be made concerning the job to which the selection process is to be applied. This will involve HRP activities, including decisions incorporating succession planning, career management and skill mix requirements of future employees to enable the achievement of corporate objectives.

(2) STAGE TWO: job analysis

Once the job has been identified, it must be assessed; analysed to extract quantifiable information concerning job tasks, conditions, standards and equipment used.

(3) STAGE THREE: determination of job performance dimensions.

As a continuation of Stage Two, Three is the determination of performance measures of the job; how a worker is assessed as being competent. Therefore significant aspects of the job are quantified. This is necessary if the success of the selection process is to be evaluated, and can be later used as the basis for performance appraisal systems. Job performance (behavioural) dimensions are usually redefined and termed *selection criteria*. It is these job-related dimensions against which a job applicant is compared.

(4) STAGE FOUR: worker characteristics

At this point, the job analysis information is converted to the knowledge, skills and aptitudes (KSAs) required to do the job activities and is becomes the person specification documentation.

(5) STAGE FIVE: development of assessment tools

This stage involves the determination of appropriate selection devices or tools which can provide objective, quantifiable and comparable informtion about each applicant, measured against the selection criteria. These tools can be bought, adapted or constructed and generally conform to and are taken from one or more of the following categories:-

(a) form completion - application forms, reference checks, biographical data.

(b) aptitude tests - mental (intelligence), and special ability paper and pencil tests assessing literacy, numeracy, for example.

(c) personality assessments - psychological assessments using nomothetic commercially available broad-based personality profile or special attribute questionnaires.

(d) interviews - structured or unstructured, panel, behavioural, situational or psychological.

(e) **medical/physical assessments** - assessments of medical and physical health and fitness.

(f) simulation and performance measures - this simulation of actual job activities as an observable and assessable, structured exercise.

These components, when used in conjunction with one another, form the increasingly popular and defensible multiple predictor approach, the core of the eight stage selection process recommended here, and is the stage that involves direct contact with and assessment of the applicant.

STAGE SIX; validation of assessment tools

The assessment tools chosen above and the use of the process as a whole should be determined by their demonstrated validity and reliability.

(a) validity - has several aspects. The tool/process must measure what it purports to measure in terms of the KSAs required to successfully perform the job activities. Secondly, it must be able to discriminate fairly, in a demonstrable manner, amongst applicants, so that suitable applicants can be identified successfully from those not suitable. Thirdly, it must be able to predict success on the job in relation to those dimensions it assesses.

(b) reliability - the tool/process must be consistent and dependable. That is, it must, within certain predetermined tolerance limits, provide the same results on different occasions.

(c) legality - given that the tool/process as a whole is reliable and valid, it must also conform to legal requirements and to corporate objectives, policies and practices.

(7) STAGE SEVEN: use of the process to assess applicants

The successful validation of the process and its components means that it can be included in mainstream of HR process application. Significantly however,

even well developed programmes are subject to limitations. Those described below, are typical of the problems facing progamme users,(from Gatewood and Feild, 1990), but are not insurmountable in a pragmatic sense. That is they can be overcome sufficiently for the purposes of maximising the success of the process, but this relies on the organisation driving the process and committing sufficient resources to it.

(a) organisational commitment - It is imperative that management understand the singular importance of selecting the right people and that they understand, support and drive the process. If management is committed to the use of a structured, objective and legally defensible recruit selection programme as an integrated aspect of HR strategy incorporated into corporate objectives, then the following are more likely to be addressed, and the process is more likely to be effective and efficient.

(b) limited available information - This will often hamper decision making. The more accurate, complete and relevant the collected information is, on each applicant, the more correct the employment decision can be. If the process is too short, or those responsible for its implementation are not trained and experienced in the gathering and assessment of information, the less likely the process will fulfil its expectations.

(c) limited applicants - The organisation can only select from those who are interested in applying for a job. It is important therefore that marketing, the recruiting aspect of the process, is as comprehensive and as focused as is economically and logistically feasible, to ensure that suitably large pool of applicants is available for 'processing'.

(d) staffing - As has already been suggested, those employees responsible for the implementation of the selection process, should be well versed in the complexities of selection, be trained in its use.

(e) process co-ordination - As is being expounded here, the selection process consists of a number of phases and assessment tools. Their design, implementation and analysis should be co-ordinated and monitored, to ensure continued efficiency and relevance.

(8) STAGE EIGHT: evaluation process

The business and socio-political climate are subject to change as has been identified, as can organisational objectives and the design of jobs. The selection process itself may change, even subtly, as staff become more familiar with it or leave and are replaced by others with different attitudes and work styles. Regular assessment of the process, its validity and use is important although it can be a time consuming and costly process itself. In this way, the selection process is dynamic, inherently developmental and possessed of a commitment to change and relevance.

4.6. Organisational Strategy: SAPOL HR Recruitment Strategies

Discussion so far has considered the driving forces for and the necessity of strategies for continuing change within Australian work organisations. The importance of the organisation's members and the associated HR function has been recognised and

corporate, business and functional level change strategies for the enhancement of the HR component of the organisation, and the achievement of corporate objectives are being considered and introduced. Some of these strategies are being directed, as in the present study at the critical HR activity, of recruit selection. The development of selection programmes is not new, (see for example Freyd, 1923), but there is much evidence that they are not utilised or appreciated by organisations, and long term adverse consequences ignored, (Gatewood and Feild, 1990).

SAPOL like other police agencies, both in Australia and overseas, utilise relatively complex selection programmes to select non-members for entry, (Blau, 1994). Interaction between police managers and HR professionals to implement sophisticated screening techniques to identify suitable police recruits arguably commenced in 1916 in the United States when a psychologist used Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale to assist police selection in California, (Deitz and Reese, 1986). Since that time the complexity of police selection processes has increased, become more expensive, and more recently has come under intense scrutiny, both from police agencies themselves and from governments,(Pape, 1990), the latter in their desire to hold police more accountable for expenditure and outcome, and to conform with contemporary social legislation. The demands made of police agencies, whether from external or internal sources, may be interpreted at the functional, HR level by SAPOL as the expectation that strategy for change at that level will include the assessment, implementation and evaluation of a selection model that has been presented here, (see Figure 4.1). In the context of that model and the present study therefore, *Stage Eight* of that model, T*he evaluation of process and component assessment tools*, becomes the point of primary focus in this

Thesis. Given the closed loop nature of the proposed model, *Stage Eight* leads into *Stage One: Focus of the Selection Process* and final recommendations made as part of this Thesis will include comment about that focus.

The Evaluation process (*Stage Eight* of the model), is concerned with assessments of the external and internal organisational realities, and then with the matching of that assessment with the selection tools in use to determine their current and likely future validity, translated as usefulness and relevance. Hence the process of environmental assessment or scanning can be applied to an evaluation of the SAPOL recruiting programme. As has already been observed, this process is complex and can be costly, but for the purposes of the present study, it was decided to limit the assessment to two aspects of the SAPOL operating environment, specifically the crime rates and trends in South Australia, and secondly, the recruiting policies and practices used by police agencies in the other Australian States.

4.6.1. Crime Rates and Trends

The decision to focus on the crime rates and crime forecasts into the twenty first century was based on the importance of crime rates as an external pressure on SAPOL to adapt. This pressure exists because of the significance of the relationship between the incidence of crime and the corporate activities of police agencies. Given the SAPOL Mission Statement, that is,

> "To ensure a safe and peaceful environment for South Australia through a community based police service." (SAPOL, 1994),

and that one of the seven SAPOL corporate goals is itemised as the prevention and detection of crime, it is considered that the crime rate represents a significant determinant of police corporate activity and that a major, strategic focus of SAPOL objectives, activities and resources involves the prevention and detection of crime.

4.6.2. Australian police agency recruiting policy and practice.

The assessment of industry competitors' policy, practice and outcomes, if available, can provide valuable information to help an organisation avoid costly mistakes; using others' research and development results to gain some competitive edge. Other Australian police agencies are not competitors of SAPOL in the entrepreneurial sense, and while there may be evidence of professional rivalry and parochial pride, their experience and practice is commonly shared with colleagues in other agencies, and, as in the private sector, provides for an opportunity for those agencies to learn vicariously.

4.7. Chapter Summary

This chapter sought to explain the concept of strategy in the organisational sense, and the need for a strategic approach to organisational activities and objectives; organisational change aimed at the improvement of efficiency and effectiveness, with focus on the HR function. Strategic change was examined in terms of the various levels of application to organisational planning and activity, from a narrow, specific and functional focus to the broadest or corporate level. Organisational success required that intervention and change whether from the top down or the bottom up be integrated. That is, levels lower than that at which strategy is determined are required to reflect activity of those above in such as way as to reflect the requirement of the worker in his or her work activity.

The levels of strategy development were discussed in relation to the HR function at the corporate level, HRP at the second or business level, and recruit selection, at the third and functional or operational level. Recruit Selection processes in general and in the SAPOL context were examined and a model was proposed. The Evaluation Stage of the model was described as providing the focus for the next step in this Thesis; being the assessment of critical aspect of the SAPOL operating environment as an aid in determining appropriate SAPOL selection strategies and activities. The aspects chosen were South Australian crime rates and trends, and the recruiting policy and practice of other Australian police agencies, to provide a comparison for best practice.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE POLICE EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT: CRIME IN AUSTRALIA

In the previous chapter, the decision was taken to focus on the crime rate and crime trends as a significant component of the external, operating environment which would impact on SAPOL organisational effectiveness and efficiency. The present chapter will discuss the crime rates in Australia overall and in South Australia in particular. Attention will be drawn to the fact that these crime rates are rising, and the variables which contribute to crime will be considered. It will draw inferences which impact on police practice and future trends. The traditional role of police agencies in the control and prevention of criminal activity and the strategies they adopted, will be explored, as will the constraints which limit the effectiveness of police corporate activity and the problems associated with the measurement of crime rates and their use as a tool for identifying organisational success. The chapter will close with a discussion of recent agency attempts to redress the imbalance of rising crime in the face of decreasing clearance rates.

5.1. Crime in Australia: An Overview of Balance

Wilson (1987), recalled a somewhat dramatic 'call to arms' made by the then Commissioner of the Australian Federal Police (AFP), Major General Grey, who said,

> "... We have a war, 24 hours a day, seven days a week in our cities, towns and countrysides, ... a war carried out by criminals who deliberately erode our rights." (Wilson, 1987, p 12),

publicly voicing his concern and a need for action that was being echoed at both a Federal and State level.

In Canberra, in 1989, the Australian Federal Minister for Justice, Senator Tate, in his Opening Address to a seminar on Australian Police Resources and Effectiveness, stated that,

> " Events of the last ten years in Australia suggest that failures of law enforcement in the 1960's and 1970's have brought us to the edge of [a] precipice... leaving Australia wide open to international and large domestic criminal predators." (Tate, 1989, p 10).

At the local South Australia State level, the then Leader of the South Australian Parliamentary Liberal Opposition, Dale Baker, was quoted in the *News*, a discontinued Adelaide afternoon daily newspaper, as follows; i.e.,

> "... the Government [should] dramatically increase police resources to fight the growing incidence of small and serious crime."...The increase of violent crime comes at a time when house-breaking and car thefts have reached record levels, [and]... police have warned alarming recent crime statistics would double if every offence was reported." (Adelaide News, January 29, 1991, p1).

Such statements indicate dramatically rising increases in serious crime, prompting Paul Wilson (1987), a criminologist writing about the incidence of crime in Australia, to express misgivings concerning the motives behind them and their accuracy. He was critical of statements from public figures and members of the media, concerned that

they encouraged governments and communities alike, to immediate, emotive and possibly therefore, ill advised action. He agreed that crime posed a problem for society, but it was one which demanded empirical objectivity rather than some anarchic 'armed response'. In addition he emphasised that it was important to keep the crime rates in some sort of perspective. Compared to other Western industrialised nations Australia was still a safe place in which to live,

> "...Australians are not engulfed in crime, nor should they be engaged in some national 'war' against criminals as some leader writers and politicians would have us believe." (Wilson, 1987, p13).

More recently, Finnane (1993), supported Wilson and noted how the problem was exacerbated because of the apparent lack of scientific focus; i.e.,

> "In spite of crime and police being perennial subjects of media interest and entertainment for the masses, it is remarkable how little they have preoccupied academics and researchers." (Finnane, 1993, p1)

5.2. Crime in Australia: Facts and Fiction

These opposing stances may stimulate some controversy but despite the rhetoric, obverse calls for restraint and reason and the lack of empirical data, it is clear that crime rates throughout Australia generally, are in fact increasing, (Walker, 1994).

Crime statistics collected across Australian jurisdictions over the last twenty years, indicate that during that time they have all experienced significant increases in the rates of reported crime (Mukherjee, 1987; NUCSC, 1989; Mukherjee, Neuhaus and Walker, 1990).

5.2.1. Public Awareness

Buchanan and Huczynski (1985), observed that if members of a community are exposed to the influences mentioned above, that is, political statements and media speculation then their beliefs and behaviour will be influenced. This reinforced if they are exposed to the phenomenon itself; in this case as a victim of or as a witness to a crime. Such exposure may then manifest itself in a range of personal, social and political activities and circumstances, including, as Vernon and Bracey (1989), reported, an increased awareness and concern across Australian communities about perceived increases in crime and public disorder, and associated social and political activities, focused on demands that attention be given to crime as a critical political, social and economic issue of the nineties.

5.2.2. Political Awareness and Response

Public statements by politicians on 'both sides of the House', such as the examples quoted above, and the community concern described by Vernon and Bracey, (1989),

coalesced in a number of Committees of Enquiry being convened by the various Australian Governments, giving credence to the belief that crime in Australia was at such a level that it needed to be dealt with co-operatively and at a national level, (Vernon and Bracey, 1989). From these various Committees, emanated 'watchdog' groups like the Australian Police Ministers Council (APMC), the expanded Australian Federal Police (AFP), the National Crime Authority (NCA) and the Office of the Australian Director of Public Prosecutions (DPP). In addition, in 1983, the National Police Research Unit was formed (NPRU). This was established in particular to service the operational and administrative needs of all eight Australian police agencies, via liaison with all participating forces to co-ordinate, stimulate, sponsor and undertake research.

5.2.3. The Effect of Awareness on Crime

Despite these responses of government, the formation and activities of those groups and of the police agencies themselves, the results have been less than successful. Mukherjee *et al* (1987), demonstrated that the rates of crime, in the broad categories chosen for analysis by all police agencies were steadily rising through the 1980s. They reported that except for the offence of homicide, all other reported crime has increased at a much faster rate than the population growth. In addition, total reported crime in Australia rose from 845,923 in 1980-81, to 1.41 million in 1988-89; and increase of almost two-thirds, (see also, Mukherjee and Dagger, 1990, and **APPENDIX B**). These

findings have been reinforced by similar research conducted in the early 1990s, (Australian Institute of Criminology, 1994).

Contemporary reasons given for the failure of past initiatives to reverse the increasing crime rates centred around criticism of traditional government and police approaches;- aimed at intensifying criminal justice responses, (Sumner ,1991). These included more police, heavier sentences (particularly for more serious crimes), and expanded prison and correctional programmes. Nixon (1991), referred to this as the 'get tough' policy, in the New South Wales Police context; a strengthened police presence via increased police numbers, particularly 'on the street'; enhanced police powers; and increased penalties to make the punishment commensurate with the crime.

The traditional response was based on the premise that the formula for successful crime reduction involved the bolstering of current legislative, judicial, and police organisational management practices and procedures. Nixon (1991), also noted that successive Governments in New South Wales had sought to ease the problem of crime and social disorder in this manner and she added that the rationale for government action was based on fundamental features of the criminal act itself and involved reactive measures, rather than on causal aspects and a more proactive approach.

It is clear that dependence on the traditional approaches, has been ineffective. As Sutton (1993) concluded,

> "Despite these measures, available evidence provides no reason to believe Australia's crime problems are about to abate significantly. There is broad agreement among policy-makers that current approaches are not working and new strategies are needed." (Sutton, 1993, p213)

It will be suggested here, that these new strategies should include assessment of what police do rather than how they do it: working smarter not harder. A logical starting point in that contemporary approach and the focus of this discussion, will be the consideration of policies and procedures concerning police recruit selection. The introduction to the organisation of a new 'breed' of officer, working smarter , not harder and supported by a proactive and innovative management, could provide an impetus for a police agency to implement and expand radically new policing initiatives.

5.2.4. The Effect of Police Activity on Crime

Discussion about police impact on crime rate and crime trends must include some analysis of causal factors and the extent to which police are in fact able to influence them and, by association, crime rates. To the extent that impact is minimal, decisions need to be made to determine whether this is inexorable; whether radical changes implemented by police management and governments, even to core business activities, might influence, if not curb crime rate increases. Shearing and Leon (1992), reported a number of studies, the earliest, by Cumming, Cumming and Edall (1964), showing that police agency core business activities involved two basic components, a controlling element and a supporting element, and that the vast majority of police time was spent

on the supporting element; social service type work, rather than on control; the detection and resolving of crime. This inequitable division of police resources may result from varying perceptions of police managers about where the focus of police activity should lie given limited tools of trade, the needs of the community, the reality of the ratio of supporting taskings to controlling taskings, the nature of the reporting systems and so on. In the context of the present discussion concerning crime rates and trends however, a rational determination of the relevance of the form and content of police expertise and activity (the controlling element), in relation to the prevailing crime rate it is appropriate. Assessment of the causes of criminal activity will provide insight into the influence of police control activities on crime, and if necessary, allow for some focus on alternative approaches to the achievement of corporate objectives, including strategic changes to the entry level police selection policies and programmes.

5.3. Crime in Australia: - Causal Factors

Walker (1991) observed that the increase in the number of reported crimes in all Australian States over the last two decades prompted an increase in the interest in causal factors. Hazelhurst (1991), agreed, and provided a cautionary note; that the emphasis that the causes of criminal behaviour were complex, inextricably entwined in the biological, psychological, economic and sociological aspect of human beings and their communities.

These causal factors and their effects on the crime rates and the community, drive criminal justice aspects of government policy, resource allocation and police management decision making. The identification of societal correlates with crime assists with the determination of policy across a range of government activity covering different government agencies.

Toffler (1971), had heralded global increases in crime and social disorder as societies responded to rapid changes and development in technology His *New World* was one of accelerating change, at a pace that communities found increasingly difficult to keep up with, resulting in mass disorientation;

> "...future shock on a grand scale." (Toffler, 1971, p20),

and with it, inevitable increased levels of personal and community stress. Karl Albrecht, a pioneer in the identification of organisational stressors and the development of stress management programmes, observed that the distress created in the individual surrounded by increasing rates of change, could result in resistance and coping behaviour calculated to overcome the discomfort, but that,

> "For those... lacking in maturity and social adjustment, chronic stress [could] lead them into antisocial behaviour or even violent crime." (Albrecht, 1979, p37).

Walker (1991) and (1994) observed that chronic stress could result from population growth and other, more qualitative changes occurring in society and he pointed to

contemporary research results from within Australia and overseas which demonstrated that patterns in rising crime were linked to these changes. Significant correlates included the degree of urbanisation, economic social and cultural change, levels of unemployment and population demographics such as composition and growth.

5.3.1. Urbanisation

Walker (1994), reported that,

> "... households in Australian cities of over a million people were over twice as likely as those living in medium sized towns and four times as likely as those living in rural areas to have installed a burglar alarm." (Walker, 1994, p2).

The beliefs and actions of city dwellers were vindicated in the results of the surveys reviewed by (Walker, 1992) which found that Australian city-dwellers were also generally twice as likely as those who lived in rural areas to be victims of crime. Mukherjee and Dagger, (1990) reported that these figures were replicated in other western industrialised democracies. Walker (1994) described reasons for this phenomenon in terms of the *demand for* and the *supply of* the opportunities for criminal activity: busy people, more business premises, more self-serve enterprises; streets and suburbs crowded with potential victims and unattended motor vehicles and large numbers of people ensuring relative anonymity for malefactors. Cities attracted the

socially disadvantaged who anticipated the opportunity for betterment, and provided in the meantime, a breeding ground for resentment.

5.3.2. Economic Change

The degree of urbanisation links with other significant correlates. Economic change was examined by Mukherjee (1985), using longitudinal data from a number of developed countries (including Australia, New Zealand, Japan, England and Wales, Canada and the United States of America) and two countries with developing economies,(Egypt and Nigeria). Development is associated with economic growth and is able therefore, to be measured by Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Mukherjee used GDP to examine the relationship between economic conditions and criminality and found that property crimes increased sharply in situations where the economy was in recession, as well as when it was growing rapidly. He also reported that the increase in burglaries was closely linked to growth in the economy, particularly the production of, and accessibility to an increasing number of consumer goods. This production emphasis and consumerism he found also led to a shift in the targets of burglary; from commercial premises to domestic, and included a shift in the type of goods stolen. (NOTE: Mukherjee reported studies which use the term burglary non-specifically, including all breaking and entering offences. In the South Australian legal context however, the offence of burglary is a very limited and specific breaking offence. It can for example only be committed on a dwelling house, between the hours of 9pm.

and 6am. For this reason it is rarely used, in favour of more generic breaking and entering offences, (S.A. Police Recruit Training Manual, 1990).)

5.3.3. Population Growth

Associated with increases to the degree of urbanisation also, is population growth. Couper (1983), observed that larger, urban communities had a higher crime rate per head of population than smaller communities. The causal link suggested between population growth and crime has been qualified by Mukherjee (1985), and Wilson (1991), both of whom maintained that it was the qualitative components and growth patterns of population growth that were significant determinants of criminal activity. The majority of non-traffic related offences for example are committed by the young, (Walker, 1985 and 1991). The peak age for arrest/caution for property offenders in Australia was 15 years while violent offences peaked at around 18 years. After the age of 21, these numbers began to fall dramatically. Hirschi and Gottfredson (1983), confirmed this pattern in other comparative countries. Barclay (1990) using data from England and Wales, found that the peak years for arrest/caution in 1986 were 15 years of age for theft and burglary. For criminal damage and violent offences the peak age was 18 years, and for fraud and forgery and drug offences, it was 20 years of age.

5.3.4. Societal and Cultural Change

Social changes have been popularly linked to rises in criminal activity as community members face changes to the *status quo* and in particular where individuals are denied goals and the means to achieve them and turn to criminal or delinquent solutions, (after Merton, 1968). Ryan (1985) considered links between crime and general public morality, and concluded that there were still substantial gaps in the level of knowledge with respect to the precise nature of the those causal factors. He pointed out that while contemporary so-called 'permissiveness' in the rearing of children was popular as a correlate with increases in crime, it was largely a middle class social phenomenon, whereas serious crimes such as assault and armed robbery were not. This is supported by Westwood (1990) who reported a study conducted by the Avon and Somerset Police in the United Kingdom. The areas in these counties which appeared to suffer the greatest social deprivation, had the lowest measured level of personal well-being. Large Council Estates and crowded inner city areas, were areas where police experienced more problems of social disorder and high rates of crime generally. Like Ryan, Westwood was loathe to label the 'lower classes' a factor associated with the crime rate because of the contamination of other possible contributors, such as perceptions of reporting/arresting police officers, and contradictory studies which, in one case found that a survey of residences of thieves and of theft showed that all parts of the city were equally represented.

This is not to suggest that social deprivation, overcrowding, or inadequate or incorrect socialising processes do not contribute to the crime rate. Indeed, as Mukherjee (1985),

and others have found (e.g. Brenner, 1976; Mukherjee, 1981, and Walker, 1992)), certain aspects of economic conditions such as unemployment appear to exert significant influence as predeterminants to crime rates.

5.3.5. Unemployment

As a by-product of economic change, unemployment has been shown to have a positive relationship with crime trends, (Fleisher, 1966; Brenner, 1976; Mukherjee, 1981), although others have argued that the relationship is complex and difficult to quantify, (Cantor and Land, 1985; Chiricos, 1987; Hagan, 1993). Hagan (1993), suggested that the two variables are interrelated but that crime may result in unemployment rather than the unemployed necessarily turning to crime. The 1980s and early '90s witnessed rising unemployment in Australia for both men and women.

> "The trend unemployment rate for males increased each month since December 1989 and in December 1991 stood at 10.8 percent, the highest level recorded since the Monthly Labour Force Survey began in February 1978. For females, the trend unemployment rate in August 1991 was 9.9 percent, still well below the highest level of 10.6 percent recorded in mid-1983."
> (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1992a, p195.)

The unemployment rate in South Australia mirrored the national figures generally, climbing from 8.8 percent in 1987, to 12.2 percent in 1992, (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1992b).

Mukherjee *et al*, (1989) found that in many industrialised countries, during the 1950's and 1960's when economic growth, as measured by increasing GDP, (see above), was significant and unemployment was very low, the level of property crime in particular increased significantly. Australian criminologist Kayleen Hazlehurst (1991), observed that while the vast majority of street criminals were poor, most poor people were not criminal. She added that many criminals tended to be illiterate, dysfunctional, unemployable, alcoholic and drug dependent. Hagan (1993) and Siegel, (1995) agreed, citing the phenomenon of *social embeddedness* which described how early behaviour patterns become stable lifelong habits and tendencies. Hagan found that children with early criminal experiences, whose friends were delinquent and whose parents had criminal convictions became *embedded* in behaviours that resulted in later adult unemployment. Poverty has been however, shown to contribute to criminality. For example, economic stagnation and recession, coupled with chronically high levels of unemployment could result in what Zuravin (1989), called a *culture of poverty*. This, marked by apathy, cynicism, helplessness and mistrust of social agencies, schools and the police, creates less antisocial determinants of *social embeddedness* but potentially similar outcomes, (see also Jarjoura, 1993).

5.3.6. Additional Correlates

Other correlates have been demonstrated at times to be significant in varying degrees. Couper (1983), provided an extensive list: population density, residential mobility (transience), education, recreational opportunities, religious practices, climate,

prevailing judicial/correctional practices, citizens attitudes towards crime and citizen reporting practices.

> "At an individual level, the propensity to commit crime varies because each person maintains a unique set of life conditions and influences. On a macro level, aggregate crime rates change because economic and social conditions vary." (Siegel, 1995,p264).

5.3.7. Summary

A range of social, personal and economic factors exert influence on the extent of criminal activity present in a community. To attempt to control crime rates requires an understanding of the phenomenon of crime and its causal factors. These need to be examined eclectically, if an accurate picture is to be gained and effective, cost efficient control and prevention programmes are to be implemented and if accurate environmental scanning by criminal justice oriented organisations are to maintain satisfactory performance outcomes at both the individual and corporate levels, with respect to their corporate objectives.

Yet there is at least one aspect of the crime rate which may be viewed as providing a positive indicator of police success. Crime rate increases may reflect in part, an increased willingness by sections of the community to report crime to the police. It is important to remember also that crime statistics represent the levels of reported rather than of actual crime. In this context, an increase can represent success rather than

failure on the part of the police, (Police Foundation and the Policy Studies Institute, 1994), as corporate activity focuses for example on increased customer awareness and contact and succeeds, making citizens more comfortable with the police agency and more willing to become involved by reporting an incident.

Many causal factors, such as economic conditions, social and demographic influences are accepted as being beyond the ability of police to control (Grabosky, 1988). It is also unreasonable to saddle police with the responsibility for basic environmental considerations such as for example, the availability and intensity of street lighting, (Couper, 1983). In addition, it is wrong to assume that police are the only agency involved in crime control (Jones, 1983). There are various social service and judicial agencies who impact on the incidence of criminal behaviour, and upon the attitudes and the perceptions of the public towards such activity and its control.

Finally, the *modus operandi*, the nature of crime itself in terms of its physical location, i.e. where it is conducted (usually out of the public eye or if subject to public scrutiny then enacted swiftly), imposes a severe restraint on effective policing (Clarke and Hough, 1984). Experiments in increasing visible police presence (Schnelle ***et al***, 1977) and reduced response time (Ekblom and Heal 1982), found that increasing the visible presence of police in the community did not enhance their effectiveness.

5.4. Crime in Australia: An Alternative View of Cause and Effect

The factors influencing crime rates and trends have been demonstrated as being largely independent of direct influence from police agencies. There are those observers however, (for example, Wilson 1991), who advocate that police influence on the crime rate could increase if they adopted more dynamic alternatives to the traditional strategies typically aimed at increasing police numbers and penalties. He also observed that the dynamics of those factors associated with increases in crime may be coincidentally but slowly, working with police attempts to stem the upward trend, while still largely independently of police controlling activities. The rising crime figures of the 1980s and 1990s for example could be associated with short-term trends in population growth and contemporaneous demographic and sociological changes in society. Wilson (1991), expressed a concern that such trends,

> "...may be perpetuating the myth of ever-increasing crime."
> (Wilson, 1991, p 2.)

5.4.1. Crime Increases as a Myth

The argument of ever-increasing crime as a myth is proposed on the basis of an analysis of the ages of offenders, measured against Australia's ageing population. Mukherjee *et al* (1990) found that the incidence of criminal activity in Australia decreased after the early 20s age bracket. Figures released by the Australian Bureau of

Statistics (1992) demonstrated that the median age of the Australian population has been rising steadily since the beginning of the early 1970s, to 32.5 years in 1991. The proportion of the same population aged 65 years and over has risen from 8.3 percent in 1971 to 11.4 percent in 1991. Hirschi and Gottfredson (1983), and Barclay (1990) reported similar age related criminal activity trends in research conducted in Europe and the United Kingdom.

The thesis of Wilson (1991) is supported by contemporary crime statistics. Van Dijk, Mayhew and Kilias (1990), assessed the impact of community policing initiatives such as Neighbourhood Watch in the late 1980s. They found a reducing upward trend in the number of burglaries and larcenies in New South Wales and Victoria. They attributed this decline to the fact that the population is ageing and a decreasing number of 15 and 16 year olds in the community, (see also Walker and Henderson, 1991). As a comparison, Canadian figures, reported by Engstad (1989), also showed that after a period of dramatic increase in reported crime in that country,

> "...the overall crime rate in Canada has stabilised somewhat, showing [a reduced] increase of about 4% in 1986."
> (Engstad, 1989, p34),

as the post-war baby-boom 'echo' individuals passed through the ages of maximum criminality of 18 to 25 years.

Wilson (1991), suggested alternatively that a tapering of the increases in larceny and burglary may also in time, be associated with a displacement and correlated increase in

other criminal activity as a proportion of those individuals age but rather than grow out of crime, merely change the pattern of their offending behaviour. Offenders in their mid-adolescence,

> "... restrict their activities to burglary and other theft categories such as shop-stealing. More serious offences, involving violence, peak a few years later, as the teenagers experiment with alcohol, cars and sex. Later still, driving and job-related offences peak, as they adopt adult lifestyles." (Wilson, 1991, p 2)

Walker (1985), and Wilson (1991), accepted that many juveniles, will, as they leave their teenage years, grow out of crime, or at least those crime categories, such as crimes of violence, which most alarm the community. They added however that, even if the total number of offences described as a single category increases at a decreasing rate or eventually plateau's, as the offences described as typically committed by adolescents decrease, various offences grouped in the category may not. By way of example, the Australian statistics analysis using data provided by Australian police agencies, uses generic categories such as **Larceny** and **Serious Assaults**. With respect to the first, as teenagers who have been involved in theft, age and enter the workforce, there may be associated increases in employee theft, credit card fraud, becoming computer assisted or targeted. Secondly, the nature of specific types of serious assaults may change. Antisocial behaviour and interpersonal conflict may convert to domestic violence may also rise as these teenagers from the post-baby-boomer era, the *baby boomer echo* (Wilson 1991), go through their life span.

5.4.2. Summary

Irrespective of the trends and the formulae applied to the allocation of police resources to the control of crime and social disorder, is has been demonstrated that there is significant concern about current and future levels of crime . Despite the fact that crime is a problem largely driven by forces beyond police control, an array of crime control strategies; organisational policies, procedures and activities are employed by Australian police agencies including SAPOL to translate community and governmental demands into action; matching organisational resources to the exigencies of the task environment. There is a tradition of crime control and prevention in Australian police departments. This itself requires some analysis if changes are to be recommended, in attempts to actually provide improved and concomitantly, acceptable, levels of control.

5.5. Crime in Australia: Control and Prevention

Discussions of the causes of crime, and of crime rates and trends, inevitably involves questions concerning the activities of police organisations, whose corporate objectives and activities includes the control of crime. SAPOL, for example, espouses as its Mission:

> "To ensure a safe and peaceful environment for South Australia through a community based police service." (SAPOL, 1994).

The success of this Mission, through the pursuit of Corporate Goals concerned with crime prevention and reduction and preservation of peace, via high levels of police professionalism and efficient resource management, is relative, but as has been demonstrated, is not sufficient. Crime is increasing and the community is becoming alarmed. This is despite the fact that, as Ryan (1985), observed,

> "There's no evidence that the police have become stupider, idler, more crooked or less interested in the job than they used to be." (Ryan, 1985, p382)

5.5.1. Traditional Methods of Control versus Accountability

There is evidence however, that does point to those aspects of crime control and prevention that are within police control, to traditional methods of improving the effectiveness of organisational business activity. As has been suggested, these methods centre around criminal justice responses and logistic approaches. For example, there are now, more police per head of population (Swanton ***et al***, 1985; Bayley, 1990) and police are paid relatively more than they were as the public and the police demanded that governments increase police resources to combat growing criminal activity (Chappell, 1989). [As an aside, it is interesting to note the findings of Green (1991), and Savery and Bushe-Jones (1992), who claimed that police salaries were being eroded in the 1990s. They pointed to the contemporaneous increase in enterprise bargaining by government and unions and the difficulty in measuring police output and productivity, as one explanation.]

Chappell (1989), observed that the police to population ratio had increased by almost 30 percent over the previous fifteen years, (see also AIC (1994), and **APPENDIX A**),and the annual expenditure by police departments, taking inflation into account, had increased by approximately 60 percent. A proportion of the employee establishment increases however, occurred in every Australian police agency as a result of industrial activity and the normalisation of industrial conditions rather than as a governmental response to increased criminal activity, (McAuley, 1989). McAuley cited the SAPOL example, which involved a 25% increase in personnel in the early 1970s as the South Australian Government tried to offset costs following the introduction of the payment for overtime hours worked. In the mid 1980's, there were increases in SAPOL recruit intakes to maintain customer service following the introduction of the 38 hour week.

Despite these mitigating factors, the increases to economic, technological and human resources in Australian police organisations, have resulted in their being among the largest and the most expensive public sector agencies, (Ryan 1985; Grabosky 1988). Nonetheless, as has been described, these developments have been more than matched over much the same time period by dramatic rises in the commission of serious crime and by a decline in the rates of clearance of these crimes by police in Australia, (Chappell, 1989, and **APPENDIX B**). Despite focus on a 'crime fighting' function, there is a significant body of evidence supporting the contention that increasing police human, technical and administrative resources has no significant impact on the crime rate.

> "It is now apparent that despite massive increases in police personnel and equipment, the magnitude and seriousness of the crime problem has not abated."
> (Engstad and Evans, 1980, p 96-97).

In some respects however, these criticisms are unrealistic and unhelpful, considered in the light of police corporate activity taking place in a milieu of unprecedented changes in society, which police have to adapt to.

> "The police face new and renewed challenges to their traditional modes of operation, posed amongst other things by a heightened public and media concern with lawlessness and wrongdoing, by the escalation in reported crime and by an uncharacteristic assault on the police body politic from a government concerned to improve performance, quality and value for money in *all* publicly funded utilities." (Becker and Stephens, 1994, p1)

Irrespective of their influence or otherwise over causal factors however, police agencies should adopt a constructive responsibility for the fact that corporate objectives are not being achieved. From the perspective of government, it does not make economic or political sense to continue allocating increased resources to police organisations to enable them to maintain the `fight against crime', without some response from police managers concerning how they will produce a turn-around; some more cost-effective result.

Unfortunately for police managers and police government ministers, the production of a cost effective result is very difficult to establish. McAuley (1989) emphasised that

accountability was essential, but a cost-effective result was hard to demonstrate because police productivity was hard to measure. Certainly, no guarantees can be provided to government or the community concerning freedom from crime and social disorder, on the basis of dollars expended. It is quite unhelpful in fact and in this context, to draw analogies between private sector profit-based organisations which thrive or cease to exist on corporate performance and police agencies which exercise little control over their external environment, and are accepted as a necessity of a civilised society. SAPOL, for example cannot run at a profit although the 'user pays' approach may become a viable addition to police management terminology as private policing firms move into the non-legislatively controlled facets of the law enforcement industry, and managers and governments try to rationalise police financial inputs.

Nonetheless, strategic decisions concerning a level of organisational activity somewhere between the two extremes of placing a police officer in every house or on every street corner, versus chaos, crime and social disorder escalating exponentially, should be determined. A situation where crime is presently increasing significantly despite equally significant increases in police resources over the last two decades, may indicate that, in the face of reducing cost effectiveness of present structures, technologies and supporting systems, the critical cut off point has been reached . Certainly that was signalled to SAPOL in 1994 by the Liberal Government, who, in adopting the Recommendations of the South Australian Commission of Audit, underlined their dissatisfaction SAPOL, i.e.,

> "In 1992-93, South Australia spent around 15% above the amount assessed as sufficient to provide a standard level of police service, mainly because of the high police to population ratio."
> (S.A. Commission of Audit, 1994, p49)

Police should not be held accountable for the crime rate. However it is important that they disabuse themselves of the blinkered belief that the performance and expenditure of their agency should somehow avoid scrutiny and audit due to their inability to control the causes of crime. It has been suggested already that there are other, corporate-based reasons, for reduced police effectiveness, which are more amenable to influence, and in these areas, many police agencies have been 'found wanting'. Caiden (1977), reported that the organisational effectiveness of various North American police departments was hampered because they were 'handcuffed' by tradition;- unreceptive to innovation and change.

> "Most police agencies are weighed down by tradition, mythology, and dogma despite unmet public needs, contrary research and development findings, and growing evidence of waste, incompetence, ineptitude and unjustifiable complacency. They continue to replicate the 'useless efforts of the past', perpetuate ineffective law enforcement, and react paranoically to threats or re-organisation and virtually all criticism." (Caiden, 1977, p 318).

Australian police departments faced similar criticism, commencing in the 1980's, where organisational effectiveness was defined as the achievement of stated objectives'- and organisational performance was measured in terms of its impact on the external environment, (Collins, 1985). It is important however, to separate the concepts of efficiency and effectiveness. Robinson (1989), emphasised that they should exist in the

presence of one another, but noted this was not always the case. Collins (1985), described efficiency as resource allocation, management and performance, all of which together, facilitated the smooth running of the organisation; often determined by comparing inputs with outputs. As has been stated, the achievement of corporate objectives, is enhanced if organisational activity is both efficient and effective. They do however, sometimes exist independently. Keeping within budgets and minimising wasted time and duplication of effort (efficiency), can be maintained without achievement of organisational objectives (effectiveness). Conversely, corporate objectives could be achieved at such prohibitive costs and other inefficiencies, that the organisation could bankrupt its resources and its usefulness.

The South Australian Government demanded that SAPOL determine and implement strategies for improved levels of effectiveness and efficiency. This involves SAPOL management deciding core business activities and strategies for maximising effectiveness and efficiency. Management may be hampered by the adherence to outmoded and dysfunctional work practices and management techniques, and also by SAPOL clinging to traditional policing roles. Bittner (1970), identified the diverse functions that police have traditionally been responsible for, as, the detection and prevention of crime; the apprehension and prosecution of offenders; the maintenance of law and order; the handling of sudden deaths; search and rescue co-ordination; traffic flow and organisation; youth aid work, and a host of social service tasks. The SAPOL Corporate Goals reflect that description of role very closely as they have done for generations, (see SAPOL, 1991), and they describe the crime control function as one of seven major goals as follows;

Crime Reduction/Prevention:- to reduce the incidence and effects of crime.

Preserve the Peace:- to enhance public safety and increase feelings of security.

Disaster/Emergency Management:- to minimise the impact of personal emergency and public disaster on the community.

Road Safety: to improve road safety and the efficient management of traffic.

Service to the Community: to provide a service which is equitable, flexible and responsive to the needs of the community.

Professionalism:- to develop professional status through achieving a high level of skill, competency and integrity.

Resource Management:- to use all of the Department's resources in the most efficient and resourceful way.

Despite this diversity of functions, covering effective and efficient intervention in and resolution of crime, emergencies and the maintenance of a peaceful, orderly and safe community, and the evidence identified above that much of police time was spent on matters other than crime control, policing strategies are often oriented, in both the police and public mind towards the one aspect of crime control (Morris and Heal, 1981). The public have an expectation that the police will impose order and reduce crime and have or can be provided with, with the necessary resources to do so, (Waddington, 1986).

This perception may be changing, as deliberate attempts are being made to do so. Police agencies are placing more public and corporate emphasis on their community and service role, even replacing the word 'Force' from their titles, with 'Service',

(Becker and Stephens, 1994). While a broadening of focus may concern some police managers that deterioration of the capacity of the police to successfully tackle crime trends will increase, the rise of community involvement in police crime prevention and resolution programmes, may have the reverse effect and demonstrate that there are viable alternatives to the traditional, non-effective strategies.

Nonetheless, there still exists a tendency for both the effectiveness and efficiency of police performance and police resource needs, to be assessed by crime trends and crime clearance rates. Increases in crime results in police requests to government for more resources, and as clearance rates have declined, (Mukherjee, Neuhaus and Walker, 1990), police blame a lack of resources, personnel and powers, as well as non-police factors (such as family breakdown and unemployment), rather than shortcomings in police performance, or the application of inappropriate methodologies, (Robinson 1989).

5.5.2. The Demand for Alternatives to the Traditional Approach

Manning (1985), observed that the realistic view must be that the 'crime fighting' capabilities of police are, and always will be, limited and that government, and the police themselves are coming to this realisation. Creative, constructive problem-solving approaches however, have been somewhat hindered by the public belief and expectation (partially created by past police activities and traditions imparted to the community), that police activity will ultimately triumph over criminal activity. This

belief has been reinforced in part, by the use of inappropriate police performance indicators based on crime control measurement which persist despite a large body of literature replete with concerns over unreliability of crime statistics and clearance rates as performance indicators, (Bottomley and Coleman, 1981; Finnimore, 1982; Burrows and Tarling, 1987).

In addition, the police and public expectation that increased police human and technical resources were needed to stem the rising tide of criminal activity, is not supported by the evidence. Carr-Hill and Stern (1979), found that there was no clear relationship between police strength and crime rate. There were a number of contaminants including the finding that, increased police numbers increased reported crime figures through either, higher levels of police activity and the greater detection of offences, or the increased reporting of criminal activity by members of the public due to greater accessibility of police officers, or both.

The reality of policing in the 1990s at least, ignoring the growing inroads being made by private policing firms into the peripheral areas of traditional police activity, (at present), means that the complexity of the contemporary corporate police function requires police resources and activities to extend beyond mere 'crime fighting' to a multi-purpose service function; including those

> "...general, often run-of-the-mill, non-crime-related tasks that the police must carry out and which are normally considered [by operational police personnel] to be of low status because these activities rarely constitute 'real' police work."
> (Becker and Stephens, 1994, p2).

The failure of police to meet their organisational objectives concerning crime detection and prevention, and radical environmental economic, social and political changes and constraints, focused government attention and activity in the 1980's and 1990's on the cost efficiency-versus organisational effectiveness of police agencies. Reduced general economic growth and governmental restrictions on spending over a range of public activities and agencies, resulted in police managers being required to seriously question traditional approaches to corporate activities and justify expenses, by reporting on the efficiency of police activities, their effectiveness and to develop strategies aimed at increased productivity with a smaller share of the public purse. One positive outcome of these demands has been that, as government demands for improved productivity became inescapable, police managements have focused on the development of more appropriate organisation-wide performance measures, rather than simplistic and inaccurate crime detection and clear up rates, (Moore, 1992).

5.6. Crime in Australia: Constraints on Police Reaction and Change

5.6.1. The Traditional Paradigms

Police agencies have been generally described as conservative, non-innovative and change resistant and, in that capacity have been defended by conservative politicians and police executives, who argued that the conservatism of police organisations was in the best interests of society; acting as a brake and a pillar of stability in a changeable world, (Southgate and Crisp, 1992). Unfortunately, as Southgate and Crisp also noted,

such traditional approaches relied to a significant extent on regulatory control, and were best supported by paramilitary bureaucracies where initiative, thought and action were not encouraged. Bayley (1989) reviewed the international police organisational climate and commented that successful implementation of changes to policing paradigms, with a focus on service and co-operation rather than on control and force, was generally initially hampered by the traditional structural features of policing and the concomitant attitude towards society's expectations of police as a bastion against anticipated excessive and deleterious social change.

This traditional and conservative idealisation of police role as one of control and force has been bolstered by the perpetuation of the myth of police officers being 'crime fighters' (Caiden, 1977). Even if this is not mythology, it has the effect of tunnelling the vision of politicians and police managers and it is reinforced by the difficulties associated with the resolution of the issue of dynamic and appropriate measurement of effectiveness and efficiency, in the variable social and political environment in which the police organisations operate.

> "It is extremely difficult to devise sets of performance indicators which accurately reflect what the police do, the relative importance of their varied activities, and how well they perform them." (Collins, 1985, p 73).

Bradley (1986), noted that the pressures on police managers to demonstrate results and the difficulties associated with devising meaningful measures, had traditionally resulted in the production of simplistic data; practical, easy to collect, and easy

to analyse. Panzarella (1984), was critical of police managers relying on simplistic indicators of effectiveness, using outputs such as arrest rates, clearance rates, numbers of summonses issued, value of drugs seized/stolen property recovered, or hours of training provided to police. The simplicity of such data allowed for easy manipulation, but the organisation ended up with lists of inputs and outputs, which had political value but provided police management with little strategically useful knowledge of why or how some things worked and others did not, (Wycoff ,1982).

5.6.2. Paradigms shifting

Bayley, (1990), observed that by the late 1980s, there were indications that Australian police executives, while not internalising and implementing paradigm shift thinking, had begun to question the value of traditional organisational styles and structures, recognising that they had at their disposal, the information to create meaningful change, to apply more sophisticated monitors to the use of police resources and to analyse the goodness of fit between resources and differing organisational activities. Initial experiments involving the questioning of traditional wisdom were at best, incrementally innovative, highlighting the difficulty to break with tradition as much as to conserve resources. Pilot programmes aimed at reducing police response times for example were reconsidered and eventually replaced by call prioritising, and differential response systems (McEwen *et al*, 1986). Increased, high profile general patrolling was replaced in some police organisations by directive, specific patrol strategies aimed at increased presence in specific 'trouble spots' (Weiss, 1986).

Nonetheless, by the 1990s, the need for substantial and even radical change in police organisations was being accepted. Moir and Eijkman (1992), commented on an increased willingness by Australian police managers to accept the inadequacies of traditional policing management and resource applications and to experiment with alternatives; to become less isolationist and look beyond their organisation for expert assistance. This willingness to engage in a shift in focus has, as been identified earlier, also been driven by successive governments who demanded that police agencies husband human, technical and monetary resources more carefully across the legitimate diversity of the total police function, (Hogan, 1991).

As policing moves through the 1990s, an increasing number of initiatives have been, and are still being, tested and implemented by police organisations in Australia. They are, for example embracing the concept of organisational *bench marking*, a change process, the objective of which is to analyse existing corporate activities, and then to,

> "...identify an external *point of reference,* [sic] or standard by which that activity can be measured or judged.... The ultimate goal is quite simple: to be better than the best..."
> (Mcnair, CMA and Leibfried, 1992, pp 1-2)

In 1994, SAPOL completed a bench marking pilot project, titled, ***Towards a Benchmark***, aimed at the establishment of best police practice, in terms of a competent, sensitive and efficient police service to the South Australian public, (SAPOL 1994).

In addition, and fuelled by the recognition that crime was a complex problem, beyond the capacity of a police agency to singly influence or control, SAPOL initiated or became involved in multi-agency programmes aimed at crime prevention programmes, focusing community and media attention, sharing knowledge about crime, its causes, its resolution and prevention, (after Sutton, 1994). These strategies and programmes took a number of forms, usefully categorised according to Bottoms' (1990) framework of *situational*, *social* and *developmental* strategies.

Situational initiatives concentrate on changing physical environments to increase the efforts and risks and decrease the rewards for crime. Found to be more effective with property offences, (Clarke, 1992), they typically involve 'Watch' type programmes, (Neighbourhood, Business, Rural and so on), where individuals and organisations are encouraged to establish their own security. They were started in Victoria in 1984 and have been adopted and adapted in every State and Territory, putting emphasis on police sharing responsibility for crime prevention with resident groups, (McMillan, 1992).

The second category, social prevention strategies involves attempts,

> "...to reduce offending by changing the patterns of behaviour, the values and the self-discipline of groups seen as most likely to be drawn into crime." (Sutton, 1994, p217).

These methods represent innovative endeavours to educate youth in socially acceptable behaviour patterns, reducing sources of possible antipathy between them and police and providing safe social meeting places in line with parents' expectations and needs. It can

dovetail neatly with the third and final category; developmental crime prevention, which aim to identify families under stress and provide them with support on a voluntary basis, particularly when children are in the formative years.

Such strategies are examples, and form part of the incorporation by police agencies of the phenomenon of *Community Policing,* the philosophy of which revolved around the notion that police did not operate in a vacuum, could not succeed if treated as such, and needed communities to take some responsibility for crime prevention, (after Tate, 1989). In South Australia, this included the field trials and assessment of other creative alternatives to conventional law enforcement such as Problem-Oriented Policing (POP), (see Eck and Spelman, 1987; West and Thomson, 1991). In contrast to the traditional police approach of responding to reported or detected incidents, POP encourages the identification of recurring problems, the analysis of their underlying causes, and the development of policies and practices directed at their abatement. Resources are focused on the cause rather than the symptoms of a problem and the methodology involves police taking an active part in looking beyond their immediate domain and organisational brief to undertake broader analyses of public safety. Solutions which flow from this approach typically involve a variety of public and private resources. POP involves analytical skills, initiative and commitment by operational police officers, supervisors and management and represents a shift in focus from an insular approach, relying on co-operation between police and other public and private sector organisations and individuals, (Grabosky, 1988).

Millbank (1991) reported that crime prevention and control strategies over the previous fifteen years indicated that the police are less liable to be expected to operate in isolation as lamented by Tate (1989). Contemporary strategies have been based on a recognition that the problem of crime and social disorder was (and is) bigger than a police organisation's ability to cope with it. Governments are recognising that the problem involves the application of the principles of social justice in its broadest sense, (Hogan 1991), and therefore is the responsibility of the police, the government, other criminal justice agencies and the community in general. The Federal Government, through its Social Justice initiatives and the South Australian Government, through its Justice and Consumer Affairs Committee, both initiated broad-based programmes to address the issues, in a sense, on behalf of the police, (Halstead, 1991).

> "Social justice is a focal point of Commonwealth Government policy and the principle that all Australians have equal rights to access the benefits and opportunities offered by a caring, industrious and successful society is vitally important."
> (Halstead, 1991 p2).

5.6.3. Impacts on HR Policies

Changes in policing strategies,- from the traditional to the community based, the reactive to the proactive, will affect and also in turn, be affected by police human resources. Since approximately 90% of Australian police departments' expenditures relate to human resources (Grabosky, 1988), police management have been encouraged to consider corporate activity in the light of the choice of the most appropriate staff and

their most effective and efficient use in the implementation, administration and evaluation of new initiatives expected by government and the community. As policing publicly moves away from the traditional focus of 'crime fighting' to embrace more of the service component of policing, (Becker and Stephens, 1994), changes to the ways human resources are selected, trained, developed, promoted and deployed will need to be considered, beyond the relatively superficial creation and use of crime prevention units, (Bayley, 1990).

The importance of human resource to the success of policing and the recognition by management that this is so, resulted in a number of HR focused initiatives in Australian police departments including SAPOL. This approach has been fuelled also by pressure from unions and government, via changing industrial legislation, as well as legitimate management recognition of the importance of staff. One example, *civilianisation,* was described by Grabosky (1988), as the re-allocation of certain duties traditionally performed by sworn police personnel; clerical, technical and courier work, to non-sworn police employees. Its aim is to more accurately match the person to the job and free sworn police officers to perform the tasks for which they were originally trained and which only they are qualified to perform including, of course, crime control and prevention. This process relies on and involves decisions being made about the priorities, resource usage and performance of the whole organisation in relation to its reason for existence, (Davis, Weller and Lewis, 1989), and the organisation deciding on the precise nature of its business and even divesting itself of peripheral activities.

The second HR initiative resulted from concern over separation rates. Personnel turnover entails significant costs to any work organisation, (Schuler, *et al*, 1988), including the cost of replacing staff, in terms of both time and money. This could be partially defrayed if former members were considered for re-employment. The SAPOL resignation rate had, over the years, resulted in the loss of a substantial number of experienced personnel, but until the late 1980s, the department had assiduously pursued a policy, unlike many other police agencies, of non-re-enlistment. Those who resigned did so, knowing that they could never return. In the late 1980s however, this policy was rescinded and SAPOL management introduced *re-enlistment,* recognising that some individuals may wish to return to the police working environment and could bring with them, enlivened motivation, life and occupational skills and perhaps a more mature and settled attitude to the work-place.

By the early 1990s, p*art-time employment,* had also been introduced into the SAPOL working environment, reflecting management recognition that some jobs could be done on a part-time or job-share basis and maximising the possibility that skilled employees with conflicting commitments need not be lost to the organisation.

Without reference to the SAPOL external environment, such as the crime rate described here, the introduction of these three HR initiatives alone represents a need within SAPOL to reassess current recruit selection processes and a range of other HR activities, such as training, development and career planning. Consideration of the rising crime rate fuelling the concerns of the community, and the demands of government, also raises questions about the appropriateness of present systems, in

terms of their capacity to identify applicants with the abilities and skills to implement the required organisational changes; to be radically innovative if necessary, rather than merely follow some traditional and increasingly dysfunctional paradigm, (from Kanter, Stein and Jick, 1992). Improved co-operative programmes between public and police, increasing sophistication of technology and the diversity in society and the police workforce, all indicate a need for critical assessment of organisations as HR strategies, starting with recruitment or re-enlistment of new members. For example,

> "... staff should no longer be recruited **en masse**, according to lowest common denominator requirements and trained on the discredited assumptions of uniformity." (Tate, 1989, p10).

5.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter identified community concerns over crime trends and the rising crime rate, and discussed community and government's expectations that police agencies radically improve both effectiveness and efficiency in pursuit of their corporate goals. These demands and the realisation, in the face of government criticism and financial constraints, that corporate goals were not being achieved, were described as bringing these agencies, traditional and change resistant, face to face with the realities of new business environments and the pressing need to consider change. These included the need for increased co-operation between police and the communities they were

protecting and programmes concerning the way they did business which would rely in turn on the types of employees required to achieve revised and innovative corporate goals.

CHAPTER SIX

THE ENVIRONMENTAL ASSESSMENT: DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

This Chapter describes the process and results of the environmental scan and assessment of two important aspects of the SAPOL operating environment. These are crime trends and forecasts for selected significant categories of crime to the Year 2000-2001 for Australia and South Australia, and secondly, the recruit selection in use in 1995 by other Australian police agencies and compared with SAPOL. The problems associated with the collection and analysis of Australian crime statistics and recruit selection data are discussed and the results of the analysis are presented for discussion in Chapter Seven.

6.1. Crime Trends and Forecasts

6.1.1. 'The Problems with Facts'

> "There are three kinds of lies. Lies, damned lies, and statistics!"
> (Benjamin Disraeli; in Bullock and Stallybrass, 1977, p 598)

British Prime Minister Disraeli's famous cynical critique of statistical analysis, has been echoed and continued to the present, where statistical data are used as support for argument on a range of controversial subjects. This may be particularly so in the present context, where the subject under discussion, crime statistics, can be as evoking

of opinion and feeling in individuals and communities, as the effect of criminal activity itself. Wilson(1992), echoing Disraeli, noted the role and activities of the media in creating this controversy and which, by presenting and passing comment on statistics-based information, at times did not clearly reflect reality, justifying instead their action in terms of

> "**The Uneasy Alliance**....[in that] Reporters and police depend on each others' patronage in order for each to engage in their respective professions." (Wilson, 1992, p177)

Such public interpretations have not been made any more substantial by the findings of a number of studies, which reported that traditionally official crime statistics typically had unacceptably low measurement validity, (Bottomley and Coleman, 1980; Wycoff and Manning, 1983),

6.1.2. The Problems of Collection

The increasing crime rate, community perception and concern about crime, media interest, and government expectations about police corporate efficiency and effectiveness, as well as internally driven factors, encouraged police executives to examine the eclectic manner in which their organisations performed their primary functions of crime prevention and order maintenance, (after Braithwaite and Pettit, 1990). The collection of crime statistics as a critical support activity facilitating, operational planning, staffing levels, and as has been noted, requests to government for increased resources was also subject to critical judgement, at a local and national level.

Moore (1992), noted that traditional approaches to the collection and analysis of crime figures were cumbersome, imprecise and agency specific. This last, disallowed meaningful national comparisons and inhibited the development of integrated corporate strategies, both intra-and inter-agency. Hagan (1988) observed that these statistics were based on who did what, when, how often, and, more recently, with the increased emphasis on victims needs, to whom; commented that the data would increase in usefulness if the questions of who is counting what, whom, where and why were able to be answered. This would permit for example, the making of significant comparisons between Australian communities and states, and provide impetus for concerted and integrated efforts to combat crime and its attendant destructive personal, social and economic consequences.

There have been a number of recent attempts to measure crime in Australia along nationally uniform lines, (see Vernon and Bracey, 1989). These stemmed originally from an acknowledgement by the 1961 Australian Police Commissioners' Conference, that crime databases were parochial and lacked comparability between Australian States, thus prohibiting the compilation of uniform Australian crime statistics, (Mukherjee, Neuhaus and Walker, 1990) That Conference resolved that police and governments alike should aim to produce comparable current crime data Australia-wide, so that the incidence and the developing trends of some of the more serious crimes both for the States and Australia as a whole could be monitored if not anticipated. This resolution was eventually implemented in 1964. Selected headings for the categories of crimes on which national data were to be collected, were determined, using the criteria of seriousness, frequency of occurrence and the

likelihood of the incident being reported to police. In 1985, the Police Commissioners' Australian Crime Statistics Sub-Committee expanded the list of selected crimes, known as the Selected Crime Statistics (SCS). These statistics related to incidents reported or becoming known to police and concerned *homicide*, *serious assault*, *robbery*, *rape* (including serious sexual assault), *burglary* (break, enter and steal), *motor vehicle theft*, *larceny* (stealing), and *fraudulent offences*, (Mukherjee, Neuhaus and Walker, 1990). By the early 1990's the offence category of a*rson* was added, and drug related data were being inputted for future inclusion, (Australian Institute of Criminology, 1994).

The problem of comparability remains however, despite a number of moves since the 1960's to address and improve the qualitative and quantitative information available about crime rates, (NUCSC, 1989). One such attempt was a resolution, passed by the Australian Police Ministers Council (APMC), in November 1987, recommending the promulgation of the National Uniform Crime Statistics Committee (NUCSC) In April of 1989 this Committee presented its first full Report to the APMC, iterating the need for uniform crime statistics Australia-wide as necessary for the accurate determination of the nature and extent of crime, its effect on society, and for the facilitation of informed decision-making on the part of Federal and State governments. It also recommended the formation of a National Crime Statistics Unit (NCSU), to act as an operational 'arm' of and subordinate to the Committee, working in close co-operation with the various police agencies in the development, production and publication of uniform national crime statistics. In an update to Mukherjee and Dagger, (1990), the Australian Institute of Criminology (1994), noted however that with the advent of the

1990s the problems were yet to be overcome; that tabulated and graphical presentation of crime rates and discussion of crime trends were still subject to a number of serious shortcomings. These problems of comparability are described briefly below.

(I) Purposes of collection.

Australian crime statistics are traditionally drawn from two sources. Primarily, from the eight Australian Police Department Annual Reports after they have been tabled in the respective Parliaments, and also, from supplementary information collected by the Australian Bureau of Statistics and published annually.

The raw crime data collected by police, have to suit a range of purposes, not just the annual statutory obligation to the Parliament. For example, information pertinent to a broad range of criminal activity is collected, sometimes on a daily basis, collated, analysed and circulated internally, to police management and operational/field areas. It is accepted as a management tool, providing 'intelligence' on local criminal activity, enabling a focus on police workload and performance, and adding impetus to planning, evaluation and other organisational processes and programmes, both internally and where interaction with other criminal and social justice agencies is involved. Purpose and utilisation therefore influences the types of information gathered, the techniques applied to its harvesting, and the processes of collation, analysis and dissemination. Wolfgang (1971), identified ten purposes of official crime

statistics involving police government and community interest group focus, but as Feldman (1993) observed, their achievement of purpose rests on the accuracy of the collection and the picture they present. This in turn can be skewed according to the original purpose for which they were collected as well as by the following potential inhibitors.

(2). Data analysis

Despite the focus of police corporate objectives on the detection and prevention of crime and management's assessment of organisational success and resource needs on the basis of crime levels and crime clearance rates, traditional crime data analyses have been less than sophisticated, (Morris and Heal, 1981). More recently, the NUCSC (1989), again reported that Australian police departments were not recognising the full value of such data or maximising its use:- that a large number of persons and resources were devoted to the collection of crime-related data but the resources required to provide for conceptual research and development varied between departments and were generally inadequate.

(3) Definition of offences.

National uniformity of crime statistics has also been hampered by the variability of criminal offence definitions between States. Each State has its own Criminal Code and the various offence classifications in these statutes vary from State to State. For example, in the late 1980s, the legal descriptions of terms like sexual

assault and rape, were changed radically in South Australia, to include the concept of rape in marriage and the rape of males (Wilson, 1987). Similarly, simple terms like 'weapon', or 'attempt' prove deceptive and also vary widely in their definition and usage.

Standardisation of definitions, has been attempted at the national level, via the development of the national offence classification system. This was recommended by the NUCSC (1989), as one way of alleviating differences in legislation, and circumventing the need to consider nation-wide legislative changes, which, based on attempts to introduce national uniformity in other spheres, (e.g. daylight saving), could prove to be a task of gigantic, if not impossible proportions. The Australian National Classification of Offences (ANCO) was developed by the Australian Bureau of Statistics to provide a framework of classifying offences primarily for statistical purposes;- a framework which could be applied at various levels of detail by police, courts, legal aid, corrections and other agencies involved in crime and justice. The Australian Institute of Criminology (1994), noted however, that substantial differences still existed between the states and that even federal bodies like themselves and the Australian Bureau of Statistics (see ABS report of National Crime Statistics 1993), used different offence categories and counting rules.

(4) Recording/processing offenders and offences.

The criminal justice systems in the various States maintain idiosyncratic recording systems;- records of reported offences, and the ways offenders are processed and recorded. For example, co-defendants may be recorded as one offence in one State while in others, they may be recorded separately, creating a second offence from the same situation.

(5) Changes in legislation.

The perceived significance of local issues, and concerns with potential local impact of global issues, can result in demands being made on State Governments by community groups, local law enforcement, the judiciary and welfare agencies. These in turn can result in changes to State criminal and social legislation and the way in which offences are categorised and with the way offenders are dealt with by the judicial system. In addition, the priorities of government and their perception of their role can result in legislative initiatives varying from State to State.

(6) Social attitudes/mores.

The issues regarded as significant by the communities and governments will reflect the attitudes and values of those groups and this can have a significant influence, not only on the enactment of legislation, but also the enforcement of

legislation already 'on the books' and the prosecution of offences. Mugford (1992), for example, noted that changing community attitudes and the considerable disagreement that is evident with respect to the validity and usefulness of existing legislation concerned with the possession, use and selling of prohibited substances, (drugs). This was apparent in the policing of drug laws and the prosecution of offenders involved at the lower end of the drug culture, (the so-called recreational users), as the use of drugs controlled by those laws apparently continues to increase. The accuracy of crime statistics is obviously therefore affected by the attitudes of community members, whose opinions of the laws, their worth of society and of the police themselves, will determine whether or not they contact the police with information relating to criminal activity. In addition, these attitudes can also determine whether police becoming aware of such activity decide to act on it or not.

(7) Summary

It is important to remember when contemplating crime statistics, that they represent the incidence of *reported* crime; an imperfect reflection of the true rate of crime (McEwin, 1989). The figures concerning the incidence of ***reported*** rape in Australia for example, indicate a dramatic increase of over 150%, from 1973 to 1987, for all jurisdictions, (Mukherjee, Neuhaus and Walker, 1990). These figures may reflect very little concerning the actual incidence of rape in the community, but rather that victims are more confident in asserting their right to justice and support, are being taken more seriously,

and are therefore reporting the occurrence more frequently. An inference is made that societal attitudes to the offence of rape is changing and that the blame is increasingly being placed where it belongs; on the shoulders of the offenders not the victim. (Wilson, 1987).

Finally, by way of summing up, the Australian Institute of Criminology (1994), in its publication updating crime data, emphasised that,

> " It is important to note that major differences exist between jurisdictions in the ways they count statistics of crimes reported to police. This means that it is [still] not possible. to compare numbers or rates of reported crime across jurisdictions." (Australian Institute of Criminology, 1994, p1)

6.1.3. Crime Data

(1) Data Collection

Limitations to the accurate and meaningful analysis and interpretation of Australian crime statistics, identified above were considered in the context of the present study. Data and information relating to SAPOL and the SAPOL internal and external working environment, as well as Australian crime rates and crime trends, were taken from the data provided by Mukherjee, Scandia, Dagger and Matthews (1989), Mukherjee and Dagger, (1990), and the Australian Institute of Criminology, (AIC), (1994). Data concerning significant offence categories, was extracted for South Australia, and unless

otherwise specified, to the overall Australian trends. In this way the present author sought to make broad brush comparisons only, complying with the *caveat* provided by the AIC; that is,

> "...it is reasonable [only] to compare rises and falls over time across jurisdictions even if the actual numbers and rates are not comparable." (Australian Institute of Criminology, 1994, p1)

The categories of crime identified above for the Selected Crime Statistics (SCS), and presented here, are used by the AIC to describe the significant crime trends across each jurisdiction and for Australia in general. Table 5.1. below, provides some of the characteristics of categories used in the present study, and defines the breadth of each which facilitated the multi-jurisdictional collation.

(2) Statistical Analysis.

The crime data collected from the AIC sources identified above correspond to the selected categories (see Figure 5.1),for Australian jurisdictions combined, including South Australia, a total of eight jurisdictions, (**APPENDIX C1**), and separately, for South Australia, (SA), (**APPENDIX C2**). Data were collected for the categories and jurisdictions across the time period represented by the financial years 1973-1974 to 1992-1993 inclusive, and is presented as a rate per 100,000 head of population.

Table 6.1. Characteristics of the categories of common serious crimes

CRIME	DEFINITION	FACTS
Homicide	Unlawfully causing the death of another person	- the least frequently committed violent crime. - majority of killers are relatives, friends or acquaintances of the victim
Rape/Serious Sexual Assault	Unlawful sexual intercourse with another person by-force, or without consent	- Rapes constitute almost 10% of serious violent crime - Most rapes involve lone offenders and lone victims
Serious Assault	Unlawfully and intentionally inflicting serious bodily injury, or unlawful threat or attempt to inflict bodily injury. This includes grievous bodily harm, malicious wounding, assault occasioning actual bodily harm, and aggravated assault.	- the most frequent serious violent crime - have tripled during the 1980s - most victims do not require hospitalisation -
Robbery	Unlawful removal or taking of property or attempted removal or taking of property without consent, by force or by threat of force immediately before or after the event.	- account for about 30% of all serious violent crime - about 30% involve the use of weapons.
Burglary	unlawful entry of a dwelling/house or any other premises such as business, school, shop, etc., with or without force, with the intent to steal.	- 25% occur without forced entry - 90% on dwellings entry gained through door or window - private dwellings targeted about 60% of burglaries - 50% of residential burglaries occur during daylight when homes generally empty
Larceny	Unlawful taking of property other than motor vehicle without force and without deceit.	- the most frequent property crime, at 40% of all property crimes - 50% involve shoplifting
Motor Vehicle Theft	Unlawful using or attempted using of a motor vehicle without the consent of the owner.	- nearly 2% of all vehicles registered were targets of theft. - most are reported to police (a requirement for insurance claims).
Fraud/forgery etc.	Unlawful acts committed or attempted involving deception, misappropriation, forging uttering, counterfeiting etc..	- increasing sharply in the 1980s, particularly credit card fraud.

adapted from; Mukherjee, S., Neuhaus, D. and Walker, J., ***Crime and Justice in Australia***, Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra, 1990, p3

The tabulated crime rates relating to each crime category for Australia and for SA, were subjected to further analysis, conducted in stages, as follows;

(a) Stage One, Figures for each category, for both Australia and SA, were extracted from the matrix and presented in tabular and graphical form, (**APPENDIX C3** to **C11**).

(b) Stage Two. Observation of the graphical form identified in *Stage One* above revealed a linear functional pattern to the in the groups plotted. Linear regression analysis was applied to data from each category for both Australia and South Australia, to determine the significance of any variation of the rates for each crime category over time; - the existence and strength of any relationship between year and crime rate, using the *Coefficient of Determination*, (r^2), (also, **APPENDIX C3** to **C11**). This provided a basis for a forecast of crime rates to be calculated as well as comparisons between the crime mixes for chosen categories of crime and years.

NOTE: The categories of ROBBERY and STEALING were both subject to an exponential smoothing technique to enhance the reliability of the data prior to forecasts being calculated.

(c) Stage Three. The results of the regression analysis, specifically the calculation of the constants was used to calculate a forecast crime rates for each category for both Australia and SA for the financial year 2000/1, presented in each Table as Year 28, (also, **APPENDIX C3** to **C11**).

(d) Stage Four. The significance of the forecasts for each category was then calculated, converting the *Coefficient of Determination*, (r^2) to a *t statistic,* **(APPENDIX C12)**.

NOTE: *due to the insignificant changes observed in the homicide rate for both groups over the time periods studied, in the statistics calculated so far, homicide figures were excluded from further quantitative analyses.*

(e) Stage Five. Percentage changes in crime rate for each category were calculated over the time spans 1978-79 to 1992-93, **(APPENDIX C13)**, and 1992-93 to 2000-2001, **(APPENDIX C14)**, using the forecast data, for both Australia and SA.

(f) Stage Six. For the purpose of the present study, the crime figures and rates for the categories studied were taken to represent 100% of the crime reported over the time periods under discussion. Crime rate data for each category including the forecast data were converted to a percentage of the total crime figure for that time period. Three time periods are represented and presented; that is 1984/5, 1992/3 and 2000/1, **(APPENDIX C15)**. These time frames were chosen to present one time period (1984/5), eight years behind the most recent data available and presented (1992/3), given that the forecast was for a time period (2000/1) is eight financial years ahead of that 1992/3 period. The percentage figures provided, represent the crime mix for those periods.

(g) Stage Seven. Crime mix figures were separated for ease of analysis for South Australia and Australia (see **APPENDIX C16**). The resulting tables consisted of unrelated ordinal data so a X^2 analysis was used to determine the significance of any differences between the crime mixes over the three time periods, (see also **APPENDIX C16**).

6.1.4. Results of Crime Data Analysis

Stage One and *Stage Two* analyses provide an overview which indicates that for all categories except for Homicide, (see **APPENDIX C3**), the crime rate rose significantly from the financial year 1973/4 annually to 1992/3. The category of Homicide, was, with some minor variations unchanged. During the time period studied, the rate in SA fell from 2.51 to 1.98 per 100,000 head of population, while for Australia, this trend was repeated, that is from 2.16 to 1.96 per 100,000 head of population. Consequently, it was excluded from further analysis and consideration.

For all other categories, (**APPENDIX C4** to **C11**), the rise was statistically significant and was mirrored from the South Australian figures to Australia as a whole.

The forecast of the crime rate for all categories for South Australia and for Australia to the financial year 2000/1 was calculated (**APPENDIX C4** to **C11**), and a strong functional relationship between year and crime rate, (significant to the .005 level;

APPENDIX C12), allowed the forecast to be used in further analysis and discussion with considerable confidence.

The calculation of percentage increases identified above, across the categories to the year 2000/1 are presented as **APPENDIX C13** and **APPENDIX C14**. The percentage changes were calculated for the financial years 1978/9, (the first year that South Australia collected and provided figures for the category Break, Enter and Steal - Dwelling; (BESD)), the most recently available annual figures, 1992/3, and the forecast data, 2000/1. The tables presented demonstrate a variable increase across the categories but over the time period 1978/9 to 1992/3 the level of crime, across Australian jurisdictions for the categories included, increased by an average of 126.78%. The figure for South Australia is more extreme, with an average increase across the same categories of 172.87%. The forecast period, 1992/3 to 2000/1 was calculated with a further predicted increase in average crime rate, albeit reduced; that is, 36.09% for Australia overall and 32.97% for South Australia.

The analysis of the crime mix, the final stages of the present analysis, (**APPENDIX C15**). The results of the X^2 analysis, presented below as Table 6.1. demonstrates that

Table 6.2. The x^2 analysis of crime mix for selected years, (from **APPENDIX C16**)

	1984/5 cf 1992/3	1992/3 cf 2000/1
South Australia	1.5702#	0.0563#
Australia	0.8236#	0.2792#

NOTE: # = not significant at the 0.05 level

there was no overall significant difference in the crime mix between the time periods of 1984/5 and 1992/3, and 1992/3 and 2000/1, (see also **APPENDIX C16**). While the crime rates in the categories analysed rose, (see above), there was no significant disproportionate increase in one category at the expense of another. (NOTE: The 1984/5 year was chosen as an interpolative time span with 1992/3 as the pivotal year:- forecasting forward nine years to 2000/1).

6.2. Australian Police Agencies Recruitment and Selection Programmes:

The second aspect of the environmental assessment presented here, involved the collection and descriptive analysis of recruit selection programme data from other Australian police departments in order to make comparisons between agencies and assist in the provision of bench mark related decisions in the SAPOL context.

It is the professional experience of the present author, (for over twenty years), that the collation of appropriate data from other police agencies around Australia by one of their number has never been a difficult task. Distance, the parochial nature of criminal and police activities, combined with other cultural and demographic factors make competitiveness between the states and territories police services generally unnecessary and engenders willingness of those organisations to share knowledge and experience. This is despite the rivalry which can result where 'cases' which are multi-jurisdictional and, as has already been identified, the desire of governments to provide a national focus and a united front against crime which culminated in Federal bodies such as the National Crime Authority (NCA), sometimes criticised for working at cross purposes with State police agencies.

The recruitment of appropriate employees may however become more competitive in the near future courtesy of the push, to, on one hand reduce police corruption and change agency culture by poaching experienced officers, and on the other, increase the industrial might of police unions by placing all under a federal union. A third factor may be soon evident. There is a move by the Australasian Police Commissioners' Conference, in response to the proposed national Disability Discrimination legislation and the national bodies concerned with the industry-wide introduction of competency based learning and training principles, to nationalise the policing industry to assist with the easement of these imperatives into the respective agencies.

6.2.1. Collection of Data

Australian police agency recruit selection policies and procedures were obtained by the author with the assistance of the staff of the SAPOL Recruiting Unit. The Recruiting Sections for each Australian police agency were contacted by telephone and asked to forward the following reference material and information.

(a). Copies of brochures normally provided to applicants which explained the details of that agency's recruit selection process.

(b). Departmental documents able to be released, which described the philosophy, nature and details of that agency's recruiting policy, practice and procedures.

This information was critically examined by both the author and the staff of SAPOL Recruiting Unit. Where apparent anomalies or ambiguity existed, those agencies were contacted by SAPOL Recruiting staff, again by telephone, and asked for clarification. The information gained from those agencies has been summarised and is presented in tabular form as **APPENDIX D1** to **D6**. The tables are discussed below with the following cautionary and explanatory notes.

(1) Cautionary notes

(i) The information collected and interpreted below is current to January 1995 only.

(ii). New South Wales recently completed a review recruiting processes.

> " [They]... examined the management of the present system of recruitment, the application of present policy guidelines the current physical, and educational standards, the pre-requisite skills requirements, and aptitude and psychological testing.: (NSW Police Service, 1992, pIV).

while other states, such as Victoria, South Australia, Western Australia and the Australian Federal Police are currently engaged in analyses of their recruiting policies and practice.

Within the SAPOL framework, an extensive and longitudinal review of recruiting strategy, policy and procedures is underway as at December 1995. This was commenced following the completion of an interim

internal report, by Knuckey *et al*, (1994), reviewing SAPOL recruiting practices and the suspension in March 1995 of recruitment practices, for a minimum of twelve months, as South Australian government initiatives concerning SAPOL restructuring and refinancing parameters are finalised. It is not expected that the SAPOL Recruiting Review will be completed until mid 1996.

(iii) The National Police Research Unit (NPRU), based in Adelaide is also undertaking nation-wide research into Australian policing recruitment policy and practice, with emphasis on a general policing uniform duties job analysis and recommendations concerning the appropriate job testing batteries and psychological assessment tools. This research was initiated by the Conference of Commissioners of Police of Australasia and the South West Pacific Region meeting in 1992 and is incomplete at the time of writing. Agencies have expressed strong interest in incorporating any recommendations when they become available. At the time of writing, the first findings have been released; see, Hogg and Wilson, (1995).

(iv) All agencies have commenced critical analysis of their recruiting strategies in the light of recent comments by the Federal Disability Discrimination Commissioner, Elizabeth Hastings. For example, in a letter to the Manager of the Health Services Division of the Australian Federal Police, dated 20 September 1995 she stated,

" ...I have an interest in the application by the Police Services, and other employers, of exclusionary standards which may discriminate against people with disabilities. I will continue to raise this issue in my meetings with relevant Ministers..." (Hastings, 1995, p1)

In response to Ms Hastings interest and warning, the Australian police services are preparing submissions for the consideration of the Australian Government Solicitor, and the Federal Disability Discrimination Commissioner, in relation to their responsibilities under the Commonwealth Disability Discrimination Act, 1995,(DDA).

(v) Finally, the information received from each police department was summarised for inclusion here in tabular form. Each table contains relatively homogeneous information which can be viewed in isolation and also as part of the completed process. Terminology used by each agency has been retained where possible unless definitions indicated that a generic term was suitable for economy of space.

6.2.2. *Discussion of Australian Police Agencies Recruiting Procedures*

(1) Recruit Selection Statistics 1993-1994

This information is presented in **APPENDIX D1**, and is included as an overview, providing figures of general interest which may assist in placing the recruiting activities of each agency in an organisational and strategic perspective.

The number of applications processed by each State varied significantly during the 1993-1994 financial year; from 650 in Tasmania to 3500 in New South Wales (NSW). This reflects marketing practices adopted, energy expended by the organisation in attracting new employees, public image, salaries and other forms of remuneration and work conditions offered, the availability of suitable alternative employment and the level and cut-off points of pre-requisites demanded by the agency before a formal application can be accepted. In addition, it reflects agency and government policy concerning agency growth, commitment to 'law and order' and separation rates.

The number of successful applicants; those that were offered and accepted employment also varied significantly; from 26 in the Northern Territory to 1000 in New South Wales. This figure is also dependent on the government and agency policies and initiatives. In SAPOL for example, during 1993-1994, 85 applicants accepted offers of employment. This represents a 10% acceptance rate of all applications processed and offsets the actual/expected separation rate for that financial year, rather than the number of applicants who were found to be suitable when measured against the selection criteria. A 'no growth' policy has driven SAPOL recruitment programmes and HR systems since the late 1980s.

The importance each department places on the recruiting function, the complexity and frequency of recruiting activities, the size of the agency and the number of applicants processed, may all be relevant when assessing the number

of full time staff dedicated to this work activity. Significant variability exists between agencies. Tasmania supports one full time O/R (Other Rank; holding the rank of Senior Constable or Constable), while there are eighteen staff in NSW including one Commissioned Officer, three supervisors (NCOs), six O/Rs and eight clerical staff. The number of staff can, if the agency focuses on recruiting as a significant organisational activity, determine the complexity of that function. That is for example, the extent to which those engaged in the recruiting aspects of the HR function can engage in detailed marketing activities as against being fully occupied engaged in relatively clerical routine activities.

(2) Entry requirements 1994

Discussion with recruiting staff indicated that one of the long term goals of the Conference of Commissioners of Police of Australasia and the South West Pacific Region was to introduce tertiary level education as a standard for entry. The data collected and presented in **APPENDIX D2**, demonstrated that the education standard required for entry in some agencies was not yet at the tertiary level. Western Australia is the only agency with the standard for entry less than success at Year 12. Tasmania has no such educational requirement, having adopted the philosophy that the Entrance Examination and subsequent stages of the selection process would be sufficient to select out those with an inadequate academic background.

Other agency prerequisites listed in **APPENDIX D2**, identify the range of attributes considered important by each agency, both as a ways of removing less

able applicants from the pool for final selection and to assist in the identification of those who will perform the range of duties required to the necessary standard. Discussions with the various agencies indicated that the cut-off points and the prerequisite criteria had not been demonstrated as essential via empirical job analyses and could marginalise some applicants, possibly precluding otherwise excellent aspirants from becoming highly productive employees. Three examples are the requirements in all agencies for some level of current driver's licence , the necessity in all but two for a First Aid Certificate and in five of the eight for some level of typing skill.

All agencies expressed concern with applicants who presented with a recorded criminal history or transgressions against traffic laws, some conceding that seriousness, recency and frequency of such recorded behaviour were all taken into account in what in most cases was assessed on a case by case basis. New South Wales and Victoria reported having formulae for specific cut off points.

All agencies required that all applicants be of good health. The standards applied varied across agencies and, as for convictions, each case was considered on its own merits, sometimes with the opinions of independent medical specialists being called for.

(3) Recruit Selection Process 1994

This data presented as **APPENDIX D3,** demonstrates multiple aspects of all agencies, as follows;

(a) marketing activities. These were limited to the print media, displays at public entertainment events and visits to educational institutions. This last involved for most agencies, including SAPOL, an aspect of community policing, where designated police officers from police stations developed and maintained relationships with local schools, providing them with personalised contact with the police fraternity, conducting educational programmes on police/public interaction and crime prevention, and presenting a positive public image.

The formal recruit selection process adopted by the different agencies in all cases is multi-stage; from four stages in the Northern Territory to ten in Victoria. All processes included an,

(b) Entrance Examination which assessed reasoning skills and aptitudes, typically literacy, (see also **APPENDIX D4**). All agencies conducted some kind of,

(c) Background Check on the suitability of the applicant. These involved criminal and traffic *record checks* and in some cases included a home visit, (Western Australia), and interviews or form completion from acquaintances and previous employers, (Queensland).

(d) Panel Interviews were conducted by all agencies and, health checks via a, *(e) Medical Examination*. These varied from the completion of a six page questionnaire in South Australia to one page in the AFP.

(f) Psychological Assessments in some form were conducted by all agencies except Queensland and Tasmania.

(g) Physical Agility Tests were not conducted by The Northern Territory police and the AFP.

(h) Final Reviews were conducted by all agencies. This involved collating the data gathered on those applicants who completed the programme, allowing the Selection Panel to conduct some review before making the final selection decision.

(4) Entrance Examination and Psychological Assessment 1994

Each agency, as identified earlier conducted an Entrance Examination as part of the recruit selection process, (see **APPENDIX D4**). The tests and questionnaires used varied across the agencies and the author was unable to accurately determine from each, if local norms had been completed. South Australia and Queensland reported the use of local norms, which in the case of the former were in need of updating, while New South Wales and Western Australia were conducting relevant research to finalise the process of norm development. Table 5.2. below provides a summary of the test batteries, test categories and abilities and skills assessed by each agency in their entrance examination taken from **APPENDIX D4**.

Each agency assessed aspects of reasoning skills in some form, and all except Queensland tested the levels of literacy. Four agencies, (Victoria, Queensland, Western Australia and Northern Territory), assessed numeracy, via numerical reasoning tests. Three agencies only assessed perceptual skills and one memory. Finally, three of the eight agencies administered personality questionnaires.

Table 6.3. Abilities and skills assessed by Australian police departments at entrance examination.

TEST	SA	VIC	NSW	QLD	WA	TAS	NT	AFP
Reasoning	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Literacy	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	yes
Clerical speed	no	no	no	yes	no	no	yes	no
Spatial ability	no	no	no	yes	no	no	no	no
Perceptual skills	no	no	yes	yes	no	yes	no	no
Mechanical reasoning	no	no	no	yes	no	no	no	no
Memory	no	no	no	no	yes	no	no	no
General knowledge	no	yes	no	no	no	no	no	no
Personality Questionnaire	yes	no	no	no	no	yes	yes	no

(5) Recruit Interview Panel Composition 1994

All agencies conducted some form of panel interview although it was clear that some expected a great deal more of the interview process than others, (see **APPENDIX D5**). The factors assessed by the Recruit Interview Panel in the Northern Territory are significantly more than those considered by panels in the Australian Federal Police or SAPOL. In addition of course , given the well known variability of the interview as a selection tool, it is interesting to note

that three of the agencies, including South Australia, do not conduct training for panel members.

Only the Northern Territory and the Australian Federal Police include senior HR managers or HR specialists (such as psychologists) as regular panel members. The composition of the panels also gives rise to concern with respect to Equal Opportunity legislation, in terms of organisational responsibilities to diverse cultural groups and minorities.

(6) Medical and Physical Testing, 1994

All agencies conducted some form of medical assessment to determine the health and medical fitness of applicants, (see **APPENDIX D6**). The standards, as for the pre-requisite health standard, (see **APPENDIX D2**) varied between agencies. South Australia precludes applicants on the grounds of asthma, whereas Victoria has adopted a scale of unacceptability on the basis of advice from the Asthma Foundation, depending on the level and trigger of the attacks.

Work related physical assessments such as physical agility (generally an 'urban' obstacle course, comprising for example, simulated back and front fences) and shuttle runs were utilised by some agencies. The AFP and NT police did not use either techniques.

6.2.3. Summary of Processes

It is evident that there is significant variability between agencies with respect to the prerequisites considered important for entry to a police training programme and work environment, the cut-off points or standards applied and expected of recruit applicants and with respect to those prerequisites and the details of the assessment tools used to extract information with respect to selection criteria. At the time of writing, none have been concerned with the adoption of a single model based on the commonality of police activities across the agencies, except that they have adopted the basic format of multiple predictor style of assessment. As has been suggested above, government pressure both domestic in relation to the improvement of service provided, and nationally, with respect to the development of industry standards, indicates that the status quo is about to change over the next few years. Evaluative data for the processes and their components were not made available to the author.

6.3. Summary

This Chapter has been concerned with describing the difficulties of and cautionary notes with respect to the interpretation of data extracted from the two chosen aspects of the SAPOL operating external environment. The first aspect, the prevailing crime rate was collected on a national and domestic basis and crime trends were forecast to the Year 2001-2001. The current crime rate was demonstrated as having risen across all categories presented, except for Homicide, which was precluded from subsequent

analysis. The crime rate forecast for 2000-2001 was significantly higher than current rates but the crime mix for that year was not significantly different from present rates. The second aspect of the environmental analysis concerned the current recruit selection policies and procedures of the eight Australian police agencies, including South Australia. Results indicated that with some variations, all agencies relied on a multiple predictor approach, employing the assessment tools of entrance examinations, medical and physical assessments, panel interviews and background checks. Evaluative data were not available.

CHAPTER SEVEN

SAPOL RECRUIT SELECTION AND STRATEGIES FOR CHANGE

This Chapter is concerned with a discussion of the issues stemming from the analysis of those factors in the SAPOL working environment that have been assessed in the present study; the crime rate present and as forecast to the financial year 200-2001, and the recruiting practices of the eight Australian police agencies; which includes SAPOL. Discussion of appropriate strategic changes in approach to this HR activity will be followed by recommendations concerning directions for future SAPOL recruiting policy and practice, in an attempt to facilitate the achievement of corporate goals of SAPOL as it approaches the 21st. century.

7.1. The Readiness of SAPOL for Change: An Overview

The successful implementation of change to an organisation's policies and practices, in any strategic sense is more successful if the conditions for change are met. Conditions for success have already been discussed in some detail in Chapter Three, (p 37 *ff*). With respect to the specific context of SAPOL, and before the environmental assessment is discussed and translated into recommendations for organisational change, the following introductory remarks concerning indicators of SAPOL readiness to are made.

Australian police organisations, including SAPOL, are large, certainly when compared with similar law enforcement bodies in the United States and Great Britain, (from Moir

and Eijkman, 1992) and size itself, can be a cumbersome impediment to successful implementation of meaningful, strategic change. Nonetheless, Simpson (1990) identified prerequisites shown to be significant in determining the success of change in large organisations, as follows.

> "Big organisations, as a rule, only change significantly when certain preconditions are met....there must be enormous external pressure....people inside who are strongly dissatisfied with the existing order...and a coherent alternative embodied in a plan, a model or a vision..." (Simpson, 1990, p70)

7.1.1. External Pressure

The external pressures on SAPOL to change have already been identified as significant in Chapter Two. These coalesce in government guidelines and ministerial demands for increased accountability for activities and resources consumed, and the expression of concern by the community and the media, about increases in the crime rate, particularly in those categories which traditionally concerned community members and which have been discussed in Chapter Six.

7.1.2. Internal Dissatisfaction

Simpson's (1990) second precondition, involving strong levels of employee dissatisfaction, has, in the opinion of the present author also been met. Insights

obtained in his role as a SAPOL psychologist, from formal and informal discussions with SAPOL managers, staff and SAPOL employee support colleagues such as chaplains and welfare officers, provide increasing anecdotal evidence for this assertion. (It is noted that, as Gagne (1984), reported, significant insights into the culture, management thinking and organisational communication processes is important to the recommendation and introduction of effective change programmes. It is also recognised however, that the role of the present author guaranteed contacts with dissatisfied managers and staff. Insights gained in this manner were reinforced by information gained from informal and non-clinical employee contacts organisation-wide.)

Internal criticism has focused on the apparent lack of organisational vision, of inappropriate contemporary organisational styles of leadership and communication, and inconsistency in policy application concerning a range of HR issues. Frustration and disenchantment can be witnessed from comments made in the public arena by SAPOL employees: summed up succinctly in the following colourful extract from a letter written by a resignee and published by the South Australia Police Association (SAPA) monthly magazine, ***Police Journal***;

> "I don't wish to tip a bucket on the job as I leave - we all know certain aspects could be much better - but the reality is that it is being made much more difficult than it should be by "out of touch" decision makers, the judiciary, politicians and the ever present police watch dogs."
> (Taylor, ***Police Journal***, Oct. 1995, p35).

In addition, the latter half of 1995 has witnessed industrial unrest and conflict between SAPOL staff and management and Government, unmatched since the mid 1970's when the Dunstan Labor Government, halved the pay rise awarded SAPOL employees, and subsequently, but independently, sacked the SAPOL Commissioner, Harold Salisbury for allegedly misleading Parliament, (see ***The Salisbury Affair***, Cockburn, 1979).

In 1995, The Brown Liberal Government demanded that SAPOL review its management practices and rationalise its staffing levels, via the assessment of the suitability of existing internal organisational structures, technologies and HR systems. This proved to be more complex than anticipated and it became incorporated into current enterprise bargaining negotiations between SAPOL management, SAPA and the Government of South Australia. Dissatisfaction with the progress of the process and its potential outcomes is encapsulated in a message from the SAPA President Peter Alexander, to all members in the October 1995 edition of the ***Police Journal.***

> "The Association is aware of the level of frustration currently existing within the Force caused by the failure of the Government to settle our existing claim, but this Association will not resile from its objectives no matter how tough the political or industrial climate may get." (Alexander, 1995, p3).

7.1.3. An Alternative Model

The internal dissatisfaction highlighted for staff and managers, the lack of existing integrated organisational systems and all-pervasive vision and change models, cited by Simpson (1990), as the third and last precondition for successful change. The 1995 organisational review, demanded by government and known as the Andersen Review,

was presented to government in December 1995 and is expected to be released into the public domain and translated into some level of change action early in 1996. It represents an attempt to provide a cohesive an integrated alternative model of corporate effectiveness and efficiency for SAPOL management to implement.

Braithwaite and Pettit (1990) and Moir and Eijkman (1992) provided a cautionary note, by emphasising that a police agency was one part only, of the criminal justice system and that organisational change policies and strategies should be focused in the context of the system as a whole; that is,

> "There are serious flaws in theories limited to subsystems of the criminal justice system, arising from the fact that the subsystems are closely connected and are in constant interaction."
> (Braithwaite and Pettit, 1990, p7)

The present study has already established that police activities and achievement of corporate objectives are influenced by factors outside their direct control and it is recognised that, just as their corporate behaviour would impact on the activities and success of other entities in the criminal justice system, police policies are influenced by legal and socio-political developments. The place of SAPOL organisational activities in the context of the South Australian criminal justice system as a whole, requires that if appropriate, this interdependence be considered, particularly if the change programmes contemplated are transformational.

7.2. Choosing Between Transformation and Incremental Change

The rise in popularity and appropriateness of transformational change programmes over incremental change was discussed in Chapter Three, where it was also stated that the global transformations in the external environment and the demands placed on contemporary work organisations did not necessarily imply that incremental change is inappropriate. The context of the change, its implementation and impact internally and externally, as well as legislative stringencies, had to be taken into account in the decision concerning its appropriateness. In this way, change processes legitimately vary in scope.

If transformational change programmes are to be seriously considered by management and/or government, there are important and broad issues to be resolved concerning the organisation-specific systems as a whole within SAPOL; issues such as the present bureaucratic structure and management style. The present study focus of SAPOL recruit selection programmes will place that process in the organisational structural, technological and cultural context, making some recommendations concerning organisation-wide adjustment. This in turn may suggest that further transformational as well as incremental change programmes are required.

Wanna, O'Faircheallaigh and Weller, (1992) noted, that it can be particularly difficult for bureaucratic public sector organisations to change at all; that structural and technological changes tended to be ones of reorganisation rather than of purposive

action. They believed that it did not matter which structures, policies and procedures were developed and adopted, because,

> " The problems are inherent in public sector organisations because they are *public* (sic). As such, they lack clear objectives, they are tainted by political interference, they are inherently risk-averse, conservative and ineffective....Reorganisation, trying to get the structures of government better suited to meeting modern challenges is... fruitless and indeed counterproductive, because it may be disruptive in the short term." ((Wanna, *et al*; 1992, p26)

They emphasised therefore, that it is not structure and technology that are the crucial determinants of the success of the organisation or elements in successful organisational change programmes, but people.

> "Good people will make an organisation work, and restructuring will be of little value without quality staff and programs of staff development." (Wanna *et al*, 1992, p26)

They also identified the singular importance of culture and added it to staff development as a second crucial determinant of organisational change success, (see also Chapter Three, at p 32 *ff*).

The notion of change through, as well as by people, and the importance of culture as part of that process also, supports the present recommendation concerning the application of an incremental change process to the SAPOL recruit selection programmes. This is not intended in the sense described by McNair *et al*, (1992), the

Japanese management technique of *kaizen*, - that is, incremental change which is more continuous improvement; a process which focuses on existing tasks being conducted more effectively. , Rather, it is akin to the technique first utilised by the Roman commander Fabius Cunctator; who avoided pitched battles and wore down his enemies by a series of skirmishes. This approach was adopted by a group of nineteenth century intellectuals in Great Britain who called themselves the Fabian Society. They proposed answers to social questions and problems, based on socialist ideas, which had a lasting impact on politics in Great Britain, (McBriar, 1962), and they recommended the implementation of change by permeation,

> "...the inevitability of gradualness..."
> (Bullock and Stallybrass, 1977, p226),

the 'small step at a time' approach, with assessments at each step, rather than revolution with its attendant chaos and uncertain outcomes. In this way is the approach of the present study recommended. The identification of skills and abilities required of police in the present and forecast operating environment, translated into selection criteria via change programmes at the SAPOL recruit selection level, provides small steps in the organisation-wide HR function and may actually require other levels of change, beyond the scope of the present study, in order to successfully integrate the new breed of employee into the organisation. For example, such changes need to be actively driven by management to maximise support for these 'different' employees and overcome the risk of their being too isolated and ostracised. These are the important cultural aspects mentioned above, which need to be addressed before a focused and

strategic recruiting programme can be designed and implemented. A further example, mentioned in Chapter Six concerning selection processes (p 170 *ff*), revolves around the stated intention of Australian police agencies to attract and recruit only university graduates. To retain these individuals however, there needs to be some appropriate remuneration systems, at least commensurate with other organisations and industries which will compete with the police industry. Any 'new breed of employee' must enter an organisational structure and culture which will nurture them, not only in terms of remuneration but also taking into account, support services, career progression, professional development and so on.

While changes to culture can be attempted via the recruitment of a 'new breed', novel approaches to recruiting and the changes to selection criteria will be made more difficult by failure to influence cultural aspects of SAPOL. These changes will be doomed to failure if the actuality and attitudes of existing personnel is underestimated. Most organisations, certainly not SAPOL cannot afford to remove all existing staff and replace them with new, culturally appropriate and experienced employees, even if such a pool of applicants existed. This would create enormous organisational, social and industrial problems. Hence Wanna *et al* (1992) highlighted the significance of staff development since it is these which can stand in the way of new organisational members attempting to maintain the new cultural stance required by government and management. Some considerable effort should be expended by the organisation via its changes agents and programmes to encourage staff to accept and act on the new paradigms, the new culture.

These programmes should also include attention to the changes required in management thinking, particularly as the executive will rely on at least a proportion of the existing management groups to drive the new invigorated organisation. Grinyer *et al* (1988), and Kanter (1989), even suggest that executive and senior management be replaced as part of significant organisational change. The existing executive group represents the *status quo*, the organisation as it exists and they often have difficulty in driving new paradigms.

7.3. The Changing Role of SAPOL

Pressure for change created by the increased demands and expectations of government and the community, and the rising levels of crime identified in Chapters Two and Five, is exacerbated by the changing role of the police.

> "During the last twenty years the tasks required of police officers have expanded and changed with dramatic rapidity. The traditional roles of the police had been those of law enforcement and the maintenance of public order. As a consequence police officers were typically large-bodied males, selected for their physical abilities and trained to accept orders and enforce the law." (Yuille, 1986, pV).

The 1990s role of SAPOL, as defined in their Corporate Objectives, still provides a focus on law enforcement and the maintenance of public order, and in this respect it has not changed much from the early nineteenth century when Sir Robert Peel encoded the expectations he and the community had of the first police organisation in England.

Over the last couple of decades however, there have been a variety of new demands placed on police officers. The traditional role has expanded to include aspects of social work, mental health duties and community relations work, (Yuille, 1986). Police officers have had to learn to work co-operatively with a range of professionals from other private and public agencies as part of this new approach, and shift from the traditional chisms that existed between police and social and mental health professionals, typified by Steinhilper, (1986), as follows;

> "The police think that "Criminals make troubles"; the social workers think that "Criminals have troubles"."
> (Steinhilper, 1986, p67)

Jefferson (1990), expressed concern that there are police organisational and cultural activities and processes working in direct opposition to this rise in community minded policing, particularly in western industrialised democracies such as the United Kingdom. Using the examples of increases in civil disorder and protest marches, since the 1960s, he described how police attitudes and activities, initially in controlling civil disorder are now disturbingly apparent in and guiding other police operational crime detection and prevention activities. He describes the shift as one from,

> "...'PUSHING AND SHOVING' TO 'SEARCH AND DESTROY,"
> (Jefferson, 1990, p1),

and he cites Northam, (1985), who expressed misgivings about this shift to a more military paradigm.

> "The difference between the quasi-military and the civil policeman is that the civil policeman should have no enemies. People may be criminals, they may be violent, but they are not enemies to be destroyed. Once that kind of language gets into the police vocabulary, it begins to change attitudes."
> (Northam, 1985, p5).

It is beyond the scope of this study to debate the need or otherwise, for paramilitary-style police departments, sections or individuals. Indeed, it may be that with an increase in civil, industrial and political disorder, and the rise of terrorism that an enhanced limited military-like response capability can be built into the contemporary community policing ethos. It may be that this a further indicator of the need for transformational change within police organisations, so that this capacity can be absorbed, without proliferating the police ethos, for unless its absorption is limited and very strictly controlled, it can become normalised and a typical police response;- a first resort rather than a last, (after Scraton, 1987).

The traditional, simplistic (in the contemporary policing environment) and masculine approach to police recruitment; selecting enthusiastic young males, anxious to prove themselves through active involvement in crime detection and the apprehension of criminals, can limit attempts of governments and communities as well as informed and concerned police managers to adopt the style of policing considered appropriate in the 1990s.

The traditional approach at first glance may suggest itself as having merit, given the demonstrated and forecast rise in crime in Australia in general and in South Australia in particular, (see **APPENDIX B, C13** and **C14**). It should be recalled however, that

the rise in crime is in some conjunction with a decrease in clearance rates, (see **APPENDIX B**), in police effectiveness, despite also, the traditional measures of police success and police recruit selection programmes' with their generic focus on the interview with its attendant risks, and medical and physical assessments, (see **APPENDIX D1** to **D6**), focusing on fitness and strength.

The changing role of police is also signified by the rise in initiatives to circumvent, or at least supplement the traditional, increasingly dysfunctional styles. Chapter five introduces some of these as aspects of community policing; attempting to involve communities in policing themselves and their environments. This involves police more and more in non-power based interactions, and relies on non-authoritarian communication styles, analytical thinking, problem solving activities; entering into partnerships with groups and individuals in the community, rather than imposing order over them from an external position of power.

The rising crime rate and reduced clearances guarantee the failure of the traditional method of policing and demands novel approaches. Strategies concerning the recruitment of able and skilled individuals who can embrace and expand the interactive, integrated community based policing styles, will at least provide police managers with the opportunities to expand those concepts, experiment and adapt them, to determine whether they can be effective or not.

Given the results of the crime trends analysis and the information gleaned from other police agencies concerning recruiting practices, the following strategies concerning improved recruit selection programmes within the SAPOL HR organisational system are discussed.

7.4. SAPOL Recruit Selection. Corporate Strategies

The significant increases in reported crime to the present and the increases likely to continue and to be significant into the next century, (see Chapter Six), coupled with decreases in clearance rates and the rising costs associated with law enforcement, supports the need for a review of SAPOL systems.

As a service organisation, rich in human resources and critically dependent on the quality of the face to face contact (work activities), of those resources with 'customers', the significance of their skills and abilities is evident. The identification of those individuals with the appropriate skills and abilities from the outset can maximise the 'round pegs in round holes' phenomenon and the effectiveness and efficiency of organisational effort expended in the training, developing, appraising and support of those employees. This involves the integration of recruit selection programmes into HR systems and other organisation-wide processes and conforms to the integrated relationship model proposed by Chandler (1991), and discussed in Chapter Four (at page 78). This relationship involves the HR function and practitioners in strategic process at a corporate level, and will be expanded below.

7.4.1. A Model of Recruit Selection

It is suggested here that the first step in the development of corporate strategies for best practice recruit selection, is to adopt the model recommended in Chapter Four (at page 96), adapted from Gatewood and Feild, (1990). The eight steps involved conform to the contemporary techniques recommended as part of the Systems Approach to change via the Phases of Planned Change Model (see Chapter Three, p 52 *ff*). It should be noted that this process can be used to apply internal assessment and selection programmes, providing HR specialists and managers with continuity in terms of information gathered for career development purposes as well as ease of activating processes as required for particular in-house selection programmes. In this way, the Systems approach and the Planned Change Model is integrated into SAPOL HR and Corporate Strategy. Recruit selection programmes can be viewed as a subsystem, and the first step of organisation-wide, internal SAPOL assessment and selection programmes. The planned changes to the recruit selection programmes recommended in the present discussion can form an initial step to incremental changes through the HR subsystem of assessment and selection programmes. It also links to other critical components of the SAPOL HR function such as performance appraisal, from which data can be extracted for selection model validation studies. Conversely, job selection criteria can be translated into job success criteria for appraisal/development purposes.

The first stage of that Selection Model involves the determination of the focus of the selection process. When the jobs to be performed by entry level employees and for which they are to be trained, have been identified, the rest of the model can be activated, through job analyses, the development of job descriptions, person

specifications, selection criteria, assessment tools and evaluative processes. The details of the development, implementation and evaluation of these seven stages will not be explored in depth here, but will be referred to as part of the discussion on strategic aspects of the change programme and a critique of processes already used by Australian police agencies.

7.4.2. The Focus of the Selection Process

Presently, all Australian police agencies select new sworn employees, those with no previous police experience, to be trained and to perform what is known generally as uniform general duties. These involve mobile and foot patrol, crisis intervention, station administrative and prisoner escort and custody duties. General uniform duties postings are regarded by the industry as the place where police officers learn their craft, become steeped in the police culture, and from where they can progress to specialist areas, such as Criminal Investigation Branch (CIB), Prosecution, Special Tactics and Rescue, (STAR Division), Forensic, Training, Public Relations and so on. It has been suggested elsewhere in interagency correspondence sighted by the author, that initiatives to implement national competency-based selection and training standards, will provide a means to introduce lateral entry to police organisations. This is seen as a way of encouraging experienced police and specialists to join from other organisations, reducing training and development costs, (for the recipient organisation at least), and also providing opportunities for cultural diversity within the organisation. Exposing these 'recruits' to the proposed Systems approach to selection and a variation of the model (see Chapter Four), could supply valuable validation data in the relatively short term as well as immediately providing appropriately skilled employees, thus

enhancing the achievement of those corporate objectives which are the focus of the present discussion.

Nonetheless, there is a need to provide a selection process which identifies those new to policing with the necessary skills, abilities and aptitudes for policing from external sources, (see Chapter Four, p82 *ff*), and it is in this area, that of external recruitment, that the present study focuses, while recognising the strategic significance of attracting individuals with advanced levels of skill and appropriate attitudes and values, who will both enhance the achievement of corporate objectives in the shorter term and influence the corporate culture to change in positive ways.

It is important to note therefore that the SAPOL recruit selection process discussed here, aimed at identifying applicants with the skills, abilities and aptitudes for uniform general duties, provides the organisation with employees who are often the first point of police contact for a victim, complainant, witness, suspect, offender or member of the public seeking information. It is these employees also who are the least experienced in police work activities but on whom the organisation, the government and society depends. The following discussion recognises and is concerned with the enhancement of that identification process.

(1) Marketing

The information provided by each Australian police agency (and presented as **APPENDIX D3**), demonstrated overall, a minimal commitment to marketing activities. This was most noticeable in the SAPOL context where it was reported that enough numbers to fill existing vacancies were obtained from those who approached the Recruiting Unit for an application form. Marketing activities were infrequent and low key. Getting the best applicant to apply was a matter of luck, rather than of effort or focus. There are however, several aspects to marketing which could be fruitful, in their result. They will be considered in turn.

(a) Market research can be external or internal. External research should be conducted from two perspectives at least. Firstly, surveys of customers or potential customers of police service should be canvassed for opinion on the quality, timeliness, availability and so on of that service. Some of this data can be translated into behavioural dimensions with respect to success on the job and related back to selection criteria. Secondly, market research can provide information concerning sources of the desirable new employee, if that is possible. Marketing activities conducted by police trying to attract new applicants can focus in an attempt to be more cost effective, (once the focus of the selection process is finalised).

Internal market research should include canvassing serving members to determine their level of knowledge of current recruiting activities and standards,

so they can be equipped with knowledge and assist prospective recruits who approach them in the street or police station.

(b) Marketing activities, again have both an external and internal focus. External marketing involves actively trying to attract suitably qualified applicants, (see Chapter Four, p 90 *ff*), providing them with accurate and balanced information, and minimising the expense incurred in the selection process.

Internal marketing involves communicating with staff and management, encouraging commitment to the attraction of qualified applicants so they can recommend suitable recruits, behave in the public forum in such a manner that the organisation is both commended by and attractive to outsiders, behave organisationally so as to support new employees rather than alienate them, and act as 'regional' recruitment officers, providing information and encouraging prospective employees

Once the formal marketing activities are completed, however broad or focused they have been, the informal aspects remain, as the applicant progresses through the selection process, interacting with employees and with SAPOL systems. Examination of the eight jurisdictions provides some interesting insights into this interaction.

(2) Applicants versus the SAPOL Recruit Selection Process

The adversarial implication in the title above describes the nature of recruitment processes Australia-wide, which are generally not 'user-friendly'. The entry requirements include a number of pre-requisites, such as a driver's licence, (all agencies), a first aid certificate (in six agencies) and a typing certificate (in five of the eight agencies). As previously stated, these marginalise some applicants, and those who expend time, finances and effort to achieve these in anticipation, are nonetheless, not guaranteed employment, (see **APPENDIX D2**). An Entrance Examination conducted by all agencies, takes five hours to complete in Queensland, four in Tasmania and 3 in South Australia, (see **APPENDIX D4**).

All agencies required that applicants undergo exhaustive medical examinations and five insist that it be at the applicant's own expense, (see **APPENDIX D6**). Five agencies take no account of cultural diversity in their entrance examination or their interview panels, (see **APPENDIX D5**). When added, in the SAPOL context, to limited Recruiting Office hours, (8am to 4.30 pm Monday to Friday), limited experienced staff, (see **APPENDIX D1**), up to five months processing, (six months in NT; see **APPENDIX D1**), the process is a daunting one. It is likely to frustrate applicants and presents SAPOL as a bureaucratic, alienating employer.

It is suggested here that the SAPOL organisational approach and the recruit applicant screening process itself, require a significant change in focus. Greenleaf's *servant-leadership* model (from Lagan, 1995), is proposed as an alternative. Its application,

> "puts serving others, including employees, customers and the community as the number one priority."(Lagan, 1995, p2)

This model also has relevance at an organisation-wide level, but highlights the importance of the initial selection process as a window to SAPOL, its culture and structure. In addition, amongst present recruit applicants are police managers of the future. Inculcating the *servant leader* model at this early level, reinforces that they are currently customer service officers, and at the same time, given their legislative and corporate responsibilities, are leaders in the community; persons to whom community members turn to for support, reassurance, guidance, information and help in times of confusion and crisis. The importance of the establishment of this integrated relationship between HR and other organisational systems, following on from Chandler (1991), is once again emphasised, (see Chapter Four, at page 78).

(3) Successful Customer and Organisational Focus

(a) Considering the customer. The lack of customer focus in SAPOL recruit selection procedures prompted the suggestion of the Greenleaf *servant leader* model to assist staff and management consider more appropriate ways of

relating professionally at least from an organisational perspective, with their customers - the SAPOL recruit applicants.

Moreover, as has been noted earlier (at page 167), concern has already been expressed at the national level, that the Australian policing industry selection programmes may be discriminatory with respect to the provisions of the Disability Discrimination Act 1992 by Elisabeth Hastings, the Australian Disability Discrimination Commissioner, in September 1995.

It is evident that the recruiting processes presently employed by Australian police agencies, are cumbersome, intolerant of user diversity and discriminatory, and could be said to favour an applicant who is compliant, young, fit and male. This therefore can preclude a range of potentially suitable applicants, particularly given the needs of the organisation in the context of the expanded and changing role of the police officer. Hence this aspect of the SAPOL HR function is not assisting SAPOL in achieving its corporate goals. This is the obverse of considering the customer. A dual focus on the needs of the customer (in this case the applicant) and the needs of the organisation, assists in the provision of a longer term focus of the needs of the other SAPOL customers; the victims, complainants, witnesses, and even suspects and offenders; the community as a whole.

(b) Considering the organisation. It is apparent from the discussion so far that the HR needs of SAPOL go beyond the fit, young males who see themselves as crime fighters, (see Scraton, 1987). This traditional and dysfunctional view was supported by the 'armchair' job analyses conducted by agencies in the past. The dated scientific general duties job analysis conducted within SAPOL and the subsequent selection process developed from that, focused as police officers themselves have always tended to do however, on technical aspects of police behaviour and work performance. Interpersonal skills and interpersonal effectiveness has traditionally been seen as something more fitting to social work and the clergy, and was ineffectively assessed anyway via the use of a single half hour panel interview conducted by untrained interviewers.

Interpersonal effectiveness is increasingly regarded as important as police move away from traditional policing techniques into alternative models of community style policing in attempts to successfully deal with crime trends and community discomfort with that indicator of social disorder.

More complex psychological aspects are more recently being considered, both in terms of the psychological robustness of the recruit (in terms of their ability to cope with the significant and unique stressors of police operational work) and their ability and skills in interpersonal effectiveness, and people orientation. The need for emphasis on interpersonal effectiveness is likely to continue rather than abate as the crimes of most concern to members of the communities and which cause more distress, (assault, robbery and house breaking), are increasing.

The National Police Research Unit, (NPRU) is, at the time of writing, conducting longitudinal research into psychological screening of Australian police recruits and recently published an interim report, concerning the completion of a job analysis of the duties of a uniform general duties constable,(Hogg and Wilson, 1995). Their results supported earlier findings which found that critical skills included oral communication, interpersonal relations, (Loo and Meredith, 1986 and McGurk, 1987); and personal attributes of tolerance, (McGurk, 1987. Hogg and Wilson also noted that written skills featured prominently, again supported elsewhere.

> "Most ... studies [also] report that typical general duties officers spend the majority of their time on general administrative duties such as report writing..." (Hogg and Wilson, 1995, p9)

This expanded focus with a move away from the young male and an emphasis on what could be interpreted as mediating and negotiating interpersonal skills, together with the requirement to conform to anti-discrimination legislation, lends strong support to moves to increase the recruitment of individuals from diverse groups and cultures. This could add quality to the police organisational culture and improve interaction with police customers. A significant example and one which will be discussed here is the recruitment of women into the police service.

Traditionally there has been a marginalisation of women in the police industry. Tracey-Stratton, (1986), however, noted that by the mid-eighties, the

recruitment of women into active policing was being increased, but Prenzler (1993), reported that initial selection programmes still required improvement.

> "...Australian police services have made large steps forward in reducing discrimination in a relatively short period of time. Improvements can nonetheless be made in making policing a more viable career option for women, and recruiting appears to be the main area where proactive measures are needed." (Prenzler, 1993, p1.)

Broadening demands for multifaceted police service by government and the community mentioned here, and contemporary industrial legislation, as well as the more serious attempts being made by SAPOL to embrace the concept of community policing in its broadest context, has threatened the traditional *machismo* of police work and made the normalisation of paramilitarism less likely. The increased influence of women in policing may also reflect the continuing quest by women for equality and access to male dominated enclaves and may herald the gradual weakening of the stereotypic male culture which has dominated police organisations, at least in Australia. These subtle shifts in culture should not be ignored as it has already been discussed how organisational change programmes have organisational culture as crucial determinant of success.

Prenzler (1993) has however, noted that the barriers to women's full participation in policing careers persist and analysis of recruiting practices and procedures supports this. He found, for example, as did Mahler, (1981), and Weisheit (1987), that the physical ability and agility tests utilised by Australian

police agencies including SAPOL discriminated unfairly against women and would not survive close scrutiny. For example,

> "...it seems...that applicants are required to have the skills of a graduate before training and there is not indication that entry standards are maintained throughout an officer's career." (Prenzler, 1993, p10)

Werner, Steel and Lovrich, (1989), found that there was a strong positive correlation between the level of application, acceptance and retention of women and the level of affirmative action incorporated in that agencies HR policies and procedures. Knuckey *et al* (1994) found that the status quo in SAPOL reflected the other Australian agencies (see Prenzler, 1992; 1993), in that police management had adopted a position of passive anti-discrimination protection and had yet to engage innovations which enhanced the retention and promotion of women. Neesham (1985), noted that the fair treatment of women in society and, one suspects in the agency by other police officers also, depends on greater representation of women within the agency.

The focus on the interpersonal effectiveness required of the present and next generation of police officers provides for one final and important point to be made. The SAPOL, and other agency selection programme does not provide for any detailed assessment of oral communication skills, including those of mediation, negotiating and listening. Problem solving and analytical ability is assessed using commercially available paper and pencil tests of reasoning. The

results of the NPRU study in the use of screening devices may provide some insights into the precise nature of appropriate assessment tools, but it is highlighted here that present techniques are inadequate and will not provide the information to allow SAPOL to reliably assess those skills determined as necessary to police in the 1990s.

7.5. Conclusion

The attraction and selection of a suitable applicant to the organisation relies to some extent on the success of a marketing programme, the perception of the organisation in the community, the attractiveness of the organisation's HR and other systems, particularly when compared to other employers' and the reliability and validity of the recruit selection programmes.

The cost of such initiatives must be measured against the short and long run costs of not selecting the optimum recruit. In the SAPOL policing context, this goes beyond mere financial costs, of training, development and replacement cost as well as possible indirect costs of increased absenteeism and inefficiency. There are personal, social and political costs if those selected and trained to assist SAPOL further the completion of its corporate objectives, are unable or unwilling to do so.

It is suggested here that an organisational focus on the SAPOL HR function, and in particular on the recruit selection process can assist in the enhanced achievement of organisational goals. Change programmes aimed at boosting the capacity of that

process to identify, and offer employment to those applicants who possess the personal, social and technical attributes should be developed and introduced. In broad terms, bearing in mind, both the depth of the present analysis and the need to scientifically develop selection criteria, consideration should be given to the selection of psychologically robust and emotionally mature applicants with superior communication and other interpersonal skills, and a depth and breadth of life experiences, as well as the required level of literacy and aptitude for those technical skills deemed necessary. In any case, whether aspects of the process are outsourced or remain internal, in order to facilitate the implementation of a recruit selection which will provide SAPOL with the employees who possess the required level of skills and abilities to assist management achieve corporate goals, the following recommendations are made.

7.6. Recommendations

7.6.1. The Strategic Importance of Recruit Selection

Given the widening gap between present and forecasted crime rates and the present decreasing clear up rates, it is recommended that SAPOL explore the strategic significance of the recruit selection process, its interface with other HR and organisational systems and as a tool to enhance SAPOL organisational effectiveness. To that end it is also recommended that the selection model proposed here, be implemented and integrated as part of in-house selection and promotion activities.

7.6.2. Incremental Changes

Given the significant changes which may be implemented in 1996 following the submission of the SAPOL 1995 Andersen Organisational Review (in print at the time of writing), there may be transformational changes to the way SAPOL is expected to do business. This may impact on the extent of the changes considered for the HR function. It is noted here that SAPOL management had commissioned the analysis of some existing HR systems including Recruitment (see Knuckey *et al*, 1994), prior to the Andersen Review, to determine the need for change, and it is the author's understanding that recommendations emanating from these analyses, have been embraced by Andersen. In the interim however, there are incremental changes which could be considered for introduction, which could have considerable influence on the longer term success of SAPOL corporate activities. These concern the need for an enhanced customer focus of the process itself, the validation of all selection activities to ensure that they accurately and in a non-discriminatory manner represent assessment of critical aspects of the job and maximise the employment of women and individuals from diverse cultures.

7.6.3. Management Support

Finally, it is recommended that SAPOL management maintain a significant and strategic focus on recruit selection by their continued and active commitment to the process, the staff members responsible for its development, implementation and evaluation and those new recruits who reflect desired changes in culture and approach to policing activities.

7.7. Future Directions

The answer to the question, 'Where to from here?' is provided from two different but related perspectives: those directions suggested by the limitations evident in the present study, and secondly, those directions emanating from the discussion and findings of the present study. These will be addressed briefly in turn.

7.7.1. Shortcomings of the present study

While a number of shortcomings in the conduct and presentation of the present study may be evident, the discussion here is on organisation-wide, strategic aspects. In that context, the focus of the present study was narrow. While the incremental process adopted here was justified in terms of the reality of recruit selection within the SAPOL context, it limited discussion and recommendations when contemporary organisational and external realities demanded strategy and integration to HR systems and processes as a whole.

In addition, the environmental scan and assessment conducted was severely constricted. The totality of police corporate activity goes beyond the prevention and detection of crime, and indeed, beyond those categories examined here. It was considered however, that the crime control function and the categories chosen represented a significant factor in the external environment, and an aspect of both police activity and of the focus of expectations of police by government and communities.

The collection of recruit process data from other Australian police agencies was limited to the extent that it presented merely an overview and a snapshot in time of those aspects of technology, structure and culture prevalent in those agencies in relation to that process. It is recognised that volumes have been written about each aspect of the multiple predictor approach, the interdependence of each and the contribution of each to the process as a whole. As stated earlier, only descriptive, general comparisons were sought.

7.7.2. Directions for future research indicated by the present study.

It is important that SAPOL recruiting activities be integrated strategically into the totality of policing function or mission. This implies the necessity also therefore of a corporate determination of the boundaries of that mission in the face of governmental demands, community expectations and environmental pressures and will also therefore require a broader environmental assessment than is provided here.

When the extent of SAPOL corporate activities have been defined, the precise nature of SAPOL recruiting activities can be determined, including a determination of selection criteria, providing focus on the desired skills and abilities required of future SAPOL employees. This may therefore expand discussion and decisions concerning the necessity of employing sworn and unsworn employees for certain positions and the introduction or at least formalisation of lateral entry for specialist positions.

There is little doubt, from the discussion and analysis so far, that demands on SAPOL management in the 1990s at least, will include a strong push from government and the community for better deployment of resources and better results; better police management and increased value for money expended, at least in the area of crime detection and prevention.

It was suggested earlier that SAPOL corporate effectiveness and efficiency could accrue from increased and sustained attention to the employment of appropriately skilled and motivated employees who are supported by all levels of management. It was also suggested here, and elsewhere, that community and interagency involvement in traditional police corporate activities was desirable, supporting the need for police employees with a range of sophisticated cognitive and interactive verbal skills. The future directions of SAPOL's corporate activities in relation to enhanced crime detection and prevention, would therefore involve partnerships between these employees, in groups or singly, with other agencies, and individuals, public and private.

The directions that this inter-agency and multidisciplinary involvement takes, has been discussed under the broad heading of Community Policing and could be expanded further, coinciding with the sociological span of criminal activities, the range of SAPOL corporate responsibilities, and the initiatives implemented to the present, covering prevention detection and evaluative aspects of crime reduction.

Police employees who are experienced, educated, insightful and articulate, and who can take a 'helicopter' view of crime, could become increasingly involved in and

recommend further crime prevention programmes than is occurring at present, incorporating such initiatives more and more into mainstream policing activities. Traditional police activities have been reactive and have focused on the detection of crime once committed, but have assumed that police crime investigators have and can employ analytical skill, patience, attention to detail and verbal fluency. These same skills, identified and developed from a deliberate of focus recruit selection processes would be beneficial to the organisation and the community as partnerships and initiatives developed and as SAPOL becomes increasingly obliged to link with other agencies in the judicial system, at the national level.

Higher level analytical skills will also enhance employee and organisational performance with respect to ongoing involvement and feedback loops, so that knowledge gained can be fed back to the integrated prevention and detection processes. For example, the knowledge and skills possessed by police officers could be utilised in aspects of rehabilitative and control aspects of those convicted of criminal activity or guilty of social disorder activities, stemming from increased liaisons with corrective and rehabilitative facilities, which can then be integrated into further preventive and detection activities.

Finally, the future employment of police employees should not ignore their familiarity with and corporate possibilities of Information Technology (IT). While the focus in this Thesis has been on HR systems, SAPOL human resources and the 'human side' of police activities, a balance with technical criteria, both in selection and subsequent

organisational behaviour should be achieved. These comments are provided as an example of the potential complexity of developing police function and the need to consider police behaviour and police selection across a broad range of knowledge, skills and aptitudes. The development and proliferation in most spheres of human activity, legitimate and otherwise, of the so called 'information super highway' will demand that police employees become computer literate. Those with sophisticated levels of such knowledge and skill will be able to advance applications of IT to the policing partnerships mentioned above and to the facilitation of corporate objectives.

7.7.3. Final Comments

Police officers and their managers have been both restricted and restrictive in their focus and approach to their broad based core business. The determination of essential corporate activities may assist in the removal of some restrictions and the facilitation of corporate success. The restrictive nature of policing, is to some extent a function of the prevailing police culture. There is, in operational policing, a reinforcement of tunnelled vision: a dogged determination to 'catch crooks', collect evidence, present both to the other components of the criminal justice system, and then instigate a further chase, helping little old ladies across the street and those in distress, along the way. The placement of skilled employees within that environment, supported and fuelled by willing and committed managements at all levels, who can focus beyond that cultural tunnel, should assist in the determination and achievement of future SAPOL organisational success. Their skills and abilities will assist them to consider where they can impact for best effect as a component of the justice system as a whole. It is they

who will bring their intellectual and verbal skills to bear on policing problems and it they who will be difficult to supervise and manage by those who represent outdated and dysfunctional paradigms.

It is not suggested here that the critical analysis and strategic focus on SAPOL recruitment processes will provide the panacea for all the ills of that organisation, or of the communities in South Australia. It is suggested however, that attention to focused and strategic use of the recruitment process can provide more efficient use of SAPOL resources which can allow for the introduction of additional initiatives aimed at the achievement of corporate level objectives. This can also provide enhanced levels of job satisfaction in SAPOL employees, which in turn may attract further, motivated, able and goal-oriented applicants, creating and sustaining organisational success and growth.

APPENDIX A

Numbers of Sworn Police Employees and rate per 100,000 Population
(taken from Australian Institute of Criminology, 1994)

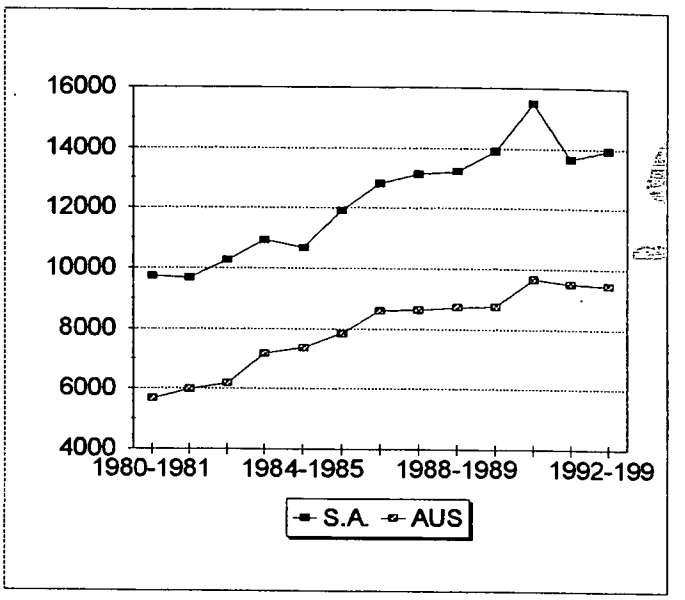
		83-84	84-85	85-86	86-87	87-88	88-89	89-90	90-91	91-92	92-93
NSW	No.	9947	10608	10743	11608	12280	12411	12593	13203	12903	12936
	Rate	184.11	194.13	194.21	206.67	215.16	214.86	215.85	223.83	216.54	215.29
VIC	No.	8365	8698	8978	8980	9229	9678	9948	9957	9958	9954
	Rate	205.20	211.11	215.77	213.30	216.51	224.02	227.20	225.25	223.83	223.08
QLD	No.	4686	4775	4872	5072	5085	5219	5524	5895	6271	6377
	Rate	185.67	185.71	185.63	189.60	185.59	184.57	190.53	199.09	206.93	204.88
WA	No.	2887	2975	3168	3287	3243	3725	3905	4183	4112	4211
	Rate	207.51	209.72	217.13	219.68	211.25	235.99	242.09	255.67	248.15	251.01
SA	No.	*3286*	*3263*	*3492*	*3661*	*3573*	*3565*	*3650*	*3756*	*3774*	*3782*
	Rate	*241.61*	*237.97*	*252.58*	*262.86*	*254.32*	*251.23*	*254.88*	*259.7*	*259.13*	*258.74*
TAS	No.	1007	1019	1023	1008	1027	1087	1068	989	1014	1025
	Rate	230.03	230.11	229.13	224.39	227.64	238.77	231.07	211.87	215.81	217.28
NT	No.	640	662	669	675	713	708	728	721	716	682
	Rate	450.22	445.68	433.23	426.66	448.35	439.26	444.64	435.67	428.51	405.31
AUS	No.	*33729*	*34838*	*36164*	*37586*	*38561*	*39581*	*40534*	*41921*	*41902*	*42027*
	Rate	*216.5*	*220.66*	*225.77*	*230.99*	*233.25*	*235.4*	*237.53*	*242.54*	*239.68*	*237.96*

NOTE: AFP figures not available.

TOTAL CRIME REPORTED
Australia and South Australia 1980/81 to 1992/93

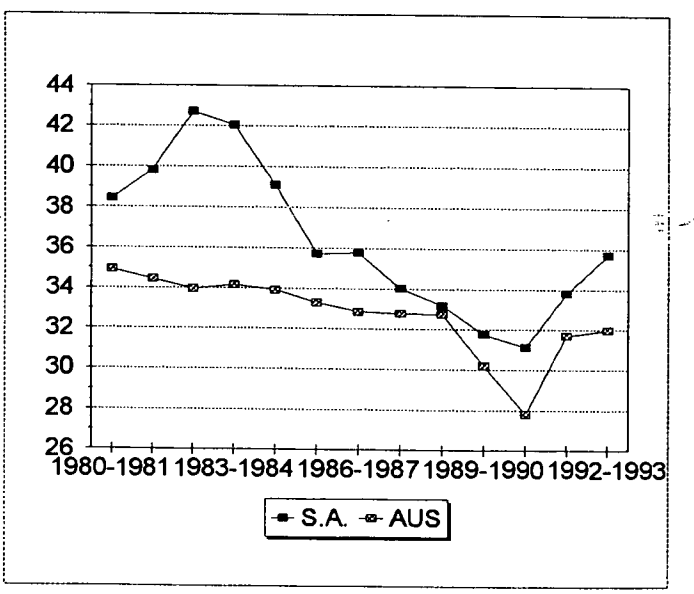
CRIME RATE PER 100,000 (pop)

YEAR	S.A.	AUS
1980-1981	9728.85	5668.49
1981-1982	9678.03	5978.93
1982-1983	10262.86	6183.06
1983-1984	10935.5	7173.8
1984-1985	10675.05	7363.42
1985-1986	11917.47	7835.63
1986-1987	12820.08	8611.4
1987-1988	13141.85	8636.7
1988-1989	13233.98	8724.19
1989-1990	13908.6	8745.92
1990-1991	15503.36	9654.6
1991-1992	13657.77	9503.23
1992-1993	13947.81	9453.33



PERCENTAGE CRIME CLEARED

YEAR	S.A.	AUS
1980-1981	38.42	34.91
1981-1982	39.81	34.43
1982-1983	42.71	33.95
1983-1984	42.05	34.15
1984-1985	39.11	33.91
1985-1986	35.72	33.28
1986-1987	35.77	32.86
1987-1988	34.03	32.77
1988-1989	33.18	32.75
1989-1990	31.76	30.2
1990-1991	31.12	27.79
1991-1992	33.81	31.71
1992-1993	35.71	31.98



APPENDIX C1

CRIME STATISTICS - SELECTED CATEGORIES

rate per 100,000 head of population

AUSTRALIA

YEAR	HOM	S/ASS	ROB	B.E.S.T.	B.E.S.D.	MV/TH	STEAL	FRAUD	ARSON
1973-1974	2.16	20.75	23.35	880.39	*445.61	374.6	1478.46	233.77	8.32
1974-1975	1.92	21.75	21.21	890.35	*441.81	360.7	1452	222.36	11.08
1975-1976	2.06	24.25	20.52	906.89	*457.96	369.07	1446.54	254.03	11.84
1976-1977	2.25	24.96	21.1	954.88	*467.94	403.38	1577.42	225.71	14.73
1977-1978	2.15	29.86	24.35	1068.9	*536.96	450.7	1717.3	262.42	17.76
1978-1979	1.98	33.25	24.33	1130.79	586.72	476.54	1895.75	294.42	21.13
1979-1980	2.21	37.11	29.17	1253.92	665.21	479.59	2089.12	334.97	25.26
1980-1981	1.78	41.88	30.83	1360.85	754.98	512.32	2046.71	286.34	25.72
1981-1982	2.01	45.61	33.76	1488.96	823.2	572.67	2084.38	330.49	28.75
1982-1983	2.07	50.55	42.91	1697.02	975.96	622.32	2117.59	372.16	31.68
1983-1984	2.13	53.5	42.52	1773.38	1060.13	636.39	2283.26	411.48	28.42
1984-1985	1.95	57.92	42.25	1720.96	1048.22	653.42	2391.15	430.85	36.6
1985-1986	2.15	69.26	41.11	1670.96	955.51	752.7	2550.74	504.91	41.63
1986-1987	1.99	78.15	49.03	1879.74	1045.65	826.03	2786.84	567.94	40
1987-1988	2.29	89.34	48.3	1889.87	1053.54	745.08	2748.55	742.46	35.73
1988-1989	1.98	99.92	51.66	1956.5	1090.38	770.36	2667.18	749.07	31.95
1989-1990	2.13	110.19	58.1	1998.36	1052.57	801.54	2832.57	694.27	38.65
1990-1991	2.07	112.68	66.96	2134.45	1108.3	807.06	3060.67	777.11	49.06
1991-1992	1.97	117.09	65.04	2025.09	1118.12	686.87	3011.14	635.08	48.84
1992-1993	1.96	132.92	71	2025.2	1120.73	685.68	2980.01	625.62	48.82

NOTE: = * figures not available for S.A.

APPENDIX C2

CRIME STATISTICS - SELECTED CATEGORIES

rate per 100,000 head of population

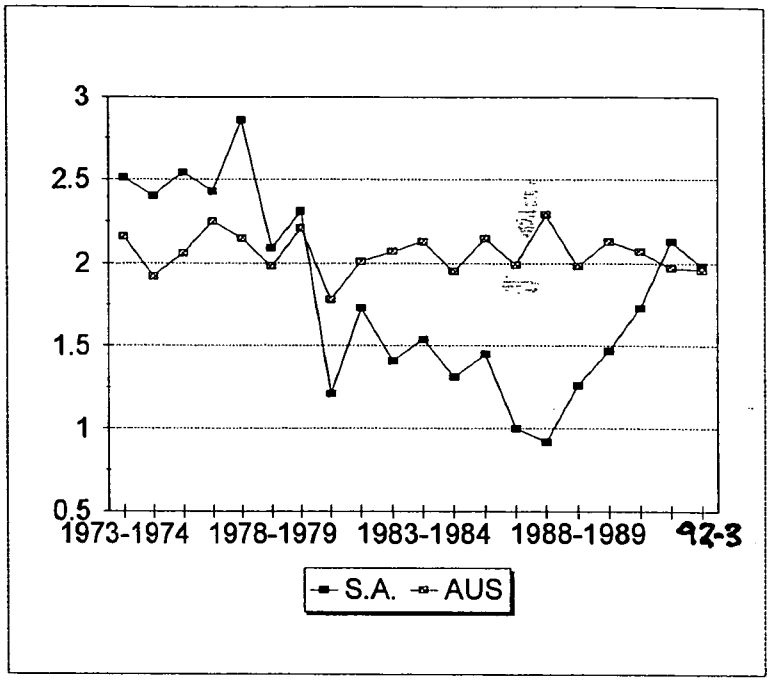
SOUTH AUSTRALIA

YEAR	HOM	S/ASS	ROB	B.E.S.T.	B.E.S.D.	MV/TH	STEAL	FRAUD	ARSON
1973-1974	2.51	13.09	20.71	1073.79	N/A	337.25	2529.64	410.94	13.19
1974-1975	2.4	16.05	22.28	1166.09	N/A	373.68	2362.22	195.75	16.21
1975-1976	2.54	18.55	21.32	1108.78	N/A	384.13	2181.5	157.42	17.2
1976-1977	2.43	18.88	20.99	1135.45	N/A	352.14	2499.53	168.79	22.17
1977-1978	2.86	18.88	16.48	1178.3	N/A	426.38	2599.35	135.65	24.38
1978-1979	2.09	25.82	25.35	1384.7	697.11	501.79	2971.45	195.4	32.69
1979-1980	2.31	37.1	38.03	1837.19	966.36	450.31	4395.88	237.78	49.96
1980-1981	1.21	35.41	29.42	1659.05	876.5	439.96	3560.52	201.93	41.4
1981-1982	1.73	42.75	29.15	1586.8	778.67	419.5	3407.24	223.95	43.2
1982-1983	1.41	48.52	26.01	1629.1	855.79	418.72	3516.78	231.54	44.21
1983-1984	1.54	53.38	30.66	1922.29	1061.36	471.53	3613.33	228.59	48.23
1984-1985	1.31	60.6	28.37	2022.61	1198.08	550.47	3512.11	265.83	45.14
1985-1986	1.45	71.17	40	2237.46	1204.15	779.72	3941.7	311.02	53.09
1986-1987	1	83.01	52.02	2563.33	1483.34	725.72	4112.32	388.14	54.14
1987-1988	0.92	88.99	48.22	2718.28	1597.67	722.03	4235.91	402.14	61.5
1988-1989	1.26	95.97	48.55	2712.08	1570.18	835.08	4053.43	437	58.98
1989-1990	1.47	102.65	55.24	2964.64	1596.93	911	4111.36	372.82	78.63
1990-1991	1.73	105.93	92.79	3298.76	1734.01	1058.08	4652.84	392.52	87.26
1991-1992	2.13	110.96	90.56	2783.46	1522.7	884.01	3574.85	528.21	95.37
1992-1993	1.98	108.78	109.15	2845.69	1482.7	722.99	3630.93	527.53	94.14

NOTE: N/A = figures not available

CRIME STATISTICS: CATEGORY - HOMICIDE

YEAR	S.A.	AUS
1973-1974	2.51	2.16
1974-1975	2.4	1.92
1975-1976	2.54	2.06
1976-1977	2.43	2.25
1977-1978	2.86	2.15
1978-1979	2.09	1.98
1979-1980	2.31	2.21
1980-1981	1.21	1.78
1981-1982	1.73	2.01
1982-1983	1.41	2.07
1983-1984	1.54	2.13
1984-1985	1.31	1.95
1985-1986	1.45	2.15
1986-1987	1	1.99
1987-1988	0.92	2.29
1988-1989	1.26	1.98
1989-1990	1.47	2.13
1990-1991	1.73	2.07
1991-1992	2.13	1.97
1992-1993	1.98	1.96



YEAR	S.A.	AUS
1	2.51	2.16
2	2.4	1.92
3	2.54	2.06
4	2.43	2.25
5	2.86	2.15
6	2.09	1.98
7	2.31	2.21
8	1.21	1.78
9	1.73	2.01
10	1.41	2.07
11	1.54	2.13
12	1.31	1.95
13	1.45	2.15
14	1	1.99
15	0.92	2.29
16	1.26	1.98
17	1.47	2.13
18	1.73	2.07
19	2.13	1.97
20	1.98	1.96

YEAR	S.A.	AUS
28	0.81	2.09

NOTE: YEAR 28 = YEAR 2000/01

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

Regression Output:

Constant	**2.418105**
Std Err of Y Est	**0.469494**
R Squared	**0.35683**
No. of Observations	**20**
Degrees of Freedom	**18**
X Coefficient(s)	**-0.057534**
Std Err of Coef.	**0.018206**

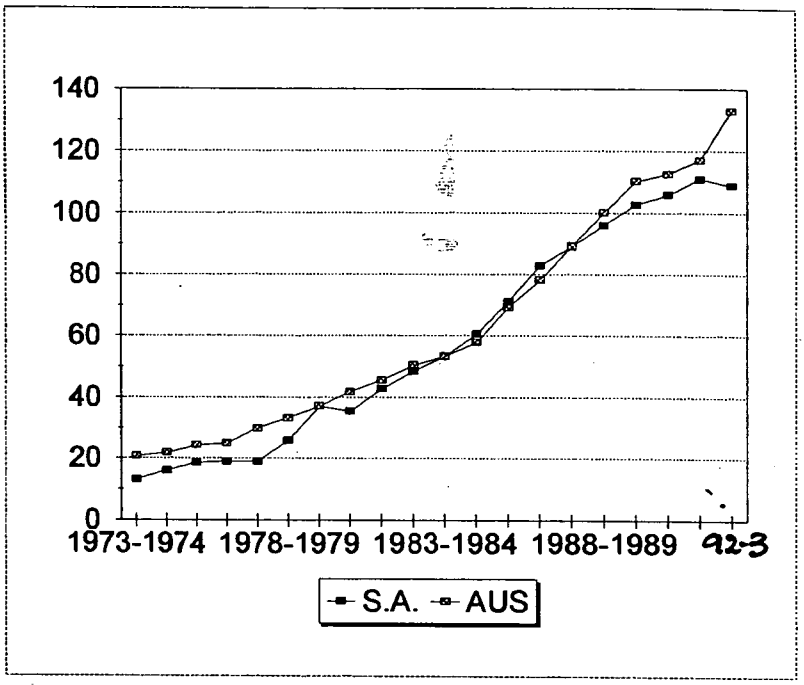
AUSTRALIA

Regression Output:

Constant	**2.086158**
Std Err of Y Est	**0.127394**
R Squared	**0.013411**
No. of Observations	**20**
Degrees of Freedom	**18**
X Coefficient(s)	**-0.002444**
Std Err of Coef.	**0.00494**

CRIME STATISTICS: CATEGORY - SERIOUS ASSAULT

YEAR	S.A.	AUS
1973-1974	13.09	20.75
1974-1975	16.05	21.75
1975-1976	18.55	24.25
1976-1977	18.88	24.96
1977-1978	18.88	29.86
1978-1979	25.82	33.25
1979-1980	37.1	37.11
1980-1981	35.41	41.88
1981-1982	42.75	45.61
1982-1983	48.52	50.55
1983-1984	53.38	53.5
1984-1985	60.6	57.92
1985-1986	71.17	69.26
1986-1987	83.01	78.15
1987-1988	88.99	89.34
1988-1989	95.97	99.92
1989-1990	102.65	110.19
1990-1991	105.93	112.68
1991-1992	110.96	117.09
1992-1993	108.78	132.92



YEAR	S.A.	AUS
1	13.09	20.75
2	16.05	21.75
3	18.55	24.25
4	18.88	24.96
5	18.88	29.86
6	25.82	33.25
7	37.1	37.11
8	35.41	41.88
9	42.75	45.61
10	48.52	50.55
11	53.38	53.5
12	60.6	57.92
13	71.17	69.26
14	83.01	78.15
15	88.99	89.34
16	95.97	99.92
17	102.65	110.19
18	105.93	112.68
19	110.96	117.09
20	108.78	132.92

YEAR	S.A.	AUS
28	160.54	166.84

NOTE: YEAR 28 = YEAR 2000/01

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

Regression Output:

Constant	-3.804895
Std Err of Y Est	6.200404
R Squared	0.97068
No. of Observations	20
Degrees of Freedom	18
X Coefficient(s)	5.869466
Std Err of Coef.	0.240441

AUSTRALIA

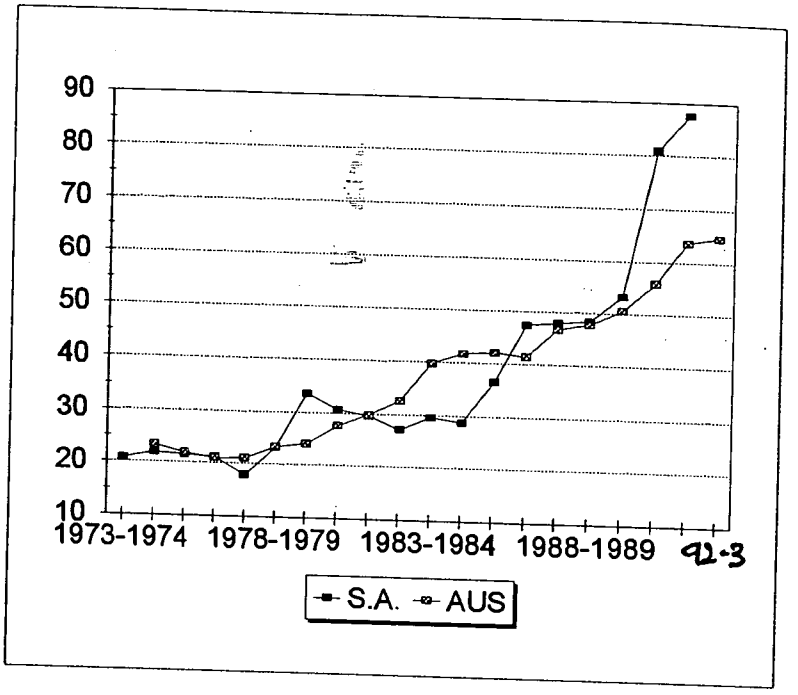
Regression Output:

Constant	-0.026526
Std Err of Y Est	8.571311
R Squared	0.946975
No. of Observations	20
Degrees of Freedom	18
X Coefficient(s)	5.959383
Std Err of Coef.	0.332381

CRIME STATISTICS: CATEGORY - ROBBERY

NOTE: Exponential smoothing process applied to data for both Australia and South Australia

YEAR	S.A.	AUS
1973-1974	NA	NA
1974-1975	20.71	23.35
1975-1976	21.81	21.85
1976-1977	21.47	20.92
1977-1978	21.13	21.05
1978-1979	17.88	23.36
1979-1980	23.11	24.04
1980-1981	33.55	27.63
1981-1982	30.66	29.87
1982-1983	29.6	32.59
1983-1984	27.09	39.81
1984-1985	29.59	41.71
1985-1986	28.74	42.09
1986-1987	36.62	41.4
1987-1988	47.4	46.74
1988-1989	47.97	47.83
1989-1990	48.38	50.51
1990-1991	53.18	55.82
1991-1992	80.91	63.62
1992-1993	87.67	64.61



YEAR	S.A.	AUS
1	NA	NA
2	20.71	23.35
3	21.81	21.85
4	21.47	20.92
5	21.13	21.05
6	17.88	23.36
7	23.11	24.04
8	33.55	27.63
9	30.66	29.87
10	29.6	32.59
11	27.09	39.81
12	29.59	41.71
13	28.74	42.09
14	36.62	41.4
15	47.4	46.74
16	47.97	47.83
17	48.38	50.51
18	53.18	55.82
19	80.91	63.62
20	87.67	64.61

YEAR	S.A.	AUS
28	88.35	80.02

NOTE: YEAR 28 = YEAR 2000/01

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

Regression Output:

Constant	4.160386
Std Err of Y Est	10.39504
R Squared	0.737211
No. of Observations	19
Degrees of Freedom	17
X Coefficient(s)	3.006807
Std Err of Coef.	0.4354

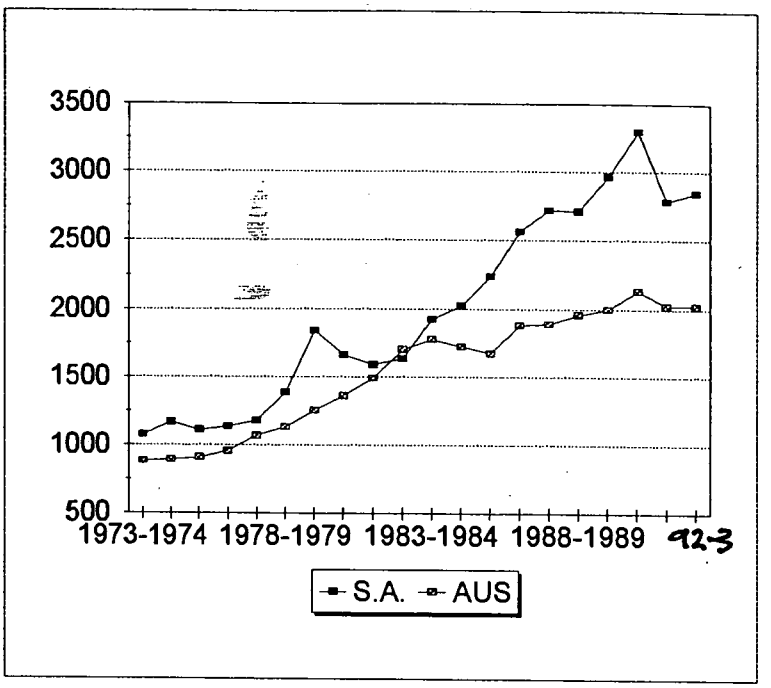
AUSTRALIA

Regression Output:

Constant	10.53267
Std Err of Y Est	3.534131
R Squared	0.942966
No. of Observations	19
Degrees of Freedom	17
X Coefficient(s)	2.481719
Std Err of Coef.	0.148028

CRIME STATISTICS: CATEGORY - BREAK ENTER AND STEAL, TOTAL (BEST)

YEAR	S.A.	AUS
1973-1974	1073.79	880.39
1974-1975	1166.09	890.35
1975-1976	1108.78	906.89
1976-1977	1135.45	954.88
1977-1978	1178.3	1068.9
1978-1979	1384.7	1130.79
1979-1980	1837.19	1253.92
1980-1981	1659.05	1360.85
1981-1982	1586.8	1488.96
1982-1983	1629.1	1697.02
1983-1984	1922.29	1773.38
1984-1985	2022.61	1720.96
1985-1986	2237.46	1670.96
1986-1987	2563.33	1879.74
1987-1988	2718.28	1889.87
1988-1989	2712.08	1956.5
1989-1990	2964.64	1998.36
1990-1991	3298.76	2134.45
1991-1992	2783.46	2025.09
1992-1993	2845.69	2025.2



YEAR	S.A.	AUS
1	1073.79	880.39
2	1166.09	890.35
3	1108.78	906.89
4	1135.45	954.88
5	1178.3	1068.9
6	1384.7	1130.79
7	1837.19	1253.92
8	1659.05	1360.85
9	1586.8	1488.96
10	1629.1	1697.02
11	1922.29	1773.38
12	2022.61	1720.96
13	2237.46	1670.96
14	2563.33	1879.74
15	2718.28	1889.87
16	2712.08	1956.5
17	2964.64	1998.36
18	3298.76	2134.45
19	2783.46	2025.09
20	2845.69	2025.2

YEAR	S.A.	AUS
28	3496.21	2802.74

NOTE: YEAR 28 = YEAR 2000/01

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

Regression Output:

Constant	757.9187
Std Err of Y Est	206.9453
R Squared	0.922509
No. of Observations	20
Degrees of Freedom	18
X Coefficient(s)	117.4737
Std Err of Coef.	8.024995

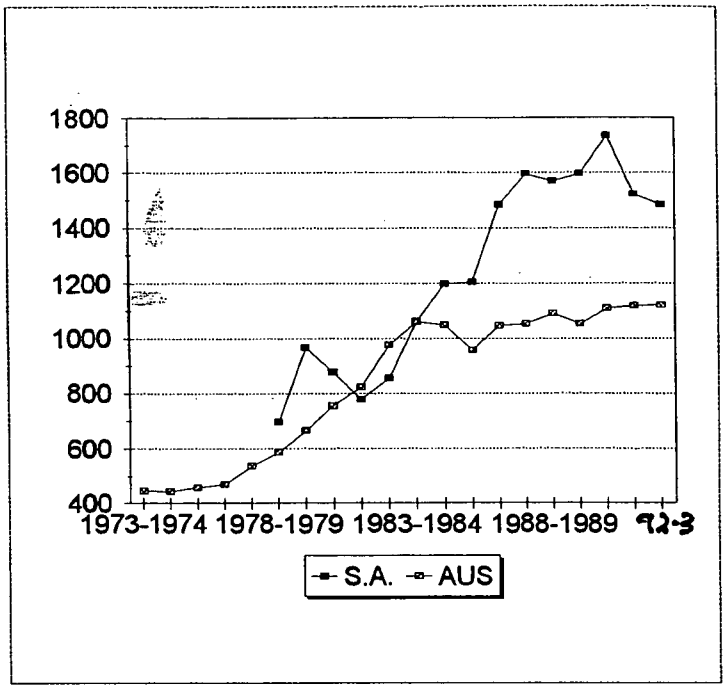
AUSTRALIA

Regression Output:

Constant	774.9553
Std Err of Y Est	103.4347
R Squared	0.947674
No. of Observations	20
Degrees of Freedom	18
X Coefficient(s)	72.42074
Std Err of Coef.	4.011025

CRIME STATISTICS: CATEGORY - BREAK ENTER AND STEAL, DWELLING (BESD)

YEAR	S.A.	AUS
1973-1974	N/A	445.61
1974-1975	N/A	441.81
1975-1976	N/A	457.96
1976-1977	N/A	467.94
1977-1978	N/A	536.96
1978-1979	697.11	586.72
1979-1980	966.36	665.21
1980-1981	876.5	754.98
1981-1982	778.67	823.2
1982-1983	855.79	975.96
1983-1984	1061.36	1060.13
1984-1985	1198.08	1048.22
1985-1986	1204.15	955.51
1986-1987	1483.34	1045.65
1987-1988	1597.67	1053.54
1988-1989	1570.18	1090.38
1989-1990	1596.93	1052.57
1990-1991	1734.01	1108.3
1991-1992	1522.7	1118.12
1992-1993	1482.7	1120.73



YEAR	S.A.	AUS
1	N/A	445.61
2	N/A	441.81
3	N/A	457.96
4	N/A	467.94
5	N/A	536.96
6	697.11	586.72
7	966.36	665.21
8	876.5	754.98
9	778.67	823.2
10	855.79	975.96
11	1061.36	1060.13
12	1198.08	1048.22
13	1204.15	955.51
14	1483.34	1045.65
15	1597.67	1053.54
16	1570.18	1090.38
17	1596.93	1052.57
18	1734.01	1108.3
19	1522.7	1118.12
20	1482.7	1120.73

YEAR	S.A.	AUS
28	2307.71	1471.12

NOTE: YEAR 28 =YEAR 2000/01

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

Regression Output:

Constant	317.83
Std Err of Y Est	149.1955
R Squared	0.830134
No. of Observations	15
Degrees of Freedom	13
X Coefficient(s)	71.06718
Std Err of Coef.	8.916136

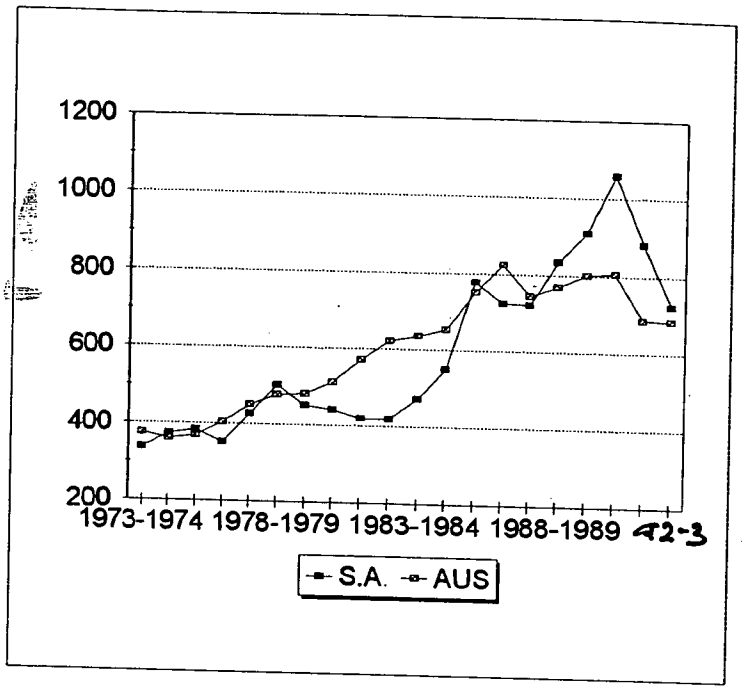
AUSTRALIA

Regression Output:

Constant	524.4031
Std Err of Y Est	87.36529
R Squared	0.763366
No. of Observations	15
Degrees of Freedom	13
X Coefficient(s)	33.81114
Std Err of Coef.	5.221075

CRIME STATISTICS: CATEGORY - MOTOR VEHICLE THEFT (MV/TH)

YEAR	S.A.	AUS
1973-1974	337.25	374.6
1974-1975	373.68	360.7
1975-1976	384.13	369.07
1976-1977	352.14	403.38
1977-1978	426.38	450.7
1978-1979	501.79	476.54
1979-1980	450.31	479.59
1980-1981	439.96	512.32
1981-1982	419.5	572.67
1982-1983	418.72	622.32
1983-1984	471.53	636.39
1984-1985	550.47	653.42
1985-1986	779.72	752.7
1986-1987	725.72	826.03
1987-1988	722.03	745.08
1988-1989	835.08	770.36
1989-1990	911	801.54
1990-1991	1058.08	807.06
1991-1992	884.01	686.87
1992-1993	722.99	685.68



YEAR	S.A.	MV/TH
1	337.25	374.6
2	373.68	360.7
3	384.13	369.07
4	352.14	403.38
5	426.38	450.7
6	501.79	476.54
7	450.31	479.59
8	439.96	512.32
9	419.5	572.67
10	418.72	622.32
11	471.53	636.39
12	550.47	653.42
13	779.72	752.7
14	725.72	826.03
15	722.03	745.08
16	835.08	770.36
17	911	801.54
18	1058.08	807.06
19	884.01	686.87
20	722.99	685.68

YEAR	S.A.	AUS
28	1166.24	1033.8

NOTE: YEAR 28 = YEAR 2000/01

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

Regression Output:

Constant	241.4138
Std Err of Y Est	103.5079
R Squared	0.79
No. of Observations	20
Degrees of Freedom	18
X Coefficient(s)	33.02959
Std Err of Coef.	4.013865

AUSTRALIA

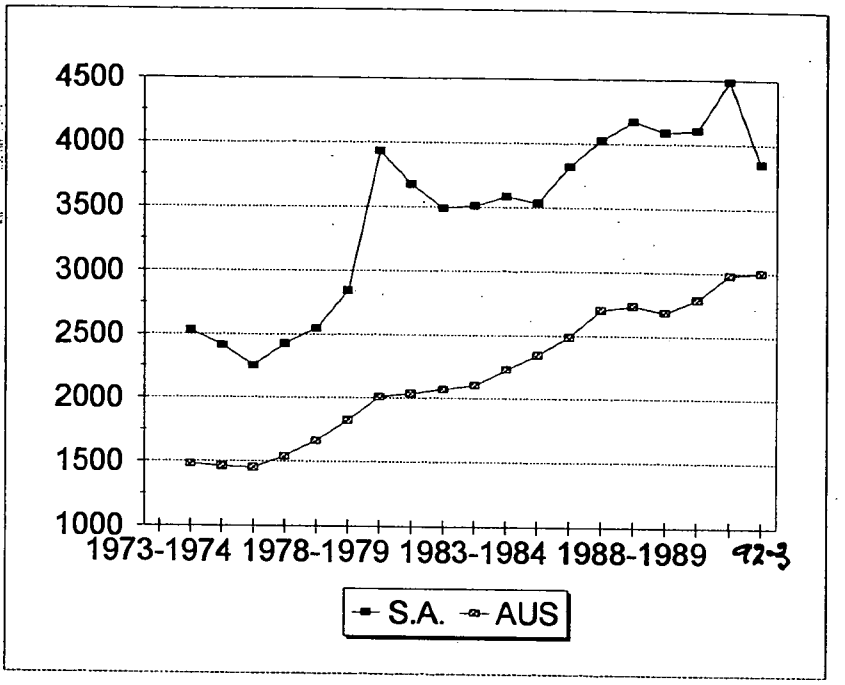
Regression Output:

Constant	338.6845
Std Err of Y Est	65.91643
R Squared	0.839751
No. of Observations	20
Degrees of Freedom	18
X Coefficient(s)	24.82538
Std Err of Coef.	2.556129

CRIME STATISTICS: CATEGORY - STEAL

NOTE: Exponential smoothing process applied to data for both Australian and South Australian figures

YEAR	S.A.	AUS
1973-1974	NA	NA
1974-1975	2529.64	1478.46
1975-1976	2412.45	1459.94
1976-1977	2250.78	1450.56
1977-1978	2424.91	1539.36
1978-1979	2547.02	1663.92
1979-1980	2844.12	1826.2
1980-1981	3930.35	2010.24
1981-1982	3671.47	2035.77
1982-1983	3486.51	2069.8
1983-1984	3507.7	2103.25
1984-1985	3581.64	2229.26
1985-1986	3532.97	2342.58
1986-1987	3819.08	2488.29
1987-1988	4024.35	2697.28
1988-1989	4172.44	2733.17
1989-1990	4089.13	2686.98
1990-1991	4104.69	2788.89
1991-1992	4488.4	2979.14
1992-1993	3848.91	3001.54



YEAR	S.A.	AUS
1	NA	NA
2	2529.64	1478.46
3	2412.45	1459.94
4	2250.78	1450.56
5	2424.91	1539.36
6	2547.02	1663.92
7	2844.12	1826.2
8	3930.35	2010.24
9	3671.47	2035.77
10	3486.51	2069.8
11	3507.7	2103.25
12	3581.64	2229.26
13	3532.97	2342.58
14	3819.08	2488.29
15	4024.35	2697.28
16	4172.44	2733.17
17	4089.13	2686.98
18	4104.69	2788.89
19	4488.4	2979.14
20	3848.91	3001.54

YEAR	S.A.	AUS
28	5337.18	3773.93

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

Regression Output:

Constant	2204.316
Std Err of Y Est	327.7525
R Squared	0.79623
No. of Observations	19
Degrees of Freedom	17
X Coefficient(s)	111.8878
Std Err of Coef.	13.72804

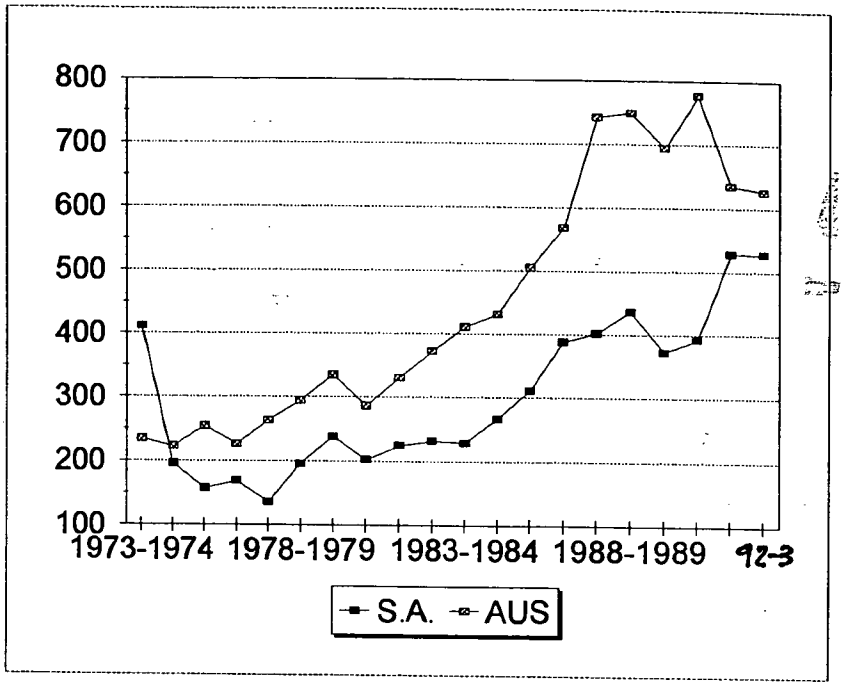
AUSTRALIA

Regression Output:

Constant	1162.902
Std Err of Y Est	74.00428
R Squared	0.981563
No. of Observations	19
Degrees of Freedom	17
X Coefficient(s)	93.25114
Std Err of Coef.	3.099698

CRIME STATISTICS: CATEGORY - FRAUD

YEAR	S.A.	AUS
1973-1974	410.94	233.77
1974-1975	195.75	222.36
1975-1976	157.42	254.03
1976-1977	168.79	225.71
1977-1978	135.65	262.42
1978-1979	195.4	294.42
1979-1980	237.78	334.97
1980-1981	201.93	286.34
1981-1982	223.95	330.49
1982-1983	231.54	372.16
1983-1984	228.59	411.48
1984-1985	265.83	430.85
1985-1986	311.02	504.91
1986-1987	388.14	567.94
1987-1988	402.14	742.46
1988-1989	437	749.07
1989-1990	372.82	694.27
1990-1991	392.52	777.11
1991-1992	528.21	635.08
1992-1993	527.53	625.62



YEAR	S.A.	AUS
1	410.94	233.77
2	195.75	222.36
3	157.42	254.03
4	168.79	225.71
5	135.65	262.42
6	195.4	294.42
7	237.78	334.97
8	201.93	286.34
9	223.95	330.49
10	231.54	372.16
11	228.59	411.48
12	265.83	430.85
13	311.02	504.91
14	388.14	567.94
15	402.14	742.46
16	437	749.07
17	372.82	694.27
18	392.52	777.11
19	528.21	635.08
20	527.53	625.62

YEAR	S.A.	AUS
28	576.2	985.25

NOTE: YEAR 28 = YEAR 2000/01

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

Regression Output:

Constant	135.3152
Std Err of Y Est	81.24677
R Squared	0.581175
No. of Observations	20
Degrees of Freedom	18
X Coefficient(s)	15.74593
Std Err of Coef.	3.150615

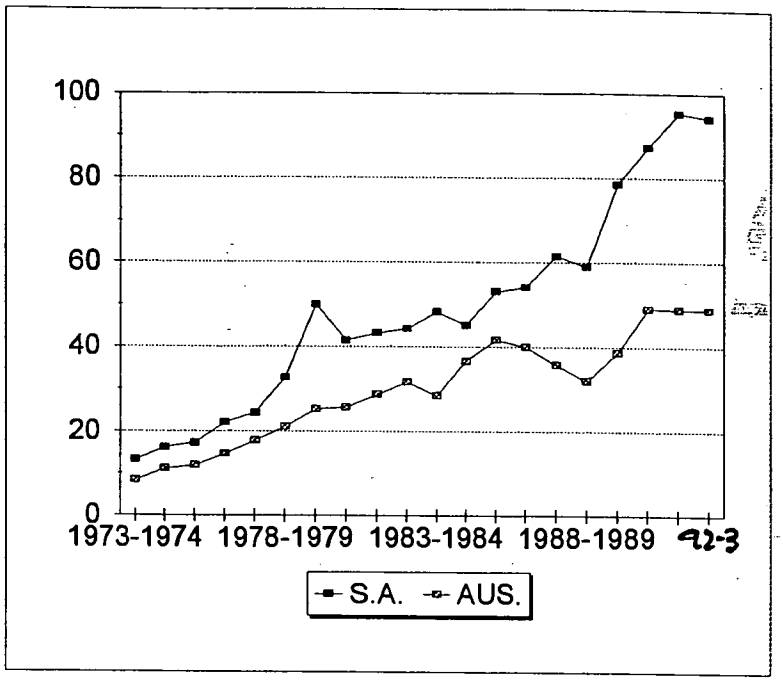
AUSTRALIA

Regression Output:

Constant	125.2855
Std Err of Y Est	76.43524
R Squared	0.856425
No. of Observations	20
Degrees of Freedom	18
X Coefficient(s)	30.7131
Std Err of Coef.	2.964032

CRIME STATISTICS: CATEGORY - ARSON

YEAR	S.A.	AUS.
1973-1974	13.19	8.32
1974-1975	16.21	11.08
1975-1976	17.2	11.84
1976-1977	22.17	14.73
1977-1978	24.38	17.76
1978-1979	32.69	21.13
1979-1980	49.96	25.26
1980-1981	41.4	25.72
1981-1982	43.2	28.75
1982-1983	44.21	31.68
1983-1984	48.23	28.42
1984-1985	45.14	36.6
1985-1986	53.09	41.63
1986-1987	54.14	40
1987-1988	61.5	35.73
1988-1989	58.98	31.95
1989-1990	78.63	38.65
1990-1991	87.26	49.06
1991-1992	95.37	48.84
1992-1993	94.14	48.82



YEAR	S.A.	AUS.
1	13.19	8.32
2	16.21	11.08
3	17.2	11.84
4	22.17	14.73
5	24.38	17.76
6	32.69	21.13
7	49.96	25.26
8	41.4	25.72
9	43.2	28.75
10	44.21	31.68
11	48.23	28.42
12	45.14	36.6
13	53.09	41.63
14	54.14	40
15	61.5	35.73
16	58.98	31.95
17	78.63	38.65
18	87.26	49.06
19	95.37	48.84
20	94.14	48.82

YEAR	S.A.	AUS.
28	120.19	66.26

NOTE: YEAR 28 = YEAR 2000/01

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

Regression Output:

Constant	6.374842
Std Err of Y Est	7.199156
R Squared	0.921737
No. of Observations	20
Degrees of Freedom	18
X Coefficient(s)	4.064729
Std Err of Coef.	0.279171

AUSTRALIA

Regression Output:

Constant	7.920684
Std Err of Y Est	3.666406
R Squared	0.92267
No. of Observations	20
Degrees of Freedom	18
X Coefficient(s)	2.083602
Std Err of Coef.	0.142177

CRIME CATEGORY REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Significance of Forecast Data

These tables provide the the conversion of the *Correlation of Determination,* (r^2), to a T-statistic to enable confidence levels of the functional relationship between crime rate, (the dependent variable), and year (the independent variable),to be established. The following conversion formula was applied; i.e.

$$t = r / \sqrt{1-r^2/n-2}$$

AUSTRALIA

	r^2	n	t
HOM	.0134	18	.4947#
S/ASS	.9470	18	18.0538*
ROB	.9430	17	16.7720*
BEST	.9477	18	18.0612*
BESD	.7634	18	7.6306*
MV/TH	.8398	18	9.7179*
STEAL	.9816	17	30.1155*
FRAUD	.8564	18	13.3343*
ARSON	.9227	18	14.6433*

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

	r^2	n	t
HOM	.3568	18	3.1601*
S/ASS	.9707	18	24.4101*
ROB	.7372	17	6.9075*
BEST	.9225	18	14.6390*
BESD	.8301	18	10.2976*
MV/TH	.7900	18	8.2296*
STEAL	.7962	17	8.1489*
FRAUD	.5812	18	4.9987*
ARSON	.9217	18	14.5690*

NOTE:
- # = not significant
- * = significant to .005 level
- n = 17 for categories, ROB and STEAL for both Australia and South Australia as a result of exponential smoothing technique

APPENDIX C13

CRIME STATISTICS - SELECTED CATEGORIES

% CHANGE IN CRIME RATE (per 100,000 population)

1978/79 - 1992/93

AUSTRALIA

	78/79	92/93	% CHANGE
HOM	1.98	1.96	-1.00
S/ASS	33.25	132.92	299.76
ROB	23.36	64.61	176.58
BEST	1130.79	2025.2	79.1
BESD	586.72	1120.73	91.02
MVTH	476.54	685.68	43.89
STEAL	1663.92	3001.54	80.39
FRAUD	294.42	625.62	112.49
ARSON	21.13	48.82	131.05

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

	78/79	92/93	% CHANGE
HOM	2.09	1.98	-5.26
S/ASS	25.82	108.78	321.30
ROB	17.88	87.67	390.32
BEST	1384.7	2845.69	105.51
BESD	697.11	1482.7	112.69
MVTH	501.79	722.99	44.08
STEAL	2547.02	3848.91	51.11
FRAUD	195.4	527.53	169.97
ARSON	32.69	94.14	187.98

Average percentage increase for crime rate and categories measured, (excluding homicide category), from 1978/9 to 1992/3.

AUSTRALIA 126.78%

SOUTH AUSTRALIA 172.87%

APPENDIX C14

CRIME STATISTICS - SELECTED CATEGORIES

% CHANGE IN CRIME RATE (per 100,000 population)

1992/93 - 2000/01

AUSTRALIA

	92/93	00/01	% CHANGE
S/ASS	132.92	166.84	25.52
ROB	64.61	80.02	23.85
BEST	2025.2	2802.74	38.39
BESD	1120.73	1471.12	31.26
MVTH	685.68	1033.8	50.77
STEAL	3001.54	3773.93	25.73
FRAUD	625.62	985.25	57.48
ARSON	48.82	66.26	35.72

(NB: Homicide not included)

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

	92/93	00/01	% CHANGE
S/ASS	108.78	160.54	47.58
ROB	87.67	88.35	0.78
BEST	2845.69	3496.21	22.86
BESD	1482.7	2307.71	55.64
MVTH	722.99	1166.24	61.31
STEAL	3848.91	5337.18	38.67
FRAUD	527.53	576.2	9.23
ARSON	94.14	120.19	27.67

(NB: Homicide not included)

Average percentage increase for crime rate and categories measured, (excluding homicide category) predicted from 1992/3 to 2000/1.

AUSTRALIA 36.09%

SOUTH AUSTRALIA 32.97%

PERCENTAGE MIX OF CRIME CATEGORIES: SELECTED YEARS & FORECAST TO 2000-2001

Australia and South Australia

		YEAR					
		1984-1985		1992-1993		2000-2001	
		STH.AUST	AUS	STH.AUST	AUS	STH.AUST	AUS
HOM	rate	1.31	1.95	1.98	1.96	0.81	2.09
	%	na	na	na	na	na	na
S/ASS	rate	60.6	57.92	108.78	132.92	160.54	166.84
	%	**0.78**	**0.93**	**1.12**	**1.73**	**1.21**	**1.61**
ROB	rate	29.59	41.71	87.67	64.61	88.35	80.02
	%	**0.33**	**0.67**	**0.9**	**0.84**	**0.67**	**0.77**
B.E.S.T.	rate	2022.61	1720.96	2845.69	2025.2	3496.21	2802.74
	%	**26.08**	**27.67**	**29.28**	**26.28**	**26.38**	**27**
B.E.S.D.	rate	1198.08	1048.22	1482.7	1120.73	2307.71	1471.12
	%	**15.45**	**16.86**	**15.26**	**14.55**	**17.41**	**14.17**
MV/TH	rate	550.47	653.42	722.99	685.68	1166.24	1033.8
	%	**7.1**	**10.51**	**7.44**	**8.9**	**8.8**	**9.96**
STEAL	rate	3581.64	2229.26	3848.91	3001.54	5337.18	3773.93
	%	**46.19**	**35.85**	**39.61**	**38.96**	**40.27**	**36.36**
FRAUD	rate	265.83	430.85	527.53	625.62	576.2	985.25
	%	**3.43**	**6.93**	**5.43**	**8.12**	**4.35**	**9.49**
ARSON	rate	45.14	36.6	94.14	48.82	120.19	66.26
	%	**0.58**	**0.59**	**0.97**	**0.63**	**0.91**	**0.64**
TOTAL	rate	7753.96	6218.94	9718.41	7705.12	13252.62	10379.96
	%	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**

NOTE 1. Homicide rate (HOM) not included in calcualtion of rate: insignificant contribution and change
2. na = not applicable

CRIME MIX EXPRESSED AS PERCENTAGES OF CATEGORY TOTALS - SELECTED YEAR

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

	1984-1985	1992-1993	2000-2001
S/ASS	0.78	1.12	1.21
ROB	0.33	0.9	0.67
B.E.S.T.	26.08	29.28	26.38
B.E.S.D.	15.45	15.26	17.41
MV/TH	7.1	7.44	8.8
STEAL	46.19	39.61	40.27
FRAUD	3.43	5.43	4.35
ARSON	0.58	0.97	0.91
TOTAL	100	100	100

AUSTRALIA

	1984-1985	1992-1993	2000-2001
S/ASS	0.93	1.73	1.61
ROB	0.67	0.84	0.77
B.E.S.T.	27.67	26.28	27
B.E.S.D.	16.86	14.55	14.17
MV/TH	10.51	8.9	9.96
STEAL	35.85	38.96	36.36
FRAUD	6.93	8.12	9.49
ARSON	0.59	0.63	0.64
TOTAL	100	100	100

NOTE:Homicide rate not included in calculation of rate: insignificant contribution to total

THE CHI SQUARE ANALYSIS OF CRIME MIX FOR SELECTED YEARS

	84/5-92/3	92/3-00/0
STH. AU	1.5702	0.0563
AUS	0.8236	0.2792

NOTE: ALL RESULTS NOT SIGNIFICANT AT THE 0.05 LEVEL

APPENDIX D1

AUSTRALIAN POLICE AGENCIES

RECRUIT SELECTION STATISTICS 1993-1994

	S.A.	QLD.	TAS.	N.T.	W.A.	A.F.P.	N.S.W.	VIC.
Applications	850	3000	650	1000	2100	FNA (1)	3500	2500
Successful *	85	420	80	26 (to increase)	150 (to increase to400)	45	1000	200
Ratio of success	1:10	1:7	1:8	1:38	1:14	N/A	1:4	1:13
Recruiting Staff	1 NCO# 1 O/R 1 Clerical	1 CO (Insp.)@ 3 NCOs 1 Personnel Officer 6 Clerical	1 O/R	1 CO 1 O/R 1 Clerical	1 Supt (O/C) 1 NCO 5 O/Rs 1 Cadet 1 Clerical	1 NCO 1 O/R 3 Clerical	1 CO (Insp.) 3 NCOs 6 O/Rs 8 Clerical	1 CO (Insp.) 1 NCO 5 O/R 2 Clerical
Total Staff	3	11	1	3	9	5	18	9
Specialist Support	Psych. Section & Academy	Psych. Section	Education Officer & P.T. Staff	Interstate done by Consultants	N/A	support as required for assessment centres		
Force Strength	3700	6300	1000	670	4200	2900	13000	9925
Strength/Recruit Ratio	1:1233	1:573	1:1000	1:223	1:467	1:580	1:722	1:1102
Applications/Recruit staff ratio	1:283	1:272	1:650	1:333	1:233	FNA	1:194	1:278
Time to Process Application (avge)	5 mths	4 -5 mths	2 mths	6 - 7 mths	6 mths	FNA	2 mths	4 - 6 mths

* These figures do not reflect only those who were suitable against selection criteria, but those who were able to be offered employment.
N/A = Not applicable
NCO = Non-Commissioned Officer; i.e. Senior Sergeants or Sergeants - supervisors. O/R - Other Ranks; i.e. Senior Sonstables or Constables.
@ CO = Commissioned Officer; ie. (Chief) Inspector, (Chief) Superintendent, or Commander.
FNA = Figures Not Available
(1) = not accepting applications at present.

AUSTRALIAN POLICE AGENCIES

ENTRY REQUIREMENTS 1994

	S.A.	QLD.	TAS.	N.T.	W.A.	A.F.P.	N.S.W.	VIC
Education Standard	Yr.12	Tertiary	Nil	Yr.12	Yr.10	Degree	H.S.C. + TAFE Course	VCE (Under 21)+
Mature Entry*	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes (over 21)
Age Range#	18+	Nil -	18 -32	19+	19 @	18+	18 Yrs 3 Mths	18.5 - 39
Aust. Citizenship?	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes or Perm. Residence	Yes or Perm. Residence	N/R
Record^	S + R + A + F	C + T	C + T	D + V + F	C + T	S + R + A + F	Nil C < 4 serious T	Limits specified re C, R, T, etc
Eye-sight	6/9 aided	6/6 aided	6/6 aided 6/12 unaided	6/12 aided 6/36 unaided	6/12 unaided	6/12 aided 6/36 unaided	6/6 aided 6/12 unaided	6/12 unaided
Driver's Licence	Probationary	Provisional	Car	Car	Car	Car	Car	Car
First Aid Certificate	Senior	Senior	Senior	Senior	Desirable	N/R	Required	N/R
Typing (wpm/accuracy)	30 @ 98%	25 @80%	N/R	25 @ 80%	25 @ 60%	N/R	25 @ 80%	N/R
Other	N/A	N/A	Bronze Medal (swimming)	Bronze Medal (swimming)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

Health	All agencies required good health with height and weight ratios or body mass indices. Standards vary across agencies

* Mature entry refers to older recruits who may not possess contemporary educational qualifications but possess other attributes including trade or relevantwork experience

\# Nil age range applies for those agencies where tertiary qualifications are required for entry.

@ traineeships are also offered from age 16 years. Reassessment ocurs prior to admittance to full recruit training at age 19

N/A = Not Applicable

N/R = Not Required

^ Record Legend - S = Seriousness; R = Recency; A = Age; F = Frequency; C = Criminal; T = Traffic; D = Domestic; V = Violent;

\+ HSC = Higher School Certificate: VCE. = Victorian Certificate of Education

APPENDIX D3

AUSTRALIAN POLICE AGENCIES

RECRUIT SELECTION PROCESS 1994

	SA.	QLD.	TAS.	N.T.	W.A.	A.F.P.	N.S.W.	VIC.
Marketing (Targetted Advertising)	Print Media (Irregular) Schools Some Displays	Print media (Extensive)	Print media	Print Media (Extensive) Displays	Displays Public contacts	Print media	Print Media Educational and, Community venues	Print Media Educational venues
Process Stages	1.Initial Review (O/C Recruiting) 2. Entrance Exam 3. Checks* 4.I/View with local O/C 5. Panel Interview & Psych Profile 6. Medical 7. Physical/Agility Test & TypingTest 8. Review and Selection	1. Initial Review 2. Physical Test 3. Entrance Exam 4. Panel Interview 5. Medical 6. Checks 7. Driving Test 8. Review and Selection	1. Entrance Exam & Psych Testing 2. Interview Panel 3. Medical 4. Physical/ Agility Testing 5. Review and Selection	1. Entrance Exam & Psych Test 2. Medical 3. Interview & fingerprinting 4. Review and Selection	1.Checks 2. Entrance Exam 3. Initial medical & reference check 4. Physical/Agility Test & Psych Profile 5. Home Visit 6. Panel Interview & psych interview 7. Final Medical 8. Reveiw and Selection.	1. Initial Medical 2. Entrance Exam & Psych profile 3. Full Medical 4. Checks 5. Review and Selection	1.Initial Review 2. Entrance Exam & Psych Assess. 3.Initial Medical 4.Physical/Agility Test 5.Checks 6. Panel Interview 7. Review by Selection Committee 8..Full Medical 9. Review and Selection	1. Initial Medical 2. I/View with local O/C 3. Record check. 4. Review **PHASE 1 -** 5. Entrance Exam - & psych profile **PHASE 2 -** 6.Physical/Agility test 7 Checks **PHASE 3 -** 8 Panel Interview 9. Full Medical 10.Review and Selection

* Checks usually involve background information, from local police, previous employers etc.

AUSTRALIAN POLICE AGENCIES

ENTRANCE EXAMINATIONS & PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT 1994

	S.A.	QLD.	TAS.	N.T.	W.A.	A.F.P.	N.S.W.	VIC.
Time	3 Hrs	5 Hrs	4 Hrs	FNA	FNA	FNA	FNA	FNA
General Reasoning	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Verbal Reasoning	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No
Numerical Reasoning	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes
Spelling	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
Grammar	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	No
Written Expression	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Reading Comp.	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No
Clerical Speed & Acc	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
Personality Assess.	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No
Psychologist Review	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Other *	N.V.R.	S.A. L.S. M.R.	L.S.	Nil	M.T. Vocab	Nil	O.S C.T	G.K.

* N.V.R. = Non Verbal Reasoning: S.A. = Spatial Ability: L.S. = Listening Skills: M.R. = Mechanical Reasoning: M.T. = Memory Test
O.S. = Observation Skills: G.K. = General Knowledge: C.T. = Critical Thinking.

FNA = Figure not avaliable

APPENDIX D5

AUSTRALIAN POLICE AGENCIES

RECRUIT INTERVIEW PANEL COMPOSITION 1994

	S.A.	QLD.	TAS.	N.T.	W.A.	A.F.P.	N.S.W.	VIC.
Panel Composition (Regular)	1 NCO HRMB 1 O/R HRMB	2 NCO Community representative	3 CO from Training area 1 Education Officer	1 senior CO from HRM 1 senior NCO (female)	3, NCO rank or above	1 CO From H.Q. 1 CO (local)	1 CO/seniorNCO 1 NCO 1 O/R	3 NCOs or above d
Ethnic Minority Rep?	As required	As required	No	No	No	No	As required	No
Psychologist?	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	As required
Training for Panel members	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Criteria Assessed*	Adaptability Motivation Stability Social Impact Physical Impact	Police Orientation Social Maturity Impact Interpersonal Communication Skills Personal suitability	Appearance Prior Employ Stability Perception of Policing Motivation Attitudes Maturity Interpersonal Skills	Education Emotional Stability Maturity Sensitivity Communication Appearance Organising Ability Empathy Problem Solving Tolerance Achievement Coping with threat Being detached Manner	Practical Intelligence Demeanour (Calm) Sensitivity Perseverance Initiative Oral fact finding Personal impact Oral Communication	Motivation Impact Knowledge Feedback (on Assessment Centre done for selection.)	Commitment to career Disposition (personal and interpersonal) Problem solving Awareness & interest Verbal expression	Integrity Decisiveness Stress Tolerance Job Motivation Planning & Organising Initiative Sensitivity Written communication Oral communication Appearance/Impact
Grading System	Rated equally across dimensions	Weighted Scoring System	Rated equally across dimensions	Rated across all dimensions	Rated equally across dimensions	Rated in relation to other exercises	Rated equally across dimensions	Rated equally across dimensions

* Terminology used here where possible (space allowing), as used by that organisation as criterion.

APPENDIX D6

AUSTRALIAN POLICE AGENCIES

MEDICAL & PHYSICAL TESTING 1994

	S. A.	QLD.	TAS.	N.T.	W.A.	A.F.P.	N.S.W.	VIC.
Medical Examination	Police MO*	Govt. MO	Own GP at TASPOL Expense	Govt. MO	1. Own GP prior to Agility Test 2. Nominate Dr for Final Assessment (Both at own exp.)	1. Initial Medical - (Own Expense) 2. Full Medical (AFP Expense after Assessment Centre)	1.Self Disclosurel (assessed by NSWPOL Reg'd Nurse) 2. Prelim. Medical (NSWPOL Nurse) 3. Final Medical (Own Expense)	1. Prelim Medical (Own Expense) 2. Final Medical (Police MO)
Skinfold Test	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No
Fitness Test	Shuttle Run Test	No	Pushups, Situps & Chinups	No	2.5km Run, Strength test	No	No	No
Work Related Agility Test	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Other	No	No	Commando Style Obstacle Course	No	Swimming	No	Swim 100 metres	No

* MO = Medical Officer

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Albrecht, K., ***Stress and the Manager***, Touchstone Books, Simon and Schuster, New York, 1979.

Alexander, P. "President's Message", ***Police Journal***, Vol. 76, No.10, October 1995, p 3.

Allaire, Y. and Firsirotu, M.E., "Theories of Organisational Culture",***Organisational Studies***, 1984, 5, (3), pp 193-226.

Anastasi, A., ***Psychological Testing***, (Fourth Edition), MacMillan, New York, 1976.

Anderson, D.R., Sweeney, D.J. and Williams, T.A., ***Quantitative Methods for Business***, Third Edition, West Publishing Co., St. Paul Minnesota, 1986.

Andrews, K.R., ***The Concept of Corporate Strategy***, Irwin, Homewood, Illinois, 1980.

Ansoff, H.I., ***Corporate Strategy***, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1965.

Ansoff, H.I., ***Corporate Strategy*** Rev.Ed., McGraw Hill, New York, 1987.

Arnold, Lyn.M.F., ***A letter:- To All Public Sector Staff,*** The Office of the Premier of South Australia, Adelaide, S.A., 4 May 1993.

Atwater, D.M., Bress, E.S., Neihas, R.J. and Sheridan, J.A., "An Application of Integrated Human Resource Planning Supply-Demand Model", ***Human Resources Planning,*** 5, 1982, pp 1-15.

Australian Bureau of Statistics, ***Year Book Australia 1992***, Australian Bureau of Statistics, Canberra, 1992a.

Australian Bureau of Statistics, ***South Australian Year Book 1993***, Australian Bureau of Statistics, Adelaide, 1992b.

Australian Bureau of Statistics, ***National Crime Statistics January to December 1993***, Australian Bureau of Statistics, May, 1994.

Australian Institute of Criminology, ***Size of the Crime Problem in Australia Updates***, Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra, 1994.

Bamber, G.J. and Lansbury, R.D., ***New Technology: International Perspectives on Human Resources and Industrial Relations***, Allen and Unwin, Sydney, 1989.

Barclay, G.,"The Peak Age of Known Offending by Males" ***Research Bulletin***, Home Office Research and Planning Unit, London, 1990.

Barlow and Proctor, "Recruitment and Training", ***Australian Police Journal***, January, 1980.

Bayley, D.H., ***A Model of Community Policing: The Singapore Story***, National Institute of Justice, Washington DC, 1989.

Bayley, D.H., ***Toward Policing 2000. Final Report.***, National Police Research Unit, Adelaide, S.A., 1990.

Becker, S. and Stephens, M., "Introduction: Force is part of the Service", in Stephens, M. and Becker, S. (Eds), ***Police Force Police Service***, Macmillan, London, 1994, pp 1-9.

Beer, M., Spector, B., Lawrence, P., Mills, D.Q. and Walton, E., ***Human Resource Management: A General Manager's Perspective - Text and Cases***, The Free Press, New York, 1985.

Beer, M. and Walton, A.E., "Organisational Change and Development" ***Annual Review of Psychology***, No. 38, 1987, pp 339-367.

Bennett, R., "Management Research", ***Management Development Series***, 20, 1983, Geneva; in Burnes, B., ***Managing Change***, Pitman, London, 1992, p 161.

Blackler, F. and Brown, C., "Alternative models to guide the design and introduction of new information technologies into work organisations", ***Journal of Occupational Psychology***, 1986, 59 (4), pp 287-314.

Blau, T.H., ***Psychological Services for Law Enforcement***, John Wiley and Sons, New York, 1994.

Blum, M.L. and Naylor, J.C., ***Industrial Psychology: Its Theoretical and Social Foundations***, Harper and Row, New York, 1968.

Blunt, P., ***Human Resource Management***, Longman Cheshire, Melbourne, 1989.

Bittner, E., ***The Functions of the Police in Modern Society***, National Institute of Mental Health, Rockville, Maryland, 1970.

Bottomley, A.K. and Coleman, C.A., "Police Effectiveness and the Public: The Limitations of Official Crime Rates", in, Clarke, R.V.G. and Hough, J.M., (Eds), ***The Effectiveness of Policing***, Gower Publishing, WestMead, 1980.

Bottomley, A.K., and Coleman, C., ***Understanding Crime Rates***, Saxon House, Farnborough, 1981.

Bottoms, A., "Crime Prevention in the 1990s", ***Policing and Society***, 1, 1990, pp 3-22.

Bowers, D.G., Franklin, J.L. and Pecorella, P., "Matching problems, precursors and interventions in OD: a systematic approach", ***Journal of Applied Behavioural, Science,*** 11, 1975, pp 391-410.

Bradford, L., "Biography of an Institution", ***Journal of Applied Behavioral Science***, , 1967, p 127.

Bradley, D., Walker, N. and Wilkie, R.,***Managing the Police***, Harvester Press, Glasgow, 1986.

Braithewaite, J. and Pettit, P., ***Not Just Deserts: A Republican Theory of Criminal Justice***, Oxford University Press, Oxford, 1990.

Breaugh, J.A., "Relationships between recruiting sources and employee performance, absenteeism and work attitudes", ***Academy of Management Journal***, Vol. 24, No.1 March, 1981, pp 142-147.

Breen, M.D., "Police Recruitment Through Strategic Marketing Planning", ***FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin***, Nov. 1988, pp 18-21.

Brenner, M.H. ***Estimating the Social Costs of National Economic Policy: Implications for Mental and Physical Health, and Criminal Aggression***, Study prepared for the use of the Joint Economic Committee, Congress of the United States, Paper No. 5, 1976, United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C..

Bres, E.S., Burns, D., Charnes, A. and Cooper, W.W., "A Goal Programming Model for Planning Officer Accessions", ***Management Science***, 26, 1980, pp 773-782.

Brown, L., "The Future Face of Police Training",***The Police Journal***, Vol.56, No.2, 1983, pp 121-127.

Buchanan, D.A. and Huczynski, A.A., ***Organizational Behaviour***, Prentice Hall International, Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1985.

Buckley, W., ***Modern Systems and Research for the Behavioural Scientist***, Aldine, Chicago, 1968.

Bullock, A. and Stallybrass, O., (Eds), ***The Fontana Dictionary of Modern Thought***, Collins, London, 1977.

Bullock, R.J. and Batten, D., "It's just a phase we're going through: a review and synthesis of OD phase analysis", ***Group and Organisation Studies***, 10, December 1985, pp 383-412.

Burke, W., Michael, R.S.Luthems, F.,Odiorne, S., and Hayden, S., ***Techniques of Organisational Change***, McGraw-Hill, London, 1981.

Burkhart, B.R., "Conceptual Issues in the Development of Police Selection Procedures", ***Professional Psychology***, Vol. 11, 1980, pp 121-129.

Burns, T. and Stalker, G.M., ***The Management of Innovation***, Tavistock, London, 1961.

Burnes, B., Managerial competence and new technology: don't shoot the piano player - he's doing his best", ***Behaviour and Information Technology***,Vol. 10 No.2, pp 91-109.

Burnes, B., ***Managing Change***, Pitman Publishing, London, 1992.

Burrell, G., "Sex and organizational analysis", ***Organization Studies***, Vol. 5, No.2, 1984, pp 97-118.

Burrows, J., and Tarling, R., "The Investigation of Crime in England and Wales", ***British Journal of Criminology***, 1987, Vol. 27, No. 3. pp 229-251.

Caiden,G.E. ***Police Revitalization***, Lexington Books, Massachusetts, 1977.

Caldwell, D.F. and Spivey, A.A., "The relationship between recruiting source and employee success: an analysis by race", ***Personnel Psychology***, Vol. 36, No.1, Spring, 1983, pp 67-72.

Cantor, D. and Land, K., "Unemployment and Crime Rates in Post-World War II United States: A Theoretical and Empirical Analysis", ***American Sociological Review***, 50, 1985, pp 317-332.

Carr-Hill, R.A. and Stern, N.H., ***Crime: The Police and Criminal Statistics***, Academic Press, London, 1979.

Cascio, W.F., ***Applied Psychology in Personnel Management***, (2nd Ed.), Reston Publishing Co., Reston VA, 1982.

Cascio, W.F., ***Managing Human Resources: Productivity, Quality of Work Life, Profits***, Second Edition, McGraw Hill, New York, 1989.

CCH, Australia Limited, ***Australian Personnel Management***, CCH Australia Ltd., Sydney, 1986, p 822.

CCH Industrial Law Editors, ***Australian Personnel Management***, CCH Australia Ltd., Sydney 1989, pp1469-71,1491.

Certo, S.C. and Peter, P., ***Strategic Management***, Random House, New York, 1988.

Chambers, S., "Paradigms Lost, Paradigms Found", ***Quest***, Autumn, 1993, pp 6-10.

Chandler, A.D. Jr. in, Butler, J.E., Ferris, G.R. and Napier, N.K.,(Eds), ***Strategy and Human Resource Management,*** South-Western, Cincinnati, 1991.

Chappell, D., "Opening Remarks", in Vernon, J., and Bracey, D., (Ed), ***Police Resources and Effectiveness***, Proceedings No. 27, The Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra, 1989, pp 1-3.

Child, J., ***Organisation: A Guide to Problems and Practice***, (2nd. Ed.), Harper and Row, London, 1984.

Chiricos, T., "Rates of Crime and Unemployment: An Analysis of Aggregate Research Evidence", ***Social Problems***, 34, 1987, pp 187-212.

Churchman, C.W., ***The Systems Approach***, Dell, New York, 1968.

Clark, P., ***Action Research and Organisational Change***, Harper and Row, London, 1972.

Clark, R., ***Australian Human Resources Management***, Second Edition, McGraw Hill Sydney, 1992.

Clarke, R. (Ed), ***Situational Crime Prevention: Successful Case Studies***, Harrow and Weston, New York, 1992.

Clarke, R. and Heal, K., "Police Effectiveness in Dealing With Crime: Some Current British Research",***The Police Journal***, Vol.52, 1979, pp 24-41.

Clarke, R.V.G., and Hough, J.M., ***Crime and Police Effectiveness***, Home Office Research Study, No.79, HMSO, London, 1984.

Clegg, C.W. and Symon, G., "Technology-led change: a case study of the implication of CADCAM.",***Journal of Occupational Psychology***, Vol. 64, No. 4, pp 273-290.

Coates, J.F., Jarrett, J. and Mahaffe, J., "Workplace Management 2000: Seven Themes Shaping the US Workforce and its Structure", ***Personnel Administrator***, 34 (12), pp 50-55.

Cockburn, S., ***The Salisbury Affair***, Sun Books, Melbourne, 1979.

Collins, K., "Some Issues in Police Effectiveness and Efficiency", ***Policing***, 1985, Vol.1, No.2, pp 70-76.

Collins, R. R., "the Strategic Contributions of the Human Resource Function", ***Human Resource Management Australia***, November 1987, pp 5-21.

Collins, R.R., "The strategic contributions of the personnel function", in Palmer, G., (Ed), ***Australian Personnel Management - A Reader***, Macmillan, Sydney, 1988, pp 34-49.

Compton, R.L. and Nankervis, A.R., ***Effective Recruitment and Selection Practices***, CCH Australia Limited, Sydney, 1991.

Coppleston, P., "Present Issues and Future Trends", ***HR Monthly***, August, 1991, p 9.

Corkindale, D., Balan, P. and Rowe, C., ***Marketing: Making the Future Happen***, Thomas Nelson, Melbourne, 1989.

Costello, S.J., ***Managing Change in the Workplace***, Irwin Professional Publishing, Burr Ridge Illinois, 1994.

Couper, D.C., ***How to Rate Your Local Police***, Police Executive Research Forum, Washington DC, 1983.

Crosby, P. B., ***Quality is Free***, McGraw Hill, New York, 1979.

Cullen, R.B., "Business, Government and Change: Managing Transition in the Public and Private Sectors.", ***Australian Journal of Public Administration***, Vol. XLVI, No.1, March 1987, pp 10-19.

Cumming, E., Cumming, I. and Edall, L., "Policeman as Philosopher, Guide and Friend", ***Social Problems***, 12, 1964, pp 276-286.

Cummings, T,G., "Transorganizational Development", in Shaw, B. and Cummings, L. (Eds), ***Research in Organizational Behaviour***, Vol. 6, JAI Press New York, 1984, pp 367-422.

Cummings, T.G. and Huse, E.F., ***Organisational Development and Change***, West: St. Paul, Minn., 1989.

Dale, B. G. and Cooper, C. L., ***TQM and Human Resources: An Executive Guide,*** Blackwell, Oxford, 1992.

Davis, G.,Weller, P. and Lewis, C., (Eds), ***Corporate Management in Australian Government***, The Centre for Australian Public Sector Management, Brisbane, Australia, 1989.

Davis, S.M., ***Managing Corporate Culture***, Ballinger, Melbourne, 1984.

Deery, A. and Nash, J., "Organisational Change and the Role of Personnel and Industrial Relations Management", in Palmer, G., (Ed), ***Australian Personnel Management***, MacMillan, Melbourne 1988, pp 164-178.

Deitz, R. and Reese, J.,"The perils of police psychology: Minimizing the role conflicts", ***Behavioural Sciences and the Law***, 4 (4), 1986, pp 385-400.

Deming, W.E., ***Quality Productivity and Competitive Position***, MIT Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1982.

Department for Industry, Trade and Technology (DITT), ***The Public Sector's Role: The South Australian Economic Development Strategy Study***, prepared by Ernst and Young, in association with The Centre for South Australian Economic Studies, and M. Coleman and Associates, for the S.A. Department for Industry, Trade and Technology, Adelaide, August, 1992.

Dowling, P., "Psychological testing in Australia: an overview and assessment", in Palmer, G., (Ed), ***Australian Personnel Management: A Reader***, Macmillan, Melbourne, 1988.

Dowling, P.J., Pontifex, M., and Bailey, J. "Personnel Management or Human Resource Management", Institute of Personnel Management, Australia, Victorian Division, ***Bulletin***, Oct. 1983, pp 1-7.

Drucker, P.F., ***Managing in Turbulent Times***, Harper and Row, New York, 1980.

Dunford, R., ***Organisational Behaviour***, Macmillan, Melbourne, 1991.

Dunnette, M.D. and Borman, W.C., "Personnel Selection and Classification Systems", ***Annual Review of Psychology***, Vol.30, 1979, pp 477-525.

Dunphy, D., ***Organisational Change by Choice***, McGraw-Hill, Sydney, 1981.

Dunphy, D., "The Historical Development of Human Resource Management in Australia", ***Human Resource Management in Australia***, 25:2 July 1987, pp 40-47.

Dunphy, D. and Stace, D., "Transformational and Coercive Strategies for Planned Organisational Change: Beyond the OD Model", ***Organisational Studies***, 9 (3), 1988.

Dunphy, D and Stace, D., ***Under New Management***, McGraw Hill, Sydney, 1992.

Dyer, L., "Human Resource Planning", in Rowland, K.M. and Ferris, G.R.,(Eds), ***Personnel Management***, Allyn and Bacon Inc. Boston, 1982, pp 52-77.

Eck, J.E., and Spelman, W., ***Problem Solving: Problem Oriented Policing in Newport News***, National Institute of Justice, Washington D.C., 1987.

Ekblom,P. and Heal, K.,***The Police Response to Calls from the Public***, Home Office Research and Planning Unit, London, 1982.

Elliot, K. and Lawrence, P., ***Introducing Management***, Penguin, Harmondsworth, 1985.

Engstad, P., "The Canadian Experience with Improved Police Productivity and Performance", in Vernon, J. & Bracey, D. (Ed), ***Police resources and Effectiveness***, Proceedings No. 27, Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra, 1989, pp 33-44.

Engstad, P. and Evans, J.L., "Responsibility, Competence and Police Effectiveness in Crime Control", in Clarke, R.V.G., and Hough, J.M. (Eds), ***The Effectiveness of Policing***, Gower, Farnborough, 1980.

Faley, R.H., Kleiman, L.S. and Lengnick-Hall, M.L., "Age Discrimmination and Personnel Psychology: A Review and Synthesis of the Legal Literature with Implications for Future Research", ***Personnel Psychology***, Summer, 1984, pp 327-350.

Feldman, P., ***The Psychology of Crime***, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1993.

Finnane, M., ***Police and Government. Histories of Policing in Australia***, Oxord University Press, Melbourne, 1993.

Finnimore, P., "How should the Effectiveness of the Police be Assessed," ***Police Journal***, 1982, Vol.55, No.1, pp 56-66.

Fitz-enz, J., ***How to Measure HR Management***, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1984.

Flanagan, J.C., "The Critical Incident Technique", ***Psychological Bulletin***, 1954, 51, pp 327-358.

Fleisher, B.M., ***The Economics of Delinquency***, Quadrangle Books, Chicago, 1966.

Fombrun, C.J., Tichy, N.M. and Devanna, M.A.,"The Organisational Context of Strategic Human Resource Management", in Fombrun, C.J., Tichy, N.M. and Devanna, M.A..***Strategic Human Resource Management***, Wiley, New York, 1984, pp 19-31.

French, W.L. and Bell, C.H., ***Organisational Development***, Prentice-Hall; Englewood Cliffs New Jersey, 1984.

Freyd, M., "Measurement in Vocational Selection: An Outline of Research Procedures", ***Journal of Personnel Research***, 1923, Vol. 2, pp 215-249, 268-284 and 377-385.

Gagliardi, P., "The Creation and Change of Organisational Cultures: A Conceptual Framework", ***Organisational Studies***, 1986, 7 (2), pp 117-134.

Gagne, R.M., "Learning Outcomes and their Effects", ***American Psychologist***, 39, 1984, pp377-385.

Gannon, M.J., ***Organisational Behaviour***, Little, Brown, Boston, 1979

Gatewood, R.D. and Feild, H.S., ***Human Resource Selection***, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College, Fort Worth, 1990.

Ghoshal, S. and Bartlett, C.A., "the Multinational Corporation as an Interorganizational Network," ***Academy of Management Review***, 15 (4), 1990, pp 603-625.

Giles, P., "The HR policies you are using in the 1990s", ***HR Monthly***, September 1992, pp 8-10.

Glueck, W.F., ***Personnel: A Diagnostic Approach***, Revised Edition, Business Publications Inc., Dallas, Texas, 1978.

Goldstein,H., ***Problem-Orientated Policing***, McGraw Hill, New York, 1990.

Golembiewski, R., Proehl, C. and Sink, D., "Success of OD Applications in the Public Sector: Toting Up the Score for a Decade, More or Less", ***Public Administration Review***, 41, November-December 1981, pp 679 -682.

Gordon,, G., "The relationship of corporate culture to industry sector and corporate performance", in Kilman, R., Saxton, M. and Serpa, R., (Eds), ***Gaining Control of the Corporate Culture***, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, 1985.

Government Management and Employment Act; Adelaide South Australia 1985.

Gowler, D. and Legge, K., "Personnel and paradigms; four perspectives on the future,", ***Industrial Relations Journal***, Vol. 17, No.3, 1984 pp 225-235.

Grabosky, P., ***Efficiency and Effectiveness in Australian Policing: A Citizen's Guide to Police Services***, Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra, 1988.

Green, R., ***Productivity and Comparability in Public Service Pay***, No.3 Employment Studies Centre Working Paper Series, University of Newcastle, Newcastle, 1991.

Greer, C.R., Jackson, D.L. and Fiorito, J., "Adapting Human Resource Planning in a Changing Environment", ***Human Resource Management***, Vol 28, No.1, Spring, 1989, pp 105-124.

Grinyer, P.H., Mayes, D.G. and McKiermon, P., ***Sharpbenders:The Secrets of Unleashing Corporate Potential***, Blackwell, Oxford, 1988.

Guion, R., "Recruiting, Selection and Job Placement", in Dunnette, M. (Ed.), ***Handbook of Industrial and Organisational Psychology***, Rand McNally, Chicago, 1976, pp 777-828.

Hagan, J., ***Modern Criminology***, McGraw Hill, New York, 1988.

Hagan, J., "The Social Embeddedness of Crime and Unemployment", ***Criminology***, 31, 1993, pp 465-492.

Halstead, B., "Introduction", in ***Proceedings of the Policy Forum on Youth Crime Prevention, July 1989***, Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra 1991.

Hamel, G. and Prahalad, C.K.,"Strategic intent", ***Harvard Business Review***, May-June 1989, pp 63-76.

Hammer M. and Champy, J., ***Reengineering the Corporation***, Nicholas Brearly Publishing, London, 1993.

Handy, C., ***Understanding Organisations***, Penguin, Harmondsworth, 1986.

Handy, C., "The Changing Shape of Work", in Patrickson, M., ***Readings in Organisational Behaviour***, Third Edition, Techsearch, Adelaide, S.A. 1986, pp 16-25.

Handy, C., ***The Age of Unreason***, Arrow, London, 1989.

Harris, , P.R., ***Management in Transition***, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, 1985.

Hassard, J. and Sharifi, S., Corporate culture and strategic change.", ***Journal of General Management***, Vol.15, No.2, 1989, pp 4-19.

Hastings, E., Australian Disability Discrimination Commissioner;, letter to Dr. Marcus Navin, Health Services Division, Australian Federal Police, Canberra, 20 September, 1995.

Hazlehurst, K., "`Opportunity and Desire': Making Prevention Relevant to the Criminal and Social Environment", presented as part of the ***National Overview on Crime Prevention***, a conference convened by the Australian Institute of Criminology, in Adelaide S.A. in June 1991.

Heller, F. "Group feed-back analysis as a change agent", ***Human Relations***,23, (4), 1970, pp 319-333.

Herzberg, F., "One More Time: How do you Motivate Employees?", ***Harvard Business Review***, 1968, 46, pp 53-63.

Hilmer, F., ***Business Review Weekly***, 1989, December 22, p 57.

Hilmer, F., "Hilmer discusses the future for Australians at work", ***HR Monthly***, August, 1991, p 9.

Hinrichs, J.R. and Morrison,R.F., "Human Resource Planning in Support of Research and Development", ***Human Resources Planning***, 3, 1980, pp 201-210.

Hirschi, T. and Gottfredson, M., "Age and the Explanation of Crime", ***American Journal of Sociology***, 1983, Vol. 89, No. 3.

Hofstede, G., "Editorial: The usefulness of the 'organizational culture concept", ***Journal of Management Studies***, 1986,Vol. 23 No.3, pp 253-257.

Hogan, M., "Towards a National Approach to Crime Prevention", paper presented at the national conference, ***National Overview on Crime Prevention***, convened by the Australian Institute of Criminology in Adelaide, June 1991.

Hogg, A. and Wilson, C. ***Is the psychological screening of police applicants a realistic goal? - The successes and failures of psychological screening. Report Series No: 124***, National Police Research Unit, Payneham, S.A. 1995.

Howarth, C., "Report of the Joint Design of Technology, Organisation and People Growth Conference" Venice pp 12-14, October, ***Information Services News and Abstracts***, 95 November/December, Work Research Unit: London.

Howell, W.C., ***Essentials of Inustrial and Organisational Psychology***, The Dorsey Press, Homewood, Illinois, 1976.

Huff, D., ***How to Lie With Statistics***, Norton, New York, 1954.

Hughes, H., "The Economic Framework", in Marsh, I.C., (Ed), ***Australia Can Compete: Towards a Flexible Adaptable Society***, Longman Cheshire, Melbourne, 1988, pp 1-24.

Hunt, J. W., ***The Restless Organisation***, Wiley International, Sydney, 1972.

Hunter, J. E. and Hunter, R.F., "The Validity and Utility of Alternative Predictors of Job Performance", ***Psychological Bulletin***, 96, 1984, pp 72-98.

Huse, E.F., ***The Modern Manager***, West Publishing Co., St. Paul. 1979.

Huse, E.F. & Cummings, T.G., ***Organisational Development and Change***, West Publishing Co., St. Paul, 1985.

James, S.P., "Some Observations on Police Selection Methods in Australia", in, Swanton, B., Hannigan, G. and Psaila, T. (Eds.), ***Police Source Book 2***, Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra, 1985, pp 600-612.

Janis, I.L. and Mann, L., ***Decision making: A Psychological Analysis of Conflict, Choice and Commitment***, Free Press, New York, 1977.

Jarjoura, G.R.. "Does Dropping Out of School Enhance Delinquent Involvement? Results from a Large-Scale National Probability Sample", ***Criminology***, 31, 1993, pp 149-172.

Jefferson, T., ***The case against paramilitary policing***, Open University Press, Milton Keynes, Philadelphia, 1990.

Johnson, R.A., Kast, F.E. and Rosenzweig, J.E., ***The Theory and Management of Systems***, McGraw Hill, New York, 1967.

Jones, J.M., "Organizational or Victim Needs: The Implications for a Policing by Objectives Strategy",***Police Journal***, 1983, Vol.56, No.3, pp 276-289.

Juran, J.M., ***Quality Control Handbook***, McGraw Hill, New York, 1988.

Kanter, R.M., ***The Change Masters: Corporate Entrepreneurs at Work***, Counterpoint, New York, 1983.

Kanter, R.M., ***When Giants Learn to Dance: Mastering the Challengs of Strategy, Management and Careers in the 1990s***, Simon and Schuster, London, 1989.

Kanter, R.M., Stein, B.A. and Jick, T.D., ***The Challenge of Organisational Change***, Free Press, New York, 1992.

Kelly, J. E., ***Scientific Management, Job Redesign, and Work Performance***, Academic Press, London, 1982.

Kent, D.A. and Eisenberg, T., "Selection and Promotion of Police Officers", ***The Police Chief***, Vol.40, No.1, 1972, pp 20-29.

Knuckey, D., Oldman, T., White, P. and Clifford, J., ***Review of SAPOL Recruiting Policies and Procedures***, Unpublished Internal Project Report, South Australia Police, Adelaide, December 1994.

Koffka, K., ***Principles of Gestalt Psychology***, , Collins, London, 1935.

Kuhn, T.S., ***The Structure of Scientific Revolutions***, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1962.

Lagan, A., "The Servant Leader", ***City Ethics***, Issue 20, Winter 1995, p 2.

Latham, G.P. and Wexley, K.N., ***Increasing Productivity through Performance Appraisal***, Addison-Wesley, Reading, Massachusetts, 1981.

Leach, J.J., "Manpower Planning and Corporate Objectives: Two Points of View",*Management Review*, August, 1981, pp 55-61.

Lawler, E.E.III, Porter, L.W. and Tennenbaum, A., managers attitudes towards interaction episodes", *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 52, 1968, pp 432-439.

Lawrence, P.R. and Lorsch, J.W., *Organization and Environment*, Harvard Business School, Boston, 1967.

Learned, E.P., Christensen, C.R., Andrews, K.R. and Guth, W.D. (Eds), *Business Policy: Text and Cases*, RD Irwin, Homewood, 1969.

Lewin, K., *Field Theory in Social Science*, Harper and Row, New York, 1951.

Lewin, K.,"Group Decisions and Social Change", in, Swanson, G.E., Newcomb, T.M., and Hartley, E.L.(Eds), *Readings in Social Psychology*, Holt Rhinehart and Winston, New York, 1958.

Lewis, A., "Staff Selection for Dinosaur Age or Space Age", *The Practising Manager*, Vol.1, No.1, pp 9-12.

Lewis, S., "Human resource practices come under the spotlight",*Australian Financial Review*, 10 November, 1989, p 16.

Levine, E.A., *Everything You Always Wanted to Know about Job Analysis,* Mariner Publishing, Tampa Florida, 1983.

Likert, R., *New Patterns of Management*, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1961.

Limerick, D. and Cunnington, B., *Managing The New Organisation*, Business and Professional Publishing, Chatswood, NSW, 1993.

Lippitt, R.,Watson, J. and Westley, B., *The Dynamics of Planned Change*, Harcourt Brace and World, New York, 1958.

Little, Arthur D., *New Directions for South Australia's Economy: Final Report*, Arthur D. Little International Inc. Adelaide, August 1992.

Loo, R. and Meredith, C., "Recruit Selection in the Royal Mounted Police", in Yuille, J.C., ***Police Selection and Training***, Dordrecht, Netherlands, 1986, p 3-20.

Lorange, P. and Murphy, D., "Bringing Human Resources into Strategic Planning: Systems Design Considerations", in Fombrun, C. J., Tichy, N. M., and Devanna, M.A., ***Strategic Human Resource Management***, Wiley, New York, 1984, pp 279-296.

Macken, J.J., ***Award Restructuring***, The Federation Press, Sydney, 1989.

Mackey, C., "Human resource Planning: a Four-Phased Approach", ***Management Review,*** May, 1981, pp 17-22.

Mackay, L., "Personnel management in the public and private sectors", ***Industrial Relations Journal***, Vol. 17, No. 4, 1986, pp 304-319.

Mahler, P., "Police Physical Ability Tests: Can They Ever Be Valid?", ***Public Personnel Management Journal***, Vol. 13, 1981, pp 173-183.

Makridakis, S. and Wheelwright, S.C., (Eds), ***Forecasting***, NorthHolland Publishing, New York, 1979.

Mann, F., "Studying and Creating Change", in, Bennis, W., Benne, K., and Chin, R., ***The Planning of Change: Readings in the Applied Behavioral Sciences;*** Holt Rinehart and Winston, New York, 1962, pp 605-615.

Manning, P.K., "The Police: Mandate, Strategies and Appearances" in W. Clinton Terry III, ***Policing Society: An Occupational View***, John Wiley and Sons, New York, 1985.

Mannion, S.D.,"The Police Constable and the Goals of the British Police Service", ***Bramshill Journal***, 1:3, 1981, pp 30-38.

Marrow, A., "Events Leading to the Establishmentof the National Training Laboratories," ***Journal of Applied Behavioral Science***, 3, January-February 1967; pp 145-150.

Mascarenhas, R.C., "Reform of the Public Service in Australia and New Zealand", *Governance: An International Journal of Policy and Administration*, Vol.3, No.1 Jan. 1990, pp 75-95.

Mathis, R.L. and Jackson, J.H., ***Personnel Contemporary Perspectives and Applications***, (5th. Edition), West Publishing, St. Paul, Minnesota, 1989.

McAulay, P., "The Dilemma of Increased Demand", in Vernon, J. and Bracey, D., (Eds), ***Police resources and Effectiveness***, Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra, 1989, pp 13-19.

McBriar, A.M., , ***1884 Fabian Socialism and English Politics -1918***, Collins, London, 1962.

McCormick, E.J., "Job and Task Analysis", in Dunnette, M.D., (Ed), ***Handbood of Industrial and Organisational Psychology***, Rand McNally, Chicago, 1976, pp 645-696.

McCormick, E.J. and Ilgen, D., ***Industrial and Organisational Psychology***, 8th. Edition, Unwin Hyman, Boston, 1987.

McCormick, E.J., Jeanneret, P.R. and Mecham, R.C., "A Study of Job Characteristics and Job Dimensions as based on the Position Analysis Questionnaire", ***Report Number 6,*** Occupational Research Centre, Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind., 1969.

McEwen, J.T., Connors, E.F., and Cohen, M.I. ***Evaluation of The Differential Police Response Field Test***, National Institute of Justice, 1986.

McEwin, M., "Crime Statistics", in Vernon, J. and Bracey, D. (Ed), ***Police Resources and Effectiveness***, Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra,1989, pp 59-61.

McGurk, B., ***The qualities required to be a police constable related to police entrance tests***, Home Office, London, 1987.

McMillan, E., "An Overview of Crime Prevention in Victoria", in McKillop, S. and Vernon, J. (Eds), ***National Overveiw on Crime Prevention: Conference Proceedings No., 15***, Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra, 1992, pp 59-76.

McNair, C.J., CMA and Leibfried, K.H.J., ***Benchmarking. A Tool for Continuous Improvement,*** Omneo, Essex Junction VT, 1992.

Merritt-Hasston, R. and Wedley, K.N., "Educational Requirements: Legality and Validity", ***Personnel Psychology*** Winter, 1983, pp 743-759.

Merton, R., ***Social Theory and Social Structure***, Free Press, New York, 1968.

Miles, R.E. and Snow, C.C., "Fit, Failure and the Hall of Fame", ***California Management Review***, Spring 1984, 26:3 pp 10-27.

Milkovich, G.T. and Krzystofiak, F., "Simulation and Affirmative Action Planning", ***Human Resource Planning***, 2, 1979, pp 71-80.

Millbank, S., "State Perspective: South Australia", from the national conference ***National Overview on Crime Prevention***, convened by the Australian Institute of Criminology, in Adelaide, in June 1991.

Miller, D. and Mintzberg, H., "The Case for Configuration", in Quinn, J.B., Mintzberg, H. and James, R.M., (Eds), ***The Strategy Process***, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, 1988, pp 518-524.

Miller, E., ***Systems of Organisation***, Tavistock, London, 1967.

Milte, K. and Weber, T., ***Police in Australia***, Butterworths, Sydney, 1977.

Mitchell, T.R.; Dowling, P.J.; Kabanoff, B.V. and Larsen, J.R. (Jun.), ***People in Organisations: An Introduction to Organisational Behaviour in Australia***, McGraw-Hill, Sydney, 1988.

Mintzberg, H., ***The Nature of Managerial Work***, Harper and Row, New York, 1973.

Mintzberg, H., "Crafting Strategy", ***Harvard Business Review***, 65, 4 July-August, 1987, pp 66-75.

Mintzberg, H., "The Design School: Reconsidering the basic premises of strategic management", ***Strategic Management Journal***, 11, 3, 1990, pp 171-195

Mintzberg, H. and Quinn, J.B., ***The Strategy Process: Concepts, Contexts and Cases***, Prentice-Hall, London, 1991.

Modic, S. J., "Strategic Alliances: A Global Economy Demands Global Patnerships", ***Industry Week***, October, 1988, pp 46-52.

Moir, P. and Eijkman, H., (Eds), ***Policing Australia Old Issues New Perspectives***, Macmillan, Melbourne, 1992.

Moore, D., "Police Productivity", in Moir, P. and Eijkman, H., (Eds), **Policing Australia Old Issues New Perspectives**, Macmillan, Melbourne, 1992, pp 40-66.

Morgan, G., ***Riding the Waves of Change***, Jossey Bass, San Francisco, 1988.

Morris, P. and Heal, K., ***Crime Control and the Police: A Review of Research***, Home Office Research Study No. 67, HMSO, London, 1981.

Mugford, S., "Policing Euphoria: The Politics and Pragmatics of Drug Control" in Moir, P. and Eijkman, H., (Eds), ***Policing Australia. Old Issues New Perspectives***, Macmillan, Melbourne, 1992, pp 183-210.

Mukherjee, S.K., ***Crime Trends in Twentieth Century Australia***, Allen and Unwin, Sydney, 1981.

Mukherjee, S.K., "Development and Crime: Challenges for the Future",***The Seventh United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders: Australian Discussion Papers***, Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra 1985, pp 1-30.

Mukherjee, S.K., Scandia, A., Dagger, D., and Matthews, W., ***Source Book of Australian Criminal and Social Statistics 1804-1988***, (BiCentennial Edition), Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra, 1989.

Mukherjee, S.K., Walker, J.R., Psaila, T., Scandia, A. and Dagger, D., ***The Size of the Crime Problem in Australia***, Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra, 1987.

Mukherjee, S.K. and Dagger, D., ***The Size of The Crime Problem in Australia***, Second Ed., Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra, 1990.

Mukherjee, S.K., Neuhaus, D. and Walker, J., ***Crime and Justice in Australia***, Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra, 1990.

Mullins, L., ***Management and Organisational Behaviour,*** Pitman, London, 1989.

Murningham, J.K., "Group Decision Making: What Strategy Should You Use", ***Management Review***, February 1981, pp 56-60.

NSW Police News, March 1989, p 13.

NSW Police Service, ***Today's Recruits Tomorrow's Service. Report of the Recruitment Standards Review Task Force***, NSW Police Service, July 1992.

Nadler, D. and Tushman, M., ***Managing Strategic Organisational Change***, Delta, New York, 1986.

Naisbitt, J., ***Megatrends***, McDonald, London, 1984.

Naisbitt, J. and Aburdene, P., ***Re-inventing the Corporation***, McDonald, London, 1986.

Naisbitt, J. and Aburdene, P., ***Ten Directions for the 1990s - Megatrends 2000***, William Morrow and Co. Inc., New York, 1990.

Nankervis, A.R., Compton, R.L. and McCarthy, T.E., ***Strategic Human Resource Management***, Nelson, Melbourne, 1993.

National Uniform Crime Statistics Committee (NUCSC), ***Measuring Crime***, Canberra, April 1989.

Naylor, T.H., ***Simulation Models in Corporate Measuring***, Draeger, New York, 1979.

Neesham, T., ***Report of the Committee of Inquiry - Victoria Police Force***, Vol. 1, Ministry for Police and Emergency Services, Melbourne, 1985.

Nixon, C. "New South Wales: Crime Prevention Directions for the Future", paper presented at the ***National Overview on Crime Prevention***; a conference convened and hosted by the Australian Institute of Criminology; Adelaide, S.A. June, 1991.

Norstedt, J. and Aguren, S., ***The Saab-Scandia Report***, Swedish Employers' Confederation, Stockholm, 1973.

Northam, G., "A fair degree of force?", ***The Listener***, 31 October, 1985, pp 3-5.

O'Neil, W.M., ***The Beginnings of Modern Psychology***, 2nd. Revised Edition, Sydney University Press, Sydney, 1982.

Office of Public Sector Reform (S.A.), ***Revitalising South Australia: A Vision for the Public Sector. Draft Paper for Consultation***, Adelaide, S.A., December 1992.

Organ, "Linking Pins between Organisations and Environment", in, Organ, D.W., (Ed), ***The Applied Psychology of Work Behaviour: A Book of Readings***, Business Publications Inc.,Plano Texas, 1978, pp 508-519.

Orton, J. D. and Weick, K. E. "Loosely Coupled Sytems: A Reconceptualisation," ***Academy of Management Reveiw***, 15, (2), 1990, p 203-23.

Osborne, D. and Gaebler, T., ***Reinventing Government***, Penguin Plume Books, New York, 1992

Oscarsson, B., Hammarstrom, O., Karlsson, G. and Lindholm, R., ***A New World of Work: Experiences from the Swedish Development Program on New Technology, Work Organisation and Management***, Swedish Work Environment Fund, Report No. 64-10-60, Stockholm, January, 1988, in Dunphy, D. and Stace, D., ***Under New Management***, McGraw-Hill, Sydney, 1992, p 62.

Paffett, S.A., and Williamson, L.S., ***Constable: An Analysis of The Training Need***, Unpublished Research Co-ordination and Development Section Report, Melbourne: Victoria Police Force, 1980.

Palmer, G. (Ed), ***Australian Personnel Management***: A Reader, Macmillan, Sydney, 1988.

Palmer, M., "Controlling Corruption", in Moir, P. and Eijkman, H. (Eds), ***Policing Australia Old Issues New Perspectives***, Macmillan, Melbourne, 1992, pp 102-131.

Panzarella, R., "Management Versus Policing by Objectives", ***Police Journal***, 1984, Vol.57, No.2, pp 110-128.

Pape, J., "Employee Development Programs", ***FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin***, 59 (9), 1990, pp 20-25.

Pascale, R., ***Managing on the Edge***, Simon and Schuster, New York, 1990.

Patrick, J. and Moore, A.K., "Development and Reliability of a Job Analysis Technique", ***Journal of Occupational Psychology***, 58, 1985, pp 149-158.

Patrickson, M. and Bamber, G.J., "Introduction", in Patrickson, M., Bamber, V. and Bamber, G.J. (Eds) ***Organisational Change Strategies Case studies of human resource and industrial relations issues***, Longman, Melbourne, 1995, pp 1-26.

Patrickson, M., Bamber, V. and Bamber, G.J. (Eds) ***Organisational Change Strategies Case studies of human resource and industrial relations issues***, Longman, Melbourne, 1995.

Patten, C.,"Address by the Governor at the opening of the 1992/93 Session of the Legislative Council", ***NSW Hansard***, October 7, 1992.

Pearce, J.A. II and Robinson, R.B. Jr., ***Strategic Management***, (2nd. Ed), Irwin, Homewood, Illinois, 1985.

Perez, C., "Structural Change and the Assimilation of new Technologies in the Economic and Social Systems", ***Futures***, 1983, 15, pp 357-375.

Perrow, C., "A framework for the comparative analysis of organisations", ***American Sociological Review***, 1967, No. 32, pp194-208.

Perrow, C., *Organisational Analysis: A Sociological View*, Tavistock, London, 1970.

Perrow, C., "The organisational context of human factors engineering.", *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 1983, No.28, pp 521-541.

Peters, T.J., "Facing up to the Need for a Management Revolution", *California Management Review*, Vol. 30; No. 2, pp 7-28.

Peters, T.J., *Thriving on Chaos*, Pan, London, 1989.

Peters, T. & Austin, N., *A Passion for Excellence*, Collins, London, 1985.

Peters, T. and Waterman,R. Jr., *In Search of Excellence: Lessons from America's Best-run Companies*, Harper and Row, New York, 1982.

Poland, J. M., "Police selection Methods and the Prediction Of Police Performance", *Journal of Police Science and Administration*, Vol.6, 1978, pp 374-393.

Pettigrew, A., *The Awakening Giant: Continuity and Change in Imperial Chemical Industries*, Blackwell, Oxford, 1985.

Police Foundation and the Policy Studies Institute, *Independent Committee of Inquiry into the Role and Responsibilities of the Police*, Vauxhall, London, August, 1994.

Porter, M. E.,*Competitive Strategy: Techniques for Analysing Industries and Competitors*, Free Press, New York, 1980.

Porter, M. E., *Competitive Advantage*, Free Press, New York, 1985.

Prenzler, T., *Women in Policing:Policy Implications from the US Experience*, Research and Policy Paper, No.3, Centre for Crime Policy and Public Safety, Griffith University, Brisbane, 1992.

Prenzler, T., *Equal Employment Opportunity and Policewomen in Australia*, Research and Policy Paper, Centre for Crime Policy and Public Safety, Griffith University, Brisbane, 1993.

Psychology Unit, ***Inspectors' Selection Manual***, Unpublished document; South Australia Police, July 1989.

Punch, M. and Naylor, T., "The Police: a social service" ***New Society***, 17 May, 1973, pp 358-391.

Purcell, J.,"The impact of corporate strategy on human resource management", paper delivered to IMPNZ/IPMA Conference, Auckland, NZ ,September, 1990; reported in; Nankervis, A.R., Compton, R.L. and McCarthy, T.E., ***Strategic Human Resource Management***, Nelson, Melbourne, 1993, p 33.

Quinn, J. B., ***Strategies for Change: Logical Incrementalism***, Irwin, New York, 1980.

Recruit Training Wing, South Australia Police Academy, ***Recruit Training Manual. Book Seven: "Offences against Property"***, S.A. Police Department, Adelaide, August, 1990.

Robbins, S.P., ***Organization Theory: Structure, Design and Applications***, Prentice-Hall Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1987.

Robbins, S.P., Low, P.S., and Mourell, M.P., ***Managing Human Resources***, Prentice Hall, Sydney, 1986.

Robinson, J., "Police Effectiveness: Old Dilemmas. New Directions", in Vernon, J. and Bracey, D. (Eds), ***Police Resources and Effectiveness***, Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra, 1989, pp 27-32.

Roe, A. and Roe, N., ***Police Selection: A Bibliography of 700 References***, Orem, Utah, Diagnostic Specialists, Inc., 1982.

Rowe, K.J., "Police Recruitment and Selection: Some Vital Conceptual and Practical Issues", **Australian Police Journal**, Vol.39, No.1 Jan-Mar 1985 pp 31-39.

Rutter, A. and Hunt, N., "Rid our Streets of Fear", Adelaide *News*, January 29th. 1991, pp1-2

Ryan, A., "Crime and Culture", ***New Society***, 29 November, 1985, p 382.

Ryan, B., "Circulation Matters: Towards a Model of Public Sector Marketing", in O'Faircheallaigh, C., Graham, P. and Warburton, J., (Eds), ***Service Delivery and Public Sector Marketing***, Macmillan , Melbourne, 1991.

Rynes, S.L. and Miller, H.E., "Recruiter and job influences on candidates for employment", ***Journal of Applied Psychology***, 1983, Vol. 68, No.1, 3 February, pp 147-154.

Savery, L.K. and Bushe-Jones, S. "The Decline in WA Police Officers' Salaries 1974-1990", ***Australian Bulletin of Labour***, Vol. 18, No.3, 1992, pp 208-216.

Scarborough, N. and Zimmerer, T.W., "Human Resources Forecasting: Why and Where to Begin", ***Personnel Administrator***, May 1982, pp 55-61.

Schein, E, H., ***Process Consultation***, Addison Wesley; Reading Mass., 1969.

Schein, E. H., ***Organisational Psychology***, Third Edition, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1980

Schein, E.H.,***Organizational Culture and Leadership: A Dynamic View***, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, 1985.

Schein, E. H., "Coming to a New Awareness of Organisational Culture", in Schein, E. H., (Ed), ***The Art of Managing Human Resources***, Oxford University Press, London, 1987.

Schmuck, R., Runkel, P. and Langmeyer, D.,"Improving Organisational Problem-Solving in a School Faculty", ***Journal of Applied Behavioral Science***, 5 October-November 1969, pp 455-482.

Schneider, B.,***Staffing Organisations***, Pacific Palisades, California, Goodyear, 1976, in Schein, E.H., "Increasing Organisational Effectiveness Through Better Human Resource Planning and Development", ***Sloan Management Review***, Autumn, 1977, pp 1-20.

Schneider, B., "Notes on Climate and Culture", in Lovelock, C.H., ***Managing Services: Marketing, Operations and Human Resources***, Prentice-Hall, London, 1988, pp 352-358.

Schnelle, J.F., Kirchner, Jr. R.E.,Casey, J.D., Uselton, P.H. and McNees, M.P., "Patrol Evaluation Research: A Multiple-Baseline Analysis of Saturation Police Patrolling During Day and Night Hours", ***Journal of Applied Behaviour Analysis***, 1977, Vol.10, No.1, pp 33-40.

Schreiber, C.T., "Using Demographic and Technological Forecasts for Human Resource Planning", in Mensch, G. and Neihaus, R. J., ***Work, Organization and Technological Change***, Plenum, New York, 1982, pp 39-52.

Schuler, R.S., Dowling, P.J. and Smart, J.P., ***Personnel/Human Resource Management in Australia***, Harper and Row, Artarmon NSW, 1988.

Schuler, R.S., Dowling, P.J., Smart, J.P., and Huber, V.L., ***Human Resource Management in Australia***, (2nd. Edition), Harper International, Pymble, NSW, 1992.

Schwartz, H. and Davis, S.M.,"Matching Corporate Culture and Business Strategy", ***Organisational Dynamics***, 1981, 10, pp 30-48.

Scott, W.R., ***Organisations: Rational, Natural and Open Systems***, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ, 1987.

Scraton, P., "Unreasonable Force: Policing, punishment and marginalisation", in Scraton, P., (Ed), ***Law, Order and the Authoritarian State***, Milton Keynes, Open University Press, 1987, pp 145-189.

Shaskin, M., "Participative Management is an Ethical Imperative", ***Organisational Dynamics***, Spring, 1984, pp 62-75.

Shearing, C.D. and Leon, J.S., "Reconsidering the Police Role: A Challenge to a Challenge of a Popular Conception", in, McCormick, K.R.E. and Visano, L.A., (Eds.), ***Understanding Policing***, Canadian Scholars Press, Toronto, 1992, pp 209-227.

Siegel, S.J., ***Criminology*** (5th. Edition), West Publishing Co., Minneapolis/St. Paul, 1995.

Simpson, J., "Visioning: More Than Meets The Eye", ***Training and Development Journal***, 44 (9), 1990, pp 70-72.

Smith, J.G., ***Business Strategy***, Blackwell, Oxford, 1985.

South Australian Commission of Audit, ***Charting the Way Forward: Improving public sector performance. Overview***, Report of the South Australian Commission of Audit, Adelaide, S.A., April, 1994.

South Australian Government, Office of Public Sector Reform, ***A Bias for Yes: The Public Sector Response in the Revitalisation of South Australia***, South Australian Government, Adelaide, S.A., April, 1993.

South Australia Police Department, ***Annual Report of the Commissioner of Police: for the Year ended 30 June 1989***, Adelaide, S.A. Sept. 1989.

South Australia Police Department, ***General Duties Mannual***, S.A. Government Printer, Adelaide. 1989a

South Australia Police Department, ***Corporate Directions 1991-1994***, Corporate Planning Unit, S.A. Police, Adelaide, S.A. 1991.

South Australian Police Department, ***Role of Policing for the Future***, an unpublished Position Paper, 1991a.

South Australia Police Department, ***Corporate Plan,*** S.A. Police, Adelaide S.A. 1994.

South Australia Police Department, ***Towards a Benchmark***, S.A. Police, Unpublished Project Manual, Adelaide S.A., June 1994.

Southgate, P. and Crisp, D., ***Public Satisfaction with Police Services***, Home Office, Research and Planning Unit, paper 73, London, HMSO, 1992.

Sparrow, M.K., Moore, M.H. and Kennedy, D.M., ***Beyond 911: A New Era for Policing***, basic Books, New York, 1990.

Spencer, J. and Pruss, A., ***How to Implement Change in Your Company***, Piatkus, London, 1994.

Spielberger, C. (Ed), ***Police Selection and Performance Evaluation: Issues and Techniques***, Praeger, New York, 1979.

Stace, D. and Dunphy, D., ***Beyond the Boundaries. Leading and Re-Creating the Successful Enterprise***, McGraw-Hill, Sydney, 1994.

Steinhilper, G., "Training Police for Social Work? - Experiences from a German Program.", in Yuille, J.C., ***Police Selection and Training***, NATO Advanced Science Institute Series, Martinus Hijhoff Publishers, Dordrecht, 1986, pp 67-87.

Sumner, C. M.P., "Crime Prevention: An Overview" presented at National Conference, ***National Overview on Crime Prevention***, convened by the Australian Institute of Criminology, Adelaide, S.A., June, 1991.

Sutton, A. "Community Crime Prevention: A National Perspective", in Chappell, D. and Wilson, P. (Eds), ***The Australian Criminal Justice System. The Mid 1990s***, Butterworths, Sydney, 1994, pp 213-234.

Swanton, B., Hannigan, G. and Psaila, T.,(Eds) ***Police Source Book 2***, Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra, 1985.

Tate, M., "Opening Address", in Vernon, J. and Bracey, D. (Ed), ***Police Resources and Effectiveness***, Proceedings No. 27, The Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra, 1989, pp 5-12.

Taylor, F.W.,***The Principles of Scientific Management***, (1911) ,Harper, New York, 1947 Edition.

Taylor, M.S. and Bergmann,T.J., "Organisational Recruitment Activities and Applicants' Reactions to Different Stages of the Recruitment Process", ***Personnel Psychology***, 40, 1987, pp 261-285.

Taylor, B. "Completed Duty", ***Police Journal***, Vol 76, No.10, October 1995, p 35.

Tharenou, P., "Performance Review: Dilemmas and Contradictions", ***The Bulletin of the Australian Psychology Society***, December, 1992, pp 7-10.

Tharp, C.G., "A manager's guide to selection interviewing", ***Personnel Journal***, Vol. 62, No. 8, 1983, pp 636-639.

Thompson, A.A., Jr. and Strickland, A.J., ***Strategy Formulation and Implementation***, Business Publications Inc., Illinois, 1983.

Thompson, J. ***Organizations in Action,*** , McGraw Hill, New York, 1967.

Toffler, A., ***Future Shock***, Pan Books, London, 1971.

Toffler, A., "Beyond the Break-up of Industrial Society: Political and Economic Strategies in the Context of Upheaval", in Williamson, J.N., (Ed), ***The Leader Manager***, Wiley, New York, 1984.

Tornow, W.W. and Pinto, P.R., "The Development of a Managerial Job Taxonomy: A System for Describing, Clasifying and Evaluating Executive Positions", ***Journal of Applied Psychology***, 1976, 61, pp 410-418.

Torrington, D. and Mackay,L., "Will consultants take over the personnel function?", ***Personnel Management***, February, 1986, pp 35-38.

Tracy-Stratton, B., "Integrating Women into Law Enforcement", in Yuille, J.C., (Ed), ***Police Selection and Training***, NATO Advanced Science Institute Series, Martinus Hijhoff Publishers, Dordrecht, 1986, pp 307-324.

Trist, E. and Bamforth, K., "Some Social and Psychological Consequences of the Longwall Method of Goal-Getting", ***Human Relations***, 4, January 1951, pp 1-58.

U.S. Employment Service, ***A Guide to Job Analysis***, U.S. Employment Service; U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. March, 1982.

Valenta, T., "Australians at work project" ***HR Monthly***, September 1992, p 6.

Vernon, J. and Bracey, D. (Ed), ***Police Resources and Effectiveness***, Proceedings No. 27, The Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra, 1989.

van Dijk, J.J.M., Mayhew, P. and Killias, M., ***Experiences of Crime Across the World, Key Findings of the 1989 International Crime Survey***, Deventer, The Netherlands, 1990.

Waddington, P., "The Objectives Debate", ***Policing***, 1986, Vol.2 No.3, pp 225-233.

Wade, D., "Thinking, communicating and initiating change", ***HR Monthly***, March 1992, p 8.

Walker, J., ***Forecasting Prisoner Numbers***, Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra, 1985.

Walker, J., ***Crime in Australia - as Measured by the Australian Component of the International Crime Victims Survey***, Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra, 1992.

Walker, J., "Trends in Crime and Criminal Justice", in Chappell, D. and Wilson, P., (Eds), ***The Australian Criminal Justice System. The Mid 1990s***, Butterworths, Sydney, 1994, pp 1-36.

Walker, J.W., ***Human Resource Planning***, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1980.

Walker, J.W. and Armes, R., "Implementing Management Succession Planning in Diversified Companies", ***Human Resource Planning***, 2, 1979, pp 123-133.

Walker, P., and Henderson, M.,"Understanding Crime Trends in Australia", ***Trends and Issues in Crime and Criminal Justice***, No. 28 January, Institute of Criminology, Canberra, 1991.

Wallage, D., "Writing Job ads in an uncertain climate", ***HR Monthly***, May 1991, p 10.

Walton, R., "From Control to Commitment in the Workplace", ***Harvard Business Review***, March/April, 1985, 63:2, pp 77-84.

Wanna, J., O'Faircheallaigh, C. and Weller, P., ***Public Sector Management in Australia***, Macmillan, Melbourne, 1992.

Warner, R., Steel, B and Lovrich, N., "Conditions Associated with the Advent of Representative Bureaucracy: The Case of Women in Policing", ***Social Science Quarterly***, Vol. 70, September 1989, pp 562-568.

Weisheit, R., "Women in the State Police: Concerns of Male and Female Officers", ***Journal of Police Science and Administration***, Vol. 15, No.2, 1987, pp 137-144.

Weiss, J., "A View of Police Productivity", ***Law and Order***, 1986, Vol.34, No.11 pp 44-48.

Werther, W.B. Jr. and Davis, K., ***Human Resource and Personnel Management***, 3rd. Ed., Prentice-Hall, Singapore, 1989.

West, J. and Thomson, A., "Problem Oriented Policing: A Team Approach", from the national conference, ***National Overview on Crime Prevention***, convened by the Australian Institute of Criminology in Adelaide, June 1991.

West, J. and Weber, L., "Attracting Applicants", ***Police Recruitment Strategy Project***, Vol.1, Unpublished Report, South Australia Police, Adelaide, May 1990a.

West, J. and Weber, L., "Pre-Entry Criteria", ***Police Recruitment Strategy Project***, Vol. 2, Unpublished Report, South Australia Police, Adelaide, May 1990b.

Westwood, D., "The Poor Wot Gets the Blame", ***Police Review***, 14 December 1990, pp 2464-2465.

Wickens, P., ***The Road to Nissan***, Macmillan, London, 1987.

Williams, R., "Transformation or chaos? HR in the 1990s", ***HR Monthly***, November 1991, p10.

Wilson, D.C., ***A Strategy of Change***, Routledge Series on Analytical Management, Routledge, London 1992.

Wilson, P., "Crime out of Control", ***Australian Society***, April 1987, pp 12-14.

Wilson, P., "Police and The Media", in Moir, P. and Eijkman, H., ***Policing Australia. Old Issues New Perspectives***, Macmillan, Melbourne, 1992, pp 160-180.

Wolfgang, M.E., "Why Criminal Statistics?", in, Radzinowicz, L. and Wolfgang, M.E., (Eds), ***Crime and Justice: Volume 1, The Criminal in Society***, New York, Basic Books, pp 130-131.

Wycoff, M.A., "Improving Police Performance Measurement: One More Voice",***Urban Interest***, 1982, Vol.4, No.1 pp 8-16.

Wycoff, M.A. and Manning, P., "the Police and Crime Control", in, Whitaker, G.P. and Phillips, C.D., (Eds), ***Evaluating Performance of Criminal Justice Agencies***, Sage Publications, Beverley Hills California, 1983.

Yuille, J.C., (Ed), ***Police Selection and Training***, NATO Advanced Science Institute Series, Martinus Hijhoff Publishers, Dordrecht, 1986.

Zuravin, S., "The Ecology of Child Abuse and Neglect: Review of the Literature and Presentation of Data, ***Violence and Victims***, 4, 1989, pp 101-120.