Initial Police Training in England and Wales, 1945 – 2009

Shauna Mary Peacock

Doctorate in Education
University of East Anglia
School of Education

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Abstract

A thematic inspection by Her Majesty’s Inspectorate of Constabulary in 2002 concluded that dramatic changes needed to be made to the training of police recruits to reflect the policing needs of the twenty-first century. The training, it reported, had not changed since the end of the Second World War. This thesis charts the developments of Initial Police Training from 1945 until 2009.

Each chapter represents a decade of continuity and change in the training programme. Whilst there is much emphasis on the programme of the time there is reference to the social and political issues impacting on the development of police training. Policing cannot be conducted without the support of the community and the links between the service and the public they serve are evident throughout the research.

Initial police training has not been a major field of academic endeavour and the little that has been written is often focussed on the significant change to probationer training made in the 1980’s as a result of work conducted by the University of East Anglia. This thesis presents the continuity and change in the training since the Second World War to the present day. It concludes with a summary of the issues still facing those with responsibility for the development and management of training for future police officers.

The research was conducted predominantly with the use of documentary evidence from a range of sources from the report of the committee tasked with reconstructing the police service following the Second World War through to newsletters from the latest training modernisation group. The documentary research is supplemented by interviews with key players in the most recent developments in initial police training.
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Most importantly I could not have completed this research without the patience and love of my husband Tim. He has endured much discussion about the history of police training, proof read hundreds of pages, dealt with all my technological problems and cooked many sustaining meals. I cannot thank him enough for putting up with my studies for five out of the six years of our marriage.

The memory of my late father, a police officer, has also kept me going through this study as I learnt so much about his career by researching the history of the training he completed and how policing changed through his service 1954 – 1979.
Chapter One – Introduction to Initial Police Training

The publication of ‘Training Matters’, the report of a thematic inspection by Her Majesty’s Inspectorate of Constabulary (HMIC) in 2002, stated that police probationer training had not changed significantly since the Second World War and was not fit for twenty-first century policing. As a consequence of that report the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme (IPLDP) was created for new police officers to complete. This was launched throughout England and Wales\(^1\) in 2006. As a police officer working as a training manager I was tasked with implementing IPLDP for Norfolk Constabulary. I had experienced earlier training programmes as a recruit, a trainer and a training supervisor. Although an ‘insider’ I was not fully aware of why changes to the programme had been made over the decades and the observation by HMIC led me to explore why, despite there being several changes made to probationer training, it was still considered that the product was not fit for contemporary policing.

Terminology
As an insider I have already started to use terms that are perhaps not familiar to the ‘outsider’. When someone first becomes a police officer they complete what is known as the probationary period and the officer is known as a probationer. Probation is defined in the dictionary as ‘a trial period in which a person’s fitness for membership in a working or social group is tested.’ This is exactly what happens for two years for a police officer. Since the Second World War the tests have changed, both legislatively and procedurally in terms of operational policing. The means for testing that ‘fitness’ has also changed during that time. After an initial period of training in the 1940’s officers were partnered with more experienced officers who would show the new recruit the ‘ropes’. As time progressed, these experienced officers started to receive training in how to best impart their knowledge and tutor the new recruit in the operational skills of the role. In more recent times, the methods of assessment of the new officers skills have developed along with the means of recording those assessments.

\(^1\) Although the Metropolitan Police Service adopted IPLDP, it had conducted its own training programme prior to that, so reference to England and Wales for purposes of this research excludes the Metropolitan Police Service.
The phrase ‘initial training’ covers the whole of the probationary period in the context of this thesis, however some references to initial training in official reports means purely the first course within those two years. Over the decades the number of courses a probationer attends on joining the police service has altered both in terms of time periods and at varying time slots within the probation. The reasons for those changes and the impact it had on the development of the police officers and the police service as a whole are documented over the following chapters. The starting point for this research was 1945; the thematic report establishing that the training had not changed significantly since the Second World War led me to explore what training was like at that time. Prior to the War the training of new police officers was a haphazard affair, with only some of the forces having their own training centre. Those without facilities called on other forces to train their officers. Appendix A contains written communication between Norfolk Police Authority and the City of Birmingham in negotiating the training of the Norfolk police officers. The document gives little detail in terms of the training the officers would undergo.

As a result of a significant shortfall of police officers following the Second World War there was recognition in the planning for the reconstitution of the police service that a large recruitment drive would present challenges in terms of training. Aside from coping with the logistics of numbers, a lead member of the working group was also keen to ensure a more standardised approach to training of police officers. The chance to make use of military establishments, which were no longer required after the war, set the seal on the introduction of District Police Training Centres. This provided self-contained training venues across England and Wales to manage the throughput of new officers. The use of these centres continued until 2006 or at least some of the original ones were used until that time, in fact one is still in police use today². Some centres were relocated but the principle of sending new officers to a centre somewhere within their district³

² Ryton on Dunsmore centre is still used by the National Police Improvement Agency as a training and conference centre
³ Police Forces were grouped into Districts to make consultation and collaboration easier. Today these Districts are known as Regions. For example, Norfolk, Suffolk, Essex, Hertfordshire, Bedfordshire and Cambridgeshire make up the Eastern Region.
remained. The name of these centres has changed throughout time from District Police Training Centre, to District Training Centre, Regional Training Centre, Home Office Training Centre and Police Training Centre. They are one and the same in principle. These centres were run as completely separate establishments to police forces. The term in-force training refers to each individual police force having their own department responsible for training, usually based at the force headquarters.

The officers tasked with the delivery of training have had their titles changed over the years. Until very recently the training has been delivered exclusively by police officers, originally these were officers of a supervisory rank, usually sergeant or inspector. Late in the twentieth century it was recognised that the role was more about skill and ability than rank and the role was opened to constables. More recently police staff\(^4\) have been employed to train new recruits. In the 1940’s the officers delivering training were known as instructors. This title changed as a result of the review of training conducted in the 1980’s and as an attempt to more accurately reflect the role the title was changed to ‘trainer’. Trainers, formerly instructors, are most usually classroom-based staff, facilitating learning away from the operational element of policing. A tutor, usually tutor constable, is the term often given to an officer who completes paired patrol with a new recruit giving one to one support and guidance following the classroom input, in an operational environment. This role has grown over time from officers being chosen because they were a good police officer, to recognising the skills required to perform the role. Now tutor constables complete a period of training themselves to undertake the role and learn how best to support new officers and encourage learning in the workplace.

**Why is the history of police training important?**

I confess that in my school days history was not my favourite topic and I dropped the subject when choosing my ‘O’ level options, stating I believed in looking to the future rather than the past. With that in mind I surprised myself in choosing

\(^4\) Police staff are members of staff who are not police officers but are employed by the police service. The used to be known as civilians but this was considered to be a ‘throw back’ from the militaristic days of the service.
to research history. I wanted to understand how police training had developed and establish what lessons had been learned through that development to shape the training of today’s police officers. Connell-Smith and Lloyd argued in the 1970’s that the ‘professional historian’ focussed on the past as a separate entity, excluding any influence of the present in their studies. By doing this they claimed historians were at risk of disenchanted students from their work. Not understanding how the Tudors affected my life certainly made an impact on my choice of studies at school. However taking a ‘contemporary approach’ they argue will help students to develop judgement and understanding of the influence of the past on the present day (Connell-Smith and Lloyd, 1972). Aldrich suggests that having an historical perspective can broaden the knowledge and understanding of an experience, in this case initial police training, which in turn can promote an enlarged understanding of current possibilities (Aldrich, 2006). This means understanding what worked well in police training in the past, in addition to identifying the elements which have changed over the years and how this might affect proposals for the future.

Aldrich outlines three duties for historians, a duty to the people of the past, to the people of our own generation and a duty to find the truth. This research aims to give a voice to the past and explain how initial police training has evolved. In doings so I have attempted to match the developments with the contemporary policing styles. Individuals charged with decision making today with regard to police training can benefit from this work in understanding why the programme of today exists and what has worked in the past. ‘The truth’ in this case is the outline of how training has evolved since the end of the Second World War, why changes have been made and what that means for the training of police officers in the twenty-first century.

Aldrich (2006, page 3) stated, “many other key questions about education today can only be understood, and in some cases answered, by reference to history.” Professor John Elliott of the University of East Anglia indicated in interview that he felt there was a lack of retention of knowledge within the world of police training, for example the police officers he had worked with during the review of probationer training, in his opinion, had retired taking their knowledge with
them. The loss of that historical knowledge can lead to mistakes being repeated or a reversion to old methods without understanding the potential impact. The training of new police officers is central to their role; by researching and presenting the history of initial police training I hope to develop the understanding of training of new officers and the impact on the organisation in which they serve. This supports Aldrich’s observation that education is central to human experience and therefore the understanding of the history of the education is central to the understanding of education itself (Aldrich, 2006). This thesis provides a historical perspective of initial police training to help those tasked with understanding initial police training today.

The challenge for me as I explored the history of police training was to follow Aldrich’s advice (Aldrich, 2006) of ensuring that the historical study provides interest by placing recent and contemporary events into a historical perspective. This is crucial to understanding the developments in initial police training. By placing the developments into context it makes it clearer to understand whether something that worked at one point in history is likely to work in a contemporary setting. I have attempted to do this by mapping the continuity and change through the decades and highlighting the impact on the training of twenty-first century police officers. Aldrich had a view that an “accurate map” of the past will assist with decision making for the future provided the map is accurate and relevant to the current situation (Aldrich, 2006).

The discipline of history is thought by Jordanova to be crucial, she states “mistaken claims must be challenged” (Jordanova, 2000, page 92). She explains by studying primary sources historians can lay out the evidence of the past with a certain objectivity. An example of mistaken claim is evident in chapters six and seven of this thesis. During a review of training in the 1990’s the police service had a view of how the University of East Anglia’s Stage II Review Team had changed the face of training, this is recorded in the review documentation (Bray et al, 1996). In interview a member of the UEA team had a view that the officer tasked with the implementation and the service had not adapted the principles the university had proposed. Committing both viewpoints to paper offers a more objective viewpoint than the documentation suggested. McCulloch highlights in
an editorial article ‘Aldrich stresses his belief that acknowledgements of the impossibility of attaining absolute truth “do not absolve” the historian from searching for it. He argues, indeed, that such awareness only heightens the search.’ (McCulloch, Watts, 2003) Of course there can be limitations on the search, an example in my research was the inability to locate the officer concerned to offer his view.

By ‘unpacking’ the development of police training over the decades I hoped to gain an understanding of how the programme has evolved and whether the service has actually learned the lessons from previous reviews of the training. By understanding the history of developments in training, the police service should be able to shape the training of the future and learn lessons from any mistakes as well as developing the elements of training, which have proved successful. There is a danger that by not taking account of history the wheel will be re-invented several times. In the culture of today in which forces are constantly being challenged about the effectiveness of their service, both in terms of cost and delivery, learning lessons from the past is crucial. This is not as simple as it may seem. Aldrich (2006, page 2) suggests that the study of history of education “has the potential to demonstrate not only how people lived their lives in the past, but also how we may live better in the present and future.” This might suggest the police service could learn from the past, however Aldrich also points out “different lessons may be drawn from consideration of the same events.” (Aldrich, 2006, page 1) This is evidenced through the thesis through various reviews of initial police training. That view has been shown to be different dependent on who was looking at it and where from, for example the view of a Chief Constable might be very different to that of a Police Constable experiencing the training. This thesis maps out the developments in police recruit training. Each time there has been a change in the training programme there has been a review of the existing methods and processes. I have reported the conclusions made at the time of those reviews, however the outcomes of my research offers an updated consideration of the same events.
Research Methods

A thesis written by F. D. Allard in 1997 entitled ‘Police Probationer Training Policy and Practice – An Historical Review’ claims there is a lack of literature on police probationer training. Indeed police training is not a major field of academic endeavour and little has been written about it, however there is much documentation available to support the research. The National Police Library based at Bramshill in Hampshire has been an invaluable source of material. The historian team at Norfolk Constabulary were also a useful source of documentary evidence. The University of East Anglia kindly allowed me access to the archived material from the review of police training conducted in the 1980’s. Much of my study involved the research of documentary evidence.

Documentary research has traditionally been a common methodological approach for historians (Scott 1990, page 1 and McCulloch 2004, page 4). This has also become a recognised approach for those studying social sciences and education. This was a relevant and appropriate method for this particular research project, which combines both the educational and social perspective of the historical development of police training. Equally because of the time period covered, i.e. 1945 to the present day, I made the decision to focus predominantly on documentation. Whilst I might be able to find police officers, current or retired, who might be able to remember clearly the more recent training programmes, it would prove more challenging to find someone who had been trained through the earlier programmes.

So what is documentary research and what constitutes a document? The word ‘document’ in the twenty-first century covers a wide range of texts: - including books, newspapers, poems, biographies, official reports, e-mails, web pages, the list is considerable. In fact Scott (1990, page 12) considers any written text to be a document. One would expect the police service to have thousands of documents given the complaints from officers that there is always too much paperwork. However the skill within research is not just to identify which documents are key to the topic but also in analysing their authenticity, relevance and reliability. The reporting of the findings is equally important, “words, whether spoken or written, will never be able to recapture the events of the past
in their entirety, but the search for as accurate a representation as possible is as important for the historian in the lecture hall or journal article as for the judge and jury in the courtroom.” (Aldrich, 2006, page 25)

There are number of factors to consider when reading a document or text, such as the author, the origin of the text, the context of the document in relation to the timeline of events, whether the document is original or one of many copies, who has had editorial control and the purpose of the publication. The author of the document or text needs to be considered in relation to their role in the research or subject matter. For example, if the author were a government official, one would expect the text to reflect the ‘spin’ of the day, the “orthodox line to undermine criticisms and alternatives” (McCulloch 2004, page 39). If Chief Police Officers had produced the document it would be representative of the official management view on the topic matter.

In conducting this research there have been some documents, which I have been unable to source, Jordanova explains how such a situation can create angst amongst historians. Not only can there be difficulty in sourcing documents, with the availability of the World Wide Web there can often be a number of sources but their reliability and authenticity cannot be guaranteed or easily assessed. She claims that the quality of the historical knowledge should not be judged by absolute criteria, but consideration must be made of the goals and the selection of material (Jordanova, 2000, page 103). Aldrich indicates “The historian’s duty to the people of the past is best fulfilled by employing a wide variety of sources, both public and private.” (Aldrich, 2006, pages 18 - 19) My research has used a wide range of documents to purposely add breadth to the picture; for example minutes of official meetings, a research paper of a budding senior officer, speech notes of a Chief Constable, official reports of Royal Commissions and Home Office reports.

The nature of the text or document is a further consideration. If the document is an original, this is often known as a primary source (McCulloch 2004, page 31) and if produced during the day-to-day practice of the author’s work this is likely to be relevant to the topic. For example the original notes taken during a field
visit by a member of Her Majesty’s Inspectorate of Constabulary may have more bearing on a topic than the final published report which may not offer the details required by a researcher. If an article or book is an edited version the researcher cannot be sure what has been edited. The editor may take out the points which they feel are irrelevant to a topic and in their eyes make the text a much better read. However the researcher may have found the discarded elements particularly useful.

I supplemented my documentary research by interviewing some of the key players of recent developments in initial police training to clarify some of the questions raised as a result of the documentary research. Martin Richards, Chief Constable of Sussex, kindly offered an insight to his involvement in police training from being a recruit to a commandant at a Police Training Centre, to his more recent role as the nationwide lead at the time of introduction of the latest training programme. Robin Field-Smith the recently retired HMIC for Personnel and Training explained his initial view of police training on taking the role in 2002 and how he felt it had developed during his time in post. Professor John Elliott of the University of East Anglia (UEA) had significant involvement in the review and development of initial police training in the 1980’s and again in 2003. He provided a viewpoint, which was not encapsulated in any of the documentation I had found. Professor Nigel Norris also of the UEA, and Mr Terry George, a retired police trainer, filled some gaps in my knowledge and provided confirmation of evidence I had gained through documentary research. I am indebted to them all.

Police officers can be great storytellers and will often regale new recruits with stories of their career and their training experiences. These stories will often be a paradoxical mix of a tough disciplinarian approach, that they may not have enjoyed, and an experience of learning which they felt prepared them well for the job they were about to do. For example a retired officer who had completed his training in 1956 told me that the training was much better when officers were sent to training centres rather than trained in-force as they are today. When questioned why, he explained that because the recruits did everything together at the centre it created a team-working ethos. He also felt that because he was away
from home there were no distractions to his study, however, he conceded that
once on patrol he did not need to know all of the legislation he had learnt at the
centre. This highlights for me how the story telling of history can revise our view
of the past. The historian’s job is to collect this data and make some sense of it to
present their case. Aldrich (2006, page 32) re-tells how Kenneth Baker\(^5\), in an
interview for the Times Educational Supplement explained the challenges he
faced when discussing anything about education in Cabinet, as his colleagues
liked to digress and reminisce about their own experiences. A similar situation
can occur when talking to police officers about training, they like to give a view
of their own experiences and the moulding effect it had on their own careers.
Aldrich points out that it is important for the historian to rescue the past from any
“sentimentality” and “provide a more sophisticated representation and analysis”
(Aldrich, 2006, page 31). For this reason I have tried to detach myself from my
personal experiences of being involved in police training as a recruit, trainer and
manager and concentrate on an analysis of data obtained from other sources.

One has to take account of the position of an individual in that historical story;
our own experiences can influence the historical perspective (Aldrich, 2006). A
new recruit joining the police service is unlikely to take much account of why
they are trained in a particular manner; their focus is likely to be on learning how
to be a police officer. Their later reflection on their experiences of training will
take account of how well prepared they were for operational duty, the
relationship with and skill of their trainer and tutor constable and the nature of
incidents they are presented with to police soon after their training. Such is the
nature of policing one cannot predict what will occur on any given day, so if a
new recruit is presented with a serious and catastrophic incident on the first day,
their capability to deal with that might impact on their view of the training they
received. If they coped with it well they will look more positively on their
training, if they are challenged by this incident they may have a different view
dependent on how well they were supported and debriefed about that incident by
tutors or supervisors. Such situations one might argue would cause a recruit to
revise their thoughts on their training and therefore their particular view of

\(^5\) Kenneth Baker was Secretary of State for Education in 1996)
history. Whilst the views of officers about their training would have added to the picture I chose not to consider this evidence in my research. I could not have found a representative number from each of the decades. Equally as my research developed I wanted a greater understanding of why the training programme had changed, this information would come from evidence of decisions taken at a much higher level. The experiences of new recruits have been captured as a result of research completed in order to change the training programme in the 1980’s and 2003.

Having focussed on the position of someone who has experienced training and their role in history, one also has to take account of the view of those who were involved first hand in the delivery of training or indeed the development of the programme. Their role in taking that programme forward would influence their view of that particular product. Their commentary on those programmes would need to be analysed. The problem in any discourse analysis is to understand what people really mean and not to judge whether it is right or wrong (Jorgensen and Phillips, 2008). The biggest challenge for me in any sort of analysis was my insider role being both a police officer and a training manager. I tried to distance myself from the material I studied which was easier to do in the study of the earlier decades of this research than those in which I have played a role, particularly the ‘noughties’. Supplementary to the documentary research I elected to interview key players involved in developing the training between 2003 and 2006, from the HMIC, the police service and the UEA in seeking to balance my insider view (interviewees previously detailed on page 15).

The benefit of being an insider has been the accessibility of much of the documentation. In the earlier decades the documentation is predominantly official reports and records of meetings. In the last decade of this research newsletters and email communication have become more prevalent and would not necessarily be available through library access. Dawson and Williams (2009) highlight this access to data as a benefit of being an insider. They describe the Strategic, Research and Analysis Unit of the Metropolitan Police (SRAU) as being made up of “inside outsiders”. They argue the benefits of this position in terms of access to data and the fact that “we can attempt to influence change and
see our work being practically used to drive improvement.” (Dawson and Williams, 2009, page 375). Elliott had outlined the challenge for an outside researcher and the relationship with insider practitioners, early theories suggested that insiders could not provide knowledge generation; only outsiders could provide that degree of objective detachment (Elliott, 1988). However he explains the debate has moved on with new insights into the position of insiders and recognition of their contribution to knowledge base. He points out that even as an outsider, a researcher of education will have had some experience of education during their formative years, it could be argued then that they had some insider knowledge. From my own point of view, although I was an insider from 1980, when I completed my initial training as a police officer, my knowledge base was purely of learning the role of policing, not of the ‘mechanics’ of the training programme.

Dawson and Williams (2009) argue that the insider unit is attempting to influence change and develop organisational knowledge. By being an insider there is opportunity to build relationships with policyholders and support change. My insider role became more developed once I took on the role of training supervisor and started to understand the training programme of the time in detail. By having that insider knowledge of both policing and training, I can ‘speak the language’ and in presenting my findings attempt to provide a map for future police training.

**Is this just about training?**

While the body of my research is about the history of police training, there has necessarily been a need for some diversion. To understand the training of new police officers it is important to set it in the context of policing. The role of the police service has changed significantly since the Second World War to match social and political changes. In concluding his book ‘British Society Since 1945’, Marwick states “what we are faced with is a complicated historical legacy in which former strengths seem to have become weaknesses and remedies emerge as worse than the evils they were intended to cure.” (Marwick, 1982, page 277) This provides a snapshot of one historian’s view of the societal changes since the Second World War; a flavour of this history is interwoven into the story of the
development of initial police training to help the reader understand why changes were required in the programme. These changes had an impact on the topics that were delivered within the programme, such as civil defence training in the early part of the research period to more emphasis on community relations introduced into the programme in recent years. Changes in society also had an impact on the structure of the programme, moving from the bulk of the training being delivered at a training centre, to a modular approach which incorporated more operationally based training and more recently to training being delivered in-force.

Aldrich (2006, page 19) highlights a duty of the historian is to “research, record and interpret past events as fully and as accurately as possible”. This became apparent as I researched the history of initial police training; it is impossible to tell the story of police training without expanding on the pressures on the service at key times. This started with the reconstruction of the service following the Second World War during which many officers had been lost, leading to a mass recruitment and training need and the establishment of training centres. The Government approach to managing the service was also changing with more involvement and control of the development of the police service. In the 1960’s the training of new police officers was largely untouched however a Royal Commission on Policing in 1962 had a significant impact on the structure of the service. The number of forces was reduced and the Police Act of 1964 changed some of the regulatory processes. The 1970’s saw an introduction of a more standardised approach to policing with the establishment of a central unit to take control of the training of all new officers across England and Wales. Public unrest in the early 1980’s led to a fundamental review of initial police training, which resulted in what was described at the time to be a radical change to the programme. The police service reverted to a more traditional approach to training in the 1990’s. As the twentieth century was coming to a close the scrutiny on the police service along with other services in the public sector was increasing.

The twenty-first century has seen the introduction of new roles within the police service and a change for the role of the police officer, the acceptance by the service that there was a need to modernise its approach to the service it delivers.
This has led to a completely different approach to the training of new officers. Training centres have closed and all 43 police forces are now responsible for organising the training of their new officers. This research concludes with the service already exploring its next steps in the development of initial police training.

**The Journey**

As I conducted my research I explored options for reporting my findings. Brundage (2002) advises paying attention to this detail early in the research to help structure your thoughts and direction of study. He acknowledges that these early thoughts might be tentative and in fact stresses that the initial thoughts should not be treated as the final article. I explored the option of focussing on particular themes within the training, such as the structure of the programme at different stages or the governing control of training at various points in its development. Jordanova provides options for dividing up the past with consideration to themes, periods or particularly events (Jordanova, 2000). I opted to research a decade at a time. There were certain advantages to this in that I could consider everything that impacted on that period of time in detail. I was also able to decade hop as material became available to me. By focussing on each decade it enabled the contextualisation of social and political influences.

Whilst the quality of evidence gained in research is crucial, the “quality of the necessary selection, ordering and presentation of it is one important distinction between good history and bad.” (Aldrich, 2006, page 30) My research did not follow a chronological pattern although I did start with the 1940’s as I felt this was an appropriate place to begin my research. I had realised in a pilot study, which covered the time period from 1986 to 2006, that to understand why training centres were ‘born’ was crucial to my understanding of initial police training. I then hopped from the 1940’ to the 1970’s, led by desire to understand how the training programme I experienced as a recruit had been determined. Although as a trainer I had an awareness of the background to some of the later training programmes, the researching of the training programme of ‘my day’ led to a whole new understanding of what I had experienced. Although during research I jumped around the decades I have, in presenting my research, made
life easier for the reader. Each chapter represents a decade, although one cannot divorce one decade from another in terms of development as change occurs across the divide, by creating the breaks the history can be devoured in manageable chunks. This research plots the continuity and change in initial police training from 1945 to 2009.
Chapter Two - The 1940’s – The Birth of Initial Police Training

The reconstitution of Police Forces during the immediate Post-War Period 1944.

At the time of the Second World War there were considerably more police forces than there are today. Policing was a pre-dominantly male profession and the training of the officers was a haphazard affair dependent on which force an officer belonged to (Home Office, 1944, Critchley, 1967, Villiers, 1998). The war of course meant that a substantial number of officers were called up to military service leaving auxiliary staff and women to cover the role in their absence. In readiness for the end of the war a committee was established to consider the reconstitution of police forces during the immediate post war period. The committee was established in 1943. It had the remit of exploring the impact of officers returning from military service, the retention of auxiliary staff, whether this was desirable and if so how this might be managed, the rate at which recruitment could be established and the methods for doing this and finally the training requirements of those new officers.

Sir Frank Newsam\(^6\), of the Home Office chaired the committee. The members of the committee were made up of Home Office Staff, Scottish Office representatives, His Majesty’s Inspectors of Constabulary (HMIC), Commissioner of Police of the Metropolis, the Commissioner of Police for the City of London and 20 Chief Constables from England, Wales and Scotland – many of the forces included no longer exist.\(^7\) The committee appointed three sub-committees, one to consider the “extent to which it will be desirable to retain the services of police auxiliaries during the transition period and the

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\(^6\) Sir Frank Newsam (who became Permanent Under-Secretary of State at the Home Office in 1948) was responsible for establishing the Police Staff College which was initially housed at Ryton-on-Dunsmore and later moved to Bramshill in 1954. There is a hall named in recognition of his role in establishing the college for training leaders of the police service at Bramshill Police Staff College. A passage is read prior to ‘The Frank Newsam Memorial Lecture’ by a student of the college. In this passage there is a comment he apparently said at a mess night “the Police College exists to make the Police Service more fully human.” (Villiers, 1998, page 17).

\(^7\) Since the 1940's there have been a number of re-organisations of the police service, each time forces have been amalgamated to make new forces, sometimes given a new name such as Thames Valley Police, sometimes forces taking on an existing name of a neighbouring large force. Currently there are 43 forces across England and Wales. In the 1940’s there was in excess of 100 forces.
arrangements to be made as regards conditions of service of auxiliaries so retained.” A second sub-committee was to determine “the rate at which new recruitment to the permanent establishment should be effected and the method of selection” and the third to review “the arrangements for training new recruits.” (Home Office, 1944, page 1)

Whilst this thesis sets out to record the history of initial police training it would be inappropriate not to include some of the findings of the committee as a whole and in particular the findings of the subcommittees as these impact on the nature of the establishment of training for the next sixty years. The report was submitted in March 1944 whilst the war was still in progress, but clearly there was some anticipation of it drawing to an end with the planning in place. There were fears of social unrest8 in the immediate post-war period, which created urgency to ensure the service was up and running again as quickly as possible. Equally the Government was keen to maintain the morale of police officers and prevent any possibility of another police strike as witnessed in 1918 and 1919.9

8 The economic depression following the First World War led to social unrest, the Government were keen for this situation to be prevented following the Second World War and undertook to put reforms in place to prevent this. (Source http://wapedia.mobi/en/Welfare_State accessed 12.1.10)

9 There were two illegal police strikes in 1918 and 1919. The first took place 30th August 1918 and lasted a day. There were a number of factors in society which created this situation. A number of restrictions were placed on the private lives of police officers such as gaining permission to marry and gaining permission for their wives to work outside of the home, a ruling which was temporarily lifted during the war by Home Office order. However, a police officers pay was poor, they worked seven days a week with no overtime payment, the take home pay being less than an unskilled labourer and a third of the take home pay of a munitions worker. Officers were banned from taking any supplementary earnings opportunities and wartime regulations forbade officers to leave the service. A review of pay had been in progress but at a leisurely pace and officers were dropping of malnutrition in the streets. (Sellwood 1978). The effect of wives earning more, the suffragette movement creating situations where police officers were having to arrest women created a situation where ‘the police officers were losing ground in the overall economy, losing their place as the breadwinner and now losing their place as the protector of society and women’ (King, 1999). In addition an incident that occurred in 1910 in which five police officers died in a jewellery store robbery, two of them dying in a burning building. This was bad enough but the widows were given a pension of ‘thirty shillings a week so long as they remained widows and of good character’ (Rumbelow, 1973). This limitation on widows along with the pay and restrictions on private life fuelled the mood. As a result of this strike Government agreed to a rise of thirteen shillings a week, a review of the widows pension, a reconsideration of the position of those officers sacked for being a member of a union, a body to be set up to review the welfare and conditions for officers and no objection to union representation as long as it did not interfere with the service. Union strength grew by 10,000 in November 1918. Negotiations remained slow and in January 1919 the union demanded more pay and recognition of the union. To allay any further turbulence the Government set up the Desborough committee to enquire into the recruitment and conditions of service, rate of pay, pensions and allowances. This was established on 1st March 1919. By the 17th March there was a
In calculating the deficiencies the sub committee on recruitment used the pre-war authorised establishment figures and details of an estimated strength listing regular officers and auxiliaries separately. They estimated the number of police officers redeployed to armed services or industry for the war effort as at 31st December 1943 and the number of officers scheduled to retire on pension in September 1944. They also worked on the principle that there would be no changes to the establishment but assumed that only three quarters of the police officers would return from the armed forces (predominantly because of casualties) and that those eligible would indeed retire. This led to a calculation of there being a shortfall of officers across England and Wales of 10,800 and in Scotland 1,200. In total, accounting for any other contingencies such as death or ill-health retirement, the deficiency was estimated at 12,500. (Home Office, 1944, page 13)

In addition to the need to recruit to address shortfalls in staff, there was recognition that whilst away fighting in the war, those who had been officers and would be returning to their profession, would have become de-skilled and would need a period of readjustment to continue their duties. Those involved in training would have an increased workload in order to achieve this. There was also a balancing act to be completed in managing the needs and expectations of those who had been carrying out an auxiliary role during the war and the returning staff resuming their role.

**Staffing during the war**

The full time auxiliary staff made up approximately 24,000 covering the 22,000 gap between regular strength at the end of 1943 compared with the pre-war establishment. It was recognised that some of those officers returning from war may want to retire having achieved between 25 and 30 years service which might reduce the returning numbers even more, so there may be a need to retain several auxiliaries.

refusal to accept the union and officers were ordered to abandon it. The union resisted and on 4th May 1919 a ballot resulted in 44,539 in favour of a strike and 4,324 opposed. On 28th May a substantial pay rise was announced and a further order that anyone not turning up for duty would be sacked. The first phase of the Desborough committee work was complete by 1st July 1919. A police strike commenced on 31st July 1919 with the night shift failing to turn up for duty, the strike was over by 2nd August with 400 officers being dismissed.
As it was considered that it would take most forces only two years to return to an
even keel in terms of recruitment and training it was suggested that there was
scope for offering auxiliaries a one year contract extendable at 6 monthly
intervals. It was recognised however that there was a need to have a willing and
happy work force and that some of the ‘conscripted’ auxiliaries were working a
long distance from home and may not wish to continue doing so. Those who
were working close to home may be glad of employment and willingly stay on.

There was a keenness to retain as many auxiliaries as possible, despite them not
necessarily having the qualities of regular officers. There was recognition that
they had received some training and had gained in experience. There was a lack
of confidence in the number that would remain in post and with the fear of
‘social unrest and public disorder’ particularly in the industrial areas and cities
there was an urgent request for constables to be returned from armed forces
duties as soon as possible and for recruitment and training programmes to be
accelerated in the early stages.

As an incentive to retain some of the auxiliaries there was agreement to pay them
at the same rate as the regular officers. However in order to maintain morale
amongst the regular officers there was no agreement to pay rent allowance to
auxiliaries although they would receive similar allowances in every other respect,
including access to healthcare. They were also to be offered a gratuity in line
with the amount of time they had served.

During the war the auxiliaries were members of the Police War Reserve, this was
to be disbanded and the auxiliaries to join the First Police Reserve which had
been in existence prior to the war. Members of this reserve were called in on a
needs basis. Consequently they were doing a similar role but given another title.
All the male auxiliaries had been ‘sworn in’ as constables\textsuperscript{10} however not all of the members of the Women’s Auxiliary Police Corps had. Some of them had been carrying out the duties of women police officers while others had been performing the role of clerks at police stations and offices. There were 4,000 women auxiliaries and it was anticipated that the retention rate of these would be higher than that of their male counterparts. Where the roles they performed did not require police powers they were to be redirected as local Government employees doing similar work. There were some members of the committee who disagreed with this approach so a suggestion was made that there should be an opportunity to approve an agreed number of women officers provided this was desired by Chief Constables and their Police Authorities.\textsuperscript{11} It was these dissenters who also campaigned for the gratuity payment of women auxiliaries to be two thirds of their male counterparts rather than the half figure suggested by some on the committee.

During the war there had been a Police Auxiliary Messenger Service. The members of this service are described as ‘youth’ and when not conducting their primary function as messengers had been used for duties such as telephone answering, ‘simple clerical work, miscellaneous cleaning and maintenance tasks.’ Adults would normally have carried out these tasks, employment of youth members freed adults to carry out ‘policing’ rather than being tied to administrative roles. As a consequence they were considered to be a useful resource to retain at the end of the war. The sub-committee did not have enough information to go into detail but felt that this group of young people would also provide a useful source of recruitment and encouraged the use of a cadet corps.\textsuperscript{12}

\textsuperscript{10}The swearing in of officers is where they ‘swear’ their allegiance to the throne and promise to do their job professionally – the formal title for this ceremony is attestation.

\textsuperscript{11}The role of women changed significantly as a result of the Second World War. Many women had taken on roles predominantly held by men. Of course men had been called to the Front Line and women backfilled those roles. Although this was the emergence of women officers it was not until the end of the 1970’s that the role of men and women in the police service became equal in theory and several more years before it became so in reality.

\textsuperscript{12}Prior to the war some forces already employed ‘boy clerks’ with a view to offering them employment as police officers when they became old enough. After the Second World War the Police Auxiliary Messenger Service lapsed and forces were left to their initiative in terms of ‘cadets’. The Police Act in 1964 brought statutory recognition to Police Cadets considering them as a useful resource for development as police officers for the future. The training for cadets,
From the findings of this sub committee it is quite clear that there was an anticipated shortfall of police officers and there needed to be a plan in place to address this situation at the earliest opportunity.

**Recruitment**

The sub-committee established to review recruitment were given the remit to “consider and report on the rate at which new recruitment to the permanent establishment should be effected and the method which would be desirable in order to reconstitute police forces during the immediate post-war period.”

(Home Office, 1944, page 13)

As already mentioned earlier it was estimated that the shortfall of officers would be in the region of 12,500. Whilst another sub-committee was reviewing arrangements for the retention of the auxiliary force, this sub-committee pointed out that the majority of the auxiliary staff were above the age of 30 years. Given that this was above the age of recruitment and the sub-committee saw no reason to change it, there was a realisation that none of them could become full time officers.

The amount of deficiency in each force varied according to the size of the force but those largest in size were anticipated to have the greatest deficiency. The sub committee also looked at potential retirements and the impact of changes to the pensions made in 1921. The figure for shortfall eventually rose to 15,000 with an estimate that 10% of the auxiliaries would fill the gap i.e. 3000, hence the figure presented. Warning was made though that an influence on this might be the time taken to return police officers to their original role. Demobilisation from the armed forces may take some considerable time particularly if they have been serving abroad. If police officers were not given priority for demobilisation the situation would worsen. Time would also need to be allowed for returning

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officers to receive some refresher training. ‘Freezing’ appeared to be an option, a Government policy forcing people to remain in their roles and preventing them from retirement. Whilst this would help the service over a tough few months again there was the recognition of the difficulties of managing a disengaged workforce. The proposal was to offer some financial incentive to stay on.

There was recognition that the rate of recruitment needed to be controlled despite the urgent need to replenish numbers. It was considered important not to reduce the standards; there was a determination to engage the right people. It was considered there would be no shortage of applications from service men returning from war and seeing this as an alternative career. To a lesser extent there was concern of recruiting too many men at one time and causing later blocks in career progression, although it was inevitable as a result of the dearth in recruitment during the war years.

Mindful of the training requirements and the need for the recruitment arrangements, the sub committee was pleased with the recommendations the training sub committee were making and felt this would match the recruitment plan. In balancing the arguments for and against rapid recruitment, agreement was reached that the plan should be spread over two years to reach the target of 15,000 officers. The sources of recruitment were considered and whilst some Chief Constables would want to employ ex-servicemen the sub-committee were keen that the Government should not direct forces to employ ex-service personnel. Possible recruits from the industrial sectors were considered to be a better option as they were easier to gain access to in terms of publicity for recruitment and Chief Constables were also keen that local men should be employed in forces. The sub-committee were content with this provided standards were maintained and this was not the only source of recruitment.14

A proposal was made to alter the methods of selection of officers in line with a process adopted by Midlands forces prior to the war whereby a district board

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14 Today there is a national recruitment standard to ensure fairness regardless of where an applicant may hope to serve. Most forces are still keen to recruit local people to help with the understanding of local community needs, and consequently providing a better service.
carried out the recruitment. Obviously aware of the work being carried out by the
training sub committee, the suggestion was that districts were aligned with those
being proposed for training purposes. It was felt that a board, rather than
interview by individual Chief Constables, would eliminate any personal
prejudice however boards would subject applicants to medical questionnaires,
educational tests and interviews which were “not too formal or cursory” (Home

There was some discussion around changes to the criteria for accepting recruits.
The upper age limit at the time was 30 although most Chief Constables only took
20-25 year olds, so there was a recommendation that Chief Constables should be
more open to accepting those between 25 and 30yrs. There was no change to the
height restrictions, which varied from force to force, between 5 feet 8 inches and
6 feet and the sub-committee felt that the district boards would steer potential
officers in the right directions. There was to be no change in the educational
standards, however the major change was to the marital status of recruits. There
had been a preference to recruit unmarried men but due to the war many men had
married at a younger age and hence there was a need to recruit more married
men.

There were 380 women officers at the time of the report and it was anticipated
that with the increased recruitment some forces who had not previously taken on
women officers may now chose to, however the numbers would still remain very
small. It was reported that “The Women’s Auxiliary Police Corps and the armed
forces in particular should provide an excellent recruiting ground” This gives an
insight into where they anticipated the recruits to come from. (Home Office,
1944)

Pamphlets were prepared to advertise policing careers to be circulated amongst
armed forces and a statement about the women officer’s role to be circulated to
the women’s services. When this information is considered along with the
establishment and general ethos of initial police training over the years one can
see quite readily how the police training centre evolved and why so much of the
military influence remained for many years.
District Police Training Centres

The sub-committee tasked with identifying the solutions to training took into account the numbers to be trained, the principles of recruit training, the training schools required, how they would be organised and the instructors who would work within them. Although their task was to consider the post war training issue they chose to consider options for the longer term. The sub-committee determined the qualities required of a police officer on completion of initial training. These included his character development, knowledge, practical abilities, physique, physical attainments and qualification to administer first aid.

Prior to the war forces ‘did their own thing’; some had training schools others did not. There was a groundswell for standardising the training and making sure that officers started their career with the right information and direction setting. There was also at that time, according to the report, a “general movement of public opinion in favour of improved training and education in all occupations” (Home Office, 1944, page 30). Of course the sheer number also meant a different approach was required. At that time all the forces in England and Wales were organised into eight Districts. It was proposed that a training school should be set up in each district allowing for a pooling of resources both financially and in terms of staffing.

In addition to the increased recruit training there was also a need for refresher training for those who had remained serving within the war but also those who had been away on military service. There was debate around whether the training should be combined at the same location or whether there was a need to separate the two types of student. It was considered that refresher training could be delivered at the forces with existing training schools prior to the war.

The sub committee assumed there would be suitable premises, used as service departments or by the Civil Defence during the war becoming available at the end of hostilities. It also felt that “rural situation is to be preferred as pleasanter and more conducive to study.” (Home Office, 1944, page 32). An appendix to the report outlines the requirements for the suggested training school which
includes a description of what was available in the pre-war Peel House of the Metropolitan Police which was considered to offer the bare minimum:-

- Dormitories with 200 separate cubicles
- Dining rooms
- Canteen
- Lounge or recreation rooms
- Sick bay
- 14 classrooms
- Gymnasium
- 6 sets of married quarters for instructors including the Superintendent in charge
- Small yard for drill and demonstration (Home Office, 1944, page 39).

As a result of this report a number of district training centres were established from existing premises; the sub-committees assumption that there would be suitable premises was a correct one. Two examples of war time use premises being converted to District Police Training Centres are those located at Ryton on Dunsmore in the Midlands and Bruche in the North West. The centre at Ryton had started its days as a ‘shadow factory’ producing munitions during the war. To improve the war effort many factories had hostels built in order to house the workforce. In 1941 the National Service Hostels Corporation Limited was formed in order to ensure satisfactory accommodation. The Ryton Hostel opened in 1943 providing sleeping quarters, assembly hall, canteen, shop and post office. Almost before it was built consideration was given to its potential use at the end of hostilities and one option would have been a boarding school. However, having been “placed on offer to any government department which could find use for it” (Scollan, 1982 page 9), it came under the remit of the Home Office. Bruche District Training Centre had started its life as a military base. Its first police students arrived in January 1946 (Randles, 2006).

15 Between 1936 and 1938, with the possibility of war with Germany developing, the Government set about building what became known as ‘shadow factories’, often alongside existing manufacturers to be held in reserve for use in times of need. These ‘shadow factories’ were used to produce munitions and military components. Some notable examples are at the Longbridge and Landrover Car Manufacturing sites in the Midlands.
It was proposed that class size should not exceed 25 students, but suggested a variety of instructors either for different topics or for varying stages of the same subject. The time allocated for delivery was determined at 70% for police duties, with the remaining 30% of the time to cover foot drill, first aid, self defence and physical training. There was a recommendation that whilst some lessons would by necessity be delivered in a lecture format, students should be given every opportunity to take part in practical training either by watching an instructor or by having the chance to deal with mock situations themselves. In earlier training programmes students had sometimes engaged in joining experienced officers on patrol. It was considered that this should stop and students focus on their studies leaving the learning with an experienced officer to follow after the course. (Home Office, 1944, page 29)

Physical training was considered a necessity but not to the extreme of army standards and the Board of Education publications were recommended. It was planned that outside lecturers whose occupations brought them into contact with the police, such as solicitors, would be invited into the training centre once a week. This perhaps is the early introduction of joint agency learning.

It was decided that students would wear uniform throughout the course to help develop their sense of being a police officer and there should be no change to the fact that they were attested as constables right at the beginning of their service, despite them not being competent police officers at this stage. A debate about when officers should be attested continues in the twenty-first Century. Despite there being a proposal of an intense 13 week training programme there was clarity that the two year probation was the full training programme and that supplementary courses and tests would be required. The finer detail was to be covered in a later report.

There was reference to the ‘Norwood Report’\textsuperscript{16} of 1943 which outlines three elements to education (i) physical welfare, (ii) ideals of character and (iii)

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\textsuperscript{16} Sir Cyril Norwood was the chair of a committee put together by R. A. Butler Minister for Education to review the curriculum and examinations system for secondary schools. The Norwood Report was published in 1943 and some of the recommendations subsequently led to
English. The authors felt if they added law knowledge then they were working to the correct principles. (Home Office, 1944 page 34)

Instructors

In the forces where training schools had existed prior to the war the instructors were time honoured sergeants and inspectors who had proved their worth as police officers as well as demonstrating a capability to teach. Clearly with the plan for such mass recruitment and establishment of training centres there was a need for an increase in instructors from across the forces. Once a suitable application process had been completed the officers wishing to become instructors should attend a four week course in order to prepare them for teaching new recruits. Throughout this course the candidates would be assessed as to their capabilities.

It was acknowledged that four weeks would not normally be sufficient time to train instructors, but this was a needs must situation. In recognition of the discomfort faced by instructors, of having to be away from home at the proposed district training centres in order to teach new recruits there was a recommendation for an allowance to be paid to the instructors and for them to be provided with residential accommodation. It was stressed in the report that shortfalls back in force should not be a limiting factor for the release of those suitably qualified to teach.

A selection process for instructors was established along with the training programme which was to consist of sessions on how to teach, how to use research documents and observe delivery of police based subjects. Whilst use of some existing police training accommodation was planned there was recognition that there may be a greater need and approaches may need to be made to Universities to provide suitable training accommodation.

Summary
The end of the Second World War led to the establishment of a standardised and comprehensive training programme for new police recruits. The dire shortfall of police officers at the end of the hostilities led to a totally new approach to training and set the ‘benchmark’ for many years to come. The police service was at that time very disciplined and many of its members had had links with the armed services. There was a requirement for officers to be militaristic in their approach and able to deal with any situation which may arise. Considerable emphasis was placed on learning legislation and facts. This is illustrated in an extract from ‘Bruche A Collection of Memories’, (Randles, 2006), “A poster of the time showed 13 different types of bicycle handlebars, all named, and which all had to be memorised. No doubt such information would have greatly assisted the officers during the role play shown in the following photograph” The accompanying picture illustrates an officer stopping a cyclist.

The style of instruction and learning of the day consisted of students taking rough notes during the day and then spending the evening writing them up into a neat book to enable students to retain the information. A lesson on approaches to study informed students that “Writing is a great aid to memory”. (Randles, 2006 page 56). No doubt consideration of this was given in the original plan of basing the training centres in rural locations, if students had little distraction in terms of nearby entertainment they would be able to focus on their studies.

The two District Police Training Centres mentioned in this chapter continued as Police Recruit training centres until 2006, 60 years after their establishment. Bruche was eventually sold to a development company which has plans to turn it into a new residential complex whilst Ryton continues to be used as a Police Training and Conference Venue under the control of the National Policing Improvement Agency.
Chapter Three - The 1950’s – The First Major Review of Post War Probationer Training

Review of Probationer Training 1954
In the previous chapter we saw how the massive demand for the recruitment of police officers, as a result of the Second World War, led to the setting up of purpose built training centres for the development of new police officers. It had been anticipated that the recruitment and establishment levels would have returned to normal within two years of the war, but in the early 1950’s some forces were still experiencing considerable shortfalls. As a consequence the need to maintain District Police Training Centres (DPTC) continued. This desire to keep training centres needed to be balanced with a shortage of finance and the recognition that the use of the centres was not always well co-ordinated.

In the spring of 1948 the number of centres had reduced from nine to eight, with one serving each of the districts\(^{17}\). There had been a further reduction to seven training centres later in the year when the existing centre at Falfield in Gloucestershire was returned to use as a Civil Defence Training School. As a consequence the recruits joining police forces in the South West of the country were being sent to training schools in Lancashire, Staffordshire or Glamorgan. Understandably the distances involved created concern, particularly when the training week ran from Monday morning until Saturday lunchtime. In addition to the welfare considerations for recruits, the Chief Constables from this District (Number 7 District) felt that they had no voice in the management and administration of the centres and campaigned for a centre of their own. Chantmarle, a mansion house was purchased and established as training centre in Dorset, to the serve the South West District, in March 1950.

The management of District Police Training Centres at this time was split between two committees. A Chief Constables Committee, whose membership

\(^{17}\) To ease the national management of Police Forces across England and Wales, forces were grouped into ‘Districts’. The Chief Constables of the individual forces within the Districts would meet regularly to share information and discuss the future of policing for their geographic area as guided by the Home Office.
was determined by the District Conference of Chief Constables, were responsible for “the technical aspects of training, the selection of instructors, and other detailed training arrangements, subject to consultation with the Home Office.” (Devlin, 1966, page 251) The financial aspects of the management of Training Centres were dealt with by the Local Authority Committee. Between the two committees the management of the day to day provision of police training was covered with an overview of Her Majesty’s Inspector of Constabulary (HMIC).

On 15th July 1953 it was agreed to set up an informal committee in order “to review and report upon the present policy and arrangements for the training of probationary constables, having regard to experiences gained during the post war period.” (Central Conference of Chief Constables, 1954, page 1) The Informal Committee was made up of representatives from the Chief Constables Committee of District Police Training Centres. As part of the enquiry the Committee shared their findings with the Association of Chief Police Officers in a meeting in March 1954, and took account of their views within their final report.

**The Nature of the Review**

Members of the committee in carrying out their review referred to documents including the Detective Report published in 1938, the Committee on the Reconstitution of the Police Service during the Immediate Post War Period of 1944 and the Police Post War Committee of 1947. With regard to the structure of the training the committee considered evidence they had seen and heard and believed that the structure based on the above reports was sound. However, the committee felt that it was necessary to revise the principles of recruit training and republish them as ‘Principles of Probationer Training’ in order to emphasise that the training programme was indeed a two year programme. One might understand this requirement given that this style of training was still a relatively new concept having been introduced in the post war years. In the twenty-first century this topic still arises, whilst new officers will attend compulsory training courses throughout their first two years, there is a tendency from more

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18 The Association of Chief Police Officers (ACPO) is the professional strategic body of senior police officers who meet on regular basis to co-ordinate the direction of the police service.
experienced officers to expect recruits leaving the initial part of the training to know everything about policing and forget that the training spans two years. This is despite the fact that every officer recruited since the Second World War has been through this type of programme. Prior to the war there had been a scheme whereby senior officers could join at a higher level. This scheme, known as the ‘Trenchard Scheme’\(^{19}\), was scrapped at the onset of war and had never been re-introduced.

The Review Committee members were also sure that the system of District Police Training Centres was working and recommended that each of the districts had their own centre, re-iterating the point made by the Number 7 District Chief Constables. The report states, “some of the existing training centres housed in hutted accommodation have served their purpose during the immediate post war years, but we think it highly desirable that more suitable places should be provided as soon as possible on a permanent basis and that a building programme should be drawn up to this end.” (Central Conference of Chief Constables, 1954, page 21 - 22) It was apparent that work needed to be done in order to establish more accurate information around the demand and the wastage to inform the building programme. One of the training centres in use at that time was Bruche, in Warrington, which was at the time part of Lancashire and is now part of Cheshire\(^{20}\). This temporary base remained in existence as a police training centre until 2006, which is amazing given that in Appendix A of the report it states, “Bruche and Mill Meece are temporary buildings adapted for training purposes, but the cost of their maintenance seems likely to increase as the life of the buildings is extended.” (Central Conference of Chief Constables, 1954, Appendix A, page 2) Appendix B of this thesis tracks the life and development of District Police Training Centres between 1944 and 2006, when the use of DPTC’s came to an end.

\(^{19}\) Following a distinguished military career Lord Trenchard was persuaded to become the Commissioner of the Metropolitan Police between 1931 and 1935. He introduced a career path for junior and senior ranks. (Wikipedia 2009)

\(^{20}\) As part of the 1974 Local Government Reforms, Warrington was part of boundary changes which meant that it changed from being part of Lancashire to part of the county of Cheshire.
The Programme

It was considered that there was no need to change the seven phase programme as recommended by the Post War Committee in 1947. This consisted of:-

a) An initial training course of 13 weeks with a countrywide syllabus
b) General police duties under supervision for a period of 6 to 8 months, to include beat and patrol routine duties, prevention and detection of crime, traffic point duty, road traffic law enforcement and dealing with street offences and occurrences.
c) Continuation classes – lectures
d) Intermediate training school course, 4 weeks at 9 to 11 months service
e) Further practical training as at (b)
f) Short period of instruction in departments such as detective duties, photographic, fingerprints and forensic science, motor patrol and traffic law and station and office duties.
g) Final training school course, 4 weeks in the last 4 months of probation.

It becomes apparent, in this report, that whilst the above programme had been recommended in 1947 it had not been fully implemented. The thirteen week initial part of the programme had been implemented as a result of a Home Office Circular (134/46) in 1946, which had instructed “In spite of the deficiency (in manpower) all new recruits, no matter what force they join, should undergo a thirteen weeks’ residential training course before entering upon their duties….” (Central Conference of Chief Constables, 1954, Appendix B, page 2). This instruction was supplemented by the 1947 Post War Report which recognised that the training recommended may have been more than some forces had been used to. In order to cope with the fact that officers might be away training in the initial few months of service the report had suggested “ …if necessary, establishments should be increased to enable measures to be carried out.” (Central Conference of Chief Constables, 1954, page 23). Despite this suggestion being made as early as 1947 there is no evidence of this ever having been transparently obvious in force establishment numbers. Even in the twenty-first century there is an establishment figure for forces and in most of those forces a percentage of the staff will be completing initial training rather than working as a fully trained independent officer. Pilot projects of pre-join schemes at the time of
writing this thesis may be the first signs of this position ever being achieved fifty five years after being proposed.

With regards to the recommended Intermediate and Continuation training this had not been accepted across the country. Out of 125 forces there were twenty who were not sending their officers to either of these courses and another twenty who only sent their recruits to one of the courses. One of the reasons cited for this was the fact that the initial course was paid for from the Common Police Services Fund\(^{21}\), however for the Intermediate and Continuation Courses, Police Authorities were charged £6 per student. In addition there were some forces that had their own training schools and chose to deliver training themselves. It was agreed that provided forces had appropriate facilities and qualified instructors then they could continue to deliver their own training as long as it followed the “standard syllabi”.

In 1953 work had commenced on producing standard student lesson notes, with revised lectures and demonstration instructions. These had been circulated with a Home Office Circular. One might describe this as a start towards the standardisation of training. Although giving the go ahead for forces to deliver their own training, the report highlights the benefits of having officers returning to the District Police Training Centres from a variety of forces. It emphasises that by mixing up the students they would be able to share their experiences and practices. These courses were described as ‘some part of the lessons were a “refresher” of the original initial course and the rest were new subjects which ……are assimilated better after a period of practical experiences than at the novitiate stage’ (Central Conference of Chief Constables, 1954, Appendix B, page 4). This model is proposed again much later in the history of initial police training with the Stage II Review in the 1980’s, the value of officers gaining some experience, sharing those experiences and using them to learn and develop. Even later in the next millennium we will see that whilst practical experiences are developed more in training, a move towards locally delivered training

\(^{21}\) “The estimated cost of maintaining eight police training centres in the year ended 31st March, 1954 is £525,421 shared equally between the Exchequer and the police authorities on a per capitem basis…….involving a deduction from grant at the rate of £6.15s. a head of authorised establishment for the year.” (Central Conference of Chief Constables, 1954, Appendix A, page 5)
removes the opportunity to share practice with colleagues from other forces. In addition to making these practical recommendations, the 1954 Committee sought for a re-consideration of the financial issues and for the follow on courses to be dealt with through the Common Police Services Fund. The Central Committee on Common Police Services were in fact reviewing this situation at the same time as the 1954 review was being conducted.

Although generally happy with the training programme the committee felt there was a need to add the topics of ‘Basic General Civil Defence’ and ‘Police Action in Dealing with Crashed Aircraft’. Additionally they found that the syllabus was too intense. It was identified that the best approach would be to remove some of the more serious crime subjects to allow for more practical work including report writing. By moving some of these topics to the later elements of the course it would reinforce the message that this was a two year training programme. As indicated earlier, the intermediate and final courses had become a refresher rather than a development course and by making these changes to the initial training and leaving some topics until later in the two years then they would indeed be seen as development courses. The issues in relation to finance and availability of accommodation meant that some of these courses had only been two weeks in length when they needed to be four. Plans to change the programme of subjects still did not lead to an extension of the length of the course, the financial situation limited this as an option, as indicated later in the findings of the Common Police Services review in 1955.

In addition to the law inputs on the initial course it was considered important to maintain the inclusion of PE, drill, first aid, swimming and life saving as these were “character building” and provided an “essential break in classroom instruction, without which the average student would be unable to keep pace with the pressure of mental exertion.” (Central Conference of Chief Constables, 1954, page 12) Throughout the report there are many mentions of an average student without any real clarity of what this recruit actually looked like. The report also makes mention of the inflexibility of the administrative arrangements in
providing opportunities for “backward students”22 to have their stay at training school extended if they were unable to keep up with instruction. It was considered that there ought to be a way of supporting students who were struggling but would otherwise make a good police officer. However, the report does not go on to give options of how this might be achieved.

The possibility of an induction course had been debated but the outcome was a decision not to make this mandatory, however, the committee felt that Chief Constables who wanted to offer this should not be stopped. The continuation course towards the end of the probation was considered and options were explored of the students completing this course at a different DPTC to the one they had attended for their initial course. In the end it was decided they would return to their initial training centre. In debating the addition of more practical exercises to the programme it was decided that the instructor to student ratio should change from one to twenty five, to one to twenty to make the practical exercises more manageable.

**Intakes**

At this stage there appears to have been no co-ordination in terms of the starting dates for intakes with forces recruiting whenever they wanted to. With the programme set as it was, there was a desire from forces to send officers to training school within a few days of them joining office. This meant that centres would have gaps between the initial courses. These could often be filled with the shorter continuation courses but not always. The report recognises that centres were not being run efficiently however the committee clearly felt that co-ordinating the approach was outside of their remit

> “Ideally it would be advantageous to have regular intakes at training centres 3 or 4 times a year, when a fixed number of recruits could start their initial training together. This would regulate the accommodation and staff in the most economical manner but with 125 Forces, differing greatly in

22 Whilst in today’s language this is not a phrase that would be used, it was common place within the world of education of that time.
size and recruiting needs, such a tidy arrangement is not feasible. It is, therefore, necessary to provide sufficient accommodation and staff at each centre to enable every recruit to be received and begin training within a few days of enrolment.”

(Central Conference of Chief Constables, 1954, page 9)

Centres were taking in recruits at either fortnightly or monthly intervals and grouping them into classes as best they could. Clearly not an efficient way of delivering a central service, which would not fit into today’s world of best value.

**Standards and Teaching Styles**

There was a drive to maintain standards throughout the course; this was an opportunity to deliver a good grounding for recruits who needed to understand what was required of police officers. The report breaks down what is required in terms of practical instruction, informal instruction and the use of visual aids. This section reflects the thinking of the committee in terms of what is likely to assist students to learn. In relation to “informal tuition” the report suggests the use of tutorials with students who are struggling, “…tutorials should be arranged by the instructors and sessions held for demonstrations and practice in order to give special help to those who are backward in class and who, unless given individual attention, are liable to retard the general progress of the class. We think that there is merit in giving some inducement to backward students to press on with their studies during their leisure hours.” (Central Conference of Chief Constables, 1954, page 11)

The language suggests a particular viewpoint of students who were not achieving the grades required of the committee and perhaps a lack of understanding about educational theories. In the section on visual aids the committee state “whilst visual aids can never replace the spoken word we regard them as a valuable adjunct to modern instruction….” (Central Conference of Chief Constables, 1954, page 11) The report then explains that there were “52 film strips and 18 films available for exhibition at training centres.” The use of films in education had been increasing at this time but the nature and standard of the films were
variable. There was inconclusive evidence about the effectiveness of learning from such films even in the late 1960’s (Romiszowski, 1968, page 74) although there was guidance on how best to use films and that they could not be used in isolation or used as an opportunity for students or teacher to take a break. The 1954 report in Appendix L details the content of a student instructors course and in this it lists the visual aids section of the course as “

- The classroom and demonstration Court scenes.
- Demonstrations – how to arrange
- The blackboard, charts and diagrams.
- The film strip
- How to use the blackboard
- Specimen forms and books – standard and local.
- Films, including projection equipment.
- Visits to training establishment.” (Central Conference of Chief Constables, 1954, Appendix L, page 2)

The list by today’s standards portrays a limited amount of visual aids.

The report makes recognition of the fact that in-force training provision is patchy in terms of content and method of delivery. There is recommendation that in-force and training centre instructors should meet on a regular basis to make sure that teaching methods and “syllabi” are kept up to date. This as indicated earlier had the potential of leaving forces to do their “own thing” in terms of training new officers.

Between the setting up of training centres and this report, Civil Defence Training had been introduced into the syllabus. This is indicative of the time in history for the role of the police. However, training centres across the country had taken differing approaches to delivery. Some had split the sessions up throughout the thirteen week programme, others had left it to one block of delivery after all the ‘policing subjects’ and exams. It was reported that there should be a consistent approach to this and the committee stated that it had “found it possible to compress this by several hours without loss of efficiency.” (Central Conference of Chief Constables, 1954, page 14) The input was reduced from 22 hours to 10.
The Civil Defence element of the training remained in place for some time. In “Bruche A Collection of Memories 1942 – 2006” (Randles, 2006, page 97) there is a photograph of students in 1959 receiving gas mask training. In the same book a former student during the 1960’s recalls “pretending to put out an incendiary bomb with a stirrup pump!” (Randles, 2006, page 83)

In the book referred to above (Randles, 2006, pages 56 and 57) a memory of Albert Short, a Wigan Borough Officer and recruit at Bruche between May and July 1958, gives an insight into the style of instruction of the day. He was required to maintain a “Neat Book” which was to be completed at the end of a day’s lessons based on the principle that “WRITING IS A GREAT AID TO MEMORY”. Rough notes should be taken during a lesson and then written up later into the “Neat Book” to help retain the information. Mr Short’s neat book reveals that subjects covered at his time of training included:

- The Historical Development of the English Police System
- Organisation of a Police Force
- Police Acts and Regulations
- Police Communications
- How to Complete the Officers Note Book
- Common and Statute Law
- Evidence
- Case Law
- Custody
- Search and Charge of Prisoners,
- Courts
- Animals
- Warrants
- Summonses
- Lost and Found Property
- Missing and Destitute Persons
- Road Accidents
- Legislation relating to the use of motor vehicle
The above provides an indication of the training ethos of the day, i.e. the preference for the spoken word to visual aid and students needing to write up notes to assist their memory. Despite many of the findings of the review committee demonstrating some clear and visionary views of what the training should look like, there appears to be a limited view and knowledge of teaching and learning methods.

The instructions for patrolling a beat give a clear picture of the nature of the role of the officer of the day;

“a) By day a constable should make himself conspicuous, walking on the edge of the pavement, be ready to answer any questions, observe the people, search for wanted persons, maintain a traffic flow, and help the elderly and infirm across the road.

b) By night when the streets have cleared, he should walk on the inside of the pavement, giving special attention to the security of premises, the prevention and detection of crime or outbreaks of fire, and preventing nuisance.” (Randles, 2006, page 57)

This gives a simplistic description of the role compared with the amount of information which was included within the training.

It is clear from earlier in this chapter that the Committee were concerned to make sure there was understanding within the service that this was a two year programme. There is a sense then, as it is now, that both the service and the recruits going through the training would be reluctant to engage in training later in the probation. In an attempt to ensure that the training continued with the same authority a recommendation was made that exams should be held during the continuation course to provide “an incentive to the student who may be inclined to sit back and also provides a better yardstick for the Commandant to report upon the student’s progress from stage to stage.” (Central Conference of Chief Constables, 1954, page 10)
Instructors

The situation with regard to instructors was reviewed as part of this enquiry. It was apparent that officers opted to conduct this role either with a view to enhancing their promotion prospects, a desire to improve standards, a flair for teaching or financial inducement by achieving a temporary promotion. There was also concern about the shortage of officers coming forward to take on this role, this was sometimes as a result of forces not wanting to lose their best officers, some lost out on housing opportunities by taking a secondment and of course there was an impact on family life with officers working away at the training centres. A secondment allowance had been agreed in 1945 and had not been reviewed in all this time, so a recommendation was made to increase this. This was further reviewed as a result of the Police Regulations 1955 which reduced the police officers working week from 48 hours to 44 hours. A training centre instructor would not be able to reduce their hours so a bid for a further rise in allowance was made to accommodate this (Central Conference of Chief Constables, 1955, page 3). A section in this part of the report explores the pressures on instructors who were delivering back to back courses. A recommendation to allow them a week’s interval between intakes was dismissed

“It is also our view that police officers seconded to training centres should expect to be occupied beyond the normal period of 48 hours weekly in duties that extend considerably beyond the time spent in classroom instruction.” (Central Conference of Chief Constables, 1954, page 19)

Despite this somewhat harsh approach, the Committee did suggest that the Instructor/Student ratio be reduced and that

“Local Authority Committee and the Home Office should be invited to review the circumstances of each training centre and where necessary allow an additional one or two instructors over and above the present establishment. This would enable Commandants to relieve instructors of routine teaching duties for short periods – a very desirable measure – so that they might have an opportunity to review their notes, refresh their minds and plan ahead for future courses. We are satisfied that the present arrangements do not permit
of this being done and consider that more free time should be provided.” (Central Conference of Chief Constables, 1954, page 19)

Instructors were divided into Grade I, who were of inspector rank and Grade II, who were sergeants. In order to become an instructor officers had to be qualified, as a minimum, to the rank of sergeant and have completed a student instructors course, which was six weeks long. On completion of the course the student instructors were assessed and graded as “highly qualified, qualified, or not yet qualified for secondment”. The details of these officers were sent to the Home Office in addition to their home force so that they might be considered for secondment when vacancies arose.

Tutor Constables

This report introduces the concept of a tutor constable although not actually creating that title. Under the “Principles of Probationer Training” (Central Conference of Chief Constables, Appendix D) the report lays out guidance for the probationary period of a new recruit, from the issue of uniform, attendance at training school for the initial course and on returning to force the need for supervised patrol. Whilst this guidance allows flexibility for the time scales to be judged on the individual circumstances from a few days to a few weeks, it does explain which elements of policing need to be covered and reflect the nature of the work of the day. It also lays down some considerations to be made in choosing the right person to patrol with the newly trained officer. In finding this person the recruit should be posted to work with that officer, rather than them being posted somewhere and someone being tasked to work alongside in order to make the best fit. The selection and development of tutor constables does not become more formalised until much later in the history of initial police training.

The 1954 report outlines who should be responsible for the development of the probationer once they leave training school;

“Section sergeants have a special responsibility in this matter, but it is important to emphasise that, during the period when the probationer patrols in company with
another constable, he is put in charge of a man of first-class personal character and ability. Men who have passed the sergeants’ examination and are under consideration for promotion should be suitable for this duty of giving instruction on the beat.”

(Central Conference of Chief Constables, Appendix D, page 2)

This clearly gives more guidance about the ‘tutors’ personality and standing as a police officer rather than any skills they may have as a tutor and there is no suggestion that this officer would require any training in order to do the job, unlike the report’s recommendations for training for those involved in ‘instruction’ at training centres. The guidance for what the probationer should learn within these first few days/weeks of guided patrol give a further reflection of policing of the day.

“The initial period of duty on a beat should enable a constable to settle down to the peculiarities of police work, with its irregular meals, varying hours of duty, night shifts, Sunday work, and such matters as punctuality, personal hygiene (particularly care of the feet), the diet, and to appreciate the value of sport and social activities. Routine duties on the beat should be thoroughly explained and well practised, to give the foundation to the young constable’s career. The aim should be to prevent his beat work from deteriorating into the passivity and boredom which in the past have characterised the work of too many constables. The constable on probation must realise from the start that on the beat the constable performs his duty alone, unaided save in those circumstances where reserves and specialists are available to respond to his emergency call.”

(Central Conference of Chief Constables, Appendix D, page 2)
Why review the Probationer Training Now?

Despite the original terms of reference for review, to take into account experiences in the initial period after the war, the key message conveyed through this report is that there were financial concerns and constraints, combined with a shortage of manpower. This was still at a time of re-building resources soon after the war and there seemed to be a desire to get officers on the street as soon as possible without much consideration of the appropriate amount of training required. There was concern at the under use of some of the training centres and the question was raised whether the number of centres should be reduced. The decision was made to fill in the gaps with the continuation courses. There were recommendations that continuation courses should be four weeks in length but an acceptance due to financial reasons that this needed to be cut to two weeks but it was stressed that this should be increased as soon as possible. However, several years later in a Home Office document “District Police Training Centres, Synopsis of Methods of Instruction” published in September 1962, the Initial Course remains at 13 weeks, the Intermediate Continuation Course is two weeks and the Final Continuation Course is two weeks. In Devlin’s Police Procedure, Administration and Organisation published in 1966 the length of the courses remains the same.

There were some visionary outcomes from this review but as we will see, some of the recommendations were not taken forward. The promotion of a two year development programme, highlighting the value of gaining some practical experiences and then returning to training school to build on those experiences, the need to contextualise the learning, support required for recruits who might struggle with a set programme, selection of appropriate officers to guide new recruits in the early days of patrol work and the importance of sharing good practices and experience. All of these suggestions will crop up time and again as initial police training develops through the decades. One might wonder why they recur, why they were not dealt with at the time of the recommendations. The analogy of an oil tanker springs to mind. To change the direction of an oil tanker takes a considerable amount of time and distance; it is the same with trying to get things changed within the police service, particularly at a time when there were
one hundred and twenty-five police forces, each with a Chief Constable with authority to set direction of his own force.

Central Committee on Common Police Services

Whilst the review of probationer training was being undertaken the Association of Municipal Corporations (AMC) had raised concern about the number of vacancies at District Training Centres and the cost implications of this. The Central Committee on Common Police Services set up a Sub-Committee on District Police Training Centres in December 1953, just five months after the establishment of the Informal Committee of the Representatives of Chief Constables’ Committees of District Training Centres. Three of the Chief Constables from the Informal Committee also sat on the Common Police Services Committee23. The work being conducted by the Common Police Service group is referred to in the Appendices of the 1954 Review. (Central Conference of Chief Constables, Appendix B, page 5)

The Sub-Committee Report in 1955 outlines how each training centre had been acquired and the costs of running such centres. Its inquiry explores where there are gaps in capacity and the reasons for them. Across the eight training centres in existence at that time there was capacity of a total of 1,347 officers at any one time, only 108 of those spaces for women officers with only two of the centres, Bruche and Mill Meece accommodating women (Central Committee on Common Police Services, 1955, page 3). In exploring the vacancies the Committee identified that prior to the time of the issue being raised as a problem there had been a range of vacancies from 111 in December 1952 to 731 in June 1953, which would account for the concern about the cost effectiveness of centres. However, the report explains that some of the changes in accommodation and the closure of a centre had meant that there were fewer spaces, which reduced the number of vacancies to a range of 10 to 460 during 1954. Following on from this there had been an increase in recruitment which led

23 These were Mr. E. J. Dodd, Chief Constable of Birmingham, and Chair of the Number 4 District Training Centre Committee, Mr. W. E. Schofield, Chief Constable of Oldham and Mr. T. H. Lewis, Chief Constable of Carmarthenshire and Chair of the Number 8 District Training Centre Committee. Dodd and Schofield were the Chair and Secretary, respectively, of the Informal Committee of the 1954 Review.
to a range between 65 and 382 between October 1954 and January 1955. The report points out that there were very few vacancies for women officers.

The Committee explored options for predicting the use of the centres but felt this was difficult as to predict when officers eligible to retire might actually leave was not possible. The Committee therefore drew up options to take account of all forces sending students for continuation courses, those currently using centres for continuation courses and options of the courses remaining at two weeks and if they were to be extended to four weeks. As part of their calculations they were also made aware of the review of the programme being undertaken by the Informal Committee of District Police Training Centres and reported

“...while we do not purport to record any conclusion about the appropriate length for the continuation courses, we think that the most suitable arrangement at present would be the thirteen-week initial course followed by two continuation courses of two weeks.” (Central Committee on Common Police Services, 1955, page 6)

The main reason for reaching this decision is apparent a few paragraphs earlier in the report when the predictions for including four weeks for each continuation course would have led to a requirement for more space for students than was available across all the centres at any one time. This would also reduce the potential of using the centres for additional training such as that for student instructors, war duties courses and development for newly promoted officers. Given that this Committee was established in order to explore saving money it was unlikely to recommend otherwise regardless of any educational principles which might suggest an increase in the training programme.

Another of the cost saving proposals put forward was the reduction in the number of centres. Although having learnt from the experience in the late 1940’s, when new recruits were scattered across the country with increasing amounts of travel, there was no proposal to increase travel but the question was raised as to why it was necessary to have the centres co-terminus to the Chief Constable’s Districts. It was suggested that there should be fewer centres but those centres would cover a larger area. However on consulting with Chief Constables the
unanimous decision was to retain centres aligned with the Districts. This would enable Chief Constables to have a voice in the running of the centres and maintain a watchful eye on the progress of their students. In general policing terms the communication between Chief Constables in each District was good and it was considered that there was no reason why this should change for training purposes. However, the location of some centres within Districts caused concern and it was felt this should be considered as and when any rebuilding or replacement became necessary. In relation to Bruche the Committee stated, “We think that it would be a waste of money to spend some £42,000 on the repair of hutted buildings which will never be really satisfactory and that permanent buildings should be constructed or acquired. We understand that a search is at present being made for alternative premises.” (Central Committee on Common Police Services, 1955, page 7) Of course Bruche was the only District Training Centre to remain in use as a recruit training school throughout the course of history of police training centres.

One further consideration of this Committee, was the wastage of officers within their probation and whether there would be any benefit in officers experiencing policing earlier in their training. However on exploring the figures it was found that there was comparatively little loss of officers in the initial stages of them experiencing practical policing. It was more likely that they would leave later in their probation and therefore there was no benefit to the initial training being reduced. We will see that recommendations made in the 1980’s by academics suggest the benefits of gaining early experience in the role to help contextualise the learning. In the 1950’s the concern was the risk of exposing officers to policing without adequate training. This is a reflection of the fact that decisions about training were made by police officers rather than the consultation of educational experts.

The Development of the Police Service in the 1950’s
Despite these challenges to the costs of running the District Training Centres and the review of the training programme, 40,000 probationers joined the service during this decade, increasing the overall police strength by 10,000 (Critchley, 1967, page 265). Although the total number of police officers had increased,
there had also been an increase in crime. This was coupled with the growing demands for traffic based policing, with the growth of roads and introduction of motorways. As a consequence police officers were conducting more motorised patrols and the gradual increase in ‘wireless’ led to the introduction of ‘Information or Control Rooms’ to manage the calls from the public and for directing police officers to incidents. The emergence of the first ‘television cop’ Dixon of Dock Green offered a television watching public a greater insight into policing.

Other advances in policing included the increase in the number of policewomen and the roles they were expected to complete, in fact the number of women officers doubled during the decade 1949 to 1959. There was also a drive to employ civilian staff for roles that did not require a warranted officer’s skills. Some of these posts were created but there was some resistance from Chief Constables who wished to retain some posts for injured or older officers nearing retirement. Police dogs began to be introduced following research into the way German police worked. Combined teams had been established to tackle crime such as the regional criminal records offices and crime squads, the first time there had been such shared resources. Many of these improvements Critchley\textsuperscript{24} suggests emanate from the introduction and development of the District Training Centres and the Police College,

\begin{quote}
\textit{Their value as a unifying influence was increasingly apparent, as interchanges of staff and ideas spread common standards – or, equally valuable, provoked a stimulus to challenge practices hitherto uncritically accepted.}
\end{quote}

\textit{(Critchley, 1967, page 264)}

This is a viewpoint which has not been raised in any of the discussions or reviews of probationer training in such an explicit form. It has been loosely suggested within curriculum reviews of the benefit of officers sharing practice,

\textsuperscript{24} T. A. Critchley is the author of \textit{A History of the Police Service in England and Wales 900 – 1966}. After an early career in the civil service prior to the Second World War and service within the Army during the War his main involvement with the police service came when he was Principal Private Secretary to Mr R. A. Butler, Home Secretary 1957 – 1960. He then became Secretary of the Royal Commission on the Police 1960 – 1962. He later became a member of the Police Department to the Home Office (Critchley, 1967).
but we will see later that this is a recommendation of educationalists and the service itself, later in the development of initial police training.
Chapter Four – ‘The Swinging Sixties’

Police Recruit Training

The Sixties are probably best known as an era of liberalism, excitement and free love, mini skirts and bell bottoms, ‘mods’ and ‘rockers’; a World Cup victory, man venturing into space, modern media of audio cassettes and the introduction of colour television, the arrival of supermarkets and heart transplant operations. So what impact did this have on Initial Police Training? At the start of the decade there was little impact, in fact on the ‘credit side’ for the police at the turn of the decade we have already seen how there was a view from Critchley that the training centres were valued for their “value as a unifying influence” (Critchley, 1967).

There had been a number of incidents at the turn of the decade which had led to concern about the way the police worked and how they were controlled (Pollard, 1966). These included the disciplining of 3 Chief Constables, one for poor administration, one for corruption and one prosecuted for fraud (Brain, 2004). There were assertions that police and public relations were deteriorating and numbers of officers were 14 per cent under strength, with a high turnover of officers (Critchley, 1967). Of all the issues raised, the key factor was the element of control. Local Watch Committees controlled police forces; therefore Parliament had no direct control, so were unable to discuss any shortcomings within the police service. It was different for the Metropolitan Police as they were under the auspices of the Home Secretary. The consequence of this was that in 1960 there was a Royal Commission on Police launched under the Chairmanship of Lord Willink25, to consider the:

25Sir Henry Urmston Willink, 1st Baronet (1894 – 1973) after distinguished service in the First World War became a Conservative Minister of Health in 1943 to 1945 and proposed many of the foundations of the National Health Service. Between 1948 and 1966 he was the Master of Magdalene College, Cambridge and between 1953 and 1955 was also the Vice Chancellor of the University of Cambridge. He also chaired the Steering Committee leading to the formation of the Royal College of General Practitioners in 1952. In 1955 he became the Dean of Arches, the most senior ecclesiastical judge of England. He had previously chaired a Commission on Betting, Lotteries and Gaming, 1949 – 51 and a Committee on Medical Manpower in 1955. (Wapedia, 2009)

Some of the Members of the Commission were:
Sir Charles John Geddes of Epsom, (1893 – 1963) was one of the first life peers as a result of the Life Peerages Act 1958. He had been the General Secretary of the Union of Post Office Workers
“1. The constitution and functions of local authorities;
2. the status and accountability of members of police forces, including chief officers of police;
3. the relationship of the police with the public and the means of ensuring that complaints by the public against the police are effectively dealt with; and
4. the broad principles which should govern the remuneration of the constable, having regard to the nature and extent of police duties and responsibilities and the need to attract and retain an adequate number of recruits with the proper qualifications.”

(Royal Commission, 1962, Page 1)

Whilst the Commission did not report until 1962, it made an early interim report in November 1960 recommending a pay rise of 40% for police officers to help boost morale and retain good officers. Whilst this did not go down well it was accepted and had the desired effect of reducing turnaround of officers. The report highlighted the increase in knowledge required, higher public expectations, increased duties at a difficult time, all as reasons for the increase in pay (Critchley, 1967).

and President of the General Council, Trade Union Congress 1955 – 56 (Public Archives undated)

Sir Edward Ian Claud Jacob, (1899 – 1993) had been a professional soldier. During the Second World War he was Assistant Military Secretary to the War Cabinet. On completing his army career he joined the BBC as an Overseas Broadcaster but was persuaded to take a year out to become Chief Staff Officer to Winston Churchill in 1951. In 1952 he became Director General of the BBC retiring from this post in 1960. In 1963 he became principal author of the Ismay-Jacob report which led to major re-organisation of the Defence Establishment.(Miall, 1993)

Sir George Wilfred Turner, (1896 – 1974) started his career as a boy clerk in the War Office, joining the Grenadier Guards 1916 –1919. In 1921 he returned to the Civil Service becoming a Private Secretary in 1929, Assistant Secretary in 1938, Ministry of Supply 1938 - 1948 and becoming Permanent Under Secretary of State for War 1949 - 1956 when he retired. (King’s College London undated)

Arthur Lehman Goodhart, (1891 – 1978) was an American who came to England in 1912 to study law at Cambridge University. In 1921 he founded the Cambridge Law Journal and in 1926 became Editor of the Cambridge Law Journal for 50 years. He was made Honorary KBE in 1948. He remained an American Citizen and served on several committees on both sides of the Atlantic and became honoured by a number of universities. Although part of the Commission, Dr. Goodhart refused to sign the final report, submitting a Memorandum of Dissent. He felt that there should be one police force for England and Wales and divided administratively into no more than fifteen regions, each under the control of a regional commissioner. (Burchnell 1993, Willink, 1962)
With the Royal Commission under way, a paper by the Secretary of State for the Home Department was presented to Parliament, in August 1961, on Police Training in England and Wales (HMSO, 1961). This report covered three elements of police training, Recruit and Specialist Training, Training at the Police College and General Training. There is no indication in the report why it was instigated, however it offers only two paragraphs summarising the probationer training programme concluded by a third which states, “These arrangements are working well and no change in them is proposed.” (HMSO, 1961, page 2) The minutes of the Proceedings of the Seventy-Ninth Police Council26 dated 28th June 1961 indicate that there had been some ongoing discussions and circulations about possible changes to Higher Police Training, which is covered in more detail in the presentation to Parliament. It is possible that it was considered important to indicate that no change was required to recruit training at this stage, however, proposals were being put forward to identify potential leaders early in their service and provide training at an early stage in their career. Of course the Royal Commission was still being conducted at this stage and a publication of this report as a holding statement was required whilst awaiting outcomes from the Commission report. Equally as a result of the incidents in the late 1950’s there was more scrutiny of the leadership within the service. Indeed one of the Commission’s findings was that the police service was not attracting enough recruits suitable to become effective leaders (Royal Commission on the Police, 1962).

The Royal Commission, when it reported in 1962, made recommendations about the control of the police and the development of police authorities. There were no recommendations for change in the legal status of police officers, however the Commission did recommend “Chief Constables should be subject to more effective supervision” (Royal Commission on the Police, 1962, page 140). In terms of the control there was recommendation to increase the number of Her

26 The Police Council was a statutory body establish in the 1920, representing the official side until 1965. A non-statutory body was established following the Oaksey Report in 1954 to represent the staff and official side on discussions on pay and conditions, these then had to be ratified by the Police Council. Following the Police Act in 1964 a Statutory Police Council was established to represent staff and official sides to negotiate and implement decisions. (Taken from note written by National Police Library date November 1987on the inside cover of Proceedings of Police Council 1961 – 1965)
Majesty’s Inspectors of Constabulary so that there would be one per district and that a Chief Inspector of Constabulary should head these. The size of some forces was of concern, the smaller forces were considered to suffer considerable handicaps and a suggestion was made that forces should have no less than 500 officers. It was felt an expert needed to be recruited to review the size of forces and report with a view to amalgamations of forces (Royal Commission on the Police, 1962, page 145).

The Commission explored the relationship between police and the public. The report indicates that a recent Government Social Survey found that generally relationships were good and most people had respect for the police, however there were some unsatisfactory elements, such as the relationship with young people and motorists, the decline in public standards of behaviour and insufficient readiness on the part of the public to help the police (Royal Commission on the Police, 1962, page 147). One might argue that the situation is still the same in the twenty-first century. Has society failed to change or has the police service failed to change? A report published by the Institute for Public Policy Research27 in 2009 suggests the police service has avoided major reform for many years, and makes recommendations for ‘unlocking change’ (Muir, 2009). Also comparable with today’s policing ethos are the recommendations that related to officers spending considerable time at one posting to help improve community relations, to develop informal and formal contacts with the community and that sufficient officers should be on the beat to fulfil the communication demands. However, the Commission does not put the whole requirement for change in the court of the police service, but also suggests that the school curriculum should be reviewed to include information about the duties of police officers and how the public can help them (Royal Commission on the Police, 1962, page 147). The Commission also made recommendations on how complaints about the police should be conducted and investigated.

27 The Institute for Public Policy Research was established in 1988 as a progressive ‘think tank’ which seeks to use independent research to inform social policy change. It is a registered charity. The National Police Improvement Agency, among many national bodies, is listed as one of their sponsors. (IPPR Website, 2009)
The Police Act 1964 pulled together a number of the recommendations made by the Commission resulting in changes in the way the police service in England and Wales became controlled and accountable under what was known as the ‘tripartite’ system of governance (Devlin, 1966, Joyce, 2000, Pollard, 1966), which shared the governance between the Home Office, Police Committees (known as Police Authorities from 1972) and Chief Constables. The governance of the police service prior to this had been under local government control with support from central government funding. This combined with Chief Constables interpreting the law often led to ‘muddied waters’ in terms of control. The 1964 Act sought to address this problem to make the delineation clear with a tripartite approach to management through Secretary of State, Police Authorities and Chief Constables (Pollard, 1966). Although not under local government control, Chief Constables were now more accountable. In terms of impact on training, the Chief Constables still had authority in terms of recruitment and disposal of officers, the Home Secretary had more strategic and tactical options aimed at improving efficiency of the police service, in turn this could impact on the way training was to be delivered.

Some national bodies were created such as the Police Scientific Development Branch, the Police Research and Planning Branch and a Central Conference of Chief Constables. A national recruitment test was also to be introduced. Despite representation from some members of the Commission of the value of a National Police Service or indeed a regional service, the final report indicated this was not necessary but there was scope for some amalgamation of forces. The 1964 Act set the powers which led to a reduction in forces in 1966 from 125 to 49. On 18th May 1966 Roy Jenkins, the Home Secretary made the announcement for amalgamating forces (Hansards, 1966) In his speech he outlines plans for amalgamations which he sought to be arranged on a voluntary basis but indicated he would use the powers vested in him by the Police Act 1964 if he needed to. The Act also directed that each Chief Constable would submit an annual report to the Police Authority and to the Secretary of State. The Act also gave the Secretary of State an outline for provision and maintenance of central services, or to opt for a contribution towards a Police College and District Police Training Centres along with any other development branches to improve the efficiency of
the police service and formalising central service arrangements (Pollard, 1966, Critchley, 1967). The jurisdiction of police constables was changed through this Act from being bound by the area they served to provide them with powers across England and Wales. All the documentation of this time makes mention of the increased mobility of criminals as the use of the motor car increased, and of course the increase in motoring offences. Both of these elements brought on the requirement to extend the powers. As a consequence the training syllabus needed changing to take account of changes in jurisdiction for officers and the style of policing now emerging.

Pollard (1966, page 62) made the observation,

“One important feature that was most noticeable in the report of the Royal Commission and which is reproduced in the Act is the desire to standardise the constitution and control of police forces. As is true of most of our institutions, the police service in this country grew up in a piecemeal fashion.”

This piecemeal approach has been reflected in the manner in which initial police training was organised prior to the Second World War. The move towards a national approach in 1945 was a step toward standardisation, however the 1954 Review of Probationer Training outlined in the previous chapter demonstrates how Chief Constables made their own decisions about whether they should send officers on continuation courses. Whilst the Police Act of 1964 sought to provide the standardisation suggested by Pollard, we will see this is not fully achieved as initial police training evolves through the decades. The Royal Commission on the Police 1962 and the subsequent Police Act 1964 are seen as significant in the development of the police service as we know it today. Critchley observes “A momentum of reform has been generated, and with it a willingness within the police service itself to accept the need for further changes.” (Critchley, 1967, page 297) This perhaps explains why in terms of changes to initial police training or probationer training as it was known then are inconsiderable in comparison to those in the coming decades. Whilst so much organisational change was underway, the development of training was probably further down the pecking order.
The Programme in the 1960’s

As mentioned earlier, in 1961 Parliament was advised there was to be no change to the training programme for new recruits. In September 1962 the Home Office published a document entitled “District Police Training Centres, Synopsis of Methods of Instruction”. This book outlines the Programme for the Initial Course, (thirteen weeks long), the Intermediate Continuation Course, and the Final Continuation Course. However this document reveals that the continuation courses were still only two weeks in length despite the proposals from the 1954 Review that the courses should be increased to four weeks each when the financial situation improved. This clearly had never happened (Home Office, 1962). The 1954 Review was at pains to point out that the training programme for probationary constables was in fact a two-year programme. There were some changes to where the training was delivered during the sixties. In 1960, with the Police College having moved from Ryton-on-Dunsmore to Bramshill, (which is still open as part of the National Police Improvement Agency estate and houses the National Police Library), Ryton became the District Training Centre for Number 4 District again. Mill Meece became a hostel for contractors building a motorway (Scollan, 1982). RAF Dishforth opened as a temporary overflow training centre to Newby Wiske to cater for increased recruitment. Dishforth eventually remained open until 1984.

In addition to the training delivered at District Police Training Centres there was a need for individual forces to deliver training to their new officers. The Home Office published in 1963 the “Force Training of Probationary Constables Study Guide”. This guide outlined the need for probationers to undertake 72 hours of guided study between the courses held at the District Police Training Centres. Some of this would be self study by the probationer but forces should hold a 3 hour training session weekly or where geography or circumstances made this difficult, a 6 hour training session fortnightly. The guide made it clear that no probationer should go for more than a month without any training. If numbers are small the Guide suggests probationers joining with those from a neighbouring force. Perhaps an early indication of what today would be called “collaboration.” The Guide is also clear that any tuition should be tested with periodic exams to
ensure the learning is taking place. Whilst the Guide outlines which subject should be taught in the individual weeks it does not explain how these subjects should be taught other than the self study option supported by weekly meetings with a force training officer who would be able to answer any questions the probationers had. Many of the subjects covered were a repeat of those learned at District Police Training Centre, aimed at reinforcing the knowledge and helping the officers retain the knowledge for when they returned for the continuation courses (Home Office, 1963).

This study guide was an attempt to standardise the training for police officers across the country, which we will see over the next few chapters a growing desire to achieve, perhaps following on from the ethos of the Willink Report. However, the reality of keeping forces and, in particular those involved in training, up to date with legislation and training material has always proved a difficult task. It will be seen later that there is evidence of the Initial Course Student Lesson Notes being updated with new pieces of legislation delivered at the District Police Training Centres, however in a review early in the 1970’s it became apparent that forces were still using this 1963 Study Guide as the basis for their instruction.

The appendices to the 1962 ‘Synopsis of Methods of Instruction’ outline the programme beyond the classroom and for the more specialised subjects. It indicates that swimming and life saving took up fourteen 1 hour sessions within the programme, (the same as the 1954 recommendations), First Aid, 19 periods of 1 hour based on the First Aid Manual of 1958, (1 hour less than 1954), self defence was 18 periods of 1 hour, which looked at the use of force, learning a few “holds” so that they became instinctive and easily achieved. This appendix also states “Fundamental boxing skill instills confidence and courage.” (Home Office, 1962, appendix C). Foot drill and traffic signals took up twenty two periods of 1 hour, each of these periods were to “commence with a complete and thorough inspection of the class” (Appendix D), which demonstrates the militaristic style of training of the time, although it will be seen that drill still formed part of the curriculum until the early twenty-first century. The physical education (P.E.) element of the course is described in Appendix E as ‘…based on
the Ministry of Education Handbook, “Recreation and physical fitness for youths and men.” The P.E. element of the training was broken down into 14, one hourly periods of physical training and 10, two hourly periods of games. In 1954, foot drill, traffic signals, self defence and physical education were lumped together to make 74 hours of instruction with an additional 11 hours for passing out parade and meeting with the commandant, which in total equated to 1 hour less than the 1962 programme.

‘The Synopsis of Methods of Instruction, 1962’ and the 1963 ‘Study Guide’ provide snapshots of the training at the time. Student lesson notes were issued to new recruits from the end of the 1950’s and copies of these at various points through the sixties enlighten the reader further into what was studied as part of the initial police training. However these also raise some questions, for example, in addition to the changes in legislation and the methods of policing there is a whole new section within the lesson notes of 1969 on Civil Defence, with six chapters covering the topic, which had not appeared in earlier editions. These notes outline the threat of nuclear weapons, various monitoring equipment, how to warn householders of impending attack, the organisation of the police service for war and the other services available to assist. The appendices of “District Police Training Centres, Synopsis of Methods of Instruction” (Home Office, 1962) reveal the topic was being covered in twelve 1 hour sessions (2 hours more than in the recommendations of 1954), but for some reason the students were not issued with notes on the topic until 1969.

Study Methods
In the previous chapter I made reference to a recruits ‘neat book’. This was still in place and described in the student lesson notes of 1961 under the title of “Aids to Study”, “The Neat Book is to be your book of reference. Enter the official lesson notes in ink, legibly, neatly and accurately. Check your spelling.” (HMSO, 1961, page 2) By the publication of the revised version of Students’ Lesson Notes in 1966, this element of study had been removed. The notes go on to give other study tips under the sub heading of “Speaking or Reading Aloud”, “Reciting aids confidence, articulation and memory. Read aloud in front of critics as often as you can. Take your full share in discussions. Speak as often as
possible, but only when you have something to say. Test your knowledge with fellow students, and the answers with your text books.” (HMSO, 1966, page 3)

This is a real insight into the organisation encouraging the student to study and develop in their learning.

When looking through the student lesson notes of 1961 it becomes apparent there were a huge amount of subjects to learn. A conversation with a force historian, who joined in 1956, who could still quote the definition of Larceny (the forerunner of theft), revealed that the number of subjects covered when he joined were excessive. He soon realised that he didn’t need to know all there was to know about murder because officers of a more senior rank would be called in to deal with such a situation. The notes repeat the method of working a beat as described in the previous chapter, with different methods of walking along the pavement, dependent on whether day or night. What is eye opening are the elements of policing which remain today. There is detail of a document called an HORT1, which was issued to drivers of motor vehicles if they did not have their driving documents with them. By taking this form with their documents to the police station within 5 days drivers would avoid prosecution. This form is still in existence today albeit drivers now have seven days to produce their documents. The lesson notes on the Constable's Pocket Book reveal a mnemonic which is still used in initial police training today, “Rules to be Observed (ELBOWS)

(Erasures.)
(Leaves to be torn out.)
(Blank pages to be left.)
(NO (Overwriting.)
(Writing between the lines.)
(Separate pieces of paper.”(HMSO, 1961, page 11)

The twenty-first century version sticks at “NO ELBOW” but the S now stands for Significant statements in capitals.

Despite there being a huge amount of material to learn, which was recognised later in the development of initial police training as being beyond the requirements for a probationer to learn, there is a lot of emphasis within the notes
on what might be described today as Customer Satisfaction or Citizen Focus. Such statements include:

“The efficient enforcement of the law by the police depends very largely upon the help and co-operation of the public. This help and co-operation must always be fostered by police officers who should be on their guard against anything which would damage the good relationship between the police and public.” (HMSO, 1961, page 172)

“A constable should be as helpful as possible; action should be prompt and decisive. Exercise tact and tolerance and always be cool, composed and courteous.” (HMSO, 1961, page 170)

“A sympathetic and helpful attitude makes for good relationships. Never miss an opportunity to render service; the public expects, and is entitled to service.” (HMSO, 1961, page 170)

The 1966 version of these notes encompassed material for the Intermediate and Final Continuation Courses. The copy I worked with in completing this research had numerous additions and amendments stuck in it as policing powers changed through the decade, in particular the impact of the Criminal Justice Act 1967 which brought some dramatic changes in terms of powers of arrest. Its “owner” PC Harbour of Norfolk Joint Police had updated the book, through 1968. The above versions of the Students’ Lesson Notes had within the title “District Police Training Centres”. The 1969 version changed this to “Police Training Centres” and this edition held only the notes for the Initial Course although was slightly thicker than the earlier versions, indicative of the growing amount of legislation. Perhaps another indication of the time, the price of the two earlier copies was marked as “Ten Shillings”, the 1969 version showed the price as “10s [50p]”. The style of policing is also changing and along with the methods of walking the beat is a description of the

“Unit Beat Policing System”, the aims of which are described as “...combining resources to overcome the shortage of police officers.....each division divided into
areas and a permanent constable posted to it. Superimposed on these areas are car beats patrolled by constables giving a 24 hours coverage.....All officers are equipped with two-way personal radios.” (HMSO, 1969, page 15)

The aim, it goes on to explain, is the need to increase efficiency and “manage information through a collator”. This is indeed the launch of the “Panda Car” and probably the shaping of policing for the future with the management of intelligence.

**Instructors**

From the time of establishment of Police Training Centres, the instructors deployed to those centres had received training at their local training centre. This had consisted of a six week training course which concluded with a test of the instructor’s skills by an examining panel. In the mid 1960’s there was a proposal to centralise this training, part of the drive for more efficiency within the service as identified in the Willink Report. Commandants who wished to retain autonomy for the training of their staff initially rejected this. However in 1968 a working party was established to explore the development of such a project. This led to the introduction of the Central Planning Unit on an experimental basis from 1st April 1969 housed at the Training Centre at Ryton-on-Dunsmore (Scollan, 1982, page 40). This centre was chosen because of its central England location. The unit was considered a completely separate entity to the Police Training Centre and was under a separate command, which only reported to the Commandant of the centre with regard to discipline. The unit was initially responsible for maintaining student lesson notes and preparing papers on new legislation. The unit became a permanent fixture at the end of 1970 with Assistant Chief Constable Jack English taking the helm. The unit eventually moved from Ryton to Harrogate in 1975.

The 1962 Synopsis indicates that the programme of instruction for new recruits is laid out with 33 lessons per week (this is the same as the recommendation in 1954). Each day had a variety of lessons ranging from classroom based lessons, practical exercises and physical lessons. Each week ends with a review of the
week; this was achieved by means of “oral questions to students and recapitulation of subjects as found necessary.” (Home Office, 1962, page 5). The instructor made records of the outcomes of these reviews and details of the progress of each student. Each new week commenced with an overview of the forthcoming week, during which the instructor would outline the subjects to be delivered and ensure students were prepared to research subjects in readiness for the lessons. For each lesson there is an overview of the topic to be covered and when the lesson was a ‘demonstration’, instructions were provided as to the equipment required, the ‘cast’ to be involved and the scenario explained.

There were seven “methods of teaching” included within this synopsis. A “Lecture”, which was described as “a talk, followed by questions.” The lecturer was expected to “stimulate” questions where necessary unless they were a visiting speaker in which case the instructor was expected to do this. A “Lesson” was classed as a period of instruction, which might involve visual aids, dictated notes or questions. A “Discussion” is when the “instructor acts a chairman, with or without a prepared agenda” and in that discussion gathers information from students either about their knowledge of law or their personal experiences. A “Demonstration” as its title suggested, a particular duty being presented with a discussion afterwards. “Practice” was an opportunity for the recruits to have a go themselves with “as much realism as possible.” “Exercise” was a test of student’s knowledge, “oral, written or acted.” Finally “Examination” was either “written or oral questions….. marks in accordance with an approved and impartial method of assessment.” (Home Office, 1962, no page number).

As the decade drew to a close without any key changes to the probationer training a review team were pulled together in 1969 to consider the training. The findings of this review are reported in the next chapter, as the review team did not present their final report until 1972.
Chapter Five - Initial Police Training In the 1970’s

The Introduction of Change

The change in the programme for initial police training in the 1970’s began in 1969 when a group of District Training Centre Commandants and Heads of Local Training Schools, three of each, were invited to ‘prepare programmes for the proposed review of probationary training.’ Their terms of reference were “To study the present programme to see if better use could be made of the existing seventeen weeks spent at Home Office Training Centres.” (Central Conference of Chief Constables’ Training Centres Committee, Working Party 1969, page 1). The seventeen week programme at Home Office Training Centres (Police Training Centres) consisted of a 13 week initial course, a two week intermediate continuation course and a two week final continuation course. The recommendations by the 1954 Working Group, to extend both of the continuation courses, which had been put on hold because of financial limitation, had never come to fruition.

The 1969 Working Party identified that there was a need to consider the training programme across the two year probation and spread the learning according to the experience of the officers. This reiterates the message of the 1954 review that the Probationary Period of an officer should be treated as a two year programme. This seems to be a developing trend. The staff involved in the education and training of officers recognised the need for development time, contrasted with that of the ‘operational requirements’ of the policing organisation, which required officers to be trained and patrolling the streets as soon as possible. This Working Party felt that the existing programme was too intense in the early stages; officers at this stage of service do not have a real understanding of the role they have taken on. The group proposed that the seventeen week programme should be split, with an initial ten week course and a seven week course to be completed when officers had approximately 21 months service. Between the two
courses to be held at Police Training Centres, individual forces should deliver supplementary training as part of Divisional Training.28

The 1954 Review of Probationer Training (Central Conference of Chief Constables, 1954) had made the delivery of an induction course an ‘option’ open to Chief Constables. The 1969 team, preparing the proposals, identified that where these had been implemented it had been “advantageous and of great help when students arrive at the Home Office Training Centre.” (Central Conference of Chief Constables’ Training Centres Committee, Working Party 1969, Appendix A). This group did not suggest that this was enforced but did recommend that where facilities allowed then forces should adopt the induction course.

In terms of the final course, to be held at the District Police Training Centres, the Working Party recognised that once officers had gained some policing experience they would be able to understand the information more readily. This would provide the ideal opportunity to deliver some of the more complex subjects in addition to building on some of the earlier learning. There was also recognition that some officers might use this opportunity to study for promotion examinations, which they would be eligible to take once they had completed their probation. It was also anticipated that as students had some policing experience at this stage they would play a more active role within the training.

Following on from the submission of the Central Conference of Chief Constables’ Training Centres Committee, Working Party Report in September 1969, a Home Office Working Party on Police Probationer Training was established. Their first report, in March of 1971, to the Police Training Council had recommended a change from a programme which consisted of an initial 13 week course at District Training Centres. They proposed a change to a 10 week

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28 Police forces at this time were predominantly county based, each force would be sub-divided into smaller policing areas known as Divisions, these would be broken down even further in to Sub-Divisions and Beats. A Division would often encompass between 3 and 7 police stations so there would be a pool of officers from across those stations who would be in their probation and would receive local training from a Divisional Training Officer.
course based on the principles of training by objectives, commonly known as a ‘systems approach to training.’

**Systems Approach to Training**

The systems approach to training had already been adopted by the Military Forces and in particular the Royal Navy who presented details of their use of this approach to a conference held at Enfield College of Technology in September 1969 (Romiszowski, 1970, pages 34 – 46). The systems approach was a problem solving approach being employed by educationalists across the world of academia and the workplace (Romiszowski, 1970, Rowntree, 1974). The principle behind the approach was that before you could plan any training you really needed to research the required outcome of that training. For example, in the situation the Royal Navy were presenting at the conference, they were responsible for delivering training to Naval Air Mechanics who are described in their paper as ‘the most junior of the semi-skilled mechanical engineering Fleet Air Arm ratings.’ (Stevenson. P. M., Lieutenant Commander. RN. 1970, in Romiszowski, 1970). To develop an appropriate training programme they needed to look, in detail, at the job description of the mechanic. A recent service requirement had resulted in job descriptions being produced for every role within the Royal Navy, however, the members involved in this project found that the description was not detailed enough and set about writing a further job description in ‘objective terms’ using Mager’s work as a guide.”

As all the staff involved had worked with mechanics and understood the role, they felt able to complete this task assisted by the various publications and operating manuals they had available to them.

The next step, having determined the job description in detail, was to analyse what tasks were required to fulfil this job and the complexity of each task, and indeed how the tasks interlinked, which elements of those tasks were essential knowledge and which were ‘nice to know’ or could be gained by experience.

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29 Robert F. Mager, an American, published a book in 1962 ‘Preparing Instructional Objectives, a book for teachers and student teachers...for anyone interested in transmitting skills and knowledge to authors.’ This work outlines the need to work out the goals which are to be gained through a period of instruction and then selecting the methods appropriate to achieve those goals and determining how the learning is to be measured or evaluated in comparison with the objectives which have been set.
From that analysis it was possible to determine the objectives for the training course and identify objectives which could be met from working operationally. Using the objectives, the team were able to develop the training method and appropriate aids to teaching and from these choices finally design the programmes and lesson plans. At the point of delivery at the conference the team had no validation of the programme and had not reached the final stage in the model of the systems approach, which is to evaluate the programme.

Romiszowski (1968) uses a model for the system of course design which follows a process of 1) Define Task, this is in terms of desired student behaviour, (in the Royal Navy’s case detailing the job description to determine what the mechanic needed to know). 2) Analyse Inputs, in relation to task, student and resources, (for the Royal Navy this is when they identified which element of the tasks could be trained on a course and which needed to be demonstrated in the workplace). 3) Design Outputs, in relation to content, methods and media, (the Royal Navy designed their course). Finally, 4) Evaluation, this could be achieved by comparing resultant student behaviour with the objectives. The results of the evaluation are used to modify the design outputs but also to go back and compare with the task definition. This was the stage the Royal Navy was approaching in their development of the programme.

Whilst the work of the Home Office Working Party Review of Police Probationer Training was continuing, Temporary Sergeant J. Mervyn Jones 30, a student on The Special Course 31 at the National Police College (later known as Police Staff College) at Bramshill, completed a study, his long term project, on Probationer Training and in particular whether the Systems Approach was the right move. The project report is dated July 1972 and in it he seeks to...

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30 J. Mervyn Jones at the time of completing his Long Term Project as part of the Special Course was a Temporary Sergeant serving in Special Branch of Lancashire Constabulary. He later became Assistant Chief Constable of West Midlands Police and was responsible for the External Inquiry into the Hillsborough Tragedy in 1989. He completed his 35 years service as a police officer as Chief Constable of Cheshire announcing his retirement in June 1997. J. Mervyn Jones, O. St. J, Q.P.M., M.Sc. is also author of ‘Organisational Aspects of Police Behaviour’ in a review of this book he is described as Sociologist and Policeman.

31 The Special Course was a year long course aimed at training ‘young officers of outstanding promise for accelerated promotion to inspector. The course was designed to complete the students’ basic professional education and to develop wide interests and intellectual ability.’
“Examine and make recommendations for the improvements and standardisation, where desirable, of police recruit training in the United Kingdom. The British Army have introduced the systems approach to training; Would this be appropriate to the Police Service?”

(Mervyn Jones, 1972).

In completing his research he enrolled the assistance of a number of people involved in the training of police officers, both Home Office Police Forces and Military but notably included Chief Superintendent Jack English who was the Officer in Charge of the Central Planning Unit at Ryton-on-Dunsmore responsible for the development of police training, maintenance of training material and the training of instructors. Mr English was at that time a member of the sub-committee of the Working Party reviewing force and continuation training for probationary police officers and as such would be responsible for arranging and co-ordinating any resultant recommendations about probationer training across England and Wales.

Mervyn Jones makes the point in his study that it is important to assess the role of a constable and determine what needs to be taught in order for the officer to do the job. (Stage 1 of the Systems Approach). He also makes the point that there are some subjects delivered within the training which it is unlikely that an officer would ever put into use. He also takes into account the technical advances in policing and the fact that by 1972 officers had personal radios enabling them to summon assistance and seek advice, which their forebears would not have been able to. There is recognition that as new pieces of legislation had been created and included within the syllabus, the training of police officers had expanded to accommodate those new pieces of law but nothing had ever been taken from the syllabus.

Other observations of the training of police officers Mervyn Jones made are with reference to in-force training. He highlighted that the degree of seriousness some forces applied to training was limited. Some gave the task of training officers to Sergeants or Inspectors who also had full time responsibility for other aspects of policing and were delivering training as a ‘bolt-on’ to their work. Ahead of his
time, the author proposed there should be ‘comprehensive sociology instruction’ (Mervyn Jones, 1972, page 15) which should be delivered by sociologists from outside the police service, but any input should be delivered in the context of the police subject and how the social problems might impact, for example, assaults, licensing etc.

He explores as part of his research how the Royal Military Police (RMP) have introduced a systems approach to training, which was very similar to that of the Royal Navy, detailed above. His findings of how this was implemented within the RMP bore a resemblance to what turned out to be the final product at the introduction of the Police Systems Approach to training, that is to say that students were issued with a list of training objectives to be achieved and were later tested on those objectives. We will see later that this turned out to be the downfall of the system, with instructors merely teaching to the objectives which did not keep in line with the demands of the policing role, particularly with regard to the social aspects of the work. The systems approach to training is reliant on the evaluation stage of the system, this covers not only the aspect of whether the training is achieving the objectives but should also include a review of the appropriateness of the objectives.

On examining the pilot course introduced by the Working Party, Mervyn Jones made the observation that

‘In order to satisfy the “politicians” and be able to introduce the systems approach, a much weakened version has been prepared. Instead of introducing a completely separate revolutionary approach to training, for that is what the systems approach would be; we are now experimenting at Pannal Ash with a hybrid course constructed from two incompatible training systems. …...The results obtained from the evaluation of the course are likely to be very unfair to the systems approach to training, and it would be a disastrous mistake if the systems approach was rejected purely on an evaluation of a hybrid scheme.’ (Mervyn Jones, 1972, page 30)
He goes on to suggest in his conclusions that

“butchery will be required rather than surgery…… I believe that until we take some basic steps of a major kind any tinkering with recruit training, and for that matter all police training, will only prolong the difficulty and make it even more difficult to make fundamental changes. One simple idea, pursued with vigour and the willing co-operation of everyone involved in training can begin to set our training structure right.” (Mervyn Jones, 1972, page 31)

His conclusions are based on the challenges faced at that time, in particular the desire by the Chief Constable of each police force wanting to deliver training in their own forces in their own way.

The Working Party on Police Probationer Training

To understand how the systems approach was introduced one needs to understand who was on the Working Party on Police Probationer Training. This Working Party was made up of representatives from the Home Office (HO), Association of Chief Police Officers (ACPO)32, the Association of Municipal Corporations (AMC), County Councils Association (CCA)33, Chief Constables Committee for Pannal Ash Police Training Centre, Police Superintendents Association, Scottish Home and Health Department and Police Federation – 18 members in total. Included in this group was Professor W.D. Wall, who at the time, was Dean of the University of London Institute of Education34 and Mr D.E.
Mumford who was the Principal of Cambridgeshire College of Arts and Technology. Professor Wall was the long term educational advisor to the Police Training Council as a result of his work with UNESCO which had led to links with many UN Agencies, governments and non-governmental organisations across the world. As an eminent psychologist and educationalist he would provide an academic viewpoint amongst the operational police voices. Mumford ‘is regarded as one of the outstanding educationalists of post-war years’ (Anglia Ruskin University, 2008) with a desire to integrate academic and vocational education. The training of a police officer requires an element of academic knowledge in understanding the law and the vocational aspect of application in the street, Mumford’s expertise in this field will have been useful to the working party.

War he became an instructor with the Royal Army Ordnance Corps, which triggered his move into psychology. Identifying high levels of illiteracy and links to problems during adolescence Wall linked with the Education Corps to found a centre for remedial education. After demobilisation he gained a Ph.D in psychology and became the founder of the journal, The Educational Review. In the early 1950’s he moved to Paris to head up the unit for Education and Child Development at UNESCO. This led on to work with the BBC Advisory Group on Social Effects of Television, the General Nursing Council and crucially the Police Training Council. In Wall’s renowned book ‘The Adolescent Child’ he indicates the benefits of an apprenticeship scheme through which employers were responsible not only for the technical training of an apprentice but also for the moral and social development of the ‘adolescent’. At the time of writing this book, 1948, he was concerned that 14 year olds were ‘thrown into the workplace without a point of advice and guidance.’ This in turn could lead to an ‘increased instability and cynicism’ leading to an attitude that work is there to be tolerated. Clearly recruits joining the police service were beyond adolescent ages but his work in this field would have informed the working party of the potential background experiences of recruits joining the service. In Wall’s later work, ‘Constructive Education for Adolescents’ 1977 he refers to the importance of the role of police in the lives of adolescents. This publication obviously comes five years after this review but his work with the Police Training Council is reflected in his understanding of the complexities of the policing role; the balance between understanding child psychology and creating a situation of trust between the young and the law enforcement element of the role and the position of authority which adolescents may feel the need to ‘kick against’.

35 Mumford was the principal of Cambridgeshire College of Arts and Technology from 1949 until 1977. The College has been through a series of mergers over the years and is now the Anglia Ruskin University. Mumford was regarded as one of the outstanding educationalists of the post war years and was an advocate of integrating academic and vocational education within colleges. Another aspect of his work was the influence in the development of the use of television for school teaching. As a result of a discussion with the head of Associated Rediffusion in which Mumford suggested that television might be used to ‘educate people to see their surroundings in a new light to become aware of them’, the television programme ‘Looking and Seeing’ was produced by 1957. (Broadcast for Schools.co.uk webpage accessed 24.8.09) Mumford who was later awarded the CBE also went on to serve on the steering committee result in the Waddell Report 1978 to consider proposals to replace GCE’s and CSE’s.
The Working party reported,

“At their second meeting, held on 25th November 1971, the Council endorsed the principles underlying our conclusions and recommendations and agreed

That

i. the proposed initial training course should be introduced experimentally;

ii. the report of the Working Party should be circulated to chief constables; and

iii. the Working Party should continue with their review, including the evaluation of the pilot courses and the examination of in-force training and submit a further report for consideration by the Council in the autumn of 1972.”

(Home Office 1972, page 1)

The working party hoped to have their report ready for November 1972 but this proved to be impracticable. The Assessment of pilot courses was more complex than first thought and took more time to get information back from forces. One might question whether this was a lack of planning of the research or was it a case of the training research being further down the priority scale of issues facing the service at the time? There is no evidence to answer this question.

The Pilot Courses – Trialling the Change

The Initial Course

On 20th December 1971, the arrangements were considered for the pilot courses and it was decided they would be held at the Pannal Ash Training Centre, Harrogate. This centre took students of both sexes and from county and borough forces (the make up of forces then was different to now). The Chief Constables Committee for the Centre agreed to help and a representative from this Committee was invited to join the Working Party. This was Assistant Chief Constable C. E. Heap of City of Bradford Police.

36 Police Training Council
Preparation for the pilot courses was carried out at Ryton-on-Dunsmore, the Central Planning Unit (CPU) Headed by Chief Superintendent Jack English. They were authorised to engage more staff to help with this. They worked in cooperation with Harrogate and “trained the instructors there in the necessary techniques.” (Home Office, 1972). Preparation of the course entailed a great deal of work for the Unit with the writing and duplicating detailed lists of over 800 lesson objectives for both instructors and students, designing and duplicating assessment forms and questionnaires for students and instructors and engaging outside lecturers.

There was some concern over the impact on St. Johns Ambulance as a result of the change in training and meetings were held between the Home Office, CPU and St. Johns to discuss the way forward. This was because of the requirement to tailor the first aid training to meet the needs of a police officer and not exceed it. There was a positive result with St. Johns who not only adapted the training for police officers but also adapted their training and started setting up objective questions to use elsewhere outside of police training.

The Working Party Report was based on the findings from only three of the four pilot courses, there was no real explanation why, other than it would take some time to evaluate the results thoroughly i.e. the students needed to establish themselves as officers in the operational field. It was considered that the evidence from the three courses was sufficient to provide a validation sufficient to make recommendations for the adoption of the course with any appropriate modifications. The first pilot course started on 5th June 1972, with the third ending on 20th October 1972. In the Working Party’s first report they had explained the difference between evaluation and validation. They recognised that full evaluation of the course could not be completed until the officers going through the course had completed their probation and all aspects of the training. However the elements of training delivered at the point of reporting would have offered enough material to validate the programme.

Both CPU (Ryton) and Pannal Ash submitted reports to the Working Party on the conduct and validation of the pilot courses.
Resulting views:

a) Exam results – pass mark of 70% - narrower range and generally higher than the 13 week course “although there cannot be an exact comparison, because of the different nature of the two types of course, we nevertheless consider this to be significant because the examinations in both were similar and consisted of multiple-choice objective questions.”

b) Supplementary Training Unit (STU) established – should continue (offers support to those falling below standards)

c) Of 255 recruits, only 8 required supplementary training – all stayed another 2 weeks then reached standard.

d) To check the effectiveness of each lesson, students and instructors completed questionnaires, this resulted in several amendments being made to the definition and presentation of training objectives and lesson notes.

e) Pilot courses – greater demands on staff time, marking papers and assessing students meant that instructors could not cope with more than 18 students. This meant the ratio had been increased to 1 ½ to 20 – this should now mean that there should be 2 instructors per class in addition to supervisors and STU staff – the report highlights this is not excessive compared to other fields of education.

f) There had been noticeable improvements in students dealing with practical incidents. “This, we think, can be attributed to the training in interviewing given early in the experimental course, smaller classes, careful and detailed planning of the incidents and the higher ratio of instructors to students.”

g) Unlike the 13 week course – students are not expected to study in private in their own time “we consider that this, together with the examination results referred to in sub-paragraph (b) above, emphasises the greater value of training by objectives over the traditional methods.”

37 In a talk delivered to the Local Authority Association, Chief Constable Byford of Lincolnshire Police (Byford, 1975) highlights the societal changes of police officers having working wives therefore making officers less inclined to study in their own time, this is in reference to promotion exams but no doubt there was a similar mood within the initial training. Byford had joined the West Riding Constabulary in 1947. He became Her Majesty’s Inspector of
Plans were in place to interview supervisory officers later when recruits had been back in force for some time. The Chief Constables Committee indicated that initial feedback was good

“Recruits trained on them (the pilot courses) are noticeably more confident, seem to show more common sense and humanity, and are less rigid in their attitudes than recruits who attended the existing type of course. The extent to which they understand their powers and responsibilities needs to be looked at further, but so far the recruits are carrying out their duties satisfactorily. The Committee also consider that an incidental advantage of the objective system of training is that it provides a valuable check on the effectiveness of individual instructors.” (Home Office, 1972, page 3).

The Committee’s observation that the ‘incidental advantage’ of being able to check on performance of instructors holds a clue to where the use of this method of training eventually starts to unravel. It is understandable perhaps that if instructors realise that their performance is being monitored based on the students achieving good scores against the learning objectives, then the instructors will make every effort to deliver to those objectives. The fact that the Committee saw this aspect as an ‘incidental advantage’ suggests that they did not fully understand the Systems Approach as the model should allow continuous evaluation of the programme and modification of the materials. Within that evaluation there is an assessment of the deliverer of that training so they should have anticipated some quality control here. What is apparent is that student or class exam results would have provided a very quick assessment of the instructor. However the Working Party had reported that

“it will be necessary to keep the training up to date to meet changes and developments in police work in a changing...
society. This will require continuous feedback of information from forces on the adequacy and relevance of all aspects of the training in the light of job performance by constables.” (Home Office, 1972, page 3).

As a result of the feedback the general adoption of the course was recommended with Pannal Ash continuing to deliver the ten week course until it heard otherwise. This suggests that the team delivering were not going to revert to anything else unless they had formal instruction and were perhaps accepting of the new material. There were some modifications to be made but the “course seems satisfactory”. Recognition was made that the course would need regular review to “meet changes and developments in police work in a changing society.” (Home Office, 1972, page 3)

The report indicating that the “course seems satisfactory” does not appear wholeheartedly supportive of the change and seems a lukewarm response for such a national change to be made. Clearly not the approach of ‘Butchery rather than Surgery’ as suggested by Temporary Sergeant Mervyn Jones. A slightly different tone is used in other publications such as in ‘Royal Air Force Dishforth Police Training Centre, An Introductory Handbook’ (Brierley, 1985, page 45) in which it states “The success of the pilot courses meant that the system of training by objectives was implemented nationally.” The author in this case is recording the history of that particular training centre rather than looking in detail at the training but clearly there is a perception of a successful pilot.

**Managing the Change**

In preparation for the changes it was suggested that instructors be introduced to the new delivery methods and that research should be conducted to “assess content and means of conducting training in general subjects such as communication, interviewing or having psychological or sociological input.” (Home Office, 1972, page 4) This was as a result of difficulties in recruiting civilian lecturers to deliver general studies and the need to train some police instructors. This appears to be the start of the recognition of the need for such skills within police officers but a restrained approach of training ‘some police
instructors’. The following excerpt from ‘Police-Community Relations’ (Banton, 1973, page 114)\textsuperscript{38} indicates a problem,

‘Probably most people who have had the experience of lecturing to police officers on matters which relate to the social rather than the technical aspects of their job, would agree that the police are much more “touchy” about their work than people who follow other occupations. Perhaps this is because the nature of police work makes it difficult to reply to criticism. Police officers are frequently more defensive about criticism on the racial issue than on others because it often implies that policemen in general are failing to do their job properly rather than that a few individuals are failing short.’

The discussions about ‘civilian staff’ being used to deliver training and the difficulties in employing them should be set in the context that at this time the police service were still digesting reports of Police Advisory Board Working Parties on Manpower, Equipment and Efficiency instigated by the then Home Secretary Roy Jenkins in 1966. He had invited the Police Federation to be involved with this work. Following the amalgamations of forces, the issue of better equipment such as personal radios for police officers, the introduction of unit beat policing schemes and ‘Panda Cars’ there had also been much civilianisation of many posts within the police service. The Working Party report refers only to employing civilian staff for certain aspects of the training and not the totality, this will become an ongoing discussion for the police service throughout the rest of the twentieth century.

Of course changing from one style of training programme to another presented some logistical challenges as the training of police officers followed a cyclical process with intakes overlapping at training centres. There would be challenges in having one course learning one syllabus whilst another joining a few weeks

\textsuperscript{38} Professor Michael Banton Ph.D DSc. Department of Sociology, Bristol University was detailed in the Working Party 1972 report as a member of the Working Party on Police Training in Race Relations and had made recommendations on the subjects which should be included in force training programmes.
later would be learning another. Any communication between the students would understandably cause confusion. The Police Training Centre at the former RAF Dishforth was crucial in this change over period.

‘In 1973, to permit the change over of courses and systems in all of the District Training Centres in England and Wales, with the exception of London Metropolitan Police, a final 13 week course of Initial Training was mounted at Dishforth.’

This last course took in almost the whole of the intake of recruits from all of the provincial forces of England and Wales, to allow a ‘breathing space’ in the other centres before they embarked upon the new objective method of training. It was intended that Dishforth in its turn would, after this last course, change over to the ‘ten week course.’’ (Brierley, 1985, page 52)

Although it was planned that this would be the last of the 13 week courses the then Commandant, Chief Superintendent John P. Shaw from Humberside Police actually decided to offer the students a taste of the new course by arranging for certain elements of the programme to be dropped as indeed they would be in the ‘new course’ such as coinage offences and included the new ‘Communication Phase’ which was a brief and basic view of human nature and interviewing and

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39 Dishforth Police Training Centre had started life as RAF Dishforth built in the mid 1930’s and becoming a Bomber Command in 1937. We have already seen that in the immediate post war years military bases became police training centres but the move for Dishforth did not occur until November 1965 when it became a ‘detached wing of No. 2 District Police Training Centre Newby Wiske’ (Brierley, 1985). When the RAF moved out of the premises in 1966 the Home Office took over the site to use as an overflow centre. At this time there was increased recruitment and as a consequence more training centre space was required (the Willink Royal Commission and Police Council had reached an agreement two years earlier on a system of biennial reviews of police pay). In December 1967 Dishforth became a separate centre in its own right, however as recruit numbers decreased again in 1968 the centre began to be used for Sergeants Courses, Student Instructor Courses and Force Training Officer Courses. As time progressed it was also host to conferences for Crime Prevention Officers, Regional Crime Squad and Force Training Officers. It continued as an overflow training centre taking recruits from provincial forces in England and Wales excluding the Metropolitan Police. In 1975 all the training from Pannal Ash, Harrogate was transferred to Dishforth as the Central Planning Unit moved from Ryton-on-Dunsmore. In November 1974, the Police Training Council decided recruit training centres should be on a regional basis and four of the ten existing centres should be relinquished, the remaining six should be able to accommodate all the recruit training with potential if future funds allowed for a further centre to be built at Hinchinbrooke Park, Cambridge to serve the Eastern Region. In 1976 the Training Centre at Newby Wiske was closed with Dishforth absorbing the commitment from there and eventually the site at Dishforth was purchased by the Home Office in March 1977.
communication skills. This became known in the ‘new course’ as Associated Police Studies.

It is hard to contemplate in the twenty-first century how such ‘soft skills’ were taught and learnt and more importantly absorbed by police officers given the didactic teaching styles of those times. One of the recommendations in the Working Party Report in the lead up to the introduction of the new programme was that “methods of training by objectives should be introduced into the 13 week course so instructors can become familiar with it.” (Home Office, 1972, page 4). In ‘Bruche: A Collection of Memories’ the author, Mary G, Randle (2006) a retired Greater Manchester Police Officer who spent her last three years at Bruche District Training Centre as a trainer, describes the training in the 1970’s. She states “Teaching in the 1970’s was still done in a very formal manner, and the recruits still sat in rows at desks while the instructor stood at the front. There were weekly exams, to test the student’s knowledge, held on a Monday Morning.” (Randle, 2006, page 98) Whilst this is a memory from Bruche it is likely that the same style was in place at Dishforth given that later research in the 1980’s indicates that whichever training centre you were in you would see the same product. It could be argued this was a bonus for standardisation, perhaps ahead of its time, but little consideration of local or regional needs, a desire of twenty-first century policing which is customer focussed.

The Induction Course
A police officer’s training has throughout been seen as a two year programme and the 1972 review considered not only the initial course delivered at training centres but also the complete package. This work was completed by a sub committee chaired by the Chief Constable of Teesside Police. The sub committee collected information on the courses being run by in-force training centres. Only 17 forces held induction courses. Of course the 1954 review had left the delivery of an induction course as an optional feature. The fact that only 17 were delivering these illustrates Mervyn Jones’s viewpoint that Chief Constables chose to deliver training in the form that they felt best for their force. At the time of the review the number of forces was reducing from 125 so with only 17
delivering induction courses this was just a small fraction of officers benefiting from this training. Almost all forces held a local procedures course however, more than half re-covered subjects from the initial course.

More than half still based general probationer training on the 1963 Home Office Study Guide, which was now out of date due to changes in the legislation (Home Office, 1972, page 4). The remainder had adapted the guide in the light of legislative changes or developed their own curriculum. This will later be seen as an ongoing issue for police training with a need to feed information across a number of forces and training establishments. This was highlighted earlier by the Working Party as a need for constant review of the role of the police officer and the changing role of policing in society.

In an attempt to standardise the Induction Course the Sub Committee of the Working Party consulted on suitable topics and then made recommendations to Chief Constables that each of them should run these courses. The content should include elements such as taking fingerprints of the students, uniform fitting, information on pay and conditions of service etc. There were also recommendations that students be advised on the discipline standards of District Training Centres. Although the content was suggested to forces, the length of the course was left for them to decide themselves.

**Local Procedure Courses**

This course was to be delivered after the ten week Initial Course at the Home Office Training Centres. Recommendations were made on the content again but the length of the course and time on each subject was left to each force. It was considered that forces could equally dispute when this course should be held so the recommendation was made that it should be held at any time while the recruit was under the supervision of a tutor constable. The Local Procedure Course was aimed at tackling the differences between forces. The Initial Course could deliver the legislative training but almost every force would have its own method of administering the criminal justice process, for example one force might have a three page document for recording details of a crime whereas another might have five pages. This course was aimed at helping the student to understand the
practical application of what they had learnt in their initial course. In addition to procedural differences some forces might chose to put more emphasis on a topic which had been delivered as part of the Initial Training Course because it was a more prevalent aspect of policing in a particular area.

**Race Relations Training**

The Working Party were aware that whilst they were completing their work there was also a Working Party on Police Training in Race Relations and of the House of Commons Select Committee on Police/Immigrant Relations. The amount of time in the generic 10 week course timetable was limited to ‘3 periods on race relations generally and one on “the individual and prejudice” within the wider context of community relations.’ It was suggested that the local procedures course or the general probationer training covered topics to suit the needs of the force area using the recommendations made by Professor Michael Banton, a member of the Working Party on Police Training in Race Relations. Whilst there were some obvious benefits of this in that forces could tailor their training to include information and awareness of the communities officers would be working within, for example some of the city forces may police a more diverse community than some of the more rural forces in the late 1960’s, early 1970’s, there was a risk of leaving poorly staffed in-force training teams to prepare and deliver this training with no support from the CPU.

**Home Defence and Major Emergencies**

The title of this element of probationer training is indicative of the time and perhaps the impact of the Cold Wars. At first it was thought this should be delivered locally however the Governments Home Defence policy for 1972/76 and training decisions made by the Police War Duties Committee in Home Office Circulars ES 2/72 and 4/72 pointed to National Training, so it was decided to include it within the continuation course – 6 hours of objective based syllabus to be designed by CPU.

**General Probationer Training In Forces**

This title covered any other training which forces delivered to their probationers outside of the above listed courses. In reviewing this the Working Party
consulted forces to establish what they were currently delivering. Some delivered one day of training a week, some delivered their training in one week blocks. The Working Party suggested that it would be beneficial to deliver this training a week at a time to ease abstraction\(^{40}\) difficulties. Attachments to specialist units such as CID or Traffic Department were considered valuable in developing the skills and knowledge of probationary officer, but needed specific objectives. The Working Party proposed that there be 84 periods of instruction – i.e. 14 days worth of training for officers outside of the already detailed courses.

**Continuation Course**

Here the Working Party made a suggestion which was not in line with the original suggestion by the 1969 group. The proposal was for the Continuation Course to be held at 18 months service (previously suggested at 21 months service) and should reinforce training rather than duplicate any subjects already delivered. There should be a mix of students and instructors from different forces and regions in order for students to gain the most benefit. This would allow a cross sharing of experiences amongst the students. The Continuation Course was to be reduced by two weeks but the report does not contain any evidence of how the Working Party came to this decision or whether it was supported by any analysis of the role of a constable. Some Chief Constables were concerned about the reduction in length of the training programme but the Working Party considered that provided there were no more than 12 students that this would be sufficient in length.

**Context of Policing at the Time**

The focus of the developments of the training was very much on the main Initial Training Course and still no question of moving away from District Police Training Centres. We have seen in earlier chapters how these were established in order to meet the huge demand for training as a result of the Second World War.

\(^{40}\) Whenever an officer is deployed to some work other than operational patrol this is known within the police service as an abstraction. The nature of policing means that there needs to be sufficient police officers on patrol to meet the need of that particular locality. Over the years there have been numerous debates and policies on both a national and local level as to exactly how many officers are required on operational patrol at any one time. Today there are still ‘balancing acts’ to be completed in managing the development of staff whilst providing a sufficient police cover.
By delivering training at these centres there was an element of national control over the material and standard of training delivered to new officers, hence the emphasis in the Working Party Reports on this aspect of the training. Once officers left the Training Centres and moved to their own forces the standard of the training was variable dependent on the local Chief Constable. By ensuring officers returned to the Training Centres for a Continuation Course this standard could be maintained.

The curriculum of both the Initial and the Continuation Course hints at the nature of policing at this time. There were at least two first aid lessons in the each of the first eight weeks of training until the exam was taken. Two and a half weeks were dedicated to traffic law and policing, in line with the increase in motor vehicles and road safety issues. Vehicles were becoming faster but safety measures, brakes, seatbelts were not keeping up with the pace. For example although it was made compulsory in 1967 for new cars built in the UK to be fitted with seatbelts and the 1970 ‘clunk click’ campaign encouraged people to wear seatbelts, legislation did not cover the wearing of seatbelts until 1983. Compare this with half a day on public order and only one lecture on race relations. Included within the programme were periods of foot drill, swimming and physical education to break up the time in the classroom. Wednesday afternoon was allotted every week to organised games. Up until the 1990’s Wednesday afternoon was always considered the time for inter force sports competitions, whether that be football, rugby, hockey, etc. It was only as policing neared the twenty-first century that questions were asked about whether Wednesday sports was the best use of a police officer’s time. Of course there was only a limited number of officers interested in taking part in these sports outside of the initial training stages but one can imagine how those left to carry out operational duties felt whilst colleagues were playing sport.

As detailed in the previous chapter changes in the structure of forces were occurring around this time. The Joint Parliamentary Under Secretary of State, Home Office, Lord Stonham had indicated that amalgamations were required because of the increase in crime, changing crime patterns and the growing traffic problems. Government were hoping to create police forces ‘of a size most likely
to achieve full efficiency in the prevention and detection of crime and the control of traffic.’ (Hansards, 1966) The proposed mergers reduced the 105 forces in England to 45, and the 12 forces in Wales to just four. In 1974 there were further reorganisations resulting in the 43 forces we have today in England and Wales, with six provincial metropolitan forces. The Equal Pay Act in 1970 had brought equality for women police officers in terms of their pay and the later Sex Discrimination Act was to ensure that for the first time women officers competed on equal terms for entry, promotion and transfers. Despite this change, as the new decade was on the horizon, there were still some District Police Training Centres which could not accommodate women officers for the initial training so women from some forces attended different training centres to their male colleagues. (Police Federation, 2009)
Chapter Six - The 1980’s View of Initial Police Training

Why Change?
The 1980’s opened with a continuance of the Systems Approach to training introduced in the early 1970’s. District Training Centres across the country were delivering the same package. In the late 1970’s and early 1980’s there had been increasing observations about the police and their relationships with the communities they served. There was still a militaristic approach to the training of police officers. The tone had been set in the establishment of the training centres in the post war years and with Chief Constables directly recruited from the military in the early days of policing. The police service is a disciplined service in that officers need to follow orders in certain circumstances but equally they need to be capable of independent thought and action when responding to incidents alone. The style of training in the 70’s and early 80’s introduced officers to a disciplined world of marching around the training centre, classrooms laid out with rows of desks with an instructor stood at the front. Recruits stood up to speak to the instructor whether it be to ask or answer a question. Exams were held on a weekly basis and students were expected to complete a guard duty during the course.

This style of training was observed in a work on Community Policing by Evelyn B. Schaffer in 1980.

“The impression given by police training is that it is militaristic in its approach and therefore unlikely to develop the sort of police officers required by a civilian force. The problem is that discipline is vital for the police force; in situations of crisis a police officer must know his role and must respond absolutely to orders. Failure to do so may endanger both his colleagues and the general public. The weakness of the present training system seems to be that a

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41 Evelyn B. Schaffer at the time of writing was the Principal Clinical Psychologist at the Douglas Inch Centre for Forensic Psychiatry in Glasgow. Her book Community Policing examines the role of the police in the community and how the service sees its own function. There are several references to the training throughout the book and some of her observations are still relevant to policing in the twenty-first century.
great deal of stress is laid on the external discipline, smartness, good appearance and conformity, whereas the need for the personality to discipline itself, to develop initiative and control are ignored. If initiative is not stimulated during training, it is not going to suddenly appear on the streets. There are many situations in the streets that require discipline but initiative is equally important. Detailed quotation from the Instruction Book is rarely necessary or helpful. There are few professions that really train their students adequately for the job they have to do. A great deal of learning has to go on long after training courses are over. The police, who have one of the shortest training courses of any group, also have a job to do that is infinitely more exposed than any other, that involves the wielding of great power as compared with other professional groups and that can cause enormous problems if the job is done badly." (Schaffer, 1980, page 97)

This observation could have been written at any time in the history of police training and demonstrates a clear outline of the balancing act of policing between law enforcement and maintenance of good public relations. However the police service had made some recognition of growing tensions in the late 1970’s and by 1981 the curriculum had seen the introduction of Associated Police Studies which sought to address complaints by Training Centre Commandants about the standard of some of the outside speakers who came in to talk to recruits about ‘Public Relations’ as it was then called. By 1981 the use of outside speakers had all but diminished and instructors were delivering a package developed by CPU. Scollan42 makes the observation in her book ‘Ryton Revisited’ about these lessons coupled with the fact that the recruitment age had been lowered,

42 Maureen Scollan, was a sergeant with Essex Police at the time of publishing ‘Ryton Revisited’. She was an instructor at the training school at the time of her publication. In her acknowledgement she indicates her own judgement and bias will be reflected in the writing.
experiences of ordinary contact with people, and all sorts of practical problems were encountered. To try to overcome these problems of communication, lectures on elementary sociology and psychology were introduced into the initial course. In many cases the speakers were university lecturers with an approach that was too theoretical to be of any real benefit to police recruits, even the increasing numbers with high levels of educational achievement.

Reappraisal of the method and content of training should be a continuing process as society changes. A system of associated police studies was introduced when instructors discussed with their students in the classroom the basics of group awareness, individual attitudes and racial prejudice” (Scollan, 1982, page 55)

She goes on to explain that the riots of 1981 cast doubt as to whether the discussions were adequate.

The growing concerns about the relations between police and community came to realisation with the breakout of the Brixton Disorders in April 1981, with some further outbreaks across the country in places such as Handsworth in Birmingham and Toxteth, Merseyside. The previous chapter established that members within the police service and outcomes of training reviews had suggested that new officers should receive more training in community awareness and that civilian staff should be involved in the delivery of this training. However, this had received limited support and the training was small in comparison with the rest of the curriculum. Of course it is easy to look back from a twenty-first century position where the importance of listening to the community is more readily accepted and wonder why the service was not more receptive to the advice from sociologists and psychologists of the time, such as Schaffer. Her observation ironically sums up the skills required in policing those disorders. The discipline and the ‘militaristic’ approach required to contain the disorder and restore order, balanced against the need for initiative and community understanding, which might have prevented the situation arising and
would certainly assist in building relations after the disorder. Arguably the disorder would still have arisen to a greater or lesser extent based on the powers open to a police officer at the time and the social and political background of society as a whole, not just the police service.

There had been a series of police corruption allegations in the 1970’s and towards the end of the decade the attention turned towards the abuse of powers by police officers (Reiner, 2000). Prime Minister James Callaghan initiated the Royal Commission on Criminal Procedure, which reported in 1981. Much of the report became the basis for one of the most impactive pieces of legislation on policing for several decades, the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984 (commonly known as PACE). This set out strict guidelines and time limits for searching, questioning and detention of individuals. The legislation was also developed with the findings of the report of the inquiry into the Brixton Disorders 43, conducted by Lord Scarman in 1981 in mind. This report not only influenced the legislation but was to have a major impact on Initial Police Training.

The Scarman Report

Lord Scarman outlined in the introduction to his report that it was not possible to just report on the policing of the events in April 1981 in Brixton. There was a need to relate the community situation as the two were intertwined. This is a crucial comment to the understanding of the evolution of police training and the need almost for the police service to stay one step ahead of community developments to prevent dissatisfaction in service. Throughout this research it is clear to see that the training of new recruits has developed in line with the social and economic climate of the British Population.

‘A “Section 32 inquiry” is primarily concerned with policing but, because policing methods operate in and are influenced by the social situation, it cannot stop at policing.

43 The Home Secretary at the time William Whitelaw used his powers under section 32 of the Police Act 1964 to appoint the Right Honourable Lord Scarman to inquire into the serious disorder in Brixton on 10th to 12th April 1981. The inquiry report was published in November 1981.
In this Inquiry, therefore, I have sought to identify not only the policing problem specific to the disorder but the social problem of which it is necessarily part. The one cannot be understood or resolved save in the context of the other.’
(Scarman, 1981, page 2)

Scarman highlighted his concern that young officers were allowed to police the streets after only 10 weeks training. Clearly he was looking solely at the training input received by officers at the District Training Centres, although there is some recognition in his report of other courses. He recommended that initial training be extended to six months. One might question his educational basis for this. It appears to be an arbitrary figure. However he indicated that he felt there were two key elements of curriculum in need of improvement; the prevention of disorder although when it does arise there is a need to know how to deal with it, and human awareness/community relations. This is an interesting observation some 11 years after the Select Committee report on Police/Immigrant Relations makes recommendations on the training of police officers for working with the community. Similarly a number of books published around the time made comparable observations such as Banton’s Police Community Relations. Banton highlights the problems involved between the police and the community and the need to change policing styles to meet their needs, recognising that what works at one time and location may not work on another (Banton, 1973, page 167). The observation also reflects that of Schaffers above.

This message is reinforced in Scarman’s report

“the underlying theme throughout a recruit’s initial training must, I suggest, be the police officer’s role as a member of the community he polices and his need to maintain law and order through gaining the approval, confidence and respect of the community he serves. The recruit must learn that obtaining community support is not mere community relations window dressing to be handled by a few specialists, but an essential element of the operational
efficiency of the police in fighting crime and keeping the peace.” (Scarman, 1981, page 81)

He later goes on to suggest that officers should spend time working in the inner cities, getting to know the ethnic minority communities, making contact with youth clubs, churches and the like. There should be ongoing community training for all officers regardless of rank and the theme “should be the role of the police as part of the community” (Scarman, 1981, page 83). Scarman identified that there needed to be a common minimum standard nationwide for community relations training. He also recommended a common minimum standard for the tactical management of disorder, important bearing in mind the potential for forces to call in mutual aid to assist in times of public disorder. However he did recognise that there would be some differential of the needs of individual forces.

Although his report recommends the increase in community relations training Scarman contradicts himself by saying ‘the period of practical “on the job” training as a supervised probationary constable is the critical phase, though it needs, if it is to be effective, the grounding of an initial institutional training course, in which the central importance of community relations is explored in depth.’ (Scarman, 1981, page 84) If an officer is being “institutionally trained” how does that help him or her to be more community aware?

Goffman’s44 work on the impact of institutional life on individuals describes the making of a ‘mortified self’ (Lemert and Branaman 1997, page 55). Individuals develop into the person they are, as a result or reflection of their personal experiences and social arrangements in their life. On arrival at institutions there is a separating of that person from their former environment and often the outside world. By scheduling the lifestyles of ‘inmates’ there is a control over their behaviour. Degradation and humiliation can alter a person’s own perspective of themselves. The wearing of uniform clothing and a strict daily routine removes any individuality. While much of Goffman’s work reflects on institutions such

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44 Erving Goffman was an American sociologist (1922 – 1982) whose work explored the position of an individual within the social world; one of his key observations was the impact of institutional life on the individual.
as prisons or psychiatric hospitals the atmosphere of a police training centre in the 1980’s bore a remarkable resemblance to these premises.

Goffman indicates that the effect of mortification can have an everlasting impact on an individual and they may never fully recapture elements of their life. Obvious examples are the experience of children growing up and missed family events. The strict guidelines at police training centres at this time included restraints such as recruits not allowed to take their vehicles off centre during the week. This restricted any student hoping to get a break from the training and visit their family.

Goffman observes that “I might add that when entrance is voluntary, the recruit has already withdrawn from his home world; what is cleanly severed by the institution is something that had already started to decay.” (Lemert and Branaman, 1997, page 56). If this principle is applied to recruit police officers, by accepting to take on this role an officer is already separating themselves from a known environment. Whilst they remain an officer there is always an element of detachment from other members of society whether that be in a professional or social setting. However, once released from the institution there is a freedom to choose who you tell what your profession is and therefore have more control over any segregation. If Scarman then is recommending the benefits of ‘institutional training’ there needed to be some dramatic changes to the nature of that training to allow officers the freedom to develop community awareness skills.

**Outcomes of Scarman Report in Relation to Police Training**

The Scarman Report led to the Police Training Council setting up three working groups, an internal group to consider the nature of public order training, a representative group to consider police and community relations training at all levels through policing and a working party on police probationer training, which became known as the Stage I Review. This particular working party was thwarted somewhat by the fact that the other two working parties did not report their findings until a late date, by which time much of the probationer review had been completed. The Stage I Review also found that many of the faults and
concerns that they identified never got further than the debate stage (Stage II Review Team, 1987, page 22). As part of this review there were demands from the service for more emphasis on fitness and self defence despite there already being a considerable amount of time within the programme dedicated to these topics.

With regard to in-force training the Stage I team ‘questioned’ forces on their implementation of the 1973 programme and found that whilst all were in compliance there was no qualitative data to support the effectiveness of such training. This team’s work also identified that the in-force training could be described as the ‘weakest link’ in that it was often pulled by the operational demands of the force. This was particularly evident in relation to tutor constables in that some forces indicated they were short of suitable experienced officers to carry out the role and the training they were provided with ranged from none to five days.

The working party developed a programme with what might be described as quick knee jerk reactions of adding four weeks to the Initial Course. However much of this was taken up with the addition of 11 public order sessions which like the law lessons were objective based and followed a set delivery style. These lessons introduced students to crowd control, how to deal with large-scale disorder and how to use protective equipment such as shields. The Associated Police Studies changed title to Social Skills of Policing and were increased to make up twelve per cent of the syllabus, an advancement of only three per cent. The Working Party also recommended a closer control of in-force delivery with a view to improved standardisation across England and Wales, in line with that which had been achieved through the Training Centres. It also recommended that much of the proposals from the Police and Community Relations working party should be included within in-force training to take account of local community needs. (Police Training Council Working Party on Police Probationer Training, 1983)

The introduction of ‘Social Skills of Policing’ and increased public order lessons from an outside point of view gave the impression of the police service
responding to the recommendations made by Scarman. However, it later became clear that the instructors received little input on what they were to deliver and no clear objectives were set for the training. This meant the topics were not tested in the exams and therefore there was less importance placed on them. Apart from making the ‘quick and dirty’ changes to the programme, the working party identified that there was need for a fundamental review of the initial training of police officers.

Some trainers obviously felt that they had adapted to the requirements made of them; in a book on the history of the police training centre at Dishforth, the author Brierley, who was an instructor at the centre expresses the view,

“From the forming of the Desborough Committee in 1916, the first time that police training was subject to any kind of national scrutiny, advancements in training have been slow having due regard to the rapid change of our society. The inception of the 14 week course must be seen as significant step in providing the modern recruit with the basic grounding required to enable him to commence a Career in the Police Service of the eighties.”

(Brierley, 1985, page 47)

He describes the systems approach in relation to this training programme and explains the syllabus as consisting of 61 periods of Associated Police Studies (Social Skills of Policing), 118 periods of practical exercises, 123 periods of law, 110 periods of physical activity and 74 periods of miscellaneous activities including ‘progress and problems’, games, revision and exams, making a total of 486 lesson periods. It can be seen from this example that the crucial part of the training i.e. understanding the community, still only played a small part of the syllabus for new recruits, just 12% of their training.

This additional four weeks to the course came into use across England and Wales in January 1984 as a result of a pilot course held at Bruche Training Centre. So CPU and training centre staff were just coming to terms with the new programme, trying to learn it, understand it and deliver it. However the Stage I Review team had identified that there was a need for a fundamental review of
Police Probationer Training. This was launched at exactly the same time as the introduction of a new programme. Professor Barry Macdonald of the Centre for Applied Research in Education (CARE) of University of East Anglia (UEA) had written to the Home Office following the riots suggesting that there should be some kind of review or research into the nature of the causes and offered to do this work. History shows that Lord Scarman was directed to complete his Section 32 Inquiry as reported above. However the Home Office did commission Macdonald, in 1983, to review the new fourteen week course put together as an outcome of the Scarman Report, Macdonald pulled together a team and their work became known as the Stage II Review.

Stage II Review – 1984–1986

The brief for the team, which was made up of members from the University and police officers on secondment was “to carry out a fundamental review of police probationer training in England and Wales” (Stage II Review Team, 1987, page 1). They started their work in January 1984 and were given two years to complete their research. This was extended by 6 months to allow discussion and for support to be offered in relation to the development phase and the building of the relationship between the Home Office and the local forces.

As indicated earlier, following the Scarman report a change to the curriculum had been made but was only just being introduced at the time the review team moved in. Professor Elliott recalled (interview 17.12.09) that the instructors found it difficult as they had been briefed to deliver something new and were trying to come to terms with how to deliver the product at the same time the review team were trying to “unscramble the system”. The team felt that the

45 Superintendent Mike Argent, who held a degree in law, was seconded from the Metropolitan Police, later went on to become Chief Constable of North Wales, Superintendent Trevor Naylor was from Essex Police, held a social science degree and had an awareness of the social service side of policing. Naylor later went on to be Chief Consultant in Police Training in Jamaica. Mr John Elliott (now Professor) had worked with CARE but at the time of the commissioning was working at the Cambridge Institute of Education and was employed as external examiner by Jack English’s team for the weekly exams taken by police recruits at the District Training Centres. Professor Elliott continued to have involvement with police training at a later date in the twenty first century. Elliott was brought into the review team for his curriculum design skills. Mr Nigel Norris now Professor and Head of School of Education at UEA, had been known for his evaluation skills and was involved in developing the assessment strategy as part of the review. Nick May was a member of the research team based at CARE and Miss Miller was the project secretary and provided the administrative support to the review team.
changes were a mistake and didn’t take account of force needs; there was a need for quality control. Scarman of course indicated that there was a need for a “grounding of an initial institutional training” (Scarman, 1981, page 84). Clearly at District Training Centres where instructors were following a set programme of lessons there was little scope for individual community needs being met. The make up of the classes at District Training Centre meant there was a mix of officers from several different forces, each of the officers likely to be ‘serving’ different communities. The instructors too would be from different forces.

It has already been highlighted there were a number of social and political influences on policing at this time and these were taken into account by the review team. It was claimed that as a result of the Edmund Davies agreement 46 recruit figures were up to speed, therefore the throughput of students at the District Training Centres was limited only by the capacity of the individual centres. However it became apparent that in return for these improved pay and conditions the Government expected more from the police. This was particularly evident during the Miners Strike, which commenced in 1984. The effect of the strike was felt through the service. Scarman’s report highlighting the need for common minimum standards in relation to dealing with public disorder now seemed almost prophetic. Forces were providing mutual aid to those forces policing mines across the country. This had a knock on impact on the officers left behind to police their own communities, particularly the probationers who were trying to learn the job in the workplace with limited support as experienced colleagues were temporarily deployed elsewhere. Indeed the review team found evidence of probationers also being deployed out of force in support of the strike.

The Stage II Review also took account of the inner city tensions as reported in Scarman report and the impact this had had on policing and they would need to consider this in reviewing the programme. By 1985 the call for more police

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46 Edmund Davies Report provided a formula for improved pay and conditions for police officers; the rise included an allowance for the fact that officers could not become members of any trade union. The recommendations also included the proposal for a Police Negotiating Board with an independent chair for any future claims for pay deals. The Conservative Government accepted the report in full in 1979. The better pay impacted on recruitment as the career was now more appealing.
accountability led to police/community consultation arrangements being put in place with Police Authorities developing monitoring techniques.

The Review Team identified that the programme introduced as a result of the 1972 review had only been partly implemented. It had been successful in certain elements due mainly to the continuity of the staff involved, however the evaluative stages of the recommendations had never been implemented to their full capacity. (Stage II Review Team, 1987, page 18). The result meant that the Central Planning Unit was focused very much on the exam results from each centre rather than any evaluative contact with the end customer i.e. the student or the public. The evaluation was restricted to tangible knowledge rather than examining the softer skills of human awareness or community relations. The review team were charitable in expressing that this approach may have been acceptable for the 1970’s but given the explosion in incidents which were resultant of a lack of community understanding it was clear something needed to be done about this aspect of learning and development.

The Head of Central Planning Unit at this time was still Jack English. He is described by Professor Elliott as passionate about the systems approach to training and had his systems in place, demonstrated by the weekly exams. Three failures and recruits were sent back to force. This style of training had been fashionable particularly in the United States of America. Unfortunately for Mr English the Stage II Review Team were from CARE at the UEA, which was founded by Lawrence Stenhouse47. The CARE team had “mounted a whole critique against the use of objectives, not necessarily police training but certainly education context, we had a sort of rather critical perspective on all that stuff that Jack stood for.” (Professor Elliott, interviewed 17.12.09)

The Stage II Review stands out above all the other previous reviews of Probationer Training in the preceding decades. The review team for the first time was made up predominantly of academics, supported by police officers who were from outside of the world of centralised training. With the brief being that of a

“fundamental review of police probationer training” it did what was required and
explored every avenue of the training and the impact it had on the service, as
well as the impact the service had on the training. This included questioning the
finer detail of the role of a police officer and then using this to inform the future
training programme and methods of assessment.

In order to carry out this review members of the team were allotted District
Training Centres to visit and research what was being delivered there, how and
why. Alongside these visits were trips to in-force training centres to examine the
delivery at these venues. The role of policing and its context within the
community was also explored, as was the relationship between Home Office,
Police Authorities and individual forces headed by Chief Constables. Alongside
this in depth research of the training provision there was an exploration of the
political and social impact on the world of policing and control systems and
political framework shaping the policing of the day. Three agencies were
identified within the political framework, the National Government in the shape
of the Home Office and Secretary of State, the Local Government in the shape of
Police Authorities and the police forces themselves controlled by individual
Chief Constables and in concert with the Association of Chief Police Officers.
Whilst each of these contenders sought to have the majority vote it was
becoming increasingly apparent that the Home Secretary was winning this battle.
With responsibility for senior appointments, determining pay and conditions,
inspector of efficiency and the provider of central facilities including the training
centres it seemed there was an erosion of local control.

The Review Team also identified the tardiness in achieving anything in the way
of development because of the processes and layers of bureaucracy involved. For
example the Police Training Council (PTC) was made up of members from
professional and lay associations, HMIC, academics in specialist fields and civil
servants from the Police Department of the Home Office. Each Training Centre
had two committees, one made up of Chief Constables and one made up of
Police Authorities. From 1985 the work of CPU had been overseen by the PTC’s
Steering Group on the Overview of Police Training Arrangements. Some
members of this group were also on the Common Police Service Sub Committee,
which determined funding for training and other common police services, then at
the top level the PTC reported to the Home Secretary. The observation made by
the Team was that the tardiness of decision making can be difficult to reconcile
with the nature of policing which is often to deal with social emergency and
crisis management. Even in 2009 a Deputy Chief Constable was heard to say,
“We are not good at planning but great at dealing with a crisis.” This illustrates
the point the 1984 Review Team were making then.

In order to shape any new style or means of training the review team needed to
identify what made a ‘good police officer’ as apposed to an ‘ordinary police
officer’. What skills did these ‘good officers’ possess, how did they gain them
and how did they put these skills into practice? The lead on this part of the work
was Professor John Elliott. Working with a seconded police officer, he
interviewed many senior police officers exploring the qualities held by officers
who they ‘intuitively judged’ to be excellent officers. These were then compared
with the officers ‘intuitively judged’ to be average. The determining factor was
the officer’s ability to be able to almost stand back from a situation, assess what
was going on, set boundaries and deal with the situation. The Review Team
agreed with the suggestions that many were making about the importance of
softer interpersonal skills, such as communication and, in particular, empathy.
However from Professor Elliott’s point of view “actually the thing that most
stood out from our study of those police officers that were intuitively judged to
be excellent were what you might call the intellectual capabilities, not intellectual
in terms of academic but kind of what you might call practical intelligence.” The
ability to self-monitor was also crucial and this was what the review team hoped
to achieve in changes of the programme. The intention of the team was to create
a culture in which the development of the ability to monitor one’s own
performance and behaviour in dealing with other people could be achieved. The
title of reflective practice was a generic term which was adopted, on reflection
this might not have portrayed fully the intention.

In line with the personal reflection the Team were introducing for individual
police officers, there was also a need for constant review or evaluation of the
training delivery once launched, to ensure that the programme could be
‘tweaked’ to respond to changing demands in policing. It was considered that this would negate the need for a full scale review of training every few years as we had seen over the preceding decades. The systems approach already in place would have been more successful had it taken into account the full ethos behind the system, which was one of constant account of feedback and updating of the programme to take account of that feedback. Although the team commended the ‘standardisation’ of training through the control by CPU, it highlighted that although they were aware of exam results there was very little scrutiny of what went on at training centres in terms of qualitative evidence. The standardised approach had started to spread to in-force training following the Scarman Report (Stage II Review Team, 1987, pages 1 – 25).

As part of the process of encouraging new police officers to reflect on performance the Team introduced the concept of ‘case study’ into the training programme. The academic view of case study was to pull together evidence of real cases and immerse recruits into the realities of those cases, the attitudes and behaviours demonstrated by individual officers and encourage them to explore alternative methods of dealing with these situations if they were faced with them. The case studies were based on either topics which cropped up for officers on a regular basis, or on incidents that would have a critical impact if not dealt with appropriately. (John Elliott interview 17.12.09)

Of course the recommendations for changes to the probationer training would cause some upset and it became clear that if the recommendations were accepted the existing director Jack English had indicated that he would resign his position. (Naylor and Argent, 1986). A new director would need to be found and this turned out to be Les Poole who had been working as Director within the Hendon Police Training Centre for the Metropolitan Police. Mr Poole embraced the philosophy of person centred learning with great enthusiasm. From an outside point of view one might consider that this was what the Review Team had been working towards and indeed they were considered to be the instigators of this type of training. However in interview, Professor Elliott’s view was that Poole’s
approach was almost Rogarian\textsuperscript{48}, a sort of “person centred counselling approach to police training”. Elliott suggested that this was too much of a ‘touchy feely’ approach. We will see this view reflected later in the chapter with some commentary from individuals involved in police training at the time. Poole was also responsible for making sure that staff were trained in evaluation methods in order to provide a consistent evaluative approach to the training so that it could be developed in real time and prevent the need for periodical full scale reviews. This led to a mass training of staff to become evaluators, the idea being that they would be utilised to evaluate the training programme. The reality was that these ‘expert evaluators’ ended up being deployed to evaluate other aspects of policing as scrutiny on the service increased. Poole’s approach was considered ‘missionary’; he was seen as the person to change the culture of police training, which he embraced fully from the Review Team perspective. However his approach to case study was to use this more as a management tool rather than a method of training delivery. There was a mismatch of understanding, and some moments of tension in the development of these case studies.

Poole’s approach led to individuals attributing some of the dramatic changes in philosophy to the Stage II Review Team, which had not in fact been their intention (Warner, 1991). Whilst the Review Team made recommendations for the new programme they were not responsible for the implementation or for the development of the staff who would be delivering the programme. Kushner observed in his response to such criticism that “there is a tendency to lump CPU and the University of East Anglia together.” (Kushner, 1992, page 140) In taking this approach it was easy for ‘insiders’ to criticise and blame the UEA as an ‘outsider’ for any aspect of the new training programme rather than criticise the ‘insider CPU’.

\textsuperscript{48}Rogarian is the term applied to a person centred psychotherapy developed by Carl Rogers in the 1940’s and 1950’s, the approach was aimed at assisting patients to find their own solutions. (www.wikipedia.org accessed 3.1.10) In Roger’s book ‘A Way of Being’ he outlines how learning can encompass both ideas and feelings and the requirements of the teacher “A further element that establishes a climate for self-initiated, experiential learning is empathetic understanding. When the teacher has the ability to understand each student’s reaction from the inside, has a sensitive awareness of how the process of education and learning seems to the student, then, again, the likelihood that significant learning will take place is increased.” (Rogers, 1980, page 272)
The Review Team recognised that this was indeed training rather than education (Stage II Review Team, 1987, page 2); it was the preparation of officers to be able to go out on the streets and conduct themselves as police officers. The resultant programme therefore being more selective than an education based one might be. The direction suggested by the Review Team was to develop an immersive training programme through which new recruits would be introduced into the police service, gaining experience along the way to assist in contextualising what they were learning.

**The New Programme**

Following the recommendations of the Stage II Review a new training programme was introduced in 1989. This was a modular programme with new recruits attending in-force training venues for up to four weeks in the first module. As the recommendation was for a minimum of 17 days training, this ‘minimum’ was often what was delivered (another example of the conflict between training requirements and the organisation demanding police officers ‘on the streets’ as soon as possible). Module Two was delivered at District Training Centres and lasted for ten weeks. Module Three was spent with a tutor constable on operational patrol for five weeks. There was a return to District Training Centres for Module Four lasting another 5 weeks. Module Five, a week of holiday, was followed by five more weeks with a tutor for Module Six. The Foundation Course as it was known was completed with a week at in-force training, named Module Seven. Three Post Foundation Course of two weeks were spread through the remaining period of probation and were delivered by in-force training.

The main change in this programme was the structure, whereby new officers would get a ‘taster’ of operational work during Module One, when they were encouraged merely to observe what the role was about. This would provide a grounding and assist in providing context when learning their powers during Module Two. The splitting of the tutor phase by a Module Four was the greatest change of all. The emphasis was that for the first five weeks of being with a tutor a student would predominantly observe what the tutor did or take a minor role in incidents in which they were involved. During Module Four the trainers were
expected to debrief what the students had learned throughout this time and also to use the student’s experiences and encourage reflection whilst teaching new subjects. The students would then return to their tutors and in the Module Six the recruits would predominantly take the lead.

Throughout the training and indeed the two year probation the other new element for police probationer training was the introduction of a portfolio, in which new officers would record evidence of their performance against a set criteria. Professor Elliott’s work had identified the skills required of an officer and the service had also offered its view on what tasks a police officer must complete in order to be judged capable of independent patrol. There were 39 different tasks that a probationer was expected to have completed during their two years. Many would be completed quite early on in service, such as using the radio and taking details of a crime. Others may take a little longer for them to encounter, such is the unpredictable nature of policing. Officers were also assessed against ‘desired character traits’. These became known as 36 skills and abilities, and included traits such as self-monitoring, leadership, collation and analysis of information. The portfolios were completed both by the probationer and those tasked with assessing their performance such as training staff, tutor constables and supervisors. The assessments would be completed at key stages through the probationary period for example at the point of change from one module of training to another.

In order to pilot the new programme a new training centre was established at Shotley in Suffolk. Paradoxically the venue had previously been a base for the Royal Navy so the theme of utilising defunct military bases continued despite the aims of the new proposals. The programme was launched across England and Wales (except for the Metropolitan Police) in July 1989.

The Organisational View of the Programme and Style of Training
There was an element of logistical planning for the management of recruits through the programme introduced as a result of the Stage II Review. Both the old and the new programmes coped with recruits returning to the District Training Centre for an additional course, the new programme saw them return
just five weeks after the first course there, whereas the old programme saw probationers returning near the end of their two years. However, the new programme seemed to create more of a challenge, as an example, one officer who had been a commandant of a training centre at the time commented that he felt that the system whilst manageable was a nightmare to administer, but it was particularly difficult to cope with recognising which stage students were at. It is hard to comprehend why this should be so given that continuation course students had returned to training centres. The difference appears to be that the continuation course was a two week course and the ‘experienced students’ were segregated from those on the initial course. With the new programme Module Two and Module Four students were integrated within the teaching blocks, Module Four students culturally had received a taste of experience, but could not quite be described as experienced.

In interview, Robin Field-Smith, Her Majesty’s Inspector of Constabulary for Personnel and Training felt that the Police Service had never really taken ownership of the work completed by the UEA. Whilst the Chief Officers had been accepting of the programme when in discussion with the Home Office it seems that outside of these discussions there was evidence of some derogatory reference to the new training as the ‘pink and fluffy’ approach. Field-Smith recognised the work as ‘powerful stuff’ but felt it would have benefited from falling on more fertile ground. The police service were more comfortable with a ‘boxed off’ approach and with training which they felt relevant to the role.

Further evidence of this is expressed in Peter Villiers’ book on the History of the Police Staff College, in which he describes the training style in a section entitled ‘The Rise and Fall of Facilitation’. He describes

> ‘as an off-shoot of new trends in management training and in the world of education generally, Bramshill began to experiment with the notion of “facilitation”. Staff were no longer there to direct, observe and report, but to facilitate the learning of the group.’

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49 Peter Villiers was a member of the directing staff of the National Police Staff College at Bramshill, Hampshire and has published a number of books on policing.
He goes on to say that

‘Unfortunately no-one quite knew what this meant, nor how it was to be achieved. Learning about what? About oneself, apparently. Pure facilitation supposedly required the absence of a pre-set agenda, and the generation of “authenticity” within the group.’ (Villiers, 1998, page 50)

Outside staff were hired in for some of this training as Bramshill staff were either “unsuited or unwilling to perform the role – was disconcerting, and disruptive of normal patterns of communication.” Villiers goes on to describe

‘Six Category Intervention Analysis, a reductionist and jargon-ridden attempt to classify the kaleidoscope of human relationships according to a simple formula, was never a success with the police, who did not share the tutor’s professional curiosity to understand and try out a new scheme, and had already established ways of classifying human “interactions” of their own.’

He later describes “Learning from Experience”.

‘New fashions in education, just as in fashion itself, can move rapidly from excitement and liberation to a new set of restrictions. Experiential learning had its vogue at the police college as elsewhere.............Here again, educational theory outstrips reality; and if one applies the capacity for independent and critical thinking which an earlier generation cited as the fundamental characteristics of the educated person, then “experiential learning” joins the other samples in the rag-bag, and awaits its turn to be used when it fits.’ (Villiers, 1998, page 55)

Roger Warner, who was attached to the Police Training Centre at Chantmarle, is critical of the Student Trainers Course and the methods of training implemented as a result of the Stage II Review. As mentioned earlier he attributes the application of a Rogarian approach to the Stage II Review Team as he complains about the use of case study as a teaching method. He states “In my experience
students learn more from a first-hand simulated practical or role play, albeit not a ‘real’ policing incident, than they do vicariously from case studies.” (Warner, 1991, page 292) This is indicative of the view of Professor Elliott that CPU, and as a consequence the trainers, misunderstood the real use and purpose of case study. Warner advocates a reversion to a more didactic approach and telling students want he says they want to hear.

Professor Kushner in concluding his response to Warner’s article warns of the dangers of throwing the baby out with the bathwater.

‘…a case study without adequate staff development back-up is a poor recipe for innovation in training. Roger Warner’s solution is in danger of giving succour to the “old guard” – of taking us back to a situation where the ethos and the content of the classroom is geared to the comfort of the command-and-control system, where the supposedly but mistakenly immutable law is the final judge offering peace and security to the trainer who, once more, has access to easy answers. There are no easy answers. If there were, policing would be an easy job.’ (Kushner, 1992, page 146)

The eighties ended then with a brand new training programme launched for all new officers to complete. The basis of the change was for this to be a long term approach, remembering that this is a two year training programme, a message reiterated in all the other previous reviews. It would take some time before the impact of the new training methods were to be felt by the organisation, as those officers progressed through their training and developed into ‘fully fledged’ officers and truly start to have an impact on the development of the service, which ultimately was the purpose of the review instigated by Scarman.
Chapter Seven - The 1990’s, Throwing the Baby Out

The previous chapter concluded with commentary from individuals from within the service to the training programme introduced as a result of the Stage II Review. We will see in this chapter that there is further evidence which resulted in a review of police training in the mid 1990’s which would lead to an “improved structure and direction to the training programme and emphasis on aims, objectives and measurable learning outcomes.” (taken from The Guide to Probationer Training, National Police Training 2001)

Pressures on Training Staff

The decade started with Leslie Poole still heading up the Central Planning Unit (CPU). In June 1990, a National Quality Control Group commissioned the unit to carry out an evaluation of the ‘Pressures on Training Staff’. “As a result of contributions from a number of regional representatives concern was expressed that officers at trainer level were experiencing pressures as a result of attempting to implement the new probationer training system. These pressures were potentially reducing their effectiveness.” (Central Planning Unit, 1991, page 1).

This report was commissioned just two years into the new programme introduced as a result of the Stage II Review. The feeling one gets from reading this report is that whilst a huge amount of effort had been put into getting the training right for new recruits there had been weaknesses in establishing proper role profiles or job descriptions for those involved in the delivery of training. Much emphasis had been put on training trainers for classroom delivery but the broader spectrum of their role in terms of supervision and welfare support for students was not being catered for. This was apparent at all levels, for those involved in delivery at District Training Centres (DTC), those involved with In-Force Training and those who were Divisional Training Officers (DTO’s). There was evidence in particular of DTO’s still doing a job outlined for them prior to 1988 and then managing the additional work of the new programme thereby increasing their workload.
The report indicates that whilst trainers might feel pressured, their levels of sickness were indeed lower than those of their operational colleagues. For trainers working at DTC their pressure was sometimes apparent as a result of living away from home and having to manage everyday life at a distance. Equally because they were away from home they often chose to carry out work, such as marking, extra curricular activities with students and even course planning rather than face potential boredom of having spare time at the centre. Time management was identified as a key area with trainers and supervisors not utilising ‘down time’ effectively.

There is no mention in the report of any specific issues in relation to the new training programme impacting on the trainers. However an aspect which may have caused trainers ‘tension’, but which they would not necessarily admit to would be the challenge of managing Module 4 students. This is purely a personal observation from experience of teaching such students as part of teaching practice to become a Police Trainer. In the old system of training, the recruits at the centre could be described as ‘sponges’ or even ‘blank canvasses’. They would accept almost everything the old style instructor told them. Now, Module 4 students were coming back into the Centre with experience of operational policing and of working with established officers. In five weeks the recruits would have attended a variety of incidents, probably been exposed to lifestyles very different to their own and, as the new programme was intended, they would have a lots of questions to ask and many observations to make to their trainers. Of course experienced trainers should be able to manage this. However, the students attending Module 4 would be from a variety of forces and experienced a range of policing dependent on their working environment. This would provide a challenge for the trainer who, for example, was a member of a rural force faced with a student from an inner city force who had dealt with an incident that the trainer had never come across in their policing career. Whilst a trainer might manage to debrief the incident it could add to the ‘pressure’ that they felt in the working environment, but one which they may not be willing to share with any inspection team.
Of particular concern to the CPU was the request to compare the evaluation results with the key performance indicators from an Audit Commission Paper issued in 1989. The concern related to the fact that the Audit Commission had drawn conclusions between 1987 and 1989 when the police service was going through the process of change from one training system to another and therefore did not take into account the full requirements of the new programme.

There is also reference through this report about the inconsistency of recruitment levels and the impact this has on the training teams. In times of boom forces recruitment levels are high, the philosophy of ‘get them in quick while we have the money’ and in times of budget cuts reducing the numbers. The impact being that training was hard to plan, at times trainers would be stretched to their limits and at other times under threat of being removed from the department because there was no training to be delivered. This is a situation still faced by forces in the twenty-first century.

Whilst the report suggests that trainers were not under any more ‘real pressure’ than their operational colleagues the document serves to highlight the shortcomings in the management of training. There is no evidence to suggest that this document led to the changes and reports to come in this decade but it certainly set the tone of a closer look at the function of training and development within the police service. Much of the work over the previous decades had focussed on the initial training of new recruits; having established training centres to cope with mass recruitment after the war, the benefits of the centres were acknowledged and maintained. The social and political issues of the 1980’s led to a fundamental review of how new recruits were trained. Now we are starting to look further into the world of training and more recognition of those involved in the work and the skills they required. A recognition that a proper job description for a trainer was required rather than just consideration of their abilities as a police officer. This of course had been suggested by the Stage II Review Team, that there needed to be some development of the training system. They reported the need for there to be development of expertise in the role and that this should be recognised; that those tasked with management of training...
should have an understanding of what that role entailed and thereby improving the provision. (Stage II Review Team, 1987)

**The Creation of National Police Training**

With reports such as the one outlined above there began to be a recognition of the disparate approaches to police training, with the Central Planning Unit in Harrogate responsible for the design of training materials and the training of instructors, the training of senior police officers and those with potential to progress high into the ranks being delivered at Bramshill, probationer training being delivered at District Training Centres and various specialist training units dotted about the country. As indicated in the CPU report above there were also a variety of approaches being taken within forces, particularly in relation to Probationer Training. To apply some sort of co-ordination to these functions the Government created a national organisation to be headed by someone of Chief Constable rank. National Police Training (NPT) was created under the Directorship of Peter Ryan and was funded and directed as a department of the Home Office. The Stage II Review Team had included within their recommendations that there should be a National Director of Training in their report of 1987. NPT became the guiding influence for all aspects of police training, reporting to the Police Training Council. During this period the name of District Training Centres changed to Police Training Centres. Alongside the National Police Training, the Association of Chief Police Officers (ACPO) had their own committee for Personnel and Training who would collate the views of Chief Constables from across the country and feed into NPT any concerns that they had. There is an irony here that Peter Ryan was made the first Director of NPT, as he was not supportive of much of the work of the Stage II Review Team.

**Probationer Training Review 1994 - 1996**

The acceptance of the Stage II Review recommendations has already been seen to be ‘wobbly’ and in the early 1990’s there was growing commentary from ACPO suggesting that officers were not receiving basic legal knowledge. Evidence has already been provided about how the teaching methods had been received. In 1994, Peter Ryan initiated a review of Probationer Training, just
five years after the commencement of the first pilot of the course. This was part of a series of reviews of various aspects of police training.

The Review Team was made up of staff from the Quality Assurance Department of National Police Training, Training Support based in Harrogate at Pannal Ash, the team consisted of one Chief Inspector and two Inspectors. This team started with a scoping study and “identified three areas for further research: the Syllabus; the Probationer Development Profile (PDP) and the Modular system.” (National Police Training, 1996, page 1) Consultation with ACPO Personnel and Training Committee led to the then ACC of Derbyshire Constabulary, Mr R. J. Wood, who held the portfolio for Probationer Training becoming the joint sponsor for the review alongside Peter Ryan. To allow for some independence within this review two forces offered up assistance from their force evaluators, with the evaluator from Cheshire working full time with the team and the evaluator from Derbyshire monitoring progress. An independent academic advisor, Dr. Peter Bramley,\(^\text{50}\) was appointed to “provide advice in relation to academic and procedural aspects.” (National Police Training, 1996) The review team’s final report was published in March 1996, including proposals which had been presented to the Police Training Council on 1\(^{\text{st}}\) March 1996. The report was circulated for discussion and consultation.

In the review team’s introduction they indicate support for the modular programme in the main.

'It should be emphasised that the findings indicate that, taken as a whole, the current system is generally considered to be a “good system”, which normally produces effective police officers in the agreed 2 year period. Throughout the review period comment was passed on numerous occasions

\(^{50}\) Dr. Peter Bramley at the time of helping with the review was working at the Birkbeck College in London. At this time he was working with both MSc and PhD students. His background was working in the army in the 1960’s and 1970’s both as a trainer and then an internal training consultant working with the Directorate of Army Training. He also directed a research and consultancy group which worked with both public and private sectors particularly looking at the relationship between the development of people and organisational change. He is the author of a number of books on the evaluation of training.
that probationers under the current system were more confident, questioning and open than they had been when trained on the old system.

In conclusion, the current system is a better system than the one it replaced and should be borne in mind if any subsequent changes are made. However, a number of fundamental issues have been raised for consideration as to the effectiveness of some areas of the present system. An opportunity exists to take the best from the current system and develop and address the areas that justify change. This should ensure future training meets both the needs of the individual and the organisation.'


This is a direct quote including the use of highlighted words.

The scoping study had asked of staff involved in training “If a review of probationer training were to be commissioned, what areas would you suggest justified examination.” (National Police Training, 1996, page 3) This resulted in the areas for research as indicated above. Between June and August 1995 the team surveyed probationary constables about the syllabus and the Probationer Development Profile (PDP), further students were interviewed about training methods and the subjects studied. This involved 30 forces and 6 of the Police Training Centres. The second phase of the study sought to understand the organisational and operational needs and consultation with the forces that had not been involved in phase one of the study.

The Findings of the Review

The Syllabus. Of all the subjects taught there was only one identified for removal from the syllabus and that was in relation to cinemas. Given that in the scoping study this was one of the main areas of concern, the removal of just one subject is surprising. However, some of the probationers felt they wanted more emphasis on some topics and were happy for some to be put together in one module rather than spread over two. This suggests a lack of understanding about
the principles behind the training recommended in the Stage II Review; to offer
the learner an introduction to a topic, allow them to deal with such a situation and
then build on the learning later by utilising their experience.

There was recognition that some subjects would be better taught at in-force
training so that appropriate emphasis could be put on the topic to match the need
within that force area. It was recommended that a new guide to probationer
training be published outlining what should be taught where. There was to be an
inclusion of content from the newly formed National Foundation Course for
Criminal Investigation and all probationers were to receive investigative
interview training before their tutor period. These moves are indicative of the
culture growing within the police service about accountability for crime
investigation and detection rates. Decisions about life saving and first aid were
put on hold awaiting a portfolio holder’s report, coincidently ACC Wood, co-
sponsor of the review. There was to be no change to the amount of time spent on
physical education but more emphasis to be made on fitness tutorials.

Supervisors felt that probationers needed a better law knowledge to assist with
making decisions and identifying points to prove. The Stage II Review had
already identified that supervisors always made this point, but the reality was that
most officers could not recall all the details of legislation throughout their
service. A recommendation was made with regard to testing knowledge within
the review of the PDP and how probationer performance should be assessed.51

In relation to the subjects probationers were being taught they had been ranked
by respondents as high, medium and low relevance to constables, with, as
mentioned earlier, just one topic to remove completely. However, what was more
illuminating was the classification of subjects as to whether they should be
“substantially learnt by way of self-directed study” (workbook). On reading the
topics there are some subjects, from an outsiders point of view, which could be

51 Police performance as a whole at this time was becoming more and more under scrutiny. The
Police Act of 1996 introduced ‘performance targets’ for the service. The act was the culmination
of the White Paper on Police Reform of 1993. This led to the Secretary of State setting objectives
for the police service and in turn Police Authorities were authorised to set performance targets to
hold their forces to account against those objectives.
learnt through a workbook but there are some surprises given the history of concerns from various quarters about the nature of police relations with the community, in particular the outcomes of the Scarman report which led to the Stage II Review. Social aspects of policing, victim support and industrial disputes are all indicated by those surveyed as being potential topics for workbook learning.

**The Probationer Development Profile.** The team found that whilst many considered this to be a useful document both in terms of development and of assessment, there was confusion and a lack of understanding by many involved in the supervision of probationers. This was identified as a weakness in the training of supervisors which would need addressing. There was evidence of probationers ‘massaging’ their reflections to show progression. An observation is also made that the 36 skills and abilities and the 39 tasks introduced in 1989 were no longer applicable to the policing of the day and the PDP had not developed in line with the changes in priorities and tasks. The introduction of performance targets for the police service had led to greater scrutiny for all officers.

The team considered some options in relation to a continued use of a portfolio, including keeping the same format but updating the assessment criteria; another was to consider a simplified version of an NVQ portfolio, although there were concerns that in trying to achieve accreditation the process of learning may be diminished. National Vocational Qualifications (NVQ’s) introduced in 1986 were a replacement for Vocational Qualifications, controlled by the National Council for Vocational Qualifications. The qualifications were considered to be a process of learning and accreditation and were aimed at measuring competence in a workplace setting. In 1997, the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority became the controlling authority. An NVQ is a combination of National Occupational Standards, which set out in clear terms the skills and knowledge people require in a particular role. The qualification is made up of a group of standards most appropriate to the role. The key to these qualifications are that they are gained in the workplace, based on the candidate demonstrating evidence of their competence in that arena. In the early days of the qualification a paper based portfolio required candidates to produce evidence about what they were
able to do, hence the suggestion by the review team for probationers to continue with a PDP, evidencing their skills as a police officer. The recommendation sought to have one appraisal and development system, which could be applied to all officers with special considerations for probationary constables. This as we will see later is a visionary view of the professionalizing of assessing policing skills.

In terms of assessing probationers there was support for formal law and knowledge examination, although some raised concern that it was only a test of knowledge at that point in time. There was also concern from training staff that this would start to be used as a performance indicator of both the staff and training centres as a whole. The review team acknowledged that if exams were to be used then these would need to be centrally produced by National Police Training and there needed to be a sufficient pool of questions to prevent trainers delivering training in order to answer the questions. This of course was a problem identified by the Stage II Review Team, that some trainers were teaching students to get through the exams rather than delivering the training in full. The 1995 Review Team recommended that examinations be introduced but that the results of these should not be used in isolation to assess students, trainers or training centres.

**The Modular Programme.** In reviewing the modular programme there were observations about each of the modules with areas of strengths and weaknesses identified for each one. There was much consideration about the probationers being allowed onto operational patrol without training in self-defence techniques and the introduction of new personal safety equipment since the launch of the existing programme. As a result it was recommended that exposure to operational patrol should be removed from Module 1 and thereby forces may be able to reduce the length of the course. As can be seen from previous chapters any opportunity to reduce the amount of time an officer is in training and thereby increase the amount of time on operational patrol will be seized upon by those who need to provide the front line service.
There was praise for the tutor modules and the fact that training had been introduced for those selected to become tutors. Where specific tutor units had been established there was evidence of good results in terms of learning opportunities for probationers. Problems had occurred where both tutors and probationers had been treated like any other resource and as a consequence had little opportunity for the debriefing of incidents dealt with. The review acknowledged the importance of ‘the debrief’ in helping new recruits understand how to deal with incidents and explore alternative ways of dealing with similar incidents in the future. Again there is the conflict between the ‘training world’ and the ‘operational demands’.

The module to receive the most criticism was Module 4. What is apparent ‘reading between the lines’ of the review is the distinct lack of understanding throughout the service of how the modular programme should work. Because probationers were not always given opportunities for debriefing incidents when they dealt with them in Module 3, it was incredibly difficult for them to join in a debrief with trainers at Module 4. There was a culture amongst officers who had not been through this version of the training programme, questioning why probationers needed to return to training school when they were just beginning to learn the job on the streets, this would have an influence on those young in service and adapting to the police culture. This lack of understanding was evident in the earlier mentioned CPU report on ‘Pressures on Training Staff’. The review team found that a number of measures had been tried by training staff to improve this module and the links with the other modules but reached the conclusion that if all these attempts had been made to no avail then there was little point continuing with this module.

With regard to the Post Foundation element of the training the team found that there were forces delivering a variety of material and put this down to a lack of prescriptive guidance other than the mandate to deliver 30 days of training. The team recommended that the terms ‘Foundation and Post Foundation’ should be abandoned and the elements of the programme should be entitled ‘phases’. The commitment to 30 days worth of training should be scrapped with forces given the opportunity to decide on the duration themselves, so long as certain topics
were delivered. Again an opportunity for the operationally driven senior management to opt for a shorter training programme.

**Personal Safety Equipment and Training.** A whole section of the report is dedicated to the introduction nationally of personal safety equipment for all police officers. Whilst this area of training is not explicitly an element of this research, the section in this report highlights some of the challenges to be faced in the training world of the police service from this point onwards. As with any equipment, there was a whole range of batons and rigid handcuffs available to police forces and as a consequence forces made their own choices on what to issue their officers. This led to a dilemma about when officers should be trained in the use of this equipment. Clearly it needed to be done before they commenced operational patrol. The ideal point would be during the training centre module, however, with officers from different forces in each class with different equipment this would make this difficult. What was evident was that any self defence training delivered at training centre was being repeated or developed when officers returned to their home forces, consequently there was a duplication of effort. The lack of a nationalised equipment purchase is still an issue today in the police service.

**Quality Assurance.** The review observed that there had been changes in the quality control of the programme, with the Evaluation and Monitoring Team at Harrogate replaced by a Quality Assurance Team which had a broader remit. The number of inspectors at training centres had been reduced with no obvious replacements. Training Development Officers, mainly trainers, were now responsible for developing new staff. This had become an addition to their normal role and therefore created time management challenges, with trainers torn between their delivery role and their assessment role. The review team recommended greater quality control of training delivery at both training centres and in-force training.

**Conclusion of the Review**
The conclusion to the report is very short and succinct, “the overriding principle remains that if any training system is to be successful it has to be understood and
have demonstrated commitment to it.” (National Police Training, 1996, page 31)
This conveys in one sentence the main reason for the scrapping of the Modular Programme, it was not universally understood through the police service and as a consequence there was no commitment to it. The question remains, why was there no ‘buy in’ to a programme devised predominantly by experts in the world of education and a ready acceptance to change the programme based on the views of a team of police officers?

**Proposals for the Future**
The Review Team proposed the introduction of a six phase model although it would not specify time periods until there had been agreement on the syllabus. The new model to all intents and purposes followed the format of that in place prior to the Stage II Review. The first phase to be held in force, the second at Police Training Centre, the third was a period of leave followed by an optional fourth phase to cover local needs, followed by a tutor phase. The final phase would be a series of training courses held in force, the duration of which was to be determined by forces, but to include a national syllabus.

If we return to the opening statement of the Review Team earlier in this chapter it begs the question, if it was a ‘good system’ and probationers were more confident, why did there need to be change? Of course any training programme should be subject to review at regular intervals but this normally leads to fine tuning not full-scale change.

The report was submitted to and accepted by the Police Training Council in March 1996. There was a change at the head of the National Police Training to Peter A. Hermitage, QPM shortly after this. The Training Support Team at Pannal Ash conducted work on the development of a programme, based on the recommendations. Hermitage circulated a letter to forces in June 1997, which indicates that the ‘probationer training project is now well under way at Training Support Harrogate’. The letter gives an overview that the existing programme will be changed to a staged approach of 15 weeks at Police Training Centres, preceded by a 2 week induction in forces and followed by a further 2 week local procedure course. Full details of the programme would be circulated later. It was
anticipated that all the materials for the new course would be completed by April 1998 in order that a whole course could be run in real time to test the materials and to ensure they came together as a ‘coherent whole.’ Forces would be requested to assist with this nearer the time. It was anticipated that the whole programme would be up and running by September 1998. Forces were asked to nominate a contact point, someone involved in training at a planning level.

The letter also outlined the financial modelling surrounding the new programme, details of which had already been sent to Chief Constables in May 1997. A seminar was anticipated in July of 1998 to discuss the financial implications further. Hermitage concludes his letter by stating “The probationer training project has been undertaken to respond to the concerns and need of police forces in terms of their newly recruited officers. I believe that what we are producing so far will be a much more operationally focussed course and I therefore will seek your support in implementing the new system.” This for me highlights the focus of the training at this time. ‘Operationally focussed course’ suggests that it fits in with the operational demands of the organisation rather than any agreed learning and development principles. Robin Field-Smith, HMIC for Training, indicated to me that he felt that there had never been any ‘buy in by the service’ of the modular approach developed as a result of the review in the mid 1980’s. He felt that the concept had fallen on to ‘rough ground’ and the police service were keen to revert to nicely ‘boxed off’ courses. This reiterates the message in the Review Team’s concluding statement.

Professor Nigel Norris, of University of East Anglia (a member of the Stage II Review Team) and Professor Saville Kushner, of the University of the West of England were invited to submit a report to the Select Committee on Home Affairs giving their view on the police training situation. They submitted a memorandum entitled “The Fate of the Most Recent Major Reform of Police Probationer Training”. In this report they explain their view of the downfall of the changes recommended and implemented by the Stage II Review. They acknowledge the lack of buy in from the service at its highest level and recognised that when Peter Ryan, their most ardent critic, was made head of police training then the modular programme was unlikely to survive. They also
point out that for the full effect of any major reform to be absorbed into the service it would need to run for at least ten years. (Select Committee on Home Affairs, 1999) This would have allowed time for the officers who had developed the skills to think critically about their role to grow into the service and have some impact. The new ‘staged’ programme was indeed launched ten years after the modular one but this was after several years of design by which time the other modular programme was already heading towards the scrapheap.

The new model of training as indicated earlier only reduced the classroom time by a few days but did exactly what Mr Field-Smith suggested; ‘boxed off’ the sections. The modular programme had divided classroom inputs with a split tutor phase. The new programme pushed together the two elements of training at Police Training Centres to make a 15 week course and pushed together the two elements of tutoring to make a 10 week supervised patrol stage. The initial element of the course was reduced by 7 days therefore leaving a nicely packaged two week induction. The reality was that the format returned to that in existence prior to the Stage II Review even though elements of the training style and assessment remained in place.

The Select Committee for Home Affairs submitted proposals for changing the police training programme. Their sales pitch for the course was geared towards the operational requirement from an organisation viewpoint as the below extract from the Select Committee on Home Affairs, Appendices to the Minutes of Evidence of 28 June 1999 indicate.

‘The course includes "core" training threads: community and race relations, equal opportunities, evidence gathering, Health and Safety, victim needs and management, tackling patrol effectively, providing quality services, PACE and citizens rights, social political and community issues.

Based on these core themes, the new course focuses on the operational requirements of police officers, with legal knowledge tested on three formal occasions throughout the
course. Each lesson has centrally prescribed aims and objectives to ensure that the course is delivered in a consistent and measured standard. Additionally, papers prepared for prosecutions are examined by a File Checking Unit to provide developmental feedback and improved standards of police file preparation.

The course moves from the acquisition of knowledge to the practical application of policing and social skills in practical scenarios, with students working to achieve basic policing competencies, using feedback and experiences to feed self-guided action plans, supervised by the trainers.’
(Select Committee on Home Affairs, 1999)

The New Programme
The Select Committee on Home Affairs, Appendices to the Minutes of Evidence also claimed “The partnership between forces and NPT provides greatly enhanced opportunities for probationers to achieve competencies and skills necessary for the operational requirements of policing.” It does not explain how this will work or what changes have been made in order to achieve this. However, this is clearly what the ‘Evaluation of the Pressures on Training Staff’ report in 1990 indicated, there needed to be a closer liaison between the elements of training. One might question why this could not have been achieved without altering the programme? This might have enabled a smoother and more co-ordinated approach to the development of officers through the modular programme.

“The Guide to Probationer Training”52 states in the section on the rationale for the Probationer Training Programme, “The main thrust of the review endorsed by

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52 The Guide to Probationer Training was a document designed by National Police Training to be used by everyone who had an involvement in Police Probationer Training. It was aimed at solving some of the problems indicated in the 1995 Review that supervisors or tutors were not fully of where or when and how they should complete portfolios of probationers, when particular subjects were taught etc. The Guide was a ring binder style document covering an overview of the training programme, outlining the roles of all those involved with the programme from the probationer, through the different types of trainer to the operational supervisors and managers.
The Police Training Council and the project steering group was ‘there will be improved structure and direction to the training programme and emphasis on aims, objectives and measurable learning outcomes.” (National Police Training, 2001, page 15) The indication is that the structure and direction of the modular programme was its downfall. However the document includes the strategic aim of the Police Training Council, originally given in 1985 and then restated in 1989 as the Stage II programme was being rolled out, that aim being “To provide the training necessary to ensure that everyone working in the police service develops the knowledge, understanding, skills, attitude and behaviour required to meet the present and future needs of the service.” (National Police Training, 2001, page 15)

The document also highlights that everyone involved in working with probationer constables should contribute to achieving the strategic aim. This is an ongoing issue for the service; it was clear in the 1954 review of probationer training that the service needed to be reminded that it was a two year training programme and is a statement which still needs reiterating in the twenty-first century. Despite every police officer who had been in service since the Second World War going through a training programme of two years, there seems to be a memory loss of how necessary that training and support is. In interview with a Chief Constable, he told me how when he completed his initial training at Police Training Centre and arrived at his new station, he was told to forget everything he had learned at the school. There is a culture which offers a mixture of, forget everything you learned we will show you how to do it with the group who state, officers know nothing when they come out of training school.

The new Guide to Probationer Training set out to educate those involved with probationers, either working alongside them or supervising them, with their responsibilities. It was a laudable approach but I suspect many of these documents sat gathering dust on shelves. The new programme, in addition to

The Guide also included a detailed breakdown of which subjects were covered at each ‘Stage’ in the training and an outline of the training methods used, the assessment process, the role of the tutor constable in detail with guidelines for the training of a tutor and finally an explanation of how to complete the Professional Development Portfolio, the replacement for the Probationer Development Profile.
condensing the aspects of the staged approach, continued with a portfolio approach to recording a student’s progress, to be used both in training and in the operational arena. The portfolio had changed its name to that of Professional Development Portfolio rather than Probationer Development Profile.

The Outline of the Programme

The aim of the new programme was to hit the criteria of the strategic aim set by the Police Training Council. The course objectives are shown in the table below alongside the goals suggested in the Stage II Review as a comparison of how the course was changing.

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<td>Develop study methods and skills appropriate to the PTP and beyond</td>
<td>The ability to self-monitor one’s own performance and conduct in the police role.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Develop the skills and abilities necessary for the performance of operational police duties</td>
<td>The ability to investigate, including (a) observational skills in discriminating those aspects of situations which are relevant to making informed and valid judgements, and (b) interviewing skills of eliciting authentic accounts from suspects, witnesses and colleagues.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gain a basic understanding or the concepts of law from which they will derive knowledge of powers, procedures and offences.</td>
<td>The ability to interpret and apply the law in a manner which is sensitive to the social and cultural contexts of policing situations.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Apply the theoretical body of knowledge to a wide range of operational situations</td>
<td>The ability to represent/report incidents and situations according to criteria of accuracy, fairness, and relevance.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Practise the ‘helping’ role of the police within the community, i.e. non-offence encounters.</td>
<td>The ability to evaluate the social effects of general policing policies and strategies.</td>
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<td>The ability to participate in free and open communication with suspects, witnesses, and colleagues.</td>
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The new programme was intended to continue with the approach of a student-centred learning, however presentational techniques were to be used when appropriate. The programme would include a set of “learning threads” which included, providing quality services, scene management, evidence gathering,
victim needs and management, equal opportunities, community and race relations, social, political and community issues, tackling patrol effectively, tackling crime effectively, health and safety, PACE, protection of human rights. (Home Office, 2001, page 16)

In setting out the programme it is made clear that all theory should be linked to practice, should have direct relevance to operational policing and that the programme is followed in a sequential nature. The new programme was set out as:

Stage 1 – Minimum of two weeks at in-force training described as “Structured Work Experience” to include an introduction to policing and the force

Stage 2 – Fifteen weeks at Police Training Centre, described as “Skills Development, Simulated Practice, Theory – student-centred participative skills-based applications of law.”

Stage 3 – Two weeks in-force training and local procedures

Stage 4 – Ten weeks “Structured work experience, Tutor Constable Phase – On Street Basic Policing.”

Stage 5 – Two Weeks in-force training and local procedures

Stage 6 – Twenty Days Minimum at in-force training – “The Developmental Stage”

Developments in Finance and Management of Training

The papers attached with Hermitage’s letter, outline the workings of the Force Costing Group which was made up of representatives from Leicestershire, West Midlands and Essex Police Forces. This document makes it clear that each force had their own costing model and that the calculations were somewhat naïve; the report suggests that ‘it is now for others to determine the
reasonableness/relevance of this model to their own Force and our proposal would be that each Force should do their own costings as soon as possible.’ Given that finance is a recurring theme whenever there are any changes to police initial training it seems to be a crude calculation process here to justify the changes. The model suggests a transitional cost per probationer of £567 but highlights that this will not be ongoing however, the ongoing savings are a reduction of 2 days training which it estimates as a total of £120 per probationer. This issue was raised in Managing Learning (HMIC, 1999) that forces really had no idea what the delivery of training was costing or indeed whether it was cost effective. It was not until 2007 that a National Training Costing Model was introduced by HMIC to assist forces in actually calculating the training in each force.

Managing Learning
Her Majesty’s Inspectorate of Constabulary, following a thematic inspection, focussing on police training, published ‘Managing Learning’ in April 1999. The inspection was conducted between May and October 1998. This report was one of many targeted at police training and part of the increased scrutiny of the police service as a whole. Whilst the report explores all elements of police training it is relevant to this research as it forms the basis of some far reaching changes to the governance of initial police training.

There are four fundamental developments identified as needing to take place for the police training to be taken forward into the ‘New Millennium’. These were, a cultural emphasis on lifelong learning, a National Strategy that moves away from traditional classroom based training provision, a set of National Standards at all ranks and roles and the professionalisation of all staff with a blend of education and training. The report distinguishes education as the development of professional qualifications and training as the development of policing skills (HMIC, 1999). As reported earlier this professionalisation was suggested in the 1994-1996 review of the probationer training system.

As mentioned earlier the inspection identified that despite forces spending huge amounts of money on training they had no real idea of how the money was being
used, how savings could be made and the financial impact of officers missing training. It was clear there needed to be greater control of the finances. Linked to this, training provision across the country was not being managed sufficiently. In designing training the key weaknesses highlighted in the report were that training needs were not being properly identified, failure to agree on strategic issues, finance, lack of evaluation of programmes and a shortfall in service level agreements. Linking in with this, the report called for a National Evaluation Strategy. The inspection team found that few forces were evaluating training sufficiently despite guidance being circulated in a Home Office Circular in 1991. In terms of the training delivery there was call for all trainers working within the police service to complete the Police Trainers course in order to ensure standardisation. Where appropriate forces should employ police staff trainers in the interest of Best Value. Alternative learning methods were promoted but there was acknowledgement of the need to support staff with time to learn using these methods.

The overall drive of the report was to nationalise the approach to police training in terms of design, costing, qualification of trainers, evaluation and training delivery. Although there were already national guidelines in place for some courses, not all forces adhered to those; some had designed their own courses. Chief Constables by now had been able to take advantage of income generation opportunities in offering their courses to other forces. The inspection report states, “It is clear that the Service has moved away from its traditional roots, and, in the absence of a national training strategy, the greater individual effort expended by forces has resulted in fragmentation of police training.” (HMIC, 1999, page 11) We have seen earlier in this research that forces did not always follow national advice with regard to probationer training. In reinforcing its message the report reads, “To effectively meet training demand in the future, the Service must now develop a national approach to consultation and policy-making that is better able to identify the need and deliver timely and effective training in response.” (HMIC, 1999, page 10) HMIC recommended that the Home Office established a mechanism to make sure that when a National Programme was introduced that all forces subscribed to it.
Her Majesty’s Inspector of Constabulary reported to the Select Committee on Home Affairs and argued that to ensure “consistent and professional policing is to provide training for all staff that leads to a common standards for service delivery.” (HMIC, 1999, page 8) Part of the National Approach was the recognition of good practice in some forces of aligning their training to NVQ standards. The HMIC indicated that the benefits of a common approach being taken was that there was more option for the sharing of training resources and efficiency savings being made in relation to training design, estate and delivery. One has to bear in mind that at this time there was a move towards much scrutiny and critical analysis of the police service, leading to a drive towards efficiency saving, increased demands on the service, increasing use of technology and specialist equipment, rapid increase in legislation and above all higher expectations of the community. (HMIC, 1999, page 7)

To assist with developing a training process the report proposes a model for the management of police training and a model for National Police Training to deliver core training, such as that of probationers. They should also be responsible for national design and evaluation linking to a tripartite service authority made up of the Home Office, ACPO and Association of Police Authorities. In monitoring training provision, to maintain the standards, forces would be expected to conduct self-inspections in addition to being subject to regular HMIC inspection.

‘Managing Learning’ also identified the links of the training function explicitly to the human resources departments of the police service and identified that any training should form part of a broader human resource strategy, driving the training requirements to achieve ‘the right people, with the right skills, in the right places and the right time.’ (HMIC, 1999, page 8) It goes on to suggest that forces should look to the principles of Investors in People (IiP). With an explicit link to Human Resources, there should then be an adoption of a National

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53 Investors in People was launched in 1991 as a voluntary framework for people management and business improvement standard. In 1993 Investors in People were formed as a Non Departmental Public Body with funding from the Department for Innovation, Universities and Skills. In 2009 IiP will be transferring from Government to the UK Commission for Employment and Skills. The framework is updated every 5 years and is due for update in 2009.
Competency Framework introduced for all staff for their Performance and Development Review (PDR). The PDR should then be used by supervisors in order to identify any training needs and allow forces to identify and prioritise training needs for the organization. The National Competency Framework outlined the ‘behaviours’ required of a police officer. These included standards such as ‘Respect for Race and Diversity’, ‘Communication’, ‘Team Working’ and ‘Personal Responsibility’ to name just a few. These standards provided positive and negative indicators against which staff could be assessed and training needs identified.

The Governments reply to the fourth report by the Select Committee of Home Affairs, accepted and welcomed the findings. In doing so there was acknowledgement that police training had been subject to significant scrutiny, including the HMIC Thematic review ‘Managing Learning’ which had already identified the key national projects such as the strategic review of National Police Training, a report by the Police Federation, Project Fforward\(^\text{54}\), and the findings of the MacPherson enquiry\(^\text{55}\). The Government had also considered findings of a report by Sir William Stubbs\(^\text{56}\) and Roger McClure\(^\text{57}\) entitled *The Organisation and Funding of Police Training in England and Wales; Guiding Principles* which had been submitted in July 1999. Each of these reports and inspections acknowledged both elements of good practice but also shortcomings within police training as a whole, not just probationer training on which this thesis is focussed.

\(^{54}\) Project Fforward was instigated by the Police Federation, who are the staff representative voice for police officers, who are not allowed to be a member of a union. The Project suggested a specific police university for police officers, the training of which would be delivered by people from outside the organisation. The University would replace the existing Police Training Centres. Whilst there were a number of valid suggestions made the Government were wary of taking on proposals suggested and managed solely by a staff association but did acknowledge the positive elements of the programme as it planned how to develop police training (Home Affairs Select Committee, 1999) The word Fforward came from ‘Federation Forward’.

\(^{55}\) The MacPherson enquiry was the enquiry into the policing of the Stephen Lawrence murder which made a number of recommendations about policing and the management of major investigations.

\(^{56}\) Sir William Stubbs was at this time Head of the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority and prior to this was the Chief Executive of the Further Education Funding Council. He also spent time as the Rector of the London Institute.

\(^{57}\) Roger McClure has been involved with Further Education Funding Councils, was Pro-Rector of the London Institute and is currently the Chief Executive of the Learning and Skills Improvement Service.
Taking into account the various reports and consultation the Government sought to make some radical changes to the governance and development of police training. These proposals would lead to the creation of a dedicated Lay Inspector within Her Majesty’s Inspectorate of Constabulary with specific responsibility for Personnel and Training. This post was filled by Robin Field-Smith, who was interviewed as part of this research. There should also be a core curriculum for police training linked to a qualifications framework, which would lead to opportunities for continuous development for all staff. This would be underpinned by greater quality assurance of training courses and training providers.

As regards the management of training there would be a smaller Police Training Council offering high level advice to the Home Secretary who in turn would have powers to intervene if a training provider were found to be failing. There should be an employer led National Training Organisation. The scope of training should be expanded to make broader use of information and communications technology based training. The police service should also commit to more joint training with other parts of the criminal justice system and involve community members within the training.

Whilst the previous chapters have focussed on the topic of this thesis, initial police training, there is much space allocated in this chapter to the development of police training and its management as a whole. Once immersed in the next decade the reader will understand better why this commentary is relevant.
Chapter Eight - The New Millennium

This decade might be the one which is best described as having ‘many fingers in the pie’. We have already seen an acceleration of change and challenge for the police service and the new millennium was to be no different. Sir David O’Dowd in his report of October 2000, reviewing the HMIC work of the previous year, highlights that the issue of training has cropped up several times in their inspections and the importance of ‘Managing Learning’ (HMIC, 1999) in taking the service forward by introducing a dedicated HMI for training. The Government followed this by issuing ‘The Way Forward’ report in 2000, which set the tone for establishing standards within police training, ensuring that Human Resource Plans incorporated a Training Plan and encouraged an ethos of continuous learning.

Change of Controlling Body

Following on from the HMIC Thematic Report ‘Managing Learning’, work was conducted in order to feed into the Criminal Justice and Police Act 2001. Part 4 of this Act established “a body corporate to be known as the Central Police Training and Development Authority.” (www.opsi.gov.uk accessed 5.9.09) The remit of this new body was to provide and promote the value of learning and the facilities in order to deliver that training for police officers and staff, offer advice to those who may become involved in such training and to act as a consultancy service to the police. The Act sets out the requirement for this new body to provide and promote a professional excellence within the police service, ensure that its facilities encourage that approach and above all be efficient and effective; a message which has continued from the moves in the 1990’s for the police service along with other public services to demonstrate best value within the organisation. The Secretary of State was given as part of the Act, the option to decommission the body should they not achieve the goals laid out for them.

The new body was to become known as Centrex. In the first inspection report (HMIC, 2003) it describes Centrex as having more independence than National Police Training, being described as a Non Departmental Public Body. However,
the level of scrutiny it would be under from the Home Secretary was quite clear in the Criminal Justice and Police Act 2001. The Secretary of State was to be responsible for giving direction to the body, set it overall and annual objectives and set performance targets in relation to these. In doing any of this the Secretary of State would consult with HMIC, the Association of Police Authorities (APA) and the Association of Chief Police Officers (ACPO). This would also include setting regulations and qualification requirements for police officers, approving curriculum and evaluations.

The Chair and Board of this new body would be authorised by the Secretary of State and those people must represent the interests of a professional service. It was determined there should be no fewer than 11 people on the board and there must be at least two representatives from the Association of Police Authorities and at least two members from the Association of Chief Police Officers (the stakeholders in this venture) and at least 1 Crown Servant. The funding for Centrex came from the national police budget and many members of its staff were police officers on secondment from a number of forces.

Centrex was created and started operation in April 2002 with a Chief Executive, Mr Chris Mould and a senior management team, each one responsible for a different area of work including “Foundation Training” (another name for probationer training). The Board responsible for overseeing the work was chaired by Professor Sir Clive Booth\(^{58}\) who was one of the seven independent members, with another seven members representing the stakeholders. Although officially created at this time much of the ‘estate’ had already been in existence in the form of National Police Training but the staff were now responsible for establishing the strategy and direction for the organisation.

‘Foundation Training’, the Probationer Training Programme, accounted for a huge part of the Authority’s work, its estate and it’s staffing. Centrex took over

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\(^{58}\) Professor Sir Clive Booth, had been senior civil servant in the Department of Education until 1981, had worked as an associate of the HM Inspectors of Schools 1984 to 1986, Director of Oxford Polytechnic taking it through into Oxford Brookes University between 1986 and 1997. He became chair of Centrex in 2002 through until 2007. He is currently chair of the Big Lottery Fund (Big Lottery Fund, 2009). All the independent members of the board had a background in Education and research.
the management of the Police Training Centres, which had grown in number due to the mass recruitment of police officers going on at this time in response to the allocation of the Crime Fighting Fund (CFF). Organisationally this presented a challenge for the new management team taking over the remit for the professionalisation of training across the whole of the police service at a time when there was much demand for the initial training of police officers.

Unsurprisingly, given the demands, the first HMIC Inspection of Centrex does not paint a positive picture of the organisation (HMIC, 2003). The Inspection team did take account of the fact that Centrex was a new organisation and there was a ‘bedding in’ period required but made it quite clear that the Authority could not use that excuse forever. The Inspection report focuses very much on the running of the business but with a consequence for the initial training of police officers. For example, some of the staff involved in the delivery of training were uncertain about the direction their jobs might be going in, there was little uniformity to the rewarding of staff through Performance and Development Reviews and no clear National Strategy or policy making.

National Police Training had submitted a business case in February 2002 for an improved estate and training delivery venues. This had not been taken forward. The existing training centres had suffered from poor investment; student accommodation lacked en-suite facilities and had been subject to criticism (HMIC, 2002). The increase in recruitment meant that training centres could not cope with the demand and satellite training venues were engaged, some with formal agreements, some arranged on an ad-hoc basis and in rather an unprofessional manner. Each of these centres applied different rules for their students. On average National Police Training had trained 3000 new officers a year. With the Crime Fighting Fund impact, Centrex were delivering training in the year 2003/2004 to over 9000 recruits (HMIC, 2003, page 8). Little or no strategic thought had been given to the infrastructure capabilities to manage this increase (HMIC, 2002, page 19). In addition to the Crime Fighting Fund adding

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59 The Crime Fighting Fund was announced in the March 2000 budget. The Home Secretary of the time announced that some of that money would be used by police forces to recruit an additional 5,000 police officers over a period of three years.
to the recruitment numbers it is important to remember that a police officer’s career at that time lasted 30 years. If there was mass recruitment at the end of the Second World War and those officers served 30 years, as they retired there would need to be increased recruitment to fill the gaps, and the same thirty years later adding to the impact of the CFF.

The move towards professionalisation is highlighted by the fact that the Inspection Team were pushing Centrex to “compare its performance with other public or private sector bodies of a similar nature, such as those found in academia….” (HMIC, 2003, page 12). Of course, by this time the Inspection Team were headed by a dedicated HMI for Personnel and Training, Mr Robin Field-Smith. The team also suggest inspection models such as those used by the Adult Learning Inspectorate. There was also a lack of link into the National Policing Plan to Centrex’s work. The National Costing Model for Training had still not been adopted; a recommendation made back in the 1990’s.

Crucially work was going on at this time through the Probationer Training Programme Steering Committee (PTPSC) to devise a new system of recruit training to be in place by April 2004. The role of Centrex within that work had not been determined (HMIC, 1999, page 65). This added to the uncertainty for staff and created a nervousness about expanding the estate.

Training Matters
Following on from ‘Managing Learning’, HMIC conducted a further thematic inspection of training resulting in the publication of ‘Training Matters’ in January 2002 (HMIC, 2002). This report focussed solely on the Probationer Training Programme recognising the investment the service placed into this element of training. The inspection team recognised the significant efforts of some individuals in providing a dedicated service to new officers but were forthright in their views on the lack of strategic oversight, poor investment in

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60 The National Policing Plan was first issued in November 2002 after the Police Reform Act 2002 had set out a requirement for the Home Secretary to prepare an annual plan outlining the strategic direction for the police service (Home Office, 2002). The Plan outlined the priorities set by the Home Secretary and an indication of how forces would achieve those priorities taking into account Best Value Principles. The assessment framework for forces is also included.
accommodation, over emphasis on delivery and gain of law knowledge to the
detriment of other aspects of the curriculum; a similar situation to that reported
by the Stage II Review Team back in 1986.

Once again the service needed to be reminded that the probation was a two year
training programme, the importance of everyone playing a role in the
development of probationary constables from the trainer, tutor constable and
shift supervisor. The learning requirement was considered to be outdated, the
PDP burdensome and the increased recruitment through the Crime Fighting Fund
had placed considerable unplanned pressures on those tasked with delivery. To
prevent a burden on the service there was a recommendation that officers within
their first twelve months of service should not be considered part of the
establishment; a recommendation originally made in 1954, again in 1986 when
UEA suggested officers should be treated as supernumerary through their
probationer and in 1999 the Home Affairs Committee recommended Attestation
should be conducted after 6 months service. The finger of blame for these
recommendations not being carried out was pointed towards the Home Office.

Some equally familiar messages appeared. Still there was no clear overall
strategic evaluation of the programme and a lack of quality assurance processes.
In planning for the future these issues needed to be addressed and the service also
needed to be mindful of the development of National Occupational Standards for
the service by the Police Skills and Standards Organisation (PSSO) 61, the
forthcoming introduction of an Integrated Competency Framework 62 across the
service and the introduction of a qualification framework. The HMI felt this
would impact on the culture of the organisation. In the inspection process itself
there was already a culture change in that the Adult Learning Inspectorate 63 were
invited to take part in the inspection process.

61 The Police Skills and Standards Organisation was formed in June 2001 as the National
Training Organisation for the Police Sector. National Training Organisations were independent
employer led advisory boards. In June 2004 PSSO became part of Skills for Justice, the Sector
Skills Council for the Justice Sector.
62 The Integrated Competency Framework was introduced across the police service in 2003, this
provided the criteria to assess attitudes and behaviours.
63 Adult Learning Inspectorate (ALI) is a non-departmental public body responsible for
monitoring the learning provision for adults and young people in England, reporting its findings
back to the Department for Education and the public.
The Impact of the Policing Plan and Training Matters on Initial Police Training

The National Policing Plan (NPP) set the strategic direction for all forces, with Chief Officers having to take this into account when developing their own plans. The emphasis on improving performance and public reassurance is evident throughout the document. Within it there is recognition of the need to modernise the service, use technology more effectively, increase professionalism, be more representative of the community and involve the community within its work, particularly involving partners. Whilst this was the launch of a national plan it does remind Chief Officers of the need to take into account individual community needs. A similar message had been delivered in “Training Matters”, that training needed to take account of the community in which officers would serve. This was to become a key driver in the future of initial police training.

Police reform not only included the direction for police but also looked at staffing, pay deals, management of overtime and the management of staff, which of course includes their training. The Crime Fighting Fund was still impacting in terms of the recruitment of new police officers and of police support staff. A National Recruitment Standard was to be set to ensure there were no discriminatory practices and that all forces recruited at the same level. The standards were to be introduced in April 2003 (Home Office, 2002). A National Strategy was being devised to ‘Promote Learning in the Police Service’ to link in with the rest of the plan and encourage a culture of professional development and to ensure that training was being delivered effectively. The National Policing Plan also indicated that the “Government will review the design and delivery of probationer training in conjunction with ACPO and the APA.” (Home Office, 2002, page 29).

In 2003, Centrex published “Models for Learning and Development in the Police Service – A Reference Guide for Training Managers and Practitioners.” (Commonly known as Models for Learning). This document describes itself as the “…..blueprint for the application of National Occupational Standards that will drive forward the modernisation and reform of leaning and development for all
Police Service Employees.” (Centrex, 2003, page 3) In addition to outlining how the Learning and Development function within the police service should be run, from training needs analysis through to evaluation strategies, the document also included detail of the National Strategy to Promote Learning in the Police Service. The strategy detailed expected outputs and priorities. Under the outputs it stated amongst other developments, “By April 2003, the learning requirement for the probationer training programme will have been revised; by April 2004, a revised approach to probationer training will be starting to roll out.”

The “delivery of improvements in probationer training” heads the priority list (Centrex, 2003, page 6 and 7). Given that probationer training represented the bulk of the workload for Centrex it is unsurprising that this aspect of training heads the list; equally the recommendations from ‘Training Matters’ directed some significant changes to the programme. On reading the Appendix B of ‘Models for Learning’ one finds a “Responsibilities Map for Police Learning and Development”. Listed is every ‘body’, which has a ‘finger in the training pie’ from staff support groups to inspectorates to Home Office, in total there are 28 bodies listed against their responsibility to training. When one takes this information into account, let alone factoring in 43 Chief Constables, is it any wonder that it takes such a long time for any change to take place or be accepted within the police service? A similar observation had been made in ‘Training Matters’ that there were too many committees involved and this impeded strategic management. In ‘Training Matters’ the example of the last review of probationer training is used to highlight this point, the review commenced in 1994 and the resultant programme did not actually commence until some four years later.

**Developing the New Programme of Probationer Training**

Following on from ‘Training Matters’ a Modernisation Project Team had been created within the Home Office to help the Probationer Training Programme Steering Group develop some options in completing what was considered to be a fundamental review of probationer training. In June 2003 a newsletter was circulated by the Home Office to forces entitled “Modernising Probationer Training: An Update.” The document was intended as an update on progress but
made it clear that there was not yet a “detailed blueprint”, which was anticipated being ready by October 2003, however forces were invited to express an interest in “piloting various aspect of the proposals.”

The update goes on to briefly describe the “ambitious proposals”. Many of these pick up from the recommendations from ‘Training Matters’ and indeed recommendations from some of the earlier reviews. However, the biggest proposal of all was the “responsibility for ensuring the delivery of the PTP should lie with forces.” (PTP meaning Probationer Training Programme). It was suggested that forces might wish to work in partnership with Centrex or FE or HE providers in order to do this, with quality assurance and evaluation procedures in place from the start. This had been a proposal from HMIC in order to ensure equality of opportunity for anyone wishing to join the police service. The Police Training Centre approach had meant that new recruits were away from home, often a long way, which was challenging for anyone but particularly anyone with caring responsibilities. This then was the first indication that the structure of initial police training was about to change dramatically for the first time since the end of the Second World War.

As promised in ‘Models for Learning and Development’ and recommended by ‘Training Matters’, Professor John Elliott, of the University of East Anglia, who had been part of the Stage II Review Team in the 1980’s, had been commissioned in 2003, along with Professor Saville Kushner of the University of West of England to consider the Learning Requirement for Police Probationer Training. Kushner had been tasked with the evaluation of the product resulting from the Stage II Review so both had previous experience of working with and an understanding of initial police training. Their report was published in November 2003.

In conducting its review, in order to develop the Learning Requirement, the team completed an analysis of official reports and policy documents, consultation with a broad range of stakeholders, visits to police training centres and presentation to the Probationer Training Programme Steering Committee. In presenting the Learning Requirement the authors state

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Professors Elliott and Kushner were supported by four researchers, two from each University.
The resulting LR – presented in this report in its final form – can most accurately be thought of as follows: society’s validated expectation of what a Police Officer needs to know, to do and be disposed to do in the 21st Century.”

(UWE and UEA, 2003, page 2)

The Learning Requirement sets out the ethos for the direction of police training to enable the service and its training function to respond to the ever-changing demands on policing. It creates seven learning goals:

1. Understanding and engaging with the community
2. Enforcing the law and following police procedures
3. Responding to human and social diversity
4. Positioning oneself in the role of a Police Officer inside the police organisation
5. Professional standards and ethical conduct
6. Learning to learn and creating a base for career-long learning
7. Qualities of professional judgment and decision making.

(UWE and UEA, 2003, page 3)

Within the same document is detailed the ‘Training and Organisational Requirements in order to achieve the Learning Requirement.’ The document does not provide any prescriptive suggestions on how this might be achieved but outlines what should be considered in taking the learning requirement forward.

At the point at which the Learning Requirement was finalised a further newsletter was circulated to forces. This is not dated however it is clear the Home Office required replies from forces by 15th December 2003. By this time the new programme had acquired the title ‘Probationer Learning Development Programme’ (Home Office, 2003). The letter invited forces to submit proposals of how they would meet the criteria set to allow them to deliver the training in-force. It requested that forces explain how they would deliver the programme taking into account the curriculum, the Learning Requirement and the National Occupational Standards. The Home Office also requested information on how
forces would work in partnership with external providers, the assessment processes, how welfare issues of students would be managed, the evaluation and monitoring processes; the list goes on. The letter does explain that the PTPSC would be developing guidance to help forces meet this criteria, however it does acknowledge that very few forces would be in a position to meet that criteria. Without guidance or the publication of the Learning Requirement it was very difficult for forces to make a clear plan of how they might meet that requirement.

Some forces took up the mantle of trialling certain aspects of the proposed model such as training in the community, the establishment of Professional Development (Tutor) Units (PDU), delivering training in-force at a training venue and delivering training at a ‘live police station’. By January 2004, the Home Office newsletter announced that the new programme was going to be known as the ‘Initial Police Learning and Development Programme’ (IPLDP). The term ‘probationer’ was to be replaced by Student Officer and the programme needed to reflect the introduction to a life-long learning ethos. Various workshops and conferences were planned across the country to help forces understand what was required of them and to offer guidance on how to prepare for the delivery of training in-force, something no force had done since prior to the Second World War.

Crisis at Centrex

As the police service across England and Wales was trying to comprehend the changes to the training of new recruits and fathom the implications of what was being asked, another bombshell was exploding. In January 2004 the Director of Foundation Training presented a paper to the Board of Centrex outlining the impact of a budget cut of 30%. Stakeholders needed to be consulted on options to meet the shortfalls, including the Probationer Training Modernisation Board, the Police Training and Development Board and the Probationer Training Programme Steering Committee. In addition to the financial cuts impacting on the planning of the training for the forthcoming financial year, the issue of training staff was also crucial. As IPLDP was starting to grow, forces were cognisant of the amount of preparatory work which was needed in order to deliver training in-force. The knock on impact was that forces were reluctant to
allow secondment of any more officers to Police Training Centres and indeed were starting to recall some of those already seconded. This left a shortfall of staff for Centrex and some tricky staff welfare matters to deal with as the workload increased for those who remained in central service.

The paper detailed seven options to combat the situation and recognised the political and social implications if there were to be a reduction in the number of officers that could be trained. Some quick decisions were required as the ‘satellite’ overflow venues, which were in use to accommodate the large number of recruits who had outgrown the capacity of the existing Police Training Centres, had contracts which were due for renewal. Centrex’s preferred option was the sixth one they had proposed and this was to reduce the Stage 2 course from fifteen weeks to just ten. This would allow them the scope to close the ‘satellite’ venues.

Chris Mould had by this time stepped down from the Chief Executive post at Centrex and the interim holder, Paul Pugh, attended a cabinet meeting of ACPO on the 4th February 2004 to seek support to progress consultation on this proposal. The lead for Personnel Management Business Area, Chief Constable Jane Stichbury circulated the paper to all Chief Constables the following day to seek their views on the options. Just eight days later, Deputy Chief Constable Martin Richards wrote on behalf of the National Training Managers Group and as chair of the Modernisation Project rejecting the proposal to reduce to a ten-week programme, indicating that the financial burden would just move from Centrex to forces.

After further consultation agreement was finally reached in March 2004 that the Stage 2 course would be reduced from fifteen to twelve weeks. In order to achieve this, 41 hours of study was diverted to in-force delivery, self-study and the removal of a long weekend for students. Sixteen hours were recovered by removing life saving and public order training and leaving these for forces to deliver, the life saving becoming an optional topic. Exchanging file completion exercises for statement completion saved twenty-nine hours and an incredible
seventeen hours were saved by removing life style management from the specialist syllabus. All drill lessons and pass out parades were stopped.

Just a month later it was clear that there was still some confusion on how the training of new recruits would be managed in the future which led to the Chief Officer with the Training and Development Portfolio in ACPO, Norman Bettison, to write to his peers to summarise the developments having consulted with DCC Martin Richards. The summary outlines that there was still no agreement on the options for delivery of the training and that once pilot projects had been evaluated this would become clearer. He goes on to say “...there is significant confusion in the Service about the current state of Foundation Training. This has been exacerbated by a recent decision to change the Centrex programme……the 12 week programme, incidentally, passes no additional burden on to Forces.” (ACPO, 2004) The fact that so much time cut from the training programme with little resultant impact proved to be an eye opener for the service and one might say ultimately had impact on the existence of Centrex.

**The Roll Out of The Initial Police Learning and Development Programme (IPLDP)**

By the end of 2004 guidance documents were being issued to forces across England and Wales, and this, for the first time included the Metropolitan Police as it had been decided that they too would adopt this programme. It had been agreed that there would be a Central Authority with responsibility for the governance of IPLDP, which was responsible to ministers through the Police Training and Development Board. This Central Authority was made up of representatives from the Home Office, Association of Police Authorities, Association of Chief Police Officers, Metropolitan Police Service, Centrex, Skills for Justice, HMIC, Superintendents Association, Police Federation, Academic Representative and Diversity Representative, all but the first four listed holding only an advisory capacity (Home Office, 2004). The Central Authority took over the governance of the curriculum, the hand over to forces, the development of the accreditation process, developing the assessment strategy and liaison with Skills for Justice to ensure that the National Occupational Standards were met. Centrex was appointed to carry out the executive functions.
The framework for the new programme was a four-phase approach. The first being the induction into the police service, the second a community safety and partnerships phase, phase 3 included supervised patrol and the fourth phase was to be the independent patrol element of the programme. The IPLDP manuals circulated to forces gave some very broad overviews of what was required at each phase. In 2004 the guidance indicated there was no single qualification for IPLDP, but pointed forces to options ranging from NVQ to foundation degrees. It was not until 2006 that an announcement was made that as a minimum forces should ensure their students achieved an NVQ in policing.

The community involvement within training has been a topic to raise its head throughout all the previous reviews of probationer training. In 2004 the Association of Police Authorities (APA) published its report ‘Involving Communities in Police Learning and Development: A Guide’, which explored options for the service in how to involve communities in every aspect of police learning and development from the design stage through to evaluation. The following May the IPLDP Central Authority issued a practitioner guidance document entitled ‘Community Engagement and Professional Development Units.’ This guidance document pulled together the direction which the police service was taking in terms of its delivery focus. It makes reference to key documents such as ‘Building Communities, Beating Crime: A Better Police Service for the 21st Century’, the Police Reform agenda and findings of the Commission for Racial Equality. The guidance document offered advice to forces on how to incorporate community engagement within training and the role of Professional Development Units (PDU) within that. The remit of PDU’s was outlined to be broader than the earlier tutor units, which some forces had adopted in the 1980’s, to incorporate learning and development opportunities for all members of staff and officers including those beyond their probation. Just a few months later in August 2005 a ‘Community Engagement Guide’ was published and a website established by a National Practitioner Panel for Community Engagement which had been established in 2003. This illustrates that the development of the new programme was at least in line with the developing trends within contemporary policing.
In an update document circulated to all forces in November 2005 the Central Authority summarised progress. The North East Region had now ‘gone live’ with IPLDP and had shared their experiences with others to help develop their own programmes. There was confirmation that from May 2006 the Probationer Training Programme would cease to exist and there would be no more Stage 2 courses run by Centrex, obviously all those probationers ‘still in the system’ would continue with their original programme. The closure of Bruche, Ashford and Cwmbran Police Training Centres had been announced; Ryton would continue to be used by Centrex, the end then of those temporary arrangements set up at the end of the Second World War.

The financial arrangements for funding in-force delivery of training had now been finalised, however the minimum qualification had still not been set at this point and the timing of attestation was still being debated. The learning descriptors had been published so that forces were aware of what subjects were to be taught, however supporting materials were not in place. These were promised by April 2006. This was not much help to the early adopters who had to write their own material. For forces who had delayed the introduction of IPLDP until after the deadline of April 2006 the situation was not much different, they felt they couldn’t risk waiting for material. Although a forum was created on the NCALT website for forces to share their training material many forces created their own material taking account of their own local force and community needs.

The Adult Learning Inspectorate (ALI) were invited to report on the evaluation of IPLDP and an excerpt of this is incorporated within the guidance document. On the positive side ALI reported good management of programmes, teaching of satisfactory or better standards, students had adapted well to the programme, communication at senior level was good and some excellent partnerships had been made with local communities. On the negative side there was concern over

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65 National Centre for Applied Learning Technologies, established in 2002 as collaboration between Centrex and the Metropolitan Police. It produces and delivers e-learning products for the police service.
the distribution of funding, inconsistent support from management teams, little understanding of student’s learning needs, little account of previous knowledge and the lead in time for the development of the materials for the course was too short.

By May 2006 all forces were now delivering the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme, however there is not scope within this thesis to detail how each force is delivering that programme. There are now 43 versions of delivery of the programme, following the guidelines set by the Central Authority. Shortly after the introduction of the programme the role of Centrex within that Central Authority was to change. In June 2005, as part of the Police Reform Agenda, the Government reply to the Fourth Report from the Home Affairs Committee explained that there were too many organisations involved in the governance of the police service. It recommended that there should be one National Policing Improvement Agency (NPIA). The purpose behind NPIA was to instil a culture of self-improvement within the police service, to act as a critical friend, rather than an inspectorate function. NPIA took over the management of all police training in April 2007, along with the oversight of many other aspects of policing.

What does the future hold?
What is in store for the training of new police recruits as the first decade of the twenty-first century comes to an end? IPLDP has now been in place across England and Wales since 2006 and NPIA have been working with forces to help them develop their programmes and modify them as policing develops. NPIA has developed a framework to help forces evaluate their delivery and assessment progress; the most recent framework was described as Stage 3 Validation. In September 2009 only 19 forces had actually reached this stage.

There are already calls from some quarters suggesting that it is time to radically reform police training (Muir, 2009). The qualification for a new police officer is changing. As of 31st December 2009 the NVQ in Policing will cease to exist and there can be no more registration of candidates. A new qualification of Diploma in Policing is to be introduced which reduces 22 National Occupational
Standards into 10 units for assessment. The time for assessment is to be shared between simulated environment, tutored patrol and independent patrol. Considering the roll out of this new qualification at the time of writing there is still a limited amount of information for forces to understand the implications and methods of assessment.

Senior police officers are increasingly having their budgets scrutinised and having to account for every aspect of policing delivery. Encouragement is made by the Government for forces to consider options for collaboration with neighbouring forces, which has perversely already raised questions about options of having regional training schools. An alternative approach to returning to the old style training schools is the option of introducing a qualification which those considering a policing career might obtain before application. A handful of forces have already engaged with Further and Higher Education establishments to deliver what has become known as a ‘pre-join qualification’. This approach despite being mentioned in many of the reviews over the decades has been instigated by individual forces rather than from a Central Authority. At the time of writing the NPIA are consulting with those ‘trail blazing’ forces in order to develop a national guidance protocol for other forces seeking to go along the same route. Perhaps this is the way forward in achieving the aims of the 1954 review “…if necessary, establishments should be increased to enable measures to be carried out.” (Central Conference of Chief Constables, 1954, page 23). It appears that fifty-five years later a solution is found to training recruits without them being counted as part of the police strength.
Chapter Nine – In Conclusion

The aim of this thesis was to chart the development of initial police training since the end of the Second World War through to the end of the first decade of the twenty-first century. By exploring the story of that development and re-telling the outcomes of reviews over the decades, the revisionist approach seeks to shed new light on how police training has evolved and use those findings to make suggestions for the future of initial police training. Brundage indicates, “each historian’s view of the past is at least different from another’s, sometimes dramatically different.” (Brundage, 2002, page 3) There is also a danger in completing historical research of just re-iterating facts rather than adding to a body of knowledge (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000). The history portrayed in this thesis projects an image of periods of change in terms of professional training and education, interspersed with operational demands, which challenged the academic advances. The evidence is taken from a variety of documentary evidence, supplemented by interviews with key players in the recent history of police training. The documents are from a range of sources to broaden the perspective of the path of development. A thesis completed by Allard in 1997 explored the policies involved in the history of probationer training focusing on the time frames between 1960 and the late 1990’s. My work offers a different view of initial police training highlighting the continuities and changes within the training and the issues driving those changes.

The Culture Trap

Throughout my research the relationship between the world of learning and development or training can be seen as detached from the world of operational policing. Yet one cannot exist without the other. Officers need to be trained in order to conduct their complex role, which intertwines law enforcement with public safety and protection.

The starting point for this historical research was the establishment of the main framework for the training of new police officers, which remained in place for over sixty years. That framework was instigated as a result of a serious shortfall
of police officers as a consequence of the Second World War. Prior to this time there had been a haphazard approach to the training of new police officers depending on which force they joined. Despite recommendations from the Desborough Committee in 1919 for each force to appoint a training officer (Critchley, 1967, page 245), forces still had no co-ordinated approach to training. Some had established their own training schools, others made use of these facilities. Sir Frank Newsam was a key player in recognising the need for a standard of training across the police service and was particularly instrumental in developing that standard for senior police officers (Villiers, 1998).

This development of a training school provided an independent establishment away from police forces, for officers to learn the legislation required in order to perform their role. However the practical application of that legislation needed to be demonstrated and learnt by the new officers and this was done once the officer was posted to operational duty. My research shows how this was completed originally by someone considered to be a good officer and more recently by those recognised to have the skills for learning and development within an operational environment. Trainers, or instructors as they were originally known, where therefore seconded away from their own forces and became detached from the operational policing role, whereas tutor constables were still within the operational role and therefore not considered to be part of training.

Whilst trainers might be experienced police officers, the moment they walked through the door of a training centre to begin their new role, in the eyes of the operational officer they were ‘outsiders’. This is best illustrated by a recent example, when a probationer confronted a new member of training staff66 on a Tuesday morning. The student indicated that she felt the trainer was detached from operational policing and did not understand what sort of incident the probationer had been presented with. The member of staff replied, “You are right I was on patrol on Saturday night and already I have forgotten what it is like out there.” It may be true that some training staff having been in post for some time

66 This member of staff was a Learning and Development Officer (LDO) of Norfolk Constabulary working in a Professional Development Unit and holding a tutorial with a probationary constable. The LDO had been in her new role for two days early in 2009.
may be detached and out of date with some operational procedures. Measures such as ensuring training staff complete operational duties periodically help maintain their knowledge of contemporary policing. This approach however suggests that you have to be a police officer in order to train new police officers.

Throughout the period of time covered in this research there have been proposals for non police officer staff to deliver training and this has been resisted throughout most of that time. It is only within the last decade that the use of police staff to deliver training has been more prevalent. It is hard to understand why the service has resisted this so much given that once an officer leaves training school they work alongside a tutor constable. Martin Richards, Chief Constable of Sussex in interview recalled how much he enjoyed his training at the District Training Centre, but the first comment made to him on his arrival at his new station was “You can forget all they taught you at Ryton kid, this is how we do it here.” He went on to explain how he thought this was probably a phrase familiar to many new officers and was the cultural way of making the transfer “from a confined and relatively sterile environment of early learning, into something which was far more streetwise and far more relevant to policing and to the public.”

Logically if a new officer is going to be working with an experienced officer, i.e. a tutor constable, to put into context all they have learned in the operational world, then why does it need to be a police officer teaching the recruits in the first place? Admittedly they can draw on their experiences to put into context some of the legislation, however a member of police staff can spend time with experienced officers to gain some of that contextual knowledge to illustrate their training.

The operational culture still exists whereby there is an expectation that all new officers should know everything there is to know about policing when they leave training school. This is despite the constant throughout the last sixty years or so that all police officers joining the service have been required to complete a two-year ‘probationary period’. There has been no change to this period and is considered by the service to be the time it takes for the officer to learn their job
and for the organisation to determine whether the officer is suitable for the role. At which ever point you ‘cut a slice’ between 1945 and 2009 you will find a probationary constable completing a combination of formal training within a classroom and workplace training under some form of supervision. During this time there have been a number of reviews of how the training is formatted and delivered. Following each review there have been some changes and some constants to the programme but not to the length of probation. In fact in each review there has been a reminder to the service that the probation is a two years training programme, however as soon as officers leave the initial course they are treated as fully operational officers.

The operational side of policing cannot exist without the training department to train its new recruits. However the culture is such that the department staff are considered to be out of touch and ‘things are done differently on the streets’. More recent changes in the initial training through IPLDP have led to forces developing Professional Development Units, which offer a halfway house between the classroom based training and the operational element of the training with the tutor constable. This approach has the potential to break down some of those cultural barriers, particularly where forces have ‘recruited’ tutor constables into the training department to conduct the operational training.

Each review of initial training over the decades has been conducted as a result of concerns about the manner of policing. If training has changed as a consequence of a review and the recruits have learned new ways of policing, what happens to this if they are met with the approach ‘forget everything you learned in training school’, the service would never move on, which leads me to my next question.

Is Training the Engine or the Guard Van?

The real question is, does training drive cultural change or follow it? In the introduction to a document issued to forces in 2005, the Minister of State for
Home Affairs, Ms Hazel Blears is quoted in summing up the importance of getting the culture right, she stated

“She unless we get probationer training right the culture change, in terms of police reforms is not going to happen…..It is when people first come into the service that you set their standards, their ethos, their skills and the nature of the encounter that they have with the public, so that is hugely important to me.” (Home Office, 2005)

We have already seen how new officers were advised to forget everything they had learned at training school. There is also a culture of the organization wanting recruits well trained but in the shortest time possible as the officers are required on the streets. There is always this competing demand of ‘make sure you train them properly but can you hurry up about it’. The stop start approach to recruitment has an impact on the training of new officers. Each force has an establishment level; this can vary according the financial and operational demands on each force. This effectively means that a force cannot recruit a new officer until an existing officer has retired or left the organization. There is then an operational gap of at least eight months, while the new recruit completes their training. The number of officers retiring and thereby creating space varies and the prediction of this attrition is not an exact science.

The ebb and flow of recruitment numbers creates challenges for those tasked with delivering training. Appendix B shows the use and disuse of training centres over the decades, often dictated by changes to funding. In the late 1970’s the impact of the Edmund Davies pay deal attracting more recruits; in 2000/1 the Crime Fighting Fund boosting numbers and thereby creating demands for more classroom space and increases in training staff. When numbers diminish again the resources are cast aside. The police officers who have been engaged in training delivery return to operational duties. This is a positive process in that they need to refresh their skills in policing to enable them to deliver a better product. However the danger is that the service then ‘forgets’ about the skills.

An abstract from House of Commons minutes of evidence taken before the Home Affairs Committee – 26 October 2004 – Police Reform.
these officers have and often do not utilize them in the future for the benefit of the organisation.

Within the service there is a recognition that no matter how hard a training team try, a simulated practical exercise cannot replicate a ‘real life’ incident. Of course that is the whole point of a tutor constable scheme, that an experienced officer supports new recruits when dealing with real incidents following the classroom phase. We have already heard of a senior officer’s experience on starting his operational duties and being told to forget what he had learned at training school.

Alongside the street culture of experienced officers passing on their views to new recruits, there is the culture of the officers further up the ‘tree’. In the 1970’s the development of a Unit to take control of training across the country led to a more standardised approach. Of course, whoever took over the running of that establishment was likely to be influential on the style of training for the future. This is not a situation unique to the police service. Jack English took over the control of the Central Planning Unit in the 70’s and was passionate about the ‘systems approach’ to training. This influenced the direction of the training of new officers for over a decade. Following the Stage II Review in the 1980’s English retired and the command of training was taken over by Les Poole. Poole’s approach clearly supported the recommendations made by the review team, but according to Professor Elliott took the approach beyond what was intended. The facilitative and counselling approach influenced the training of a whole generation of officers.

The cultural influence of the service wanting ‘everything boxed off’, as Robin Field-Smith, HMIC for Personnel and Training suggested in interview, has had its impact on the training. He explained “the problem with all of that through the 80’s and into the 90’s was that the service never really took ownership of that, ……you still had the drag effect of what people actually liked, understood and felt was relevant out there in the workplace and one of the things I discovered was that all that work done by the University of East Anglia and the University of the West of England for example in the late 80’s early 90’s was potentially powerful stuff but it had basically fallen on rough ground and therefore there was
a reversion to what the police liked, like boxed off stages.” This is evidence of a culture that gave the change a try and then reverted back to what it was comfortable with. What is apparent though is that whilst ‘experts’ and academics have made proposals for change, the implementation has been left to the control of individuals within the service who have made their own interpretations of the recommendations, for example, English not taking account of evaluative requirements and Poole not using case study approach as intended.

In the chapter on the 1950’s I propose an analogy of an oil tanker taking a long time to change direction or stop. A recent published by the Institute for Public Policy Research (Muir, 2009) not only suggests the police have avoided major reform, but also suggests the organisation’s inability to cope with change. Of course it would be crass to say there has not been a change in policing since the Second World War. There have been significant changes in policing, both in the style of delivery and in terms of resources and equipment. However, there are a number of political forces surrounding the service, which militate against change. Chief Constables have autonomy for the force they head; their performance is constantly under scrutiny from Police Authorities, HMIC and the public alike. There is a certain territorialism of each force, as can often be heard in the media with chief officers claiming their force is the lead on this topic or another, that their county is the safest etc. e.g. Norfolk Constabulary claim of being safest county despite having a rise in violent crime (Kendall, 2010). The other militating factor is the immediacy of policing, the need to respond to a number of competing demands. If all these factors are taken together along with the pecking order of demands, learning and development is a long way down the list. Rather than there being just one oil tanker to move, it would appear there are several tankers, all going in different directions.

So what influence does training have on the organisational culture? As a recruit starts their career the way they are trained has an impact on the ‘shape’ of police officer they are to become. The changes to initial police training over the years and the constant scrutiny has ensured that whatever is delivered to new recruits is the most up to date thinking in the organisation. There are some limitations though, as we have already seen the time limits on the training have been cut to
the minimum despite the increases in the amount of legislation and the expectations put upon a police officer. As developments have been made there has been the realisation that police officers cannot recall all of the legislation at anyone time and so there is benefit to teaching them research skills. By having that skill they will know how to find out information when they need it. Just as there are benefits to this thesis telling the history of police training, there are benefits to teaching new officers the history of their role. An example of this is the legislation covering stop and search. If a new officer understands about the riots in the 1980's which led to the Scarman Report, which subsequently led to the Police and Criminal Evidence Act and stop search powers, they will have a greater understanding of the impact of the duties they conduct.

So while the training of new officers does have an impact on the organisational culture in that standards are set, new and emerging skills are passed through to more experienced colleagues and recruits are able to share new approaches to policing, one has to be patient to see the impact. It takes time for the officer with the new ways of working to develop confidence and gain experience. As the new and confident officer emerges they feel more at liberty to make changes. It is only then that their approach starts to impact on the organisational culture. Rather than driving cultural changes training achieves change through osmosis.

Why Keep Making Changes?

Nothing in life is constant and the role of policing and the training of new officers has changed significantly over the period of time covered in this research. The first review of initial training, conducted in 1954, was aimed predominantly at assessing whether the use of District Training Centres was working and whether this was a cost effective way of training delivery. All other reviews over the following decades have been instigated by some form of challenge to the relationship between the public and the police service. There is some evidence to suggest that costs were a factor in these reviews, as one might expect from a review of any public sector organization, however the cost in terms of relationships has been the predominant factor.
Although the 1954 review majored on value for money the student lesson notes of the day reinforce the importance of good communication with the public. The 1962 Royal Commission on Policing resulting in the Willink Report was initiated after corruption scandals and public concern about the way the police service was managed; the impact on training was the introduction of a central unit to develop and standardize the training of police officers across the country even further. The resultant amalgamation of forces also reduced the number of different delivery options at the in-force stage.

At the time of the review of probationer training in 1972 there was growing commentary on the relationships between the community and the police service. Sociologists such as Banton\textsuperscript{68} and psychologists such as Schaffer\textsuperscript{69} were researching and publishing their views on the way these relationships should develop and how they could be improved through police training. Dramatically, the relationship between police and community was brought to the forefront in the 1980’s with the riots of Brixton and a number of other towns and cities. The findings from the Scarman Inquiry led to a fundamental review of the training; this review taking place at a time of public/police tension exemplified by the Miners Strike of 1984. These events not only highlighted public relations but additionally the political relationships, which in turn impacted on the former.

In the closing decades of the twentieth century the media coverage of policing began to change tone, with much more focus on community relations and challenging policing methods; the role of the police moving from that of being the anchor of society to the navigator expected to lead the way. Once again in the Learning Requirement of 2003 the emphasis was for new officers to have a greater understanding of the needs of the public and how to build relationships. This was supplemented and supported by the move towards Neighbourhood

\textsuperscript{68} Michael Banton, Professor of Sociology at University of Bristol and Director of the Social Science Research Council Research Unit on Ethnic Relations published ‘Police Community Relations’ in 1973.

\textsuperscript{69} Evelyn B. Schaffer, Principal Clinical Psychologist at Douglas Inch Centre for Forensic Psychiatry in Glasgow, published ‘Community Policing in 1980’.
Policing\textsuperscript{70} and Citizen Focus\textsuperscript{71}, encouraging police officers to think of the public as customers. The constant through the decades has been the desire to match the training to accommodate the needs of the community the police serve.

At the turn of the century the service accepted the need to modernise. Government proposals for Police Reform led to changes in the mid ‘noughties’ and as the decade clicks over into 2010 new approaches to training are in place in some forces and are being evaluated at a national level; opportunities for potential new recruits to learn the ‘trade’ prior to joining and gain a professional qualification. The crux lies in the question about the role of a police officer, is it a vocation, trade or profession? Despite these changes, emerging ‘outsiders’ such as the Institute for Public Policy Research are calling for changes to the training.

Throughout the decades training has been delivered across the service in terms of specialist training, development, leadership but the aspect of training which has been under the spotlight the most has been probationer training. Regardless of which decade one chose to look at one would observe training of new officers in the current legislation, the contemporary policing style and ethos. Because this element of training has been subject to the most scrutiny over the years it has probably been developed more than any other element of training. We have also seen that since the inception of a Central Planning Unit there has been a standardized approach across the country to the initial parts of the training. The move to IPLDP and leaving forces to deliver their ‘own product’ does leave open the risk of competing demands of a force impacting on the standard of that training. To minimize this there are constant inspections and centralized guidance through NPIA and Adult Learning Inspectorate.

Another consideration is the fact that recipients of this training would only receive that current input, they would have no ‘old knowledge’ to store, retract or obliterate. Most police officers serve for thirty years. This research shows that

\textsuperscript{70} Neighbourhood Policing is built on four pillars of Access, Influence, Interventions and Answers. This gives local people the ability to shape policing responses from local agencies.

\textsuperscript{71} Citizen Focus is built on four Hallmarks of Understanding People, Understanding Services, Designing Services and Delivering Services. It is thus similar to Neighbourhood Policing but extends to all policing activity.
each one of those officers would have seen at least two changes to the initial training during their service, however they would only have been subjected to the programme in place at the time of their recruitment. Their approach to policing will be influenced by the style in which they were first taught. This work has not reported developments in any other aspect of training for police officers. Suffice to say the probationary initial training is the time when officers develop the base knowledge; any other development being a piecemeal affair dependent on the ambition of the officer, the force of which they are a member and the time in history in which they served.

HMIC Robin Field-Smith had a different perspective to changes in the style of training and felt that the service had moved on to “shift from training as an input on a short term basis with an accent on knowledge and legal compliance and as a periodic input so that police officers get a dose of training now and again, the shift is now to a profession in which continuous professional development and learning as an investment rather than training as a cost.” (interviewed 18.12.08) I am not convinced this is yet the case. A proposed HMIC Workforce Inspection to be conducted during 2010 might establish the current situation.

So what role does the initial training of police officers contribute to the changes in policing? Fullan (1993, page 4) explains the role of teachers in change is to make a difference in the lives of their students and as a consequence “this puts teachers precisely in the business of continuous innovation and change. They are, in other words, in the business of making improvements, and to make improvements in an ever changing world is to contend with and manage the forces of change on an ongoing basis.” This is evident in the 1950’s with police trainers using equipment, which was not commonly found in the world of education, such as training films. A further example can be found where the training centre at Dishforth was supposed to be running the last of the ‘old style’ course but were keen to include elements of the new programme.

Fullan (1993) explains how society is expected to respond to change and that educators can help prepare their students for this. Initial police training can prepare the new officers for the changes they are likely to face both in legislation
and the styles of policing changes they are likely to encounter through their service. By providing new officers with the skills to adapt to those changes the training can have a huge impact on the culture of the organisation and the willingness to respond to change. There are a number of theories of change, Lewin’s Three Step Change Theory, ADKAR and the Six Change Approach (Kritsonis, 2004, Ewton, 2006); each change theory refers to the need to engage employees and ‘win’ their co-operation to respond to the change. There is a danger that if the change is not reinforced then employees will revert to old methods rather than adapt to the change. An example of this can be seen in the response of the service to the Stage II Review findings and the subsequent changes to programme. There is evidence in this thesis that the service as a whole did not ‘buy in’ to this change and so reverted in the 1990’s to a programme and style of training it was more comfortable with. For any emerging changes in police officer training in the twenty-first century, the service must first accept the need for change and understand why it is being implemented for them to stand any chance of success. Fullan (1993, page 23) reminds us “that you cannot make people change. You cannot force them to think differently or compel them to develop new skills.” The role of the initial training then is not only to teach new recruits how to be police officers but also to train them to be adaptive to change for the benefit of the service as a whole.

All Change

Policing has changed over the years but how has this impacted on training? The service at the end of the Second World War consisted of a predominately male workforce despite a number of women covering roles during the wartime period. The Sex Discrimination Act in 1975 led to changes to the role of women in the police service and rather than forming part of a separate unit they officially became equal to their male colleagues. The growth in numbers has been slow but in the twenty-first century intakes of recruits can often include a 50-50 split of men and women. I have just completed thirty years service as a police officer; when I joined in 1980 there were very few women who achieved this. Changes in conditions of service to allow flexible working options have done much to encourage officers, particularly women, to remain in service longer. The major changes to training in 2006, the closing of District Training Centres and moving
delivery in-force has allowed a broader range of recruits to join the service. The service has missed out on attracting potentially good recruits because of the need to attend training school a long way from home for a considerable period of time; anyone with caring responsibilities would find this difficult. This has not only benefited the service in terms of the diversity of its recruits but also in allowing forces to train their officers in terms of force policy from day one.

Policing is no longer completed just by police officers. The drive towards Neighbourhood Policing has led to the introduction of Police Community Support Officers, who conduct some of the ‘traditional roles’ of policing in terms of community contact. Community Safety Accreditation Schemes have led to staff from a variety of agencies being given specific powers, such as the ability to issue fixed penalty tickets for parking. The number of Special Constables has grown; these are volunteer officers, who in the past conducted duties such as policing fetes and car park management. Today their role is akin to that of a regular officer. The number of criminal justice agencies has grown and the emphasis on cross agency working has increased. The training of new officers needs to factor in these changes and as a consequence help develop relationships and partnership working by encouraging new officers of the benefits to these approaches from the start.

The growth in agencies involved in the criminal justice system can be linked to the growth in technology, particularly digital technology. There is a need for expertise both within and without the service to manage ‘cyber crime’ and the management of technologies used in crime detection such as CCTV, major incident systems, face and fingerprint recognition etc. Equally the growth in terrorism threats have led to more agencies being involved and working closely with the police service such as UK Border Agency and the immigration service. These issues were not even considered in the early days of the initial police training but now form a huge part of the training for new officers. This again emphasises the need to take some of the focus away from legislation recital to developing skills, which will enable cross agency working and improve communication processes.
Over the period of time covered by this thesis, policing has become more responsive to a multi cultural society and to work within a legal framework such as the Human Rights Act, Disability Discrimination Act, Race Discrimination Act and the previously mentioned the Sex Discrimination Act. High profile cases such as the Stephen Lawrence murder have significantly influenced public perceptions of the police service and indeed the organisations own perceptions of its deficiencies. This has led to changes in the training not just in terms of the legislation and the way officers are trained to deal with such incidents but also in the structure of the training. This was particularly evident following the Stage II Review as the programme changed to allow new recruits to immerse themselves in operational policing to develop contextual awareness. The increase in reflective practice has encouraged officers to consider the impact of their role and actions in dealing with situations.

As mentioned earlier, the training staff are the innovators of change (Fullan, 1993). In response to all the changes in policing there is evidence throughout of training adapting to these and taking the lead, taking a standardised approach in the introduction of a national unit in the 1960’s, in monitoring performance through assessment criteria (the introduction of Personal Development Profiles) in the 1980’s and the introduction of formal qualifications in the 2000’s. The most recent innovation is the exploration of pre-join courses.

**Continuity and Change**

This thesis maps the history of initial police training over sixty years. In that period of time there has been a mixture of continuity and change. The most fundamental continuity has been the services desire to recruit from the society it serves. This was particularly evident at the start of this story, in that despite there being a huge shortage of officers and a need for quick recruitment following the war, there was a keenness to recruit officers local to their force. There was recognition then that local officers should have a greater understanding of the community needs and be able to build the relationships so important to policing by consent. The desire to work with the community and respond to its needs has been evident throughout this research. When the police and community have moved in different directions there has been a call for a
review of training and each time the service has responded and developed the training accordingly. Changes in society have made it more challenging for the service to recruit to reflect society but the crucial part is that officers understand and respond to community needs.

The two-year ‘probationary period’ has remained throughout the decades despite recent calls for the Home Office to change the rules about attestation. The training programme has therefore remained a consistent length. Existing regulations dictate that an officer should be attested within the first couple of days of service, which makes them in effect an officer with full power from the moment they join; despite not being trained. In recent years it has been recognised that there would be benefits from changing this regulation but to date the Home Office has not made this change. There is no doubt that the Police Federation would wish to maintain the status quo which allows them to offer support to police officers from day one. This is another example of how pre-join training would compensate for this issue.

Like the probation, the initial course for new officers has varied little in length, ranging from 10 to 15 weeks throughout the decades until the introduction of IPLDP in the mid 2000’s. The overall format of the training within the first two years has on the whole remained similar, with an induction programme, an initial course at District Training Centre, a Local Procedure Course on return to force, followed by a number of development courses later in the probation. The introduction of IPLDP gave forces some options for re-formatting the programme and delivery methods however national guidance dictated timeframes for an induction phase, a community phase, a third phase to include a mix of classroom based learning and supervised patrol. The cumulative effect of this was that, as a minimum a new officer would not be patrolling alone until they had completed 32 weeks of training, a similar timeframe to the earlier programmes. Some development training would follow later in the probation. Whilst some forces chose to set out their training in a different format the basic structural guidance from Centrex was the same as it had been through the previous decades.
The introduction of District Police Training Centres was to combat a short-term recruitment and training crisis following the Second World War; this was intended to be a short-term measure to address the shortfall in police officers. However, the model worked and forces were still experiencing shortfalls in officer numbers in the early 1950’s. The number of centres have changed over the decades to accommodate fluctuations in recruitment, however the principles of using a district based centre continued through to the twenty-first century. The development of the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme has seen training centres close down and the role of the development of staff move to in-force training schools. Some forces have worked in partnership with academic institutions for a combined approach to the delivery of training but for others the whole programme has been delivered in house with all the associated costs. Already there are questions about the financial viability of this approach. The outgoing Chief Constable of Norfolk Constabulary, Ian McPherson was reported in a local newspaper “Why do we have in East Anglia six training schools ……that’s perhaps not the best way of spending public money.” (Kendall, 2010)

This illustrates the competing demands, a Chief Constable thinking about the cost of running a training school rather than seeing beyond the financial cost to the nature of the product resulting from that individual school. The whole ethos of IPLDP was for training to be delivered locally allowing student officers to work closely with the community within which they would serve. If money saving Chief Constables opted for a regional training centre again, the financial costs might be saved but there would be a cost in terms of developmental opportunities for new officers.

The competing financial and performance demands on the police service have provoked the continuing reviews of training. In all but one decade there has been a full-scale review of initial police training. Professor John Elliott from the University of East Anglia in interview pointed out that there needs to be constant evaluation of the training programme so that the training will adapt to contemporary needs. This process should negate the need for full-scale reviews on a regular basis. It is important to remember too that just because something, in this case a training programme, is being reviewed it does not automatically mean
there is something wrong with that ‘thing’. Many police officers have completed the training centre style delivery and successfully completed their probation.

The first big change in initial police training occurred in the late 1960’s with the introduction of the Central Planning Unit. This was a national body, which took control of the design of training material, the training of instructors and on the whole standardising the approach to training of new officers. The national body has changed in format and name since then but the principles have remained the same; to offer a consistent approach to the training of probationers across England and Wales. Despite the fact that individual forces are now responsible for organising the training of their new officers the content is still dictated by a national body, the National Police Improvement Agency (NPIA).

The next major change came about as a result of the Stage II Review in the 1980’s with the introduction of a portfolio to record progress of a new officer through their probation. This became a national document and again provided that standardised approach to the training of new officers. Whilst probationers found the process burdensome, it is clear there were benefits to introducing a reflective approach to their development. This method of recording progress has continued since then, with amendments being made to the portfolio to reflect the model of training introduced in the 1990’s. From the mid 2000’s many forces opted for their new recruits to complete an NVQ, which also requires portfolio completion.

When District Training Centres were established in the 1940’s the instructors were of inspector or sergeant rank. This was based on the principle that they had the rank to ‘order’ the new recruits, and they had demonstrated and proved their own skills by achieving promotion. Inspectors were used less and less and by the 1980’s the instructors were sergeants. In various reviews there had been proposals for non police officers to be involved in the delivery of training to new recruits but this was resisted until the 1990’s when there was more consideration of the skills required for the role. In addition to recognising the skills there was of course a cost implication. To employ sergeants to deliver training was a costly process, using constables to do the same job was a money saving exercise.
Members of police staff were also starting to be employed as trainers but the numbers remain limited because of the cultural demand for police officers to teach police officers.

The most recent and dramatic change to initial police training was the closure of District Training Centres in 2006. Whilst a national curriculum remains, the means of delivery in each of the individual forces is left to local control. This has led to a number of approaches, some forces have opted to work in partnership with academic institutions for a combined approach to the delivery of training but for others the whole programme is delivered in house. There is a national minimum qualification of NVQ in Policing, however some forces have opted to work in partnership with Universities, for a Foundation Degree in Policing.

An emerging change, which is still in embryonic stage, is the development of pre-join qualifications. The principle is that a potential police officer recruit completes a course with a college or university, which provides some or all of the theoretical training for the role of policing. Having gained the qualification the individual becomes a police officer and completes a much shorter and more operationally based training course. The benefits of this approach have already been detailed. The number of forces trialing this approach is limited at the time of writing.

**A New Door Opens as One Closes**

It is now almost four years since the closure of District Training Centres. It is still too early to understand the full impact of this as the first cohorts of students to complete the programme will still only be two years out of their probation. However there have been some significant gains from taking this approach to training. As mentioned earlier, the opportunity to increase the diversity of recruits as a result of not having to leave home for several weeks can only be of benefit to the service. Whilst arguments for the early District Training Centres to be located in rural area to avoid distractions to study can be understood, a converse argument is that people can study more freely in their own familiar environment, or indeed when they are not worried about family they have left behind.
Throughout the period covered by this research there has been demand at each of the reviews for more involvement of the community within training. IPLDP has provided that opportunity. Whilst not all forces have embraced that requirement with vigour, there are examples of forces delivering training in the community and with the community. Community placements during which new officers spend time with a community group focusing on the relationship between that community and the police service have been invaluable in immersing new officers into the issues they will face on operational patrol.

By moving the training to the control of local forces there has been opportunity for new recruits to learn their force policy and procedures during their training. At District Training Centres generic forms and policies were used, which then led to a need for a local procedure course when officers returned back from DTC. This is a considerable time saving approach and saves much confusion for the student. There is a danger here though that senior managers can seek to include more and more of local policy into the initial training which takes time and can squeeze the time for the national curriculum. There is national curriculum guidance detailing subjects which must be delivered, monitored by the NPIA, however there is less control than there was with the DTC approach.

There is potential not only for forces to squeeze the curriculum but also the time allowed for the training. With training being delivered in-force there is a cost implication. This was initially covered by a grant payment but any cost is now incorporated into a ‘business as usual’ budget. There is a real danger that as budgets tighten senior officers will seek to make cuts to the training. While this may have a short-term gain, there would be a significant detrimental effect on the development of new officers.

With only a national minimum qualification in place and forces taking their own approach to training delivery there is no consistency. Whilst this answers the need to have officers trained to accommodate the local policing needs and be responsive to their local community demands, it does not take account of the fact that officers sometimes transfer from one force to another. Officers move for
personal reasons, to take opportunity of specialist posts or for promotion. Transfer cannot be authorised while an officer is within their probation, so under the previous style of training once probation was completed forces were able to accept transferring officers and were fully aware of the style of training they had received because of the national approach. With every force ‘doing their own thing’ if an officer who has an NVQ in Policing wishes to transfer to a force which delivers a foundation degree, there may be some concerns about the standard of the training of the officer. It has yet to be proved what confidence forces have in each other’s training.

Where Do We Go Now?
The map of the development of initial police training shows the advances and the pitfalls; but where do we go from here? How can we use this map to plot the course of the future? I have already explained that there needs to be willingness for the service to change. At a conference held in September 2008 Commander Simon O’Brien, of the Metropolitan Police, in the opening speech explained the service needed to make more use of academic research in developing its approach to policing. He added that there should be encouragement for practitioner research by those within the organisation too. Each of the more recent reviews of initial police training has involved academic research, with the service accepting some proposals.

Here is my proposal for the service to consider.

My goal was to shed new light on the history of initial police training and make proposals for the future. There are elements of the existing training, developed as a result of previous reviews, which I believe, should remain. The first is to continue to take account of local needs both in the classroom and operationally. The community placement provides opportunities for new officers to develop community contacts early in their service, which can be built on as they develop as an officer. This does require some co-ordination by forces to ensure that their new recruits complete placements in the locality in which they are going to serve,

72 Conference held at Canterbury Christchurch University, September 2008, hosted by the Department of Crime and Policing Studies “Towards Knowledge Led Policing and Security”.

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otherwise the benefits will be diluted. Throughout history we can see the importance of the police service relating to the community it serves; the service must not lose sight of that.

Whilst initially hesitant about pre-join qualifications my research has challenged my own cultural barriers leading me to propose that such a scheme answers many questions raised over the decades. We have seen through the history mapped in this thesis that there has been a desire for new recruits to become operational police officers as soon as possible. If the bulk of their training has been completed prior to joining the service then this option is more feasible and realistic. There will be barrier groups who would use the argument that non-police establishments should not teach police officers. It is time for the service to remember there are many skills required of the twenty-first century police officer, not just an awareness of policing powers and legislation; skills such as problem solving, critical thinking, leadership, customer focus, planning and organising and research are all required by today’s police officers. There are many educational establishments able to deliver such training.

The practical side of the job could still be taught by a tutor constable and if managed through a Professional Development Unit this could be done at a pace adapted to the recruit’s needs. Whilst tutors should be experienced officers they must be carefully selected not only for policing skills but assessed for their skills in briefing, debriefing and encouraging reflective practice. These officers must complete an approved training course before they tutor new recruits. The introduction of Professional Development Units (PDU) as part of the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme is the modern day ‘tutor unit’. The format of these units is different across the forces. In terms of breaking down cultural barriers there are benefits to the PDU being managed by Learning and Development Departments. These would provide operationally based training following a pre-join qualification allowing the immersion of students into an operational world in a carefully managed approach. This would include the ‘cherry picking’ of jobs to deal with, enabling a simple to complex approach. By having some detachment from the operational shifts, there is time for tutors to
manage the essential briefing, debriefing and reflective practice to enable learning.

This approach would result in a new recruit being ready to operate independently much earlier in service. A close relationship between the police service and the course provider would ensure the pre-join course and tutor phase dovetailed to ensure all learning descriptors were met. Once independent, the recruit would continue to work towards the national qualification of Diploma in Policing. This approach has the benefit of reduced training costs. Ironically this is likely to be the key driver for Chief Constables to consider this as an option, even when such schemes have previously been recommended because of the learning and development benefits. Currently as soon as an officer joins the service they are counted as a member of the establishment even though they are not able to patrol independently for many months. If new recruits had completed the bulk of their training before joining, the service would not be left with such a long gap to fill spaces made by retirees or leavers.

The existing pilot pre-join schemes consist of a variety of approaches, further research will need to be conducted to establish the most appropriate course to answer the needs of the service, the recruit and the community, but in principle this approach addresses all the issues raised over the decades. This approach works well for many other professions; there is no reason for the police service to be any different. Despite the service’s best attempts to portray itself as a unique organization, the modern police service is run very much like any other business. There are requirements for business plans, annual reports, scrutiny of spending, financial constraints, resource management, information and technology demands and of course the development of its staff. Undoubtedly the role of a police officer has changed over the decades along with the public view of the police. The service needs to be open to these changes but be careful not to ‘throw the baby out with the bath water’. The continual process of large-scale review is costly and not always appropriate. Evaluation has not always been evident, the service would benefit from an improved evaluative approach that feeds continual development.
The police service needs to be ready to listen to research and respond to change.
Appendix A

The Council House,
Birmingham.

6th May, 1930.

Your ref: P.S.

L/3.

Dear Sir,

Training of Constables.

In reply to your letter of the 2nd instant, I am sure you will appreciate the desire of the Birmingham Watch Committee not to modify the form of their agreement which has been generally accepted by the other authorities concerned.

At the same time I can assure you that as a matter of interpretation the Birmingham police authority would not, for the purpose of this agreement, regard any act performed on the order of any superior officer of the Birmingham police force as being an act done by the attached constable, but rather as the act of the officer giving the order.

In view of this assurance I hope you will now be able to complete the agreement which I am returning herewith.

Yours faithfully,

F. C. Wiltshire
Town Clerk.

H. Christopher Davies Esq.,
Clerk to the Norfolk County Council,
The Shirehouse,
Norwich.
AGREEMENT AS TO THE TRAINING OF CONSTABLES.

WHEREAS the police authority of the County of Norfolk Police Force desire that constables belonging to the said Police Force may from time to time receive training at the police school belonging to the Birmingham Police Authority.

NOW THEREFORE it is agreed on behalf of the said Police Authority that (1) the training of such constables shall be in accordance with the Regulations and Conditions laid down from time to time by the Birmingham Police Authority;

(2) if any such constables in course of training at Birmingham shall be killed or incapacitated for duty by injury received while in Birmingham or shall subsequently die or become incapacitated for duty from the effects of any injury so received any pension gratuity or allowance to such constable or to his widow children or dependants shall be awarded and paid by the police authority for the force of which the constable is a member according to the Police Pensions Acts; and (3) the police authority for the force of which such constable is a member shall keep and hereby undertakes to keep the Birmingham Police Force indemnified against all actions proceedings costs damages or liabilities to be incurred or sustained by them by reason of any acts done by such constable while in Birmingham.

SIGNED this 30th day of June, 19--

on behalf of the Police Authority of the City of Birmingham,
in pursuance of a resolution duly passed on
the ______ day of
in the presence of.
## End of war

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Centre/ Location</th>
<th>District Served</th>
<th>Commentary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>District Police Training Centre, Bruche, Warrington,</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lancashire</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plawsworth, Yorkshire Easingwold</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Easingwold was formerly a Civil Defence School and was used alongside Plawsworth but was closed in July 1948 when Plawsworth took all of the students for this district. Plawsworth was a hutted centre and adjacent to an NCB open cast mine which was being extended it was replaced by Newby Wiske</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pannal Ash, Harrogate, Yorkshire</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Formerly a boarding school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ryton on Dunsmore</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>until 1948 then moved to Mill Meece when Ryton became the National Police College</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eynsham Hall, Nr. Witney, Oxfordshire</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District Police Training Centre, Sandgate Road, Sandgate</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Property purchased by Home Office in 1935. Became No.7 DTC in 1945. Re-opened as Civil Defence Technical School in 1948, later purchased by Dept. of Health and still used today as health engineering training centre – Chantmarle was acquired to take over however this was only as a result of Chief Constables for district complaining as their students were divided between training centres in 1, 4 or 8 District</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastwood Park, Falfield, Gloucestershire</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District Police Training Centre, Bridgend, Glamorgan</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre/Location</td>
<td>Ownership</td>
<td>Description of Premises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bruche, Warrington</td>
<td>Leased from Ministry of Works for 21 years</td>
<td>War-time hostel, temporary buildings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newby Wiske, N. Riding</td>
<td>Owned by Ministry of Works for Home Office</td>
<td>Mansion bought and enlarged by permanent buildings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pannal Ash, Harrogate</td>
<td>Leased from West Riding SJC with undertaking to buy</td>
<td>Boarding school adapted (permanent buildings)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mill Meece, Staffs</td>
<td>Leased from Ministry of Works for 21 years</td>
<td>War-time hostel, temporary buildings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eynsham Hall, Oxon</td>
<td>Leased by Ministry of Works for Home Office</td>
<td>Mansion Adapted and temporary huts built in grounds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sandgate, Kent</td>
<td>Leased by Ministry of Works for Home Office</td>
<td>Convalescent Home adapted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chantmarle, Dorset</td>
<td>Owned by Ministry of Works for Home Office</td>
<td>Mansion bought and being enlarged by permanent buildings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bridgend, Glamorgan</td>
<td>Leased from Glamorgan SJC for 21 years</td>
<td>Annexe to County Police Headquarters, partly in temporary buildings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre/ Location</td>
<td>District Served</td>
<td>Commentary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District Police Training Centre, Bruche, Warrington, Lancashire</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Warrington became part of Cheshire in boundary changes in 1974.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newby Wiske Hall, Northallerton, Yorkshire</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>A detached wing of this centre opened in 1966 at RAF Dishforth as an overflow centre because of an increase in recruitment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pannal Ash, Harrogate, Yorkshire</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District Police Training Centre, Ryton-on Dunsmore, Nr. Coventry, Warwickshire</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>This was initially a District Training Centre but the National Police College established in 1948 for ‘Higher Training’ for senior police officers was created here, this moved to Bramshill in 1953.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eynsham Hall, Nr. Witney, Oxfordshire</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District Police Training Centre, Sandgate Road, Sandgate, Nr. Folkstone, Kent</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Closed in 1975</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Chantmarle”, Cattistock, Nr. Dorchester, Dorset</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District Police Training Centre, Bridgend, Glamorgan</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 1975

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Centre/location</th>
<th>District</th>
<th>Commentary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>District Training Centre, Bruche, Warrington, Cheshire</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1974 local government reforms changed county from Lancashire to Cheshire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newby Wiske Hall, Northallerton, Yorkshire</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Closed in 1976 having been taken over as North Yorkshire Police Headquarters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pannal Ash, Harrogate</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District Police Training Centre, Ryton-on Dunsmore, Nr. Coventry, Warwickshire</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eynsham Hall, Nr. Witney, Oxfordshire</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Closed in 1981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grosvenor Hall, Ashford, Kent</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Purchased by Home Office in 1973, commenced delivering continuation courses but took over initial training for South East when Sandgate closed in 1975 and Eynshall Hall closed in 1981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Chantmarle”, Cattistock, Nr. Dorchester, Dorset</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cwmbran</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Opened in 1975</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Training Centres in 1993

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Centre/Location</th>
<th>Commentary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bruche</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Durham</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ryton on Dunsmore</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ashford</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chantemarle</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cwmbran</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shotley</td>
<td>Opened specifically to pilot the course recommended by stage 2 review, closed in 1999</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Training Centres and Satellite Centres – 2004 (taken from Centrex report on funding situation January 2004)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Centre/Location</th>
<th>Commentary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bruche</td>
<td>As a result of the Crime Fighting Fund, recruitment increased nationally thereby stretching the space available at the six remaining training centres. This led to arrangements for the use of satellite centres, detailed in the table below.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Durham</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ryton on Dunsmore</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ashford</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chantmarle</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cwmbran</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Satellite Centre/Locations</th>
<th>Commentary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Padgate College, Warrington</td>
<td>A former teacher training college</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pannal Ash, Harrogate, Yorkshire</td>
<td>The site at Pannal Ash had become the centre for the development of curriculum materials and the training of trainers, prior to being used as an overflow centre.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Durham</td>
<td>Use of Durham Police Headquarters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ponteland, Northumbria</td>
<td>This was the former police headquarters for Northumbria Police</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hutton, Lancashire</td>
<td>Premises leased from Lancashire Police</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tally Ho, Birmingham</td>
<td>West Midlands Police Training Centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stoneleigh, Warwickshire</td>
<td>An agricultural college</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moreton in the Marsh, Gloucestershire</td>
<td>The fire service training college</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bramshill, Hampshire</td>
<td>This is the site of the Police Training College normally used for leadership training, use was made of the accommodation to assist with the overflow of probationer training.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Bibliography


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<http://www.biglotteryfund.org.uk/index/about-uk/board.htm%20a>


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