

The National Occupational Standards and the Assessment of Student Police Officers

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Abstract of the Thesis

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The focus of this thesis is the assessment of student police officers against the National Occupational Standards for policing, which are intended as a common minimum standard of police performance. The work based assessment of student police officers is a relatively recent phenomenon within the police service and came about as part of the requirements of the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme, an initiative designed to modernise police training. The thesis explains these requirements and sets the assessment of student police officers within the national and local assessment contexts as well as a wider policing context.

By doing so, this thesis will argue that although there is certain logic with the use of the National Occupational Standards because of their intrinsic link with work-based performance and activity, they are not an adequate measure of a student police officer's competence as they do not cater for alternative views of competence and because they are a means of curriculum control. This will be shown through interviews with assessment practitioners, operational police officers and student police officers from a Home Counties constabulary as well as by examining local and national police complaint data, the commendations awarded by the constabulary and letters of appreciation written by members of the public.

The thesis will conclude that the National Occupational Standards do not capture the complexity of the policing context or the policing role. Rather than the narrow focus of the National Occupational Standards, the competence of student police officers should actually be seen within a wider range of attributes, skills and knowledge, which are not reflected in the standards themselves.

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The National Occupational Standards and the Assessment of Student Police Officers: Introduction

In April 2006, all forty-three Home Office police forces in England and Wales were required to implement a programme for the training of student police officers on a devolved basis under the national Initial Police Learning and Development Programme. This initiative also implemented changes in the way student police officers were assessed as competent to perform the role of a police officer. Assessment of student police officers should not be seen as out of the ordinary as “[p]eople are constantly checking up on each other, constantly monitoring the ongoing stream of communicative exchanges and accounts that make up daily life” (Power, 1997, p. 1). However, “[t]hese accounts only become objects of explicit checking in situations of doubt, conflict, mistrust and danger” (Power, 1997, p. 1). As will be shown, it is crucial that student police officers are assessed as competent.

Wass et al highlight the increasing focus on the performance of doctors and on the public demand for assurance that doctors are competent (2001, p. 945). The same is true of policing. Student police officers are assessed because we need to make some sort of judgement about their competence, whether that is couched in terms of skills, knowledge, competence or character. The more information we have about student police officers, the better able we are to make such a judgement. Judgements are made on rather small amounts of evidence so it is important that assessments should be as well designed as possible particularly where the assessment matters

to the individual or the population as a whole, as it would with policing. In order to guarantee safe and competent practice, there is a reliance on assessments to make some quite specific but also far reaching judgements about student police officers' future behaviour (Wolf, 1995, pp. 41-42).

As we shall see, the criteria against which student police officers are assessed were set at a national level but they are subject to regional change. In addition, they are also now subject to further changes within the national qualifications framework. Because of these changes and because the assessment of student police officers is still a relatively recent phenomenon, this thesis therefore will look at the assessment of student police officers. It will examine the criteria student police officers are assessed against at both national and local levels and the role the National Occupational Standards play within the national and local assessment processes. It will also examine the attributes, skills and knowledge those individuals who interact with student police officers feel are important when assessing their competence and which can be identified as being important to the wider context of policing.

This thesis will argue that the suite of National Occupational Standards that are used as a common set of minimum standards for policing and which comprise the current policing qualification do not adequately describe or capture the complexity of the policing role and that they do not meet the needs of assessment practitioners when judging the competence of student police officers. It will also argue that the competence of student police

officers can not be solely couched in terms of the performance criteria, ranges and knowledge and understanding statements of which the National Occupational Standards are comprised, but rather based on a wider range of attributes, skills and knowledge than the National Occupational Standards allows for.

It will become apparent within this thesis that the National Occupational Standards are not the only criteria against which the student police officers are assessed against. However, because they are viewed as common minimum standards and because they form the basis of the policing qualification, they will form the focus of this thesis.

In order to do this, this thesis will look at the assessment of student police officers within a Home Counties constabulary, to be referred to as “the Constabulary”. The Constabulary polices a county approximately 600 square miles in area and home to about 1.1 million residents. Running through the county are a number of main rail and road links both to London as well as the Midlands and the north, resulting in a high volume of people traffic within the county on a daily basis. The county is policed by about 2100 police officers and approximately the same number of police staff. Police staff are employees of the Constabulary who have not been formally attested with the full range of police powers. They cover a range of roles including support functions, such as administration and human resources, as well as a range of operational roles, such as scientific support (scenes of crime and forensics), communication operators in the county control room

and police community support officers, the latter of which have a range of “designated powers”. These designated powers are not as comprehensive or extensive as police powers. There are also approximately 250 special police officers, individuals who volunteer to help police the county but who do not draw a wage for doing so.

The Constabulary itself is divided into three operational areas to the west, centre and east of the county, each with its own area commander. The county itself ranges from a heavily urbanised demographic in the west to more rural in the east and the north. The main police county headquarters is located in the central area of the Constabulary. The Constabulary is headed by a chief constable who is answerable to the local police authority for the way the Constabulary polices the county and spends public money in doing so. The Learning and Development department, which is responsible for the training and assessment of student police officers, has its main centre based in the east of the county along with the student police officer training centre. Another unit is based at the police headquarters.

Chapter One will explain the methodology used in this research. This chapter will highlight some difficulties in researching within a police context, including the issues presented by researching an organisation subject to ongoing changes. It will also highlight some problems with the “insider” research role within such an organisation and the impact this has on the collection of research data for this thesis.

Chapter Two will look at the national context of the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme including national drivers for the changes to training and assessment of student police officers, the nationally mandated assessment criteria and the strengths and weaknesses of that system. Chapter Three will focus on the wider policing context.

Chapter Four of the thesis will look at the local context of the assessment of student police officers, including local reasons for change and local assessment criteria. Chapter Five will examine and describe the reality of the assessment of student police officers at a practitioner level and the role National Occupational Standards actually plays within the decision making processes when the competence of student police officers is formally judged. This will be from the point of view of the Professional Development Unit sergeants who are responsible for the development of student police officers during their first two years of service.

Chapter Six will describe the operationally valued attributes required for policing and explain why these are important to the role of policing. Chapter Seven will look at a range of skills that are not necessarily specific to policing but which are important to the policing function. This will also be set against the wider context of policing and a more general context of the occupational skills requirement at a national level. Chapter Eight will explore the knowledge required to fulfil the policing role.

Lastly there will be a conclusion, which will summarise why, despite the apparent logic behind the use of the National Occupational Standards, they are not a sufficient measure of the competence of student police officers.

Chapter One: Methodology

This thesis was difficult both to research and to write. As will be shown, this was due to organisational changes to the assessment process, the nature of the Constabulary itself and my own position within it. These issues are not unique to a policing organisation but they did present some unique problems to the way this thesis evolved and developed.

The Case Study Approach

I had originally conceived this thesis as a case study for a number of reasons. Before explaining those reasons, it is worth highlighting that there is some debate surrounding the definition of case study itself and its status as a research methodology. According to Stake “case study is not a methodological choice but a choice of what is to be studied. By whatever method, we choose to study the case...as a form of research, case study is defined by interest in individual cases, not by the methods of enquiry used” (Stake, 2000, p. 435; Sarantakos, 1998, pp. 191-192). In contrast, Yin says the “continuing priority is to consider case studies as a method not implying any preferred form of data collection” (2003, p. 4).

However, methodological strategy is the “logic by which you go about answering your research question” (Mason, 2002, p. 30; see also Sarantakos, 1998, pp. 33-34). Methodology involves more than method but method is clearly an integral part of the methodology. The methodological strategy and logic behind this thesis was the case study.

One of the reasons I had thought of this thesis as a case study is that case study has been described as a “bounded system” (Stake, 2000, p. 436 & 1995, p. 2; Norris, 1990, p. 131). My aim was to study the National Occupational Standards and the assessment of student police officers during their initial two year training period within the organisation I worked for, namely a home counties Constabulary. To me these seemed to be very clear boundaries so the research was thought of as a case study.

A central issue that needs to be addressed when conducting a case study is to decide “where to draw the boundaries - what to include and what to exclude and, thus, what is the claim to knowledge that is being made-what is it a case of?” (Stark and Torrance, 2005, p. 33; Stake, 2000, p. 436). The boundaries of this case were “drawn” in a variety of different ways. There are geographic boundaries because assessment within a single constabulary is being considered; there are also subject boundaries as the subject under study is the assessment of student police officers; this case study is also bounded by the people under study, namely the student police officers themselves. Included within the case study are all three policing areas of the Constabulary, a range of assessment criteria including the National Occupational Standards and an overview of what happens at a local level set against the context of what should happen at a national level, both of which are set against the wider context of policing. Excluded are student police officers during their initial sixteen week induction training as they have not yet been exposed to assessment against the National Occupational Standards. Also excluded are any police staff employed by the Constabulary

as they are not subject to assessment against the National Occupational Standards and neither do they have the opportunity to undertake the policing qualification as this is an opportunity open only to student police officers.

A case study approach was also thought appropriate for this thesis because it is “the method of choice when the phenomenon under study is not readily distinguishable from its context” (Yin, 2003, p. 4). Assessment against the National Occupational Standards within the police service is a relatively new phenomenon, and as such, understanding how it works requires the understanding of the people, processes, outcomes and the context (Norris, 1990, p. 131; 2005, p. 6). For the first two years of service, the student police officers are considered to be under training until they are confirmed in the rank of constable at the end of that time. During these two years they will be assessed while completing a series of operational attachments during the first forty-two weeks of their training. This assessment continues into their second year of service when they are working on specific teams and shifts after they have been deemed able to patrol independently without close daily supervision. For all intents and purposes at this point they are treated as substantive officers even though they have not yet been confirmed in that rank. The assessment of student police officers cannot be readily separated from their operational duties, their training or their initial two years of their service. Neither can it be separated from local or national assessment requirements as defined by the Initial Police learning and Development Programme or the wider context of policing.

A possible weakness with a case study approach is that “it is not possible to generalise statistically from one or a small number of cases to the population as a whole” (Stark and Torrance, 2005, p. 33; Sarantakos 1998, p. 192). According to Stake this appears to be less of a problem as the “purpose of a case report is not to represent the world, but to represent the case” (2000, p. 448, 1995, p xi). While “[i]t may be useful to try to select cases which are typical or representative of other cases...a sample of one or a sample of just a few is unlikely to be a strong representation of others. Case study research is not sampling research. We do not understand a case primarily to understand other cases” (Stake, 1995, p. 4 and p. 8).

By researching the assessment of student police officers within the Constabulary, my focus was naturally on what happens within the Constabulary; for me wider generalisation would at best be a secondary consideration. As Bassegy says, it is “noteworthy that not all commentators see it as an essential outcome” (1999, p. 25). What may hold true for the Constabulary may not hold true for other individual police forces or the police service as a whole. However, although “[w]e do not choose case study designs to optimize production of generalizations...valid modification of generalizations can occur in case study” (Stake, 1995, p. 8). This potentially means that conclusions from this thesis may have implications for the consideration of assessment of student police officers on a wider basis than just the Constabulary. Ultimately, the fact that case study does not lend itself easily to wider generalisation does not influence its use as the approach to this thesis because it was the case that was being considered.

Sources of Data and Choice of Research Participants

The case study approach defined what is to be studied and the methods employed for the study naturally sat within this. My original intention was to look at what student police officers wrote as evidence for their assessment portfolios and to compare this with the comments assessors made when assessing this evidence as well as the criteria against which that evidence was being judged. This was because the assessment process was heavily reliant on written evidence and would naturally give rise to a documentary based study and the initial data collection was beginning to yield some interesting results. The personal accounts of events written by the student police officers for assessment against the National Occupational Standards appeared to contain more evidential information than the associated work products, such as incident reports and officer statements. It was these associated work products, rather than the accounts written for assessment, that would potentially go before a court and this raised questions about the role of work product when determining the competence of student police officers. Also, the comments made by assessors and student police officers were remarkably similar to each other and to the terminology used in the National Occupational Standards, which appeared to be paraphrased.

However, there were concerns around the time consuming and bureaucratic nature of the assessment process referred to as “red tape” by Field (1995, p. 37) and the over reliance of a narrow range of assessment methods, namely the accounts written for assessment. As a result, changes were implemented to make the assessment process more balanced across a

range of assessment methods, with observation and discussion based assessments being promoted for wider use. As a result the documentary method of looking at the assessment of student police officers became irrelevant within the organisational context.

These ongoing changes in the Constabulary's assessment processes did not necessarily mean that an alternative methodology was required. I felt that the boundaries of the case study were still relevant. However, it did mean that alternative methods were required and the case study approach was flexible enough to accommodate this. Rather than looking at documentary evidence, a range of data sources was identified instead. These included interviews conducted with the Professional Development Unit sergeants, operational officers and student police officers. I also looked at police complaint statistics, letters of appreciation from members of the public and commendations awarded by the Constabulary.

This did not mean that the sources of data and the choice of research participants were left to chance. "Selection of *data sources* can be left to chance. The people who happen to be there when we happen to be there are not likely to be the best sources of data... 'Best' usually means those that best help us to understand the case, whether typical or not" (Stake, 1995, p. 56). In addition, in looking at the relationship between researcher and participant, Keegan refers to the traditional model of research as power residing with the "expert researcher" and naïve participants (2009, p. 2). However, she believes the research relationship has been redefined and

“[r]esearch participants are regarded as experts in terms of their own experiences” (Keegan, 2009, p. 3). These were the reasons the research participants and data sources were chosen.

The Professional Development Unit sergeants, in this context were the “best” research participants to speak to about the reality of assessing student police officers within the Constabulary as they are the individuals that are making competency judgements about them as an intrinsic part of their role. Due to the way the Constabulary is structured, there is one Professional Development Unit, and hence one Professional Development Unit sergeant, for each of three policing areas which meant that unfortunately the sample size was naturally small.

Each of the Professional Development Unit sergeants was interviewed. The first sergeant I interviewed was interviewed twice. The other two sergeants were interviewed once because an idea was gained of the information required from the interviews with the first sergeant. The interview with the first Professional Development Unit sergeant was rather more structured than the interviews with the other sergeants. However, the basic premise for all the interviews was to determine what decision making processes they followed to assess student police officers, the criteria they used and any specific evidence they were looking for in relation to those criteria. In addition the Professional Development Unit sergeants were asked what four areas they would focus on in order to confirm a student police officer in the rank of constable if there were no assessment portfolios, and as a

consequence no National Occupational Standards or core behaviours against which to assess those student police officers.

Transcripts of the interviews conducted with the Professional Development Unit sergeants were written. These were sent to the sergeants to be commented on. However, in order to analyse the data, their responses as given in the interviews did not remain in the transcribed format. Instead the interview data was divided according to sergeant and also according to key points during the assessment process used within the Constabulary as set out in Chapter Four. This was so the responses of the Professional Development Unit sergeants could be compared more easily and for the data to be laid out more clearly than transcripts would allow (see Appendix 7).

The operational police officers were interviewed because of the wide range of their policing experience, both in terms of length of service, which ranged from two to over thirty years, and the variety of activity they had been or were currently involved in. The officers were of different ranks ranging from police constable to deputy chief constable; included were specialist and operational practitioner roles covering first level (sergeants), middle management (inspector and chief inspector) and senior management (superintendent and above). The operational officers were drawn from a range of departments and areas including Learning and Development, centralised departments based at police headquarters and the three policing areas.

All the operational officers were asked the following question:

“If there were no PDPs and you had to decide whether you wanted a student officer working with you, which four main questions would you focus on?”

They were given the opportunity to have a “bonus” question because the first person I interviewed gave a fifth area they would take into consideration and I wanted to be fair to all the participants. In all cases, I e-mailed officers with a summary of what I wanted to discuss with them before I met them. One officer replied by e-mail and because their written response was very clearly explained, no interview was conducted. No-one declined to participate. Most of the participants gave the four areas they thought important. Only one gave three areas and as mentioned, the first participant gave five.

The interviews for the operational officers were not transcribed because they were relatively short in duration compared to the interviews with the Professional Development Unit sergeants, lasting not more than thirty minutes. The number of interviews conducted and the range of officers interviewed would have made transcribing and checking the content impractical. Confirmation of the main points arising out of the individual interviews was done verbally as a conclusion to the interviews instead.

In order to conduct the analysis, the responses and data, were organised according to key words, which were based on the phrases and words used by the respondents in their interviews. This was similar in approach to that taken by Birzer whose data was organised into “clusters of themes” (2008, p. 205). By arranging the responses under these headings, it reduced the

likelihood of individuals being identified by their rank, role and position as well as by their comments. For example, the higher the rank is within the rank structure, the less post holders there are. Constables are more numerous than officers with the rank of assistant chief constable and above. The deputy chief constable, who was interviewed as part of this data gathering exercise, would be less identifiable as one of twenty-nine respondents than if his rank, of which there is only one in the Constabulary, was used. It also reduced the possibility of inadvertently attaching undue importance to interview responses because of the rank or role of the officer being interviewed. Because the Constabulary operates within a rank structure, the views and opinions of senior ranks could easily be seen as more pertinent and relevant than ranks lower down the structure.

The key words were either positive (for example, honesty) or negative (for example, dishonest). Some of the headings are amalgams, for example, comments relating to honesty, integrity and trustworthiness appear under one heading because these concepts are very closely related and were linked in some of the responses the officers themselves gave. Officers would talk about honesty and integrity in the same sentence and not differentiate between the two. The heading of "Knowledge and Understanding of Law and Procedures" includes comments with the key words of law, legislation, standard operating procedures, policies, procedures and processes. Again these were too interlinked to separate.

When conducting the interviews, the responses of the officers “felt” very similar to each other and by arranging the responses under individual headings and key words, this was confirmed to some extent. Although sixteen of the headings had two responses or less, the remaining nine had three or more responses. Answers given by the operational police officers were very similar across all the ranks and roles that were interviewed. Because the interviews were relatively quick to complete, it suggests that the answers the officers gave were the most salient to them as a result of their own policing experiences. When grouping the responses, they divided naturally into three areas namely skills, attributes and knowledge, although responses from officers were most divergent under the area of personal attributes as there were the greatest number of key words with two or less responses (see Appendix 8).

I decided to conduct group interviews with three intakes of student police officers to provide additional context to the interviews I conducted with the Professional Development Unit sergeants and the operational police officers. For example, while the Professional Development Unit sergeants would have to be certain that student police officers were competent as substantive officers at the end of their initial two years of service, the student police officers would have to prove that competence and as such they would have a view of what competence means to them.

I had also wanted to speak to student police officers because I felt they would be more task focused in defining what made a student police officer

competent. I thought they would focus their discussions and answers on arresting, the completion of files and presenting a detainee to custody, to name a few of the tasks they are expected to undertake, rather than considering wider behaviours and other skill areas. However, the answers given by the student officers were more in keeping than I thought with the responses given previously by the operational officers in highlighting the types of knowledge, skills and personal attributes deemed as important for a competent police officer.

Each of the three intakes of student police officers had a different length of service. Intake 1 were student police officers with approximately 30 weeks of service, Intake 2 was a course with approximately 36 weeks of service and Intake 3 was a course with approximately 60 weeks of service. There was a sizeable gap between the second and third intakes because there are no courses scheduled between weeks 42 and 60 of service within the student police officers' initial two years of service. Each intake varied in number. Intake 1 had nine students, Intake 2 had sixteen students and Intake 3 had twenty-one students.

The intakes of student police officers were asked the following question:

“If there were no PDPs and you had to prove to your area commander that you should work on their area, what four main areas would you talk to them about?” They were also asked to explain their choice of answer.

As the number of intakes of student police officers formed a smaller sample size than the number of operational police officers that were interviewed, the responses the student police officers gave were recorded as comments per intake rather than by keywords. Unlike the operational police officers that were interviewed, the responses given by the student police officers were more varied in nature. Overall, Intake 1's answers were very much orientated to the assessment portfolio and performance management. For example, they spoke about the core competencies, namely the seven core behaviours and their reviews against these as would show "areas of strengths and weaknesses" (see Appendix 9). They also referred to their attendance and discipline records as these would be a good selling point if these were "all OK" (see Appendix 9). In addition they mentioned career aspirations as short and long term goals would highlight commitment to the role (see Appendix 9). However, this was the intake with the least amount of service and experience and they would have been the least able to relate their answers to the realities of operational policing.

The responses of the other two intakes' reflected the responses given by the operational police officers I interviewed to a much greater extent than Intake 1 and this was especially true of the responses of Intake 2. Intake 2 highlighted among other traits decisiveness ("you need to be able to make decisions quickly on the street"), team working ("we need to work as part of a team"), resilience, reliability, knowledge, communication, adaptability, honesty and bravery ("still do what we have to do even if we are scared on the inside") (see Appendix 9).

Intake 3's answers were given with respect to resources. They spoke about the types of jobs they did and for them, the results they produced were important in measuring the competence of a student police officer because "there is never enough resources and they always want you to do more." This was echoed in their views on flexibility. For example, on certain shifts they were required to work in the custody suite or as an enquiry officer in the front office of a police station "to fill in gaps in resources" (see Appendix 9). Like Intake 1, they mention attendance but this was from the point of view they could not let the team down if there were no resources (see Appendix 9).

The three intakes had different perspectives on competence and policing but there was some commonality in their responses. All three intakes mentioned knowledge of law and procedures, communication and team working.

Intake 3 had the longest amount of service and would have firsthand experience of what working at an operational level meant in reality. However, they would not have had enough experience to separate the skills and attributes required to carry out the role of a police officer from the difficulties of delivering the job of policing due to resourcing and other organisational issues. The other two intakes were still undertaking their attachments so their working environments were more protected. None of the intakes of student police officers had the experience or length of service required to internalise what it actually means to be a police officer. For these reasons, only three intakes of student officers were spoken to.

The Professional Development Unit sergeants and eighteen of the operational police officers were interviewed individually. Interviewing is a difficult skill and the interviewee may be pleased to contribute, irritated because of the time taken or frightened (Bassey, 1999, p. 81). Certainly one of the Professional Development Unit sergeants had concerns over whether they were assessing student police officers in the “right” way. I felt it was necessary to explain to each of the Professional Development Unit sergeants that my aim was not to highlight any shortcomings in the way they were assessing student police officers but to determine why there were making the assessment decisions they were. The social skills of the interviewer in relating sensitively to the participants and cognitive skills in discovering what they think are important is essential (Bassey, 1999, p. 81). However, It helped me to draw upon the existing relationships I had with the participants when I interviewed them. Using interviews as a research method gave the participants an opportunity to voice any justifications they have for holding a particular view or opinion and allowed both them and me to clarify any misunderstandings when discussing the assessment of student police officers (Sarantakos, 1998, p. 266).

Due to the numbers involved, I was unable to interview students individually but had to speak to them in a group environment. Eleven of the operational police officers were also interviewed as a group. This was done when they attended training courses. For the classes of both the operational police officers and the student police officers, I did consider the idea of asking them to complete some type of questionnaire. Although this would have been the

least disruptive to the delivery of the courses they were attending, I felt this would have compromised the quality of the data I would have been given as there would have been no interaction between the officers and myself. There would also have been little opportunity to explore and clarify the comments they had made. Instead I divided the classes into smaller groups and asked them to discuss the question I was asking them; I then debriefed their answers with the class as a whole.

There was a risk that this group approach may have affected individual views because group interviews are subject to the dynamics working within the group. Some participants may be more willing than others to share their views and participate in a group discussion. There is also a danger that more vocal and confident members of the group would dominate the discussion and this would make it easy for quieter participants to “hide”. This could potentially have affected any data that was collected but this was considered against the large amounts of data that can be generated in a relatively short space of time (Robson, 2002, pp. 284-286; Sarantakos, 1998, pp. 185-186). However, the groups managed the issues around group dynamics themselves to some extent because they ensured each member had the opportunity to give their views. The smaller groups the classes were divided into numbered no more than three or four individuals and these small groups decided amongst themselves that each member would pick one point they wanted to put forward for the class based discussions.

In order to determine what was important to the Constabulary regarding the competence of student police officers, its “mission” statements were looked at and also the commendations that have been awarded. The “mission” statements are a series of documents publicised throughout the Constabulary and available to its employees as well as to the public, that set out what the Constabulary is aiming to achieve and how it will achieve it. These documents include attributes the organisation believes is essential for delivery against these statements. The statements considered as part of the research for this thesis were the Constabulary’s service commitment, its diversity statement and its overarching vision statement. Because these are publicised throughout the Constabulary, it can reasonably be assumed that the details contained within them reflect issues of importance to the organisation. The statements all follow a similar format, with a broad aim outlining what the Constabulary intends to do and how it will achieve this.

The commendations would show what the Constabulary as an organisation thinks is worthy of recognition. The Constabulary runs a variety of schemes designed to recognise employees for outstanding work that is delivered over and above the normal course of their duties as defined in their role profiles. While some of these schemes are monetary in nature, for example, bonus and honoraria payments, others involve the awarding of commendations, which are formally presented at Constabulary award ceremonies. Individuals are nominated for commendations by managers or other individuals they have worked with. The highest commendation is that awarded by the chief constable while other commendations are awarded by heads of department

or commanders of the three policing areas. The citations of the commendations are formulaic in nature but they do highlight the qualities that the Constabulary deems important enough to reward with the awarding of commendations at various levels. This is regardless of whether the officers who were awarded the commendations in reality consistently embody these qualities in everything they do.

Commendations for the past two years were collated. Some commendations were very similar in nature and occurred when a number of people were commended for the same activity, for example, they were all part of the same investigation team working on the same investigation. The commendations in these cases were the same except for slight differences in wording to take into account the different areas of responsibilities of the individuals being commended.

In the past two years there were over seventy commendations awarded to police officers. Those awarded to police staff were not included. For the most part commendations were awarded as a result of operational activity, such as investigation (45), kidnap (6) and apprehending offenders (2). Five commendations were awarded for non-operational project work, four for administering first aid and one for dealing with an attempted suicide. For most commendations, recipients ranged in rank from constable to chief inspector. Few were for ranks higher than chief inspector.

All of the commendations were looked at. They were not sampled at all as they are not time dependent and there are no particular patterns when specific commendations are awarded. Instead they are dependent on when the particular activity for which they are being presented concluded and when the commendations themselves were agreed and awarded, a process which can be quite lengthy. In addition, no distinction was made between the commendations awarded by the chief constable and those awarded by the heads of department or the commanders of the three policing areas as the language used on all of the commendations is very similar. A simple tally was made of how many times key words and phrases were used within the commendations. These also divided naturally into three core areas, namely personal attributes, skills and operational skills. This is in contrast to the responses of the operational police officers who were interviewed, which divided into personal attributes, skills and knowledge.

Complaint data and letters of appreciation were used because views of the general public were not easy to access. It was not practical to interview members of the public although this was the approach Birzer took in his study to determine what makes a good police officer. However, just thirty two people were interviewed out of a total local population of 354,000 which meant, as Birzer says, that since “this was a qualitative research study, which utilised a small non-random sample, implications for practice are offered with caution” (2008, p. 208). The complaint data and letters of appreciation would highlight what issues members of the public felt strongly about, either in a negative way as shown by the complaint data, or in a

positive way, as exemplified by the letters of appreciation. However, these would be the views of individuals who had engaged in these processes and not the views of the public as a whole.

As discussed above, the organisational viewpoint of the Constabulary and the views of members of the public were gained by looking at “mission” statements and letters of appreciation. Documentary evidence such as these potentially provide a rich source of information (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995, pp. 173-4). They offer an insight into the Constabulary and the public that would be difficult or impossible to gain otherwise. However, they cannot be “treated as unproblematically neutral or transparent expectations of ‘reality’ ” (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995, p. 169). Despite the “rich vein of analytical topics they provide” such as who writes the documents, how are they read, their purpose and context (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995, pp. 173-4), unlike interviews, documents cannot be further explored or any misunderstandings clarified. To some extent they are a “snapshot” but their use with other sources of data such as the complaint data or the commendations “will give a fuller picture than would be possible by using just one of these sources” (McCulloch, 2004, p. 129).

Each of these sources of evidence was discreet in themselves and can be seen as a series of smaller bounded studies with their own definable boundaries. For a summary, please see Table 1 below.

Table 1: Research Participants and Data Sources

Research Participants	Method/Type of Evidence	Rationale
Professional Development Unit Sergeants	Interview	To gain views of assessment practitioners
Student Officers	Focus groups	To gain views of those being assessed
Operational Officers	Focus groups; interviews	To gain views of policing practitioners
Data Sources	Method/Type of Evidence	Rationale
Complaint Data	Statistical	To access views of the public
Letters of Appreciation	Documentary	To access views of the public
Commendations	Documentary	To highlight issues important to the Constabulary
Mission Statements	Documentary	To highlight issues important to the Constabulary

Emergent Enquiry

The research design for the thesis did not follow what Keegan calls a classical research model, where unstructured data is gathered, analysed and interpreted resulting in a structured logical research outcome, a process that has a “more fixed, linear quality” (Keegan, 2009, p. 8). This was hard to do when the organisational context was subject to change (see above and Chapter Four). I had to find ways of looking at the assessment of student police officers that would not be adversely impacted by the changes that were taking place within the organisational context. If this was not done the thesis itself would have to change on an ongoing basis to keep pace. To do this, instead of making the assessment portfolios the focus of the thesis, I “researched around” the assessment process itself. As a result the research “emerged” as time progressed, and instead focused on a series of small studies as described above. Bassey acknowledges that “[r]esearch is a

creative activity and every activity has its own unique character” but that it is still a “systematic” activity (1999, p. 65). However, the term “systematic” is too rigid to describe the research process for this thesis. Keegan says that “emergent inquiry is fluid and can be visualised as a spiral-although in reality it is a myriad of interconnected spirals” (2009, p. 8). Certainly this thesis with its series of studies can be seen in this way.

In talking about emergent inquiry, Keegan says the principles of emergent inquiry are relevant throughout the research process and opens up other areas for consideration; as a result she asks “why...researchers separate the research objectives from the research itself, if both are part of a process of iterative learning?” (2009, p. 11). She believes that in determining the research problem, the answer is also partially determined. She gives an example of some research into new designs of shoes which, despite being popular with the target audience, were not selling well in store. This was because the target audience did not want to shop at the store the shoes would be sold in (Keegan, 2009, p. 11). She concludes by saying that from an “emergent enquiry perspective, however, problem definition is a natural part of the research process, not a separate exercise” (Keegan, 2009, p. 12). Again this echoes the process that took place with this thesis. Due to the changes in the assessment process it was difficult to define the research question or problem at the outset of the research. This evolved as the research progressed. However, always present was the broad aim to research the assessment of student police officers.

The “Insider” Research Approach

Stake says that “[a]lmost always, data gathering is done on somebody’s ‘home grounds’ “(1995, p. 57). In this case the “home grounds” were my own as I have been employed by the Constabulary since January 2002. I have held a variety of positions within the Learning and Development Department, firstly as a training officer. This is a position that primarily designs and delivers the training given to police officers and police staff working within the Constabulary. It was a role I moved into with prior training experience but without prior police experience. In March 2004, I became a course designer for the project responsible for the implementation of the Constabulary’s Initial Police Learning and Development Programme. As one of two course designers, my remit was to design and deliver the class-based learning sessions for each of the four attachment modules (see Chapter Four). Approximately a year later I was promoted to project manager and became responsible for implementing a further element of the Constabulary’s Initial Police Learning and Development Programme, the initial sixteen week induction training. Again, about a year later I was confirmed as the team leader of the team responsible for delivering the induction training before being promoted to the senior management team of the Learning and Development Department in August 2007, which is a position I still hold. My involvement in the training of student police officers and in the development and implementation of the Constabulary’s Initial Police Learning and Development Programme, makes the choice of the assessment of student police officers as a research subject a natural one.

There is no doubt that working within the Constabulary and my involvement with the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme in a variety of capacities brings me distinct advantages as a researcher. As Labaree states, “whether the concept of being on the inside is related to non-academic work or not, the implication is that there is a ‘definite advantage’ associated with insiderness” (2002, pp. 102-3). There are also distinct disadvantages. There is also debate within the academic literature about the proposed merits, or not, of both insider and outsider research positions.

It has been suggested that one problem I will face as an internal researcher is “the maintenance of objectivity and accuracy. This, of course, rests on the assumption that some manner of objectivity is possible” (Labaree, 2002, p. 107). This implies that as an internal researcher I am not able to be objective about my research. As an internal researcher, I am assumed to possess a considerable amount of pre-constructed assumptions and knowledge about the Constabulary and the assessment process (Labaree, 2002, p. 107). External researchers are considered to have recourse to methods of triangulation, interviewing multiple participants, document analysis and the study of material culture to gain as accurate picture of reality as possible (Labaree, 2002, p. 107).

However, these methods are also available to researchers working within the organisation they are researching. I would also argue that objectivity and accuracy are issues for all researchers, whatever their status in relation to the organisation they are researching. My knowledge of the Constabulary,

instead of being a set of “pre-constructed assumptions”, provides a framework for my research. This means that I do not need to spend time learning the context in the same way as an external researcher would have to (Saunders et al, 2000, p. 224). As a consequence, my understanding of the background to the assessment of student police officers may be more accurate than that of an external researcher. In addition the police service is subject to a great deal of public scrutiny and researchers from outside the Constabulary may have their own stereotypes and assumptions about the police service, which may subsequently affect the objectivity and accuracy of their own research findings. According to Sheptycki, my “insider status” gives me a “more privileged view of the police organisation” although he does qualify this statement by adding that in order to render the Constabulary more transparent to the outside world I would have to “come out” (1994, p 129).

Issues surrounding familiarity have also been highlighted as disadvantages facing an internal researcher. Labaree believes it “hides the opportunity for the ordinary and the mundane to inform the study” (2002, p 108). Saunders et al have suggested that familiarity with the research organisation means that researchers from within the organisation do not ask basic questions about it because the questions would be ones that internal researchers feel they already know the answer to (2000, p. 224). This is a sweeping statement and does not take into account the differing personal and professional experiences of the researcher involved nor does it take into account the culture and structure of the organisation. I had no experience of

policing prior to joining the Constabulary and as a member of police staff I have no firsthand experience of operational policing. Even though my level of knowledge has improved since I joined the Constabulary in 2002, there will always be times when I cannot presume to know the answers, particularly in connection with more operationally focussed policing matters. Equally there are advantages with familiarity. I would have a far deeper understanding of any processes and practices being discussed during research interviews than an outsider researcher. I would also share a common understanding of language, for example, organisational jargon would not need to be explained to me.

According to Sheptycki, “[r]ather than being seen as a limitation, the outsider status of academic researchers can be turned around. If the research subjects (*ie* police officers) are, understandably, unwilling to disclose all, the academic is at least able to step back from the institutional context and take a dispassionate view. They can see the organisational structure of the institution better, at least potentially, because they have no vested interests to protect” (1994, p. 127). Sheptycki holds this view despite ironically citing the example of Punch. Punch conducted research with the Dutch police and could find no instances of misconduct or malpractice when his findings were first published. The organisation was revisited, further research was conducted and as a result a further set of research conclusions were published which had a vastly different set of outcomes. According to Sheptycki “Punch may have had the wool pulled over his eyes in the first instance, but in the end his academic interest yielded insight into the police

organisation that is seldom achieved” (Sheptycki, 1994, p 127). In my view, this is not a particularly strong or credible example to use to highlight the advantages of an outsider research position over that of an insider research position. An internal researcher may have had an initial awareness of the issues that Punch lacked.

Marks says that police members are often suspicious of outsiders and the “information that researchers who are not familiar with the internal workings of the police organization may receive may be somewhat less reliable, as police members conceal what they believe to be ‘in-house’ knowledge” (Marks, 2004, p. 871). As someone working within the police service, following Marks’ argument, I would presumably have more knowledge of this “in-house” information and this could potentially mean that the data I collect would be more reliable than that of an outsider researcher. However, as the example of Punch shows, a researcher’s objectivity and the accuracy of their research does not necessarily follow from their position relative to the organisation they are researching but instead their own capabilities as a researcher.

Saunders et al highlight the greater level of access that is available to internal researchers (2000, pp. 117 and 224). I do not face the problems associated with negotiating physical access to the organisation being researched, either on an initial or on an ongoing basis that could be faced by a researcher external to the Constabulary. I have access already. This access is not purely confined to my physical access to the Constabulary but

also relates to my ability to obtain certain types of information (Labaree, 2002, p. 104; Cole, 1991, pp. 159-166). I have direct access to documentation relating to the assessment of student police officers, for example, meeting minutes, assessment criteria and related documentation. As a result of my current role, I attend meetings, forums and other events on local, regional and national levels where the assessment of student police officers is discussed and decisions made.

Stake says “[t]here is no particular moment when data gathering begins. It begins before there is commitment to do the study: back grounding, acquaintance with other cases, first impressions. A considerable proportion of all data is impressionistic, picked up informally as the researcher first becomes acquainted with the case. Many of these early impressions will later be refined or replaced, but the pool of data includes the earliest of observations” (1995, p. 49). As an insider I will have had more exposure to this kind of data gathering than an external researcher.

I also have access to people. I had already established relationships with the Professional Development Unit sergeants during the course of my involvement with the Constabulary’s Initial Police Learning and Development Programme before I interviewed them for this thesis. I also had pre-existing relationships with some of the operational police officers I spoke to as a result of my time with the Constabulary and I was able to include any data gathering activity with meetings I had already scheduled with them for the purposes of my current role. I interviewed some of the operational police

officers and all of the student police officers when they were attending courses at the Constabulary's training centre where I am based. I was able to speak to the course trainers and arrange to use any free time on courses to speak to groups of sergeants and intakes of student police officers. Information regarding the public point of view was accessed via the Constabulary's Professional Standards Department, a department responsible for complaints and managing misconduct within the organisation. I had spoken to the head of the department as he was one of the operational police officers I interviewed and he gave me the name of an analyst who was able to assist me. Researchers from outside of the Constabulary may not have this same level of access and they would need to have some idea of the information they needed in order to conduct their research before they could even negotiate access to it. There is no doubt that my insider research position meant that I had a high level of access.

However, my ease of access cannot be seen as an absolute advantage. The letters of appreciation were a selection that the analyst working within the Professional Standards Department, allowed me to have copies of. I was informed by her that they were a "representative" sample of the types of letters that are written and sent to the Constabulary. However, the fact remains that the sample was not chosen by me but by someone else. This means that not only is the sample size small and but also that I potentially may not have had access to the information I actually needed for my research but instead what the analyst thought would be useful to me.

Brown, while acknowledging the value of insider knowledge also highlights the “tense role conflicts between being a policeman and a researcher” (1996, p. 182; see also Brown & Walters, 1993, p. 328). The same applies to my position as an employee against which I had to balance my role as a researcher for the duration of this thesis. I am employed by the Constabulary as a training manager and this would naturally take priority over my role as a student conducting research for a doctoral thesis. There were occasions when the time I had scheduled during my working week to conduct research for my thesis had to be used to meet the requirements of my role as a training manager.

This was similar in situation to the police officers and police staff I relied upon to assist me in my research. They also had their own jobs and roles to undertake and I was conscious that any help they could give me could not take priority over any business activity they were involved in. As a result a pragmatic approach had to be taken when speaking to the research participants. This was so that I could gather information from them in way that meant participation in the research would not be a burden on their time or patience wherever possible. Each of the three Professional Development Unit sergeants was interviewed. For two of the interviews, I arranged meetings to see the sergeants specifically for that purpose at the police stations they were based. For the third, the sergeant was attending another meeting at the office building I worked at and agreed to arrive early so we could conduct the interview without his schedule being unduly burdened and without a lengthy journey for me to the other side of the county.

A similar approach was taken to ensure the participation of the twenty nine operational police officers in the research. Eighteen of them were interviewed at their home stations or at the end of meetings I had already booked with them for work purposes. Eleven of the operational officers, who were questioned as a group while they were on a management training course at the Constabulary's main training centre, which is also where my office is based. The three intakes of student police officers were also interviewed when they were attending courses there. This was the easiest and most convenient way to conduct the interviews for both the research participants and for me.

However, this method of conducting the research and the business requirements of my own role within the Constabulary did adversely impact the amount of data I could gather. This was compounded by the sense of "outstaying my welcome". On the whole, the individuals I spoke to in the course of my research were always very gracious about helping me with background information or as research participants but there were "limits" to their co-operation. While no-one overtly refused to help, there were instances of non-engagement. I interviewed one of the Professional Development Unit sergeants twice and sent him transcripts of the interviews to read through and query if necessary. The first transcript was returned very swiftly. However, the second one was returned after a matter of weeks and some questions for additional information I was looking for went unanswered. Likewise, the analyst I spoke to about the complaints data and letters of appreciation offered to read the overview of the complaints system I

had written and offered support regarding further data. Unfortunately, this support did not materialise. Working within the Constabulary did not always give me automatic and unlimited access to the information and data I needed.

Often researchers are seen as being either inside of or outside of the organisation they are researching and Labaree refers to the volume of literature devoted to the insider-outsider debate (2002, p. 99). Distinct advantages and disadvantages are connected to both statuses and the use of the terms “insider”/“insiderness” and “outsider”/“outsiderness” highlights the dichotomy between the two (Labaree, 2002, p. 99). In contrast, Merriam et al conclude that “in a course of a study, not only will the researcher experience moments of being both insider and outsider, but that these positions are relative to the cultural values and norms of both the researcher and the participants” (2001, pp. 415-416).

The situation I believe is more subtle than this. As a researcher I am an “insider” in the sense that I am an employee of the Constabulary and because I am part of the management processes that oversee, review and maintain the assessment of student police officers. At the same time, I am less of an “insider” because I am not subject to the assessment process myself either as an assessor or a student police officer. At times, I am less of an “insider” than at others but I am never completely on the “outside” due to the level of knowledge and involvement I have with the assessment process and the Constabulary.

Similarly, I am never completely on the inside either. I am not “inside” the management structure, departments or the policing areas the research participants or the other individuals that gave me assistance with my research work within. Watts was in a similar position regarding her research. Although not an engineer she had worked in the civil engineering hydraulics sector as an independent consultant for many years (Watts, 2006, p. 388). Because I was asking for help with my own research and not with something that I had been tasked to do by the organisation, I became less on the “inside”. These factors taken together meant that I felt I was in a relatively weak position when asking for further assistance after initial offers of help were granted. I was reliant on the goodwill of colleagues to engage with my research and I did not want to make any great demands on individuals at the risk of damaging existing professional and working relationships.

While working within the Constabulary brings me advantages as a researcher it also brings responsibilities. Labaree discusses these issues and they centre on positional, ethical and methodological dilemmas (2002, pp 106-115). I have a professional relationship with all the individuals I have interacted with during the course of my research. As a result of that, I have a duty of care to ensure that the information they give me is not taken out of context or misrepresented and I also have to ensure their anonymity. This is why the term “the Constabulary” is used and there are no references to names. The Constabulary’s Initial Police Learning and Development Programme is internally branded but this branding has not been used again

for the sake of anonymity. In some cases assuring anonymity is easier for some than for others.

References were made to letters of appreciation without mentioning the details of the authors and the incidents or the police officers they were writing about. For the operational police officers, again names were not used and neither were ranks. The numbers of individuals holding particular ranks become less numerous the further up the rank structure they sit. Sergeants are more numerous than the deputy chief constable, of which there is only one within the Constabulary and who would be easily identifiable. The intake numbers and names were not used when referring to student police officers and with an average of 120 student police officers being recruited by the Constabulary each year, it is relatively easy to guarantee anonymity. It would be difficult to narrow down both the operational police officers and the student police officers to a confirmed identity. However, there are issues with the anonymity of the Professional Development Unit sergeants. There are only three of these within the Constabulary and their identities are well known throughout the organisation.

An external researcher also has these responsibilities but unlike an external researcher I cannot separate myself from any consequences or repercussions that my research has for the Constabulary and the people who have participated. An external researcher can walk away once the research has concluded. I am not able to. While my position as an internal

researcher does give me certain advantages these are not absolute and they contain hidden dilemmas I had to be aware of (Labaree, 2002, p. 116).

The fact that I am unable to walk away from my research setting, namely the Constabulary, in turn brought additional problems. The organisational context of my research was subject to change (see above and Chapter Four) and as an external researcher, I would have been able to change locations and could have decided to conduct my research in a different constabulary. As an employee of the Constabulary, this was not a practicable option particularly as my doctoral course was funded by the organisation. As a result, I felt I was, to a great extent, trying to keep pace with organisational change while conducting my research and the difficulty in doing this can be seen in the amount of data I was able to collect.

The Richness of the Case

Changes to the organisational context in relation to the assessment of student police officers and my own position as a researcher combined to make this thesis problematic to research and to write and as a result affected my own views on the richness of the case. Due to the organisational changes, I found that my research “emerged” over time and as an “insider” researcher whose research was being funded by the Constabulary, I was unable to change my research setting. The structure of the Constabulary meant that some of the sample sizes were naturally small. My own position as an insider researcher, while giving me some distinct advantages, particularly with the ease and range of access, also gave me some equally

distinct disadvantages. I was reliant on the goodwill of colleagues to assist me with my research and any assistance was determined by the workloads of the individuals involved and the operational necessities of the Constabulary. This directly affected the amount of data I was able to collect and the combination of all of these factors led me to feel dissatisfied with the “richness” of this case study. To me, “richness” was bound up with the size of the samples I had worked with and the amount of data I had collected.

However, the richness of a case study is not necessarily determined by these factors. Yin links richness and context (2004, p. 4). There are a number of contexts to this case study, including the broader policing context as well as the national and local assessment contexts. Stake says a “[c]ase study is the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case” (1995, p xi). The factors described above which made this case study difficult to research also add to its complexity.

Stark and Torrance believe that the strength of the case study is that it can take an example of an activity and use multiple methods and data sources to explore and interrogate it (2005, p. 33). Similarly Yin points out that the “study cannot rely on a single data collection method but will likely need to use multiple sources of evidence” (2003, p. 4). In this case the assessment of student police officers is explored thorough the interviews and focus groups with the Professional Development Unit sergeants, operational police officers and student police officers as well as through complaint data, letters

of appreciation and organisational mission statements and commendations (see Table 1).

The richness of the case therefore comes not from the sample sizes or the amount of data collected but instead how well the case, its context and complexity are described, explored and interrogated; it also comes from describing different perspectives from a number of sources. This is what this thesis has attempted to do.

Chapter Two: The National Context-Assessment

Background

In April 2006 all forty-three forces in England and Wales were required to adopt the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme, a national initiative which fundamentally changed the way student police officers were trained and assessed. This initiative came into being after a number of reviews, conducted in recent years, highlighted a range of issues with police training, and in particular the training of student police officers.

In April 1999, as a result of a study of police training by Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary, the "Managing Learning" report stated that there were "current problems in police training at a local and a national level" (HMIC, 1999, p. 1). This found that national courses were not being run at capacity with dropout rates of up to 29%, training and human resources strategies were inadequate, a third of forces were unable to provide a detailed breakdown on their expenditure on training and distance learning was poorly developed and supported (HMIC, 1999, p. 1).

There were some pockets of good practice highlighted in this report such as forces aligning training to national standards such as National Vocational Qualifications, the use of competency frameworks to identify training needs, the development of effective links with universities and local colleges to provide accreditation for certain types of training and a growing number of forces establishing learning resource centres (HMIC, 1999, p. 1). Change

was called for because as “we approach a new millennium the Police Service must keep pace with change. The rising demand for police services coupled with the high expectations of the public place increasing emphasis upon the performance of individual staff” (HMIC, 1999, p. 1).

“Managing Learning” recommended that police training should become more “outward-facing”, training expenditure at national and local levels should be clearly defined, that greater use should be made of new technologies and alternatives to class-based learning explored to provide more targeted and efficient training solutions and that a national training evaluation strategy should be implemented to ensure training results are “commensurate with the Service’s substantial investment” (HMIC, 1999, p. 2). To achieve this, staff must be “encouraged to take greater responsibility for their own lifelong learning”, “[p]rofessional development and multi-skilling must take centre stage” and “the Service must draw on training expertise and good practice outside the police organisation by capitalising on existing links with communities, business and academic institutions and by forging new, innovative partnerships in the wider world of training” (HMIC, 1999, p. 2).

Also in 1999, McClure and Stubbs reported to the Home Secretary about the organisation and funding of police training as a result of concerns “about the content and quality of police training, its costs and the fact that they are not consistently known, its structures and its responsiveness to the needs of forces, amongst other matters” (McClure and Stubbs, 1999, p 4). In contrast to the “Managing Learning” report, this study was more focused on the

financial aspect of police training, but covered similar themes such as standards of policing, delivery of training, quality of training, structures and funding. Recommendations from this report included collaborative approaches to training, regular external inspection of the delivery of police training, evaluation of the effectiveness of training regarding its impact on performance and a “market mechanism” to fund police training including transparent costing of training (McClure and Stubbs, 1999, pp. 1-3).

However, the defining report on police training was Her Majesty’s Inspectorate of Constabulary’s thematic entitled “Training Matters” which was published in 2002. This highlighted that “in broad terms, the format of probationer constable training in England and Wales has, in reality, altered little over the last 60 years” (HMIC, 2002, p. 91). It also stated that “with the exception of minor changes to include newly acted criminal legislation, the PTP (probationer training programme) curriculum content has changed little over the past 20 years and it is highly unlikely that the current format meets the needs of the twenty-first century” (HMIC, 2002, pp. 21 and 43).

A number of areas of concern were highlighted. It was felt that the “strategic structures which exist to manage police training, and in particular probationer training, have not been effective. The relationship between differing committees is often blurred and their responsibilities are unclear, with many of the recent ... changes appearing to have been made without proper tripartite partner consultation, communication or accountable decision” (HMIC, 2002, p. 21). In addition, diversity training has relied too heavily on

learning within the police environment rather than the community and as a result there was insufficient community involvement in police training (HMIC, 2002, pp. 22 and 24). The inconsistency of training delivery and lack of quality assurance was also highlighted. Without robust and effective evaluation processes in place, this report found it was difficult to know whether police training was meeting its aims and objectives. “Training Matters” concluded that “[e]valuation of training by the Service has in the past been poor, and little has been done to ensure that communities’ views are taken into account. There are also few quality assurance processes in place to ensure the consistency of training delivery on a Service-wide basis” (HMIC, 2002, p. 22).

It was as a direct consequence of this report that the initiative to modernise the way student police officers were trained, the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme, was conceived. Forces and police authorities became responsible for ensuring that the training of the student officers was relevant to policing in their area and to the needs of their communities (HMIC, 2007, p. 2).

There were a number of recurrent and interlinked themes that defined the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme. These included the financing of training to achieve best value, the structure and management of training, training delivery, evaluation and quality assurance and also the greater involvement of the community in police training (HMIC, 2002). Her Majesty’s Inspectorate of Constabulary recommended that “the Probationer

Training Programme as a whole for every new officer be to a single national design and delivered as far as possible, under centralised management arrangements but with regional or local facilities” (HMIC, 2002, p. 108). Under the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme police training was devolved away from national police training establishments and into forces. This was to “make it as family friendly and accessible as possible, and an emphasis was placed on the provision of more community-based training” (HMIC, 2007, p. 2).

The Rationale behind the National Occupational Standards

These reviews underline the justifiable preoccupation with police training not least because as McClure and Stubbs say “[h]igh standards of attitude, knowledge and skills are essential to effective policing” (McClure and Stubbs, 1999, p. 6). Although they have slightly different focuses, the reviews are all united in their call for the introduction of National Occupational Standards. Indeed, as McClure and Stubbs say “All the evidence we have heard and read points to a clear consensus that the training needed by the service should be derived from a set of national occupational standards for policing” (1999, p. 6). Not surprisingly, White says that the “refrain ‘We need national standards’ has reverberated around police training establishments since the mid-1990s ... but what was not reported was *why* we need them” (White, 2006, pp. 389-390).

The studies and reports mentioned here, in contrast to White’s view, seem to be quite clear as to why National Occupational Standards are thought to be

necessary for police training. Indeed, White himself believes that national standards are self-evidently desirable and that the argument for them is “straightforward: police officers need to be trained to national standards because it will ensure they provide a common minimum level of service” (White, 2006, p. 390).

According to the authors of “Managing Learning”, National Occupational Standards would set or establish “for the Service what is expected of an individual performing a particular role in a work environment. [They] will define the outcomes expected of a competent performance in the role and will define the circumstances under which the individual is expected to perform. They may include a statement of knowledge and understanding, which underpins performance” (HMIC, 1999, p. 56). For McClure and Stubbs, the “occupational standards would specify the minimum level of competence in attitudes, knowledge and skills that an officer must have to carry out a specific task or role” (1999, p. 6). Furthermore, the Skills Foresight report published in 2003, listed as an action the development of a “full suite of National Occupational Standards encompassing all police ranks and police staff roles, to allow for clear assessment of performance against nationally agreed standards” (PSSO, 2003, p. 17).

According to Eraut, national occupational standards are also a means to inform the public and employers about the claim to competence, inform providers of education and training, including higher education, public and commercial providers, of the goals to be achieved for entry into a profession

and also provide learners with guidance on what they need to achieve (1994, p. 211). As a result, twenty-two National Occupational Standards were designed for and implemented within the police service (see Appendix 1).

These National Occupational Standards also formed the basis of a policing NVQ. "Training Matters" recommended that "[a]chieving a level of competence should result in the award of qualifications, something that has been sadly lacking in police training" (HMIC, 2002, p. 49). Until April 2007 there was no mandatory qualification required for the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme, but from April 2007 onwards the qualification was mandated as NVQ level 3 and 4 in Policing. These NVQs are made up from the twenty-two National Occupational Standards and the qualification is attained when these National Occupational Standards have been completed. McClure and Stubbs say that this development would "parallel developments in a growing number of industrial sectors" (1999, p. 6). However, as Leitch says that there is no "perfect measure of skills. The most common measures of skills are qualifications, although it is possible to have skills without having qualifications" (2006, p. 28). Hodkinson and Issit believe that the new managerialism in public services requires that quality of service be demonstrably measured and also the competence of those employed as service providers. On the job competence is increasingly being used to assess fitness to practice in any occupation (1995, p. 1). And it is the same in policing.

The implementation of the National Occupational Standards was meant to assess the fitness to practice of the student police officers. On the face of it, the adoption of National Occupational Standards and an NVQ qualification seems a logical approach to ensuring a common set of standards within policing against which to assess student police officers. Such standards appear to relate directly to the workplace and workplace performance. Norris says that the concept of competence has become associated with a drive towards more practicality in education and training, placing a greater emphasis on the assessment of performance rather than knowledge with the focus on competence assumed to provide for occupational relevance (1991, p. 331). As Field highlights, work and the workplace occupy a central role in the NVQ system with NVQs being designed to make the workplace the primary site of workplace learning and assessment (Field, 1995, p. 28). Eraut et al also reflect this and comment that the NVQ system is designed for training and assessment in the workplace (Eraut et al 1996, p. 13). As Carr says "If competences which contribute to or constitute competence are essentially items of knowing how or practical skill, it seems plausible to maintain that these are best acquired in the way practical abilities are so often acquired through practice rather than academic instruction (1993, pp. 254-255).

Performance has to be demonstrated in the workplace and assessed under conditions as close to possible as those under which role is normally practiced; performance is demonstrated within the context of the workplace and any simulations should replicate the working context. Competency

based assessment and training is concerned with demonstration of competence and not learning, to show that an individual can actually do the job rather than learning to do that job (Hyland, 1994, p. 35; Wolf, 1995, pp. 22-23).

This view of competency based education and training has been adopted by the police service. The authors of "Managing Learning" say that "[s]tandards of competence are linked to the development of workplace performance and focus on outcomes (such as the service received by victims) rather than inputs. Once training has been identified as the best solution to a performance need, then it should be delivered in such a way that staff can provide a consistent policing service to the public. Without such an approach, there is no effective way to achieve a close alignment between role requirement, performance and essential development" (HMIC, 1999, p. 57).

As a result, rather than designing curricula to meet assumed needs, representative occupational bodies identify occupational standards that are clear and precise statements which describe what effective performance means in distinct occupational areas, policing being just one of these distinct occupational areas (Mansfield, 1989, p. 26). Wolf says that these standards embody and define competence in the relevant occupational context and that competence-based assessment is essentially vocational in its concerns (Wolf, 1995, p. 15; p. 28).

In order to achieve this, standards are derived from functional analyses where work roles are broken down into purposes and functions after consultation with members of each occupation to arrive at statements of competence which are subdivided into units and elements and relevant the performance criteria and range statements, such as embodied in the twenty-two National Occupational Standards for policing (Hyland, 1994, p. 6; Hodkinson & Issit, 1995, p. 5; Tuxworth, 1989, p. 13).

These standards are the means by which the model of competence is specified in the current occupational context, in this case policing, and are seen as those aspects of policing performance which can be assessed in work activity (Mansfield, 1989, p. 30). The output is student police officer performance measured and assessed primarily in the workplace with evidence naturally occurring in the workplace (Mitchell, 1989, p. 61; Hodkinson & Issit, 1995, p. 7). As James says, “[t]hus ‘true CBT’, conducted on the job, provides ‘proof of performance rather than proof of student-hood’, and what counts as occupational competence in industry and enterprises is the ability to perform at a specified standard” (2001, p. 304). However, despite the link between assessment against National Occupational Standards and workplace performance, there is a view that assessment of student police officers is done in addition to the ‘day job’ of policing and it has been highlighted that sergeants and constables working with student officers “show resistance to work-based assessment for student officers” (JPR, 16th March 2007, p. 10).

The Definition of Competence

However logical the use of National Occupational Standards within the police service to assess student police officers appears to be, some difficult to resolve issues still remain. One of these is the definition of competence itself, which has been seen as a “vexed” term (Wolf, 1995, p. 1) and the “problem of identifying what constitutes competence at work is not new” (Sandberg, 2000, p. 9). According to Westera, “from a research point of view, the term competence is too problematic and lacks an appropriate and commonly accepted definition” (2001, p. 87).

In contrast to this view, the term “competence” has been used in the reviews of police training, discussed above, as if it were unproblematic. This could be because competence is, as Hyland believes, *de rigueur* as an educational slogan in British educational theory and practice. According to Hyland, competence has achieved an unprecedented degree of popularity and has found its way into every conceivable sphere of educational activity from school to university and from lower level craft skills to postgraduate professional courses (Hyland, 1994, p. 30).

A similar comment is made by Westera who says that it is assumed that “competence transcends the level of knowledge and skills to explain how knowledge and skills are applied in an effective way” (2001, p. 75). The result is that the term is attractive to educators and employers because it is easily identified with valued capabilities, qualities and expertise (2001, p. 75).

The police service, as an educator and as an employer, has embraced the notion of competence by adopting assessment against the National Occupational Standards within the national Initial Police Learning and Development Programme initiative and the term along with its issues have now passed into the area of the assessment of student police officers.

According to Hyland, 'competence' as a term has a long history in ordinary language and also in the discourse of vocational education and training. For example, the British coal mining industry issued certificates of competency for various job functions in the middle of nineteenth century (Hyland, 1994, p. 19). Despite this long usage, there is still imprecision and confusion about the definition of the key terms that characterise almost all literature on competency based education and training. As a result, there is a spectrum of definitions, which shows that there are not only differences in interpretation but also different emphases with respect to competence. These characterise the evolution of competence talk from 1980s to the present (Hyland, 1994, pp. 22-23).

For example, Hyland talks about the tendency to confuse and conflate the terms competences/competencies and competency/competencies; he thinks it is useful to distinguish between competence as a capacity and competence as a disposition, the former of which is the evaluation of persons and the latter a reference to activities. Competences therefore pick out broad groups of general capacities and competencies specific performances or aspects of activities. No such distinction exists in the NVQ and competency based

education and training literature but as the NVQ model fragments the whole work elements into units and elements, there are grounds to argue that it is competencies being picked out in much of mainstream literature (Hyland, 1994, pp. 20-21; Tuxworth, 1989, p. 10). There is also the concept of generic competence to ensure the transferability of occupational skills. The “debate surrounding the notion of competence is shrouded in conceptual fuzziness and equivocation, and the introduction of new conceptions such as core and generic competences has not helped matters much in this respect” (Hyland, 1994, p. 24 and p. 26).

Field goes further and while saying that there is “considerable confusion and equivocation about what competence actually is”, he is questioning of a system that is based on precise standards but is allowed to get away with imprecision on meaning of key terms on which it is based (Field, 1995, p. 47). This has meant that the concept of competence has been defined in a whole range of different ways, many of them unrelated to the idea of competence based assessment (Wolf, 1995, p. 31). Tuxworth believes that there is only limited use in a universal definition of competence and that each field or profession needs to develop its own conception and working definition (1989, p. 21).

For Mansfield the definition of competence should be defined in broad terms as “**being able to perform whole work roles** (perform - not just know about – whole work roles, rather than just specific skills or tasks); **to the standards expected in employment** (not just ‘training’ standards or standards divorced

from industrial reality); **in real working environments** (i.e. with all the associated pressures and variations of real work)” (1989, p. 28). Wolf, when discussing competence, says “[w]e are talking about the ability to *perform*: in this case to perform to the *standards* expected of employers” (1989, p. 40). As she highlights, competence is a construct and not something that can be observed directly. As a consequence, there is a need to develop observable measures in order to collect evidence with which to assess this construct; if there is no clarity about the construct, it is harder or even impossible to develop adequate measures (1989, p. 40). Mansfield echoes this and says that the concepts of competence and standards are keystones of vocational education and training. If the meaning of competence is clear, associated standards which describe what competence means in specific occupations and work roles can be derived (1989, p. 26).

Eraut believes that competence has two dimensions, scope and quality (1994, p. 167). Scope covers the range of roles, tasks and situations for which a person’s competence “is established or may be reliably inferred” (Eraut, 1994, p. 167). Quality is a continuum ranging from the novice who is not yet competent to the expert “acknowledged by colleagues as having progressed well beyond the level of competence” (Eraut, 1994, p. 167). There will be many tasks where competence based on a broad scope or expertise is not expected and there will be others where quality is of significant importance. Progression in quality can become an issue in defining qualifications (Eraut, 1994, p. 167).

Mansfield says that views of competence vary. For some it is broad concept which is to do with occupational roles; for others it is narrowly focused on routine aspects of work activity which veers towards inputs of knowledge, skills and understanding which are attributes of individuals; training infrastructure is based on the main on the narrow view of competence and standards (1989, p. 27; p. 32). This is not the only way in which competence can vary. Wolf says that actual observable performance is also variable. This is because one person's playing of a piano piece is not the same as another's and this cannot be fitted mechanistically to either a written list of criteria or to an exemplar even if teachers and assessors share a strong common culture (1995, p. 70). Carr echoes this and says that the notion of competence is clearly complex "and one where quite different ideas are interwoven in an intricate way". This has the consequence that is it liable to "different senses in somewhat different contexts of discourse" (1993, p. 255).

Similarly, Hodkinson says that "[c]ompetence varies, chameleon-like, depending on who is performing, when and where" (1995, p. 60). He goes on to explain that the performance of an individual within the caring profession, such as a teacher or a social worker, is influenced by the life history and habitus of that professional, the context in which they work and their interactions with other workers, professionals, pupils or clients, each of whom also acts in ways that are influenced by the context of their own life histories and the actions of the professional with which they are interacting. Such interactions are also influenced by social and institutional structures. The whole of this complex system is subject to change and changes to one

small part may have unpredictable and immeasurable influences on others (Hodkinson, 1995, p. 60). The same can be said of policing. Competence could vary depending on the student police officer, the task they are doing and the time they are doing it, their assessor and the victim, witness, suspect, member of the public or colleague they are dealing with.

Competence is usually seen as two independent entities, namely worker attributes and worker activities but another approach would be that the worker and work form one entity and competence would then be seen as being constituted through the meaning the work takes on for the worker in their own experience. This would provide an alternative way of understanding human competence at work (Sandberg, 2000, p. 11). Sandberg's research goes a little further and has shown that workers' conception of their work also influences competence as these conceptions constitute variations in competence (2000, pp. 15-18).

The competence of student police officers will also change as the criteria against which they are assessed change. The current framework of NVQs and associated National Occupational Standards are due to expire and they will be replaced by a new qualifications and credit framework. Under this framework, there will be ten and not twenty-two National Occupational Standards and the Police Action Checklist and Learning Development Review will also be streamlined (see Appendix 4). The picture of a competent student police officer may potentially be different after these changes have taken place compared to what that picture is currently.

Norris has highlighted that the term 'competence' has wealth of meanings and that the practical has become shrouded in theoretical confusion and the apparently simple has become profoundly complicated (1991, pp. 331-2). National vocational qualifications are based on the fundamental assumption that, there exists a single identifiable model of what 'competent' performance entails in each industry. With regards to policing this is looking like an extremely ambitious and suspect assumption (Wolf, 1995, pp. 17-18). Eraut et al claim that their fieldwork has confirmed that there are considerable variations in the pattern of work between different contexts and "[h]ence no set of occupational standards can be universally valid" (Eraut et al, 1996, p. 56).

As a means of resolving this issue, Hodkinson and Issit believe that the functional analysis of a role, used to define the relevant National Occupational Standards, ignores expertise and the fact that different professionals will approach same tasks in very different ways with differing forms of success. Because of this there is no single correct version of professional performance. They advocate a pluralist form of competence and "pluralism becomes more acceptable if competence is seen as a tool for achieving part of professional education, rather than some over-arching structure which must contain and define all of it" (Hodkinson & Issit, 1995a, pp. 150-1).

Research from Biemans et al shows that different stakeholders have different perceptions of competence. In their view "students, teachers and workplace

training supervisors appear to perceive and experience competence based education and assessment and the consequences for learning environments and assessment procedures in different ways (2009, p. 280).

Minimum Standards

As we have seen above, included as part of the call for National Occupational Standards is the apparent need for “minimum” standards within policing. However, as with the terms “competence” and “competent”, there is debate around the term “minimum standards”. For example, Wolf says that many proponents of competency based education and training dislike term “minimum competency” as it implies that standards set inherently low (1995, p. 82). Hyland feels that ‘competence’ can be seen as a term of approbation as it carries with it the notion of ‘lowest common denominator’ characteristics with dictionary definitions such as “adequate”, “sufficient” and “suitable” reinforcing this sense of the term. In addition the term also seems to gain much of its meaning from the consideration of ways in which people or actions might be considered ‘incompetent’. If a plumber, bricklayer, or doctor is described as competent, they are considered able to work within and satisfy certain *basic* requirements of their trade or profession (my italics; 1994, p.19; p. 20; see also Hyland 1997, p. 493).

In addition, it has been shown that the setting of minimum standards can be difficult to do. Research from the United States has looked at this issue focussing on minimum standards for high school graduates. It was found that the resulting definitions of these minimum standards were “stringent” but

these still relied on the professional judgement of those assessing the graduates. The levels, standards and definitions of competency are not fixed absolutes (Wolf, 1995, p. 84).

As Glass says, much of the language and thinking about competency and standards rests on common notion, that a minimum acceptable level of performance on a task can be specified (2003, p. 1). As highlighted by Wolf and Hyland, he says the common usage of the term 'minimal competence' by educationists suggests a sense of the smallest possible level of skill or knowledge at which someone, in this case a student police officer, can still function adequately (2001, p. 17). Glass believes that the idea of minimal competence is "bad logic and even worse psychology" because any attempt to base criterion scores on a concept of minimal competence fails as it has virtually no foundation in psychology and when judges attempt to specify minimal competence they vary wildly (2001, p. 19). In his view, to speak of maximising or minimising some aspect of human behaviour is to speak pseudo-mathematically about the natural world which does not permit the absolute treatment by mathematics because for most skills and performances it can reasonably be imagined that there is a continuum stretching from absence of skill to conspicuous excellence. It does not follow that from the ability to recognise the absolute absence of a skill that the highest level of skill below which the person will not be able to succeed can be recognised (Glass, 2001, p. 18). According to Norris, there is a tension between floor of minimum acceptable standards that marks the divide between competence and incompetence and the ceiling of standards of

excellence that encapsulates the essential features of best practice (1991, p. 335).

Tuxworth says that the notion of minimum competence levels is useful for certification purposes but carries risks if these are the only standards available as many organisations depend on a high level of performance for their success (1989, p. 22). The police service is no different as the “public expects, and is entitled to receive, a high standard of service that is common throughout the country” (HMIC, 1999, p. 56).

Despite these issues, the police service has applied the terms ‘minimum competency’ and ‘minimum standards’ as part of an explicit policy to raise standards (Wolf, 1995 p. 80). Hodkison and Issit believe competence must be seen as more than a “can do” threshold. In their view, for competence approaches to be valuable, they must aid professional growth and the development of real expertise (1995a, p. 150). The purpose of police training is to equip staff to deliver “a high level of policing service anywhere in the country”, but it has been recommended that the training itself should be of a “certain minimum standard, common to all police training providers” (HMIC, 1999, p. 3).

White says that a common statement of aims among police forces is to “provide the best possible policing for the people of X” (2006, p. 390). However, there is a lack of criteria for deciding what is “best possible” or

“best” and “possible” and White says it can be questioned whether the national standard is good enough for the people concerned (2006, p. 390).

It does not follow that in order to deliver a high or best standard of output (in this case service delivery), a minimum standard of input (namely training standards) should be relied upon. The use of the National Occupational Standards within policing has not resolved this illogical assumption.

Additional Assessment Criteria: Police Action Checklist

It can be argued that the police service at a national level does not have a clear conception of what competence looks like for student police officers because the National Occupational Standards are not the only criteria against which student police officers are measured. The twenty-two National Occupational Standards are used to determine confirmation in rank, which occurs at the end of the initial two years of a student police officer's service. Skills for Justice, the police sector skills organisation, forces, the Home Office, the Association of Police Authorities and community representatives have “identified 22 units of NOS as the level of performance at which probationary officers need to be operating prior to confirmation. Student Officers will be assessed against these 22 units of NOS during their two-year training period” (Home Office, pp. 15-16). In order to be confirmed in the rank of police constable at the end of the two year Initial Police Learning and Development Programme, student police officers have to complete all twenty-two National Occupational Standards.

However, student police officers are also assessed against the Police Action Checklist. In order to be assessed as fit for independent patrol, student officers have to complete this checklist (see Appendix 2). Fit for independent patrol is the stage at which student police officers are deemed to be able to patrol alone without supervision. It occurs at some point within the first year of service, usually after a period of induction and foundation training as well as a period of accompanied patrol. There will be slight differences as to when student police officers across England and Wales reach this point due to the fact that each force is delivering its own local version of the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme. Some forces will aim to make their student police officers fit for independent patrol at around week 31 of service, following the previous Probationer Training Programme (see Chapter Four) while others, like the Constabulary, will not.

The Police Action Checklist is a series of thirty eight policing activities and serves as a “trigger for independent patrol for a Student Officer” and “[t]hey inform managers of what a Student Officer can do at the point of independent patrol” (NPIA, 2007, section 4.2, p. 4.1). Their completion is also a mandatory element of the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme: “The actions contained within the PACs are mandatory and 100% completion of these activities is required prior to independent patrol” (NPIA, 2007, section 4.3.3, p. 4.4) and “[t]he PACs act as the national minimum standard for independent patrol and all activities within the PACs are mandatory. They must be fully completed before independent patrol can be started” (NPIA, 2007, section 4.1, p. 4.1).

Additional Assessment Criteria: Learning Development Reviews

Learning Development Reviews are another mandatory element to the assessment of student officers (NPIA, 2007, section 3.1, p. 3.1). The minimum national requirements for these reviews are that forces record, review and evaluate the performance of the student against the student officer role profile, published by Skills for Justice (see Appendix 3). Student police officers must contribute to this process through completion of a written account of their own performance against the student officer role profile requirements. As there are no fixed times, it is suggested that the Learning Development Reviews happen at three key points during the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme, namely the transition to fit for independent patrol, towards confirmation in rank and at a mid way point between the two (NPIA, 2007, section 3.4, p. 3.1). The supposed purpose and benefits of the Learning Development Reviews are to facilitate assessment opportunities in the evidence that has been collected, particularly towards the end of the initial two years of service, ensuring that assessment targets against the National Occupational Standards and the Police Action Checklist have been achieved and to monitor and record poor performance (NPIA, 2007, section 3.6.2, p. 3.3).

The Learning Development Reviews themselves are underpinned by the Integrated Competency Framework, which is a framework that is designed to detail and standardise “everything a police officer will do, specifies the knowledge and skill required to undertake it and the level of expected performance” (White, 2006, p. 388). Even so, the use of such a framework is

not without its problems. According to White, the Integrated Competency Framework is treated as if it were a scientific, behavioural manual underpinning strategic human resource systems. All processes, in his view including recruitment, assessment, performance development review, promotion and training are “premised on the precision measurement of behaviour against objective standards” (2006, p. 389). Furthermore, the framework focuses on the behaviour that can be accommodated within a behavioural framework. As such, the police service needs to be mindful of the areas not covered within it. As White asks “What is it that the ICF does not measure? Or to put the questions another way: what is it about human social behaviour that is not revealed in a behavioural competence?” (2006, p. 389).

By including the additional criteria of the Police Action Checklist and the Learning Development Reviews into the assessment of student police officers, it suggests that the National Occupational Standards are not in themselves an adequate measure either of the competence of student police officers or as a minimum standard. In assessing the competence of student police officers, a credible assessment process is needed. Evidence is a key concept in the assessment against the National Occupational Standards. It has to be collected, generated and interpreted and compared to the standards to make judgements which infer competent performance with respect to the standard. However, evidence is not absolutely given or obvious nor absolutely incorrigible and there is no formula for gathering evidence to make assessor absolutely certain about competence (Hyland,

1994, p. 35; p. 37; p. 38). Furthermore, standards depend on human judgement and there is no single, perfect method of setting them (Wolf, 1995 p. 81). It could be that as a result of an attempt to ensure absolute certainty about the competence of student police officers that the national Initial Police Learning and Development Programme includes assessment against the National Occupational Standards, the Police Actions Checklist and the Learning Development Reviews.

Fragmentation of the Assessment Process

An all inclusive assessment process is clearly the aim of the use of the National Occupational Standards, the Police Action Checklist and the Learning Development Reviews. Despite the similarities between them, there is potential for the assessment process to become fragmented. Even though all elements are used to contribute to the assessment of student police officers as competent, they each have different requirements and timescales placed upon them. The National Occupational Standards contain specific evidence requirements while the Police Action Checklist and the Learning Development Reviews do not. If an assessor is assessing a student officer against the Police Action Checklist it is recommended they hold the relevant qualification. For roles other than assessors, they are required to have attended the relevant training programme and be occupationally competent in the twenty-two National Occupational Standards. It is acknowledged that “different assessor requirements will be applicable for NOS assessors” (NPIA, 2007, section 4.3.1, pp. 4.2-4.3). These two factors may call into question the standardisation and consistency

of assessment practices between the National Occupational Standards and the Police Action Checklist, between assessors within a force and on a much wider scale between forces. Hyland says that a “recontextualised conception of competence with different measures in the form of direct observations, skills and proficiency tests, oral or written evaluation of underpinning knowledge is involved and complex. Accompanying this is an unbridled growth and complexity of assessment procedures” (1994, pp. 42-43). When looking at the national Initial Police Learning and Development Programme and assessment against the National Occupational Standards, this complexity is compounded further by the addition of the Police Action Checklist and the Learning Development Reviews into the assessment process.

Under the national Initial Police Learning and Development Programme, there appears to be a comprehensive set of minimum standards, namely the National Occupational Standards, the Police Action Checklist and the Learning Development Reviews. These cover a range of policing activities as well as underpinning knowledge and behaviours. The requirements and criteria for “competence” at key stages throughout the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme also appear to be clear. For independent patrol, the Police Action Checklist needs to be completed; for confirmation in the rank of constable, the twenty-two National Occupational Standards need to be completed and three Learning Development Reviews need to be conducted during the initial two years of a student police officer’s service. However, this gives the assessment of student police officers a very ‘time

bound' feel especially as the initial two year training period for student police officers is fixed by police regulations.

Wolf identifies certain elements of a national vocational qualification system, and these include "individualised assessment with candidates presenting themselves for assessment when they are ready to do so" and "no specified time for the completion of assessment" (Wolf, 1995, pp. 21-23; Eraut, 1994, p. 192). Under the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme student police officers could potentially be presenting themselves for assessment when they are not ready to do so due to the time limits the programme itself imposes for the achievement of competence. In addition, national vocational qualifications were originally intended to be independent of the mode of learning and there was "no specified course of learning or study" (Wolf, 1995, pp. 21-23; Field, 1995, p. 45). Under the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme, the achievement of the policing qualification is intrinsically linked to a specific course of study and the assessment of student police officers against the National Occupational Standards and ultimately the attainment of the NVQs cannot be easily separated from this.

The Initial Police Learning and Development Programme at a national level has attempted to implement the recommendations from a number of reviews of police training, particularly with respect to the implementation of minimum national occupational standards for policing across all forces in England and Wales. In doing so, it has brought with it the unresolved issues around the

nature and definition of “competence” and “minimum standards”. The requirements of police regulations which govern the length of a student police officer’s initial two years of service, during which they receive the necessary training and development in order to be confirmed in the rank of constable, is also at odds with the “competent when ready” approach implicit in the use of National Occupational Standards. The result is a complex system of assessment criteria against which student police officers have to be assessed.

The National Occupational Standards within the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme

This is compounded by the fact that the National Occupational Standards are not only acting as the minimum standard of competence and the foundations of the policing qualification. As explained above, under the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme, the training of student police officers was devolved away from regional police learning centres and into individual forces to meet local needs. This would also make a career in policing more accessible to student police officers for whom residential training would not be a practical option for a variety of reasons, for example child care or other family commitments.

However, the programme itself is governed nationally by the Central Authority and this is the decision making body regarding the training of new student police officers. When the Initial Police Learning Development Programme was being designed and implemented, it was the Central

Authority that determined a range of learning outcomes, modules, structure and supporting learning materials that forces should use and follow when implementing their local training. As part of this, the National Occupational Standards were also intended as a reference point. Nationally produced material was cross referenced to the standards and all locally produced learning material was also expected to be similarly linked. Even when the units against which the student officers are assessed are changed to the ten new National Occupational Standards, the original twenty-two will still be used to determine the content of the learning programme.

Heron sees this as a political issue “that is to do with the exercise of power” (1988, p. 77). He says that the “prevailing model for assessing student work in higher education is an authoritarian one. Staff exercise unilateral authority: they decide what students shall learn, they design the programme of learning, they determine criteria of assessment” (Heron, 1988, p. 77). The Central Authority has also done this with respect to the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme. They have determined what the student police officer learns; they have determined the programme of learning and the criteria for assessment. The National Occupational Standards have a crucial role in that determination.

Young says that national qualifications lead to “greater central control and at the same time...give individuals and institutions a sense they have more choice” (2003, p. 232). The implementation of the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme, and with it that of the National Occupational

Standards, was on the one hand designed to give police forces more choice around how training was delivered to meet local needs. However, with it came central control of the programme and the curtailment of local autonomy, in part through the use of the National Occupational Standards.

Chapter Three: The National Context-Policing

The assessment of student police officers not only has to be seen within a wider national assessment context, it also has to be viewed within a wider policing context. It is vital that this assessment process is right due to the importance of the policing function.

Review and Inspection of the Police Service

There are huge expectations placed on the police to get things right and “[i]ncreasingly, the public, media, and ultimately politicians have developed an unwillingness to accept error” (Flanagan, 2008, p. 52). When policing goes wrong there are huge repercussions for the police officers and other individuals involved, the service and society as a whole. This means that the police service is under an immense amount of scrutiny and the assessment of competence is critical. Inquiries may be formally undertaken as was the case with the Soham murders, where serious shortcomings were identified with police procedures. This inquiry looked into the child protection measures, record keeping, vetting processes and the information sharing practices of the two forces concerned. As a result, a number of recommendations into the way police information is managed and handled have led to a change of policies and practices within every force in England and Wales under the Management of Police Information (see Bichard, 2004, pp. 13-17).

Even under normal circumstances, police forces are subject to review and inspection on an ongoing basis and this takes a number of forms. Forces are subject to base line assessment by Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary. These offer a high level diagnostic statement of each force's relative strengths and weaknesses and provide a point against which progress can be measured and an early warning of performance deterioration. By contrast, thematic inspections, also undertaken by the HMIC, identify deficiencies relevant to the service as a whole and disseminate good practice regarding a specific aspect of policing. Recent thematic reports include front line supervision, contact and incident management, professional standards, structure of policing and workforce modernisation. All thematic inspections come with recommendations that forces are expected to incorporate within their working practices and more specific inspections can also be undertaken on key areas of risk within the service (HMIC, 2008, pp. 11-14; HMICa, 2007, pp. 106-112).

In addition, each constabulary is answerable to a police authority which has to ensure the constabulary is providing an effective service to the area it polices. Each year, an annual report is produced mapping the performance of the force against key performance indicators. These indicators include qualitative and quantitative measures including satisfaction levels and number of crimes reported and detected.

The Complaints Process

Policing activity is also subject to a complaints process. There is a duty under the Police Reform Act 2002 for police forces, including the Constabulary, to record all complaints made by members of the public about the conduct of those serving with the police. Complaints are recorded by individual forces and submitted to the Independent Police Complaints Commission following the end of the financial year (IPCC, 2008, p. 2). Complaints can be made by certain categories of people, namely members of the public who allege that police misconduct was directed at them, individuals who allege that they been adversely affected by police misconduct even if it was not directed at them and members of the public who claim to have witnessed police misconduct. "Adversely affected" is broadly defined and includes, distress, loss or damage, inconvenience, or being put in danger or at risk. However it does not include people who have become distressed watching incidents on television (IPCC 2008, p. 14). Those who allege to have witnessed police misconduct must have acquired their knowledge in a way that would make them capable of giving admissible evidence in any court proceeding about the misconduct and includes CCTV operators (IPCC, 2008, p. 14). Complaints can also be made by someone acting on behalf of members of the public who allege police misconduct as described here. They are not complainants in their own right but are acting with the written permission of the person who is making a complaint (IPCC, 2008, p. 14).

Complaints can be made against police officers of any rank, police staff including community support officers and traffic wardens, special constables and designated contract staff, such as detention and escort officers employed by another company.

Allegations are categorised at the time a complaint case is first recorded in a force (IPCC, 2008, p. 6). There are various categories of complaint, and these range from assault of various kinds, including sexual assault, to breaches of the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984, legislation that defines police responsibility to the arrest, detention, identification and questioning of suspects and detained persons, to perjury and corrupt practice, mishandling of property and discriminatory behaviour (IPCCa, 2008, pp. 14-16).

A complaint may have one or more allegations attached. A person may allege that an officer was rude to them as well as pushing them. Although this would be one complaint case, it would be formed of two allegations (IPCC, 2008, p. 5)

There are a number of ways in which a complaint case may be dealt with. Local resolution can be used, if the complainant agrees, to deal with less serious cases, such as rudeness or incivility. This involves a local police supervisor handling the complaint and agreeing a resolution with the complainant, for example, an apology on behalf of the force or an explanation (IPCC, 2008, p. 32). In other cases, or if the complainant

declines local resolution, an investigation may be undertaken to thoroughly examine the complaint. An investigating officer will be appointed who will determine whether each allegation was substantiated or unsubstantiated (IPCC, 2008, p. 32). A force can apply to the Independent Police Complaints Commission for a dispensation in cases where the complaint is not being taken forward, for example where the complaint was vexatious, oppressive or an abuse of the complaint process or where there is insufficient evidence to proceed (IPCC, 2008, p. 32). Cases can be withdrawn and no further action taken if the complainant retracts the complaint (IPCC, 2008, p. 32). In some instances, forces may find it impractical to continue an investigation and they can apply to the Independent Police Complaints Commission to discontinue the case. This may happen if the complainant refuses to cooperate, if the complaint is repetitious or if the complainant agrees to local resolution (IPCC, 2008, p. 32).

Complainants are also granted the right to appeal to the Independent Police Complaints Commission about a decision by a police force not to record a complaint, the process by which their complaint was handled under local resolution and the outcome of a police investigation into their complaint (IPCC, 2008, p. 36).

Eraut believes that the reputation of professions in an age of mass media is dependent on its weakest members and “can the public be guaranteed that even the least capable can provide a satisfactory service?” (1994, p. 117). As a consequence, not only are there huge expectations on the police to get

things right, but there are also great expectations on the assessment process to ensure they do get things right.

Accountability and Policing

Policing is no different to a range of other occupations where there is public concern about competence and accountability. The use of inspection and a complaints process can be seen as part of the mechanism for police accountability, as should the National Occupational Standards. Young says that national qualification frameworks and qualification reforms are less to do with improving the quality of education and more in providing the government with an instrument to make educational institutions more accountable (2003, p. 228). Qualifications therefore appear to serve a dual purpose. Not only do they provide incentives for individual learners but they also make educational institutions accountable (Young, 2003, p. 228). The police service is not formerly an educational institution but it does educate and qualify its new police officers with a national qualification based on the National Occupational Standards. By extending Young's argument, the use of the National Occupational Standards incentivises individual student police officers as well as making the police service accountable for the training it provides.

“It is also important to stress that developments...reflect a more general trend within the English polity towards new forms and methods of managing public bodies” (Keep, 2006, p. 48). These new methods of managing public bodies have arisen out of the emergence of new managerialism which looks to

increase the efficiency of the public sector, including policing, based on the assumption that the private sector is effectively regulated by market mechanisms and provides an ideal model for the public sector (Shore and Wright, 2000, pp. 63-67). This has included the use of audit which has “become the mechanism for reviewing public sector performance and validating claims to good governance” (Shore and Wright, 2000, pp. 66-67) as well as control and organisational transparency (Power, 1997, p. 122).

Accountability through the concept of audit was derived initially from the protocols of financial accountability (Strathern, 2000, p. 3; Shore and Wright, 2000, p. 58; Power, 1997, p. 15). It has now become associated with a cluster of terms such as “performance”, “quality assurance”, “efficiency”, “effectiveness”, “good practice” and “value for money” (Shore and Wright, 2000, p. 60). These terms were concepts focused upon in the reviews of police training described in Chapter Two. The consequence of this is that “some governments (and the UK is an example) have discovered that if they make explicit the practices whereby people check themselves, they can withdraw to a position of checking the resultant indicators of performance” (Strathern, 2000, p. 4). The National Occupational Standards, as the minimum standard for policing (see Chapter Two) can be seen as the “resultant indicators of performance”.

Finlay et al argue that “government actions result in highly centralised and micromanaged LSS (learning and skills sector) within a context of increasing rhetoric about, and organizational changes toward, more devolved

governance” (2007, p. 138). In their view, it appears that the “government is still ambivalent about the extent to which providers can be trusted to meet the needs of learners (Finlay et al, 2007, p. 138). This mirrors the situation of the Central Authority with the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme (see Chapter Two). The use of the National Occupational Standards has to be seen within this wider context of accountability.

The Unpredictable Nature of Policing

According to Eraut, there are different scopes to competence. Sometimes a claim of competence is very general and may mean little more than being properly qualified, especially in professions where the unqualified are not permitted to practice. There are also more specific claims to competence about what a person can do without implying that they can perform beyond the area specifically mentioned. In homogenous work areas there is little confusion between statements of general and specific competence (1994, pp. 164-165).

However, policing cannot be considered as a ‘homogeneous work area’. The work of policing is very much heterogeneous in nature and one officer may handle a different set of incidents from another, even when working within the same location and performing the same role. For example, one officer on general intervention and response duties may have to deal with nuisance youths in the local park. Their colleague on the same shift might be dealing with a murder. On one shift alone, an officer may have to deal with a wide range of differing tasks. Home Office research has shown this.

On an early shift, an officer was shown to have dealt with arranging an appropriate adult for a young prisoner that was arrested overnight, fingerprinting and photographing prisoners, door to door enquiries relating to a burglary, taking witness statements, liaising with forensics departments and dealing with a shoplifting. On a late shift, the tasks included dealing with a robbery involving a vulnerable elderly lady, a driver on suspicion of drinking, searching individuals in the station and attempting to locate a missing twelve year old boy. On a night shift, an officer assisted with guarding the scene at a traffic incident obstructing a major thoroughfare, attended a fight outside a club where a young man has been “glassed” and investigated a false alarm (Home Office, 2001, pp. 6-7).

Morgan and Newburn have also highlighted the wide range of tasks the police perform. In their view, because the police are a twenty four hour service agency, they handle everything from unexpected childbirths, alcoholics, drug addicts, emergency psychiatric cases, family fights, landlord-tenant disputes to occasional incidents of crime (1997, p. 79). They believe that “it is the combination of having access to the legitimate use of force, together with the fact that the police are, in theory, available to anyone, anywhere, at any time of day that results in such varied and unpredictable demands being made upon them (Morgan and Newburn, 1997, p. 84). Similarly, according to Ekblom and Heal “[a]ll public demand for police services is diverse and difficult to characterise” (1982, p. 3 and p. 14).

As can be seen, the nature of police work is not just determined by the priorities of particular forces or Constabularies, but also by the pattern of demand placed upon individual organisations by the public. It would be impossible for every eventuality police officers may potentially deal with to be catered for within the National Occupational Standards or indeed any other assessment criteria.

However, it can reasonably be assumed that during each shift, police officers will need to speak to a wide variety of people and they will have to arrest or process a number of individuals. It can also realistically be assumed that they will in all likelihood deal with a selection of basic and common incidents such as theft, robbery, burglary, car crime, drunken behaviour, assaults and nuisance. What cannot be predicted are the exact times these interactions will occur or the exact nature they will take. For example, a theft can occur at any point within a police officer's shift and may be a shoplifting, a "purse dipping", a theft from a car or from an employer. The victim or suspect could be any age and from any ethnic background as can any witnesses. The crime itself could be recent or it could be historic in nature. This means that seemingly everyday incidents are difficult to predict. The extraordinary is even less predictable. There have been two serious rail crashes during the last nine years within the Constabulary's policing area and these situations could hardly have been less foreseeable. Neither could the 7/7 bombings in London which would have involved the response of police officers at all levels of experience.

Norris says that many human service training organisations face a common set of problems. One of these is how to “enable people to cope with operational situations that are unique, unpredictable, ambiguous, stressful or emotionally harrowing” (Norris, 1991a, p. 1). Looking through the commendations awarded by the Constabulary, such situations include house fires, child abuse, kidnap, suicide attempts and fatal road traffic collisions (see Appendix 10). Strategies that have been developed to deal with these operational situations include “the design of specific training responses to commonly recognised problematic or stressful aspects of policing – for example, domestic violence and disputes, rape and child abuse, dealing with death or serious accidents, the legal use of force and officer survival” (Norris, 1991a, p. 7). Norris says these types of subjects cannot always be assumed to be an integral part of a police curriculum because of the high level of expertise required to deliver them (1991a, p. 7).

Within the Constabulary, these types of subjects do appear as part of its Initial Police Learning and Development Programme (see Chapter Four). The training may inform student police officers what to do when faced with a harrowing incident and the assessment process may assess that they are taking the necessary action to deal with it as the National Occupational Standards cover a range of policing activity (see Appendix 1). However, what is not included are any assessment criteria designed to assess how well the student police officers would cope with dealing with the emotional impact of particularly harrowing incidents on others and also the effect on themselves.

Westera argues that if someone is competent, his or her behaviour has been deemed as meeting a standard (2001, p. 82). Such standards conflict with the idea that competences are associated with unique and complex situations and ill-defined problems and have consequences for assessment. Assessment is usually associated with reproductability and this requires controlled conditions (Westera, 2001, p. 82). As Westera says, “competence, defined as the ability to produce successful behaviours in non standardised situations, seems to vitiate the possibility of using competences as an educational frame of reference” (2001, p. 82). As one operational officer commented “Is it right to expect student officers to be operating in an automated set of stimuli and response circumstances when life and communities are not like that?”. For these reasons the National Occupational Standards are not able to assess whether student police officers are able to cope with the unique, ambiguous and the unpredictable.

The Changing Context of Policing

According to Flanagan, “the service not only takes responsibility for its ‘traditional’ functions, but also for many new ones, which require different skills and different ways of working” due to the changing nature of society (Flanagan, 2008, p. 4). “Society” is an ever changing context amidst which a policing service has to be delivered. For example, the 1970s and 1980s saw soaring inflation, rising unemployment and increasing levels of industrial and social conflict. The police were called in to deal with the resulting discord, for example, the miners’ strike (Jackson and Sunshine, 2007, p. 218). There are changing values and expectations and according to Jackson and

Sunshine “less deference to authority first springs to mind” (2007, p. 218). In addition, crime has increased since the Second World War. “Increasing direct and indirect experience, the mass media raising the salience of crime and ‘institutionalizing’ public concern, and the growing visibility of signs of crime-in the form of physical incivilities, such as vandalism and social incivilities, such as groups of intimidating youths hanging around the street-all helped to bring crime and the risk of victimization into people’s everyday lives” (Jackson and Sunshine, 2007, p. 219, see also Morgan and Newburn, 1997, pp. 11-38 on changes within the social context of policing).

As a result of these changes, according to Flanagan (2008, pp. 4-5) policing now encompasses counter terrorism, civil emergencies, management of sex offenders in the community, dealing with anti-social behaviour and community policing. Changes to meet these wide ranging demands include the development of neighbourhood policing and the creation and use of police community support officers (PCSOs). These changes have already altered the face of policing at national and local levels. As a result, “[o]fficers at all levels must be able to mix the disciplined and hierarchical working culture of a uniformed service with the sorts of skills required to work co-operatively in partnership with colleagues from other agencies” (Flanagan, 2008, pp. 4-5). In turn these demands on policing pressurise finite resources and challenge the service to find new ways to manage and succeed (Flanagan, 2008, p. 5).

Flanagan's comments suggest that policing "now" is vastly different to "before now". Zedner, in her article on the historical antecedents of policing, refers to two different arguments detailing the changing nature of policing. One argument "interpret[s] these changes as constituting a radical break with the past" (Zedner, 2005, p. 78). The other "doubts the universal applicability of this transformation" and highlights continuities with the past (Zedner, 2005, p. 78).

Bayley and Shearing argue the former and believe modern democratic countries like the United States, Britain and Canada have reached a watershed in the evolution of their systems of crime control and law enforcement. They believe that "[f]uture generations will look back on our era as a time when one system of policing ended and another took its place" (Bayley & Shearing, 1996, p. 585). This is due to two main factors. The first is the pluralising of policing. According to Bayley and Shearing, policing is no longer monopolised by the public police, defined as the police created by the government. Policing as an activity is now offered by a number of institutions and organisations other than the state including by private companies on a commercial basis and by communities on a volunteer basis (Bayley & Shearing, 1996, p. 585). Secondly, they believe that the public police are going through a "true identity crisis" (Bayley & Shearing, 1996, p. 585). As a result every aspect of performance is being examined including objectives, strategies, organisation, management, discipline and accountability. "These movements, one inside and the other outside the

police, amount to the restructuring of policing in contemporary democratic societies” (Bayley & Shearing, 1996, p. 585).

Jones and Newburn, in their article on the transformation of policing, also detail some of the changes that have occurred in policing. Similarly to Bayley and Shearing, among the issues they mention are the end of the police monopoly, growth of private security and private sector policing and civilianisation (2002, pp. 132-139). However, their argument is that there is “considerable continuity as well as change” (Jones and Newburn, 2002, p. 134). For example, “the functional remit of commercial policing has expanded in recent years, with the private sector undertaking tasks previously viewed as the preserve of the state bodies, such as prisoner escort, court guarding and the patrol of public spaces” (Jones and Newburn, 2002, p. 134). Jones and Newburn believe it is mistaken to think that bodies such as environmental health officers or health and safety inspectors are part of the recent fragmentation of policing, rather it is the “latest of a series of functional shifts between different policing bodies” (2002, p. 135). Their conclusion is that they “question the degree to which the current developments in policing should be interpreted as a qualitative break with the past...[they] suggest that rather than seeing current changes as a fragmentation of policing, they are better viewed as an ongoing process of formalization of social control” (Jones and Newburn, 2002, p. 130).

In contrast to the arguments of both Bayley and Shearing and also Jones and Newburn, Zedner, advances a different argument. She believes there

are “significant discontinuities between the modern criminal justice state and that which is now emerging” (2006, p. 79). Rather than heralding the emergence of a new system of policing, the emergent trends are “better seen as displaying significant links with an earlier era” (Zedner, 2006, p. 79). For example, the “eighteenth-century market in policing was extensive. It reached well beyond the thief-takers and the monied police to include turnpike keepers, pawnbrokers and innkeepers in a complex of policing relations that anticipated the dispersed ‘security networks’ that increasingly characterize today’s provision” (Zedner, 2006, p. 84).

As can be seen from these different viewpoints on the changing nature of policing, it is not as necessarily as clear cut it seems to talk about policing “now”. For example, policing within the United Kingdom has for a long time included an element of counter terrorism and the “British have become accustomed to terrorism as a result of their involvement in Northern Ireland over the past thirty years (Bamford, 2004, p. 738). Walker also refers to the enduring nature of terrorism within the United Kingdom due to the “bygone era of the British Empire” and “from the campaigns in Ireland against its incorporation within a predominantly British State over a period of more than three centuries” (2004, p 312). In addition, “[t]errorism has long shaped policing organisations in the United Kingdom. Within the Metropolitan Police, a Special Branch was formed in 1883 to respond to an Irish bombing campaign at that time” (Walker, 2004, p. 321).

However, what has changed is the nature and scale of terrorism within recent years. In contrast to the “Irish troubles”, which was rooted in the clash between competing national aspirations (McKittrick and McVea, 2000, p. 2), the “threat of terrorism is changing...The nature and scale of the attacks on September 11, 2001...suggested that terrorism had developed a ‘Third Millennium’ format, characterised by a multifaceted threat, unbounded by instrument, organisation or location, and motivated by religious and cultural ideals rather than rooted in nationalist or political ideology” (Walker 2004, .p 314; see also Bamford, 2004, p. 739 and Raufar, 1999, pp. 30-51). As a result international terrorism has become a major priority for the United Kingdom’s national security agenda and “in an era of global terrorist threats, finding and identifying terrorists requires an unprecedented level of international co-operation between intelligence and police agencies” (Bamford, 2004, pp. 737 and 745) and in turn has shaped the UK’s response (Bamford, 2004, p. 737 and Newburn and Reiner, 2004, pp. 608-609).

What has also changed are the tactics employed in terrorist activity. According to McKinnon, the suicide tactic was first used in Lebanon in 1983 and has since achieved prevalence and global application (2004, p. 362). However, Quillen says this is “not a new phenomenon” but rather “became a major concern beginning in 1983” (2002, p. 286), the key laying “in their ability and their desire to kill large numbers of people” (Quillen, 2002, p. 280). According to McKinnon, research shows that the average number of people killed in a terrorist attack is three while for a suicide bombing it rises to twenty-eight (McKinnon, 2004, p. 362). However Quillen argues that suicide

terrorism is not necessarily more devastating than other forms of terrorism with the 1983 bombings and the September 11 attacks being exceptions (2002, p. 286). In his view it “appears that suicide terrorism and mass casualties may now be forever linked in the popular imagination, but without a strong analytical basis in fact. After all, it is more important that the terrorist is willing to kill than he is willing to die” (Quillen, 2002, p. 286).

However, there is no doubt that it is a “cheap, highly effective, and essentially uncomplicated form of terrorism” (McKinnon, 2004, p. 362). It guarantees worldwide media coverage and generates widespread fear in target communities as well as affecting “national mood”, for example, the attacks on commuter trains in Madrid “undoubtedly changed the outcome of Spain’s national elections” (McKinnon, 2004, p. 362). The suicide bombers’ ability to change target at the last minute to avoid security precautions makes them “a devastating form of ‘smart’ weapon” (McKinnon, 2004, p. 362). Certainly the attacks of 9/11, the London bombings and the attack on Glasgow airport have made suicide bombing more relevant to the British mainland. “The threat of suicide bombers causes a considerable problem for law enforcement” (McKinnon, 2004, p. 364). Police can take action to combat this form of terrorism such as ensuring police officers know what to do when they encounter suspects, awareness of policies, training and the use and gathering of intelligence (McKinnon, 2004, p. 364).

Policing has always encompassed counter terrorism, civil emergencies, management of sex offenders in the community, dealing with anti-social

behaviour and community policing in some way, shape or form. However, a vast array of changes over time on a national and international level, such as the recent developments in terrorism and the laws and procedures enacted to manage them, has changed the nature of demand on the police service as a whole.

The review of policing recently conducted by Sir Ronnie Flanagan looked at a wide range of policing issues including structures and systems to support policing, improving performance at force level, developing the police workforce, the amount of bureaucracy involved in policing and working with local people and partnerships (Flanagan, 2008). This was the biggest review of policing in recent years. In response to this, the Home Office published a green paper outlining the steps that should be taken to address these issues (Home Office, 2008). Such steps include a National Security Strategy that details how the threat of international terrorism will be countered. The Youth Crime Action Plan will set out how youth crime will be dealt with by involving young people in identifying and delivering solutions. There will be a single top down target for forces in improving public confidence and whether community safety issues that matter in each local area are identified and addressed. There will also be a People Strategy for the Police Service which will detail how the development and deployment of officers will be improved. All of this is set against a backdrop of the best use of resources. The Efficiency and Productivity Strategy for the Police Service 2008-2011 has been agreed by the Home Office, Association of Police Authorities (APA) and ACPO (Association of Chief Police Officers). This will help forces achieve

the best possible efficiency and productivity gains (Home Office, 2008, pp. 5-63). The review and the resulting green paper look set to potentially alter the future face of policing.

Local change is also developing alongside national and international changes. There are a number of major change programmes that have recently been implemented or are in the process of being implemented within the Constabulary. For example, there has been a reorganisation of police properties to improve public access and visibility which has entailed the closing of a number of smaller stations and the construction of larger stations that service a wider area as a whole. There is also a review of the current criminal justice processes within the county. This will entail reviewing the current provision and implementing a new structure. The end result is to provide a better service to victims and improve relationships with the courts and prosecution services. Reviews of the current division into three policing areas within the Constabulary are also underway. This did result in the centralised provision of policing services in one area with the other two areas to follow, but this arrangement is also currently under review itself, with further organisational and structural changes foreseen to combat an increasingly tight budget position.

All of this results in a great deal of change on a variety of levels within which the delivery of policing is still expected to function. However, the National Occupational Standards do not include any criteria in order to assess the student police officer's ability to function within a changing environment or

how they deal with change itself. In industry, measured output changes and this is also true of policing but within a national vocational qualification system, the outputs are defined and given; their specifications cannot be changed except only strive to achieve them more efficiently (Hodkinson & Issit, 1995, p. 7). As Norris says the precise specification of performance or outcomes rests on and leads to a mistaken view of both education and knowledge. This is because of the fundamental contradiction between the autonomy needed to act in the face of change and situational uncertainty and the predictability inherent in the specification of outcomes (Norris, 1991, p. 335). The National Occupational Standards would possibly never allow the assessment of student police officers with respect to change. Despite the view of Elliot et al that the “National Occupational Standards are not fixed and are also responsive to a dynamic and continuously changing police environment” (2003, p. 4), the National Occupational Standards do actually appear to be static in comparison with the changing police context.

Customer Service within Policing

Another element of change that has occurred over recent years is the idea of customer service within public services. Morgan and Newburn say that the police emphasis on “service” reflects the idea that public services should be made more responsible to “customer” demands. This is as a result of a more market orientated climate and the fact that “the activities of the police are now almost certainly subject to greater public and media scrutiny than has ever been the case in the past” (1997, p. 91). As a result there is a new national policing pledge that guarantees the public some key service

standards from policing in a similar way to what happens within health currently. As a result, the Constabulary pledges, amongst other things, to always treat the public fairly and with dignity and respect, ensuring they have fair access to services at a time that is reasonable to them. The Constabulary also pledges to acknowledge any dissatisfaction with the service the public has received within twenty four hours of it being reported and to discuss the means of resolution and timescales. The key word in these aspects of the pledge is “service”. This emphasis on service is highlighted by the Constabulary’s “Service Commitment”, which states that the purpose of the Constabulary is to “achieve safety, justice and reassurance for all” as well as striving to deliver the “best possible service” to its communities. However, customer service is not explicitly included within the National Occupational Standards per se.

Risk Aversion

According to Flanagan, when he talks about police processes and systems, the current mentality is “to neutralise all potential hazard”. This arises from the police service at a national level being risk averse (2008, p. 52). As Flanagan says, there is a choice to be made between “[h]eavy handed, bureaucratic and burdensome processes or a more proportionate approach which matches resource to risk and harm” (2008, p. 52). This risk averse approach can be seen within the national Initial Police Learning and Development Programme.

It could be argued that the assessment criteria, namely the National Occupational Standards, the Police Action Checklist and the Learning Development Reviews are trying to identify all the tasks, knowledge and behaviours required for a student police officer to demonstrate their competence. The requirements of the National Initial Police Learning and Development Programme appears to be trying to assess everything a student police officer could encounter during their first two years of service rather than taking a more proportionate approach advocated by Flanagan. The risk averse nature of the Constabulary in making management decisions on competence was highlighted by one officer saying “I would want an additional question area which would be ‘Is the evidence I have on this student officer enough to stop me being sued?’ ”.

Power says that audit is a distinct response to the need to process risk (1997, p. 123). The use of the National Occupational Standards and the other assessment criteria advocated by the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme, namely the Police Action Checklist and the Learning Development Review, seems to perpetuate a risk averse approach to the assessment of student police officers.

The Code of Conduct and the Oath

All police officers, including student police officers, are bound by a “code of conduct”. The schedule of standards of professional behaviour, as laid down in the Police (Conduct) Regulations 2008, sets out the standards of professional behaviour expected of police officers (see Appendix 5). The

Code of Conduct is a statutory instrument that police officers are bound by and because it is codified, it can be supposed that the behaviours laid down in the code of conduct are important to the government and the police service. A breach of the Code would constitute misconduct while a breach which is of such a serious nature that dismissal would be justified is gross misconduct. Discipline proceedings are instigated when there is a breach of a particular element of the Code and officers are assumed to be acting within the principles of the Code unless evidence can show otherwise. For example, police officers are not assessed whether they are acting with honesty and integrity on ongoing basis. Rather action is taken when it can be shown and evidenced that they have been dishonest. The National Occupational Standards do not allow for the direct assessment of student police officers against this Code of Conduct and the collection of evidence of competence is at odds with the way the Code is brought into play with only with the evidence of incompetence.

Neither do the National Occupational Standards enable the assessment of student police officers against the oath they swear when they are attested with their powers. One of the operational officers interviewed said that student officers “need to do what they said when they took their oath.” When officers are formally attested with their powers, they declare the following: “I ... of ... do solemnly and sincerely declare and affirm that I will well and truly serve the Queen in the office of constable, with fairness, integrity, diligence and impartiality, upholding fundamental human rights and according equal respect to all people; and that I will, to the best of my power, cause the

peace to be kept and preserved and prevent all offences against people and property; and that while I continue to hold the said office I will, to the best of my skill and knowledge, discharge all the duties thereof faithfully according to law” (PRA, 2002, Part 6, 83). Again even though all officers, including student police officers, are legally bound by this oath and are required to make this oath before a magistrate in order to be attested with their powers, the National Occupational Standards do not explicitly assess student police officers against all of the principles contained in the oath.

If the Code of Conduct lays down how student police officers should act and the oath details how they should carry out their duties, there appears to be a fundamental mismatch between the contents of the Oath and the Code of Conduct and that of the National Occupational Standards as the minimum measure of competence for student police officers. According to Eraut, the capability to follow a code of conduct should be incorporated into the assessment of competence although there is still a need for a separate method of assessment for codes of conduct so they can be properly monitored throughout an individual’s career (1994, p. 205). However it can be questioned why the National Occupational Standards have been implemented as the minimum standard for policing. As statutory instruments, all police officers are bound by both the Code of Conduct and the Oath in contrast to the National Occupational Standards which have been mandated as part of the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme. The principles contained in both provide an alternative picture

of police competence to the National Occupational Standards and potentially an alternative framework.

The recent review of policing states that the National Occupational Standards are “problematic” because “[t]he language used in academic in nature” and because “[s]ome of the NOS have been taken from other public sector organizations and are not ideally suited to the police service” (Flanagan, 2008, p. 47). It is argued further here that the National Occupational Standards are “not ideally suited to the police service” because they do not reflect the complex and changing context within which the police service operates. The National Occupational Standards do not assess how well student police officers will deal with the changing and the harrowing and uncertain nature of police work. As will be seen in the following chapters, the National Occupational Standards are not just unsuited to the police service at a national level but also at a local one.

Chapter Four: The Local Context-The Organisation

The Constabulary's response to the national Initial Police Learning and Development Programme initiative began in December 2003 when a project board was formed and a project manager appointed. The aim of the project was twofold; to examine current probationer training and to modernise it in line with the Constabulary's policing style and also to implement the new modernised programme (Project Board Minutes, December 2003).

The National Probationer Training Programme

Prior to this date, the Constabulary followed the national Probationer Training Programme. This involved:

Stage 1-a two-week induction conducted in force (a term used to denote training taking place at the Constabulary's premises) covering an introduction to policing and the Constabulary and preparation for Stage 2

Stage 2-fifteen weeks, and from April 2004 twelve weeks, of law training at a regional police training centre

Stage 3-two weeks of training conducted in force covering local polices and procedures including file preparation, information technology and staff protection, which was training in unarmed defence tactics and the use of incapacitant spray, handcuffs, leg restraints and baton

Stage 4-ten weeks of tutored patrol out on area under real operational conditions. Student police officers were usually posted to Probationer Training Units, of which there was one in each of the Constabulary's three command areas. These were staffed by a sergeant and five or six

constables. The constables would tutor the student police officers during this ten weeks tutoring phase while the sergeants had overall responsibility for their development throughout the whole of the initial two years of service. Depending on the availability of resources and the ability of the student police officers themselves, student police officers could also be tutored by the Probationer Training Units for five weeks and tutored on a patrol shift for five weeks or even tutored on shift for the whole ten weeks. At the successful completion of this ten week period students were deemed "fit for independent patrol" at week 31 of service

Stage 5-one week of training conducted in force covering further local procedure on file upgrading and information technology

Stage 6-three courses totalling five weeks again covering further law and local procedures conducted in force, including advanced interviewing techniques and dealing with sexual offences.

During Stages 5 and 6 students undertook police duties and patrolled independently of their tutors. Day to day management and responsibility of the students fell to shift sergeants, but the overall responsibility for development and discipline matters remained with the Probationer Training Unit sergeant. At the successful completion of their initial two years of service, student police officers were confirmed in the rank of police constable at week 104.

The competence of student police officers was formally judged at two points within their initial two years of service and this was in line with the national

requirements of the Probationer Training Programme, at week 31 to determine whether they were fit for independent patrol and could undertake their duties without a tutor accompanying them and at the end of the two years at week 104 when they were confirmed in the rank of constable.

The criteria for these judgements were a series of tasks, which covered a range of policing activity that student police officers would reasonably be expected to undertake during their initial two years of service. These were commonly known as the core tasks and are given in Appendix 6. There was also a range of core behaviours that student police officers were expected to display. These were communication, creativity and innovation, decision making, self-motivation and professional and ethical standards. To aid assessment, there were a series of negative and positive indicators against which student police officers were assessed. The police model of learning was based on the KUSAB model (HMIC, 2002, p. 44). KUSAB refers to knowledge, understanding, skills, attitudes and behaviour. The core tasks embodied the knowledge, understanding and skills required of a student police officer, while the core behaviours embodied the attitudes and behaviours. By devising criteria that covered both core tasks and core behaviours, it was thought that the assessment of student police officers would ensure they were competent against the whole range of KUSAB. It was thought that “[d]elivering training in line with KUSAB is a holistic approach to learning and should be viewed as a long-term investment. Exclusion of any of the elements may result in underdeveloped officers, the

use of which as a ready resource can be a false economy as it will lead to poor performance and public dissatisfaction” (HMIC, 2002, p. 45).

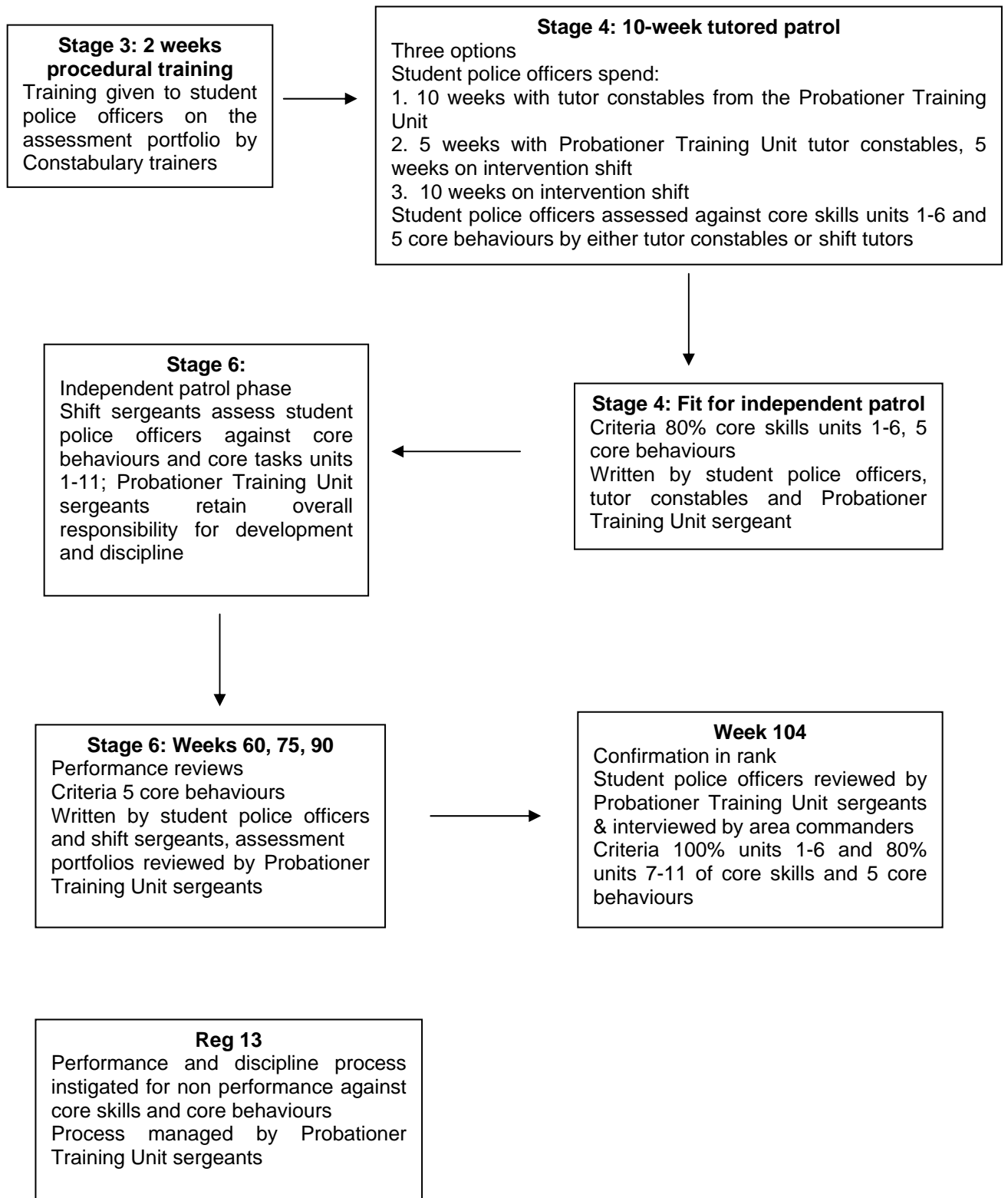
To be deemed fit for independent patrol at week 31 of service, student police officers had to complete 80% of core tasks within sections one to six and they also had to have positive reviews against the five core behaviours. Assessment was carried out by the tutor constables in the Probationer Training Units or shift tutors depending on who was tutoring the student police officers. For confirmation in the rank of constable, they had to complete 100% of tasks within section one to six and 80% of tasks within sections seven to eleven. Student police officers were also assessed against the five core behaviours at weeks 60, 75 and 90 of service and again had to have positive reviews against these behaviours. Assessment against the core tasks and core behaviours for confirmation in the rank of constable was done by the sergeants of the shifts student police officers were posted to when they had achieved fit for independent patrol. Final decisions about fit for independent patrol and confirmation in rank were made by the Probationer Training Unit sergeants and sanctioned by the commanders of the areas the student police officers were posted to.

A Constabulary version of a national assessment portfolio was used to record evidence of assessment and this contained both the core tasks and the core behaviours. The national assessment portfolio had been deemed to be too bureaucratic and time consuming to use by the Constabulary and a simplified version was in use instead. This was a “tick box” portfolio and

there were no agreed standards around sufficiency of evidence in order to determine when competence was achieved. This would potentially result in student police officers of differing abilities being deemed as fit for independent patrol or confirmed in rank.

Where 80% of tasks had to be achieved, any tasks falling within this limit were counted. There was no concept of prioritising the core skills to identify those that were critically essential. This implies that each of the tasks were seen as being equally important but there was always the potential for a student police officer to be deemed as fit for independent patrol without being competent in an operationally critical skill. This would be potentially more of a problem at fit for independent patrol because of the repetition of the completion of core tasks at confirmation in rank would ensure a wider range of tasks would be completed and assessed. This also potentially underlines the difficulty in identifying a central core of these operationally critical skills. For an overview of the assessment system prior to the implementation of the Initial Learning and Development Programme, see Figure One.

Figure One: Assessment of Students before the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme



The Initial Police Learning and Development Programme within the Constabulary

The Constabulary's policing style is based on intelligence led problem solving and visibility. The training of new police officers under the national Probationer Training Programme, as described above, did not allow student officers to gain a thorough understanding of the local policing style and the way it was supposed to influence their operational activity. The policing style broadly divides the activities of the Constabulary into four main elements, namely, neighbourhood policing (policing within local communities), investigation (the investigation of crime including interviewing victims, suspects and witnesses), intelligence (the gathering and use of information to aid proactive policing) and intervention (reactive response to incidents and crimes on a daily basis) and these formed the central focus of the Constabulary's Initial Police Learning and Development Programme.

In order to design and implement the Constabulary's Initial Police Learning and Development Programme, the training that was going to be delivered over the initial two years of service was divided into three distinct phases. Phase one focused on the training delivered during weeks eighteen to forty two of the two year training period and was due to go live in August 2004; phase two focused on the training delivered from week forty-two to the end of the two year training period and was due to go live in October 2005 while phase three focused on the first seventeen weeks of training and was due to go live in February 2006. As part of phase three, a new training facility was established within one of the Constabulary's police stations to familiarise

student officers with working at police premises. All go live dates were met and the programme was implemented in accordance with the agreed timescales.

The programme itself was designed to blend the delivery of relevant theory, including legislation and Constabulary procedures and processes, with practical application. For part one of the programme, student officers would undertake an initial training period of seventeen weeks that focused on underpinning law and procedural knowledge. Throughout this period there was also a requirement that they completed a series of role plays that gave them the opportunity to put the theory they had learnt into practice, albeit within a safe and controlled environment. The role plays were conducted in the local town centre with volunteer role players. This seventeen week training period culminated in an exercise that simulated a foot patrol, with the student police officers being assigned to a series of unknown incidents, again conducted in the local town centre with volunteer role players.

Part two of the programme, weeks eighteen to forty-two, extends the practical application into the workplace. Student police officers have to undertake a series of four modules, each consisting of a class based week followed by a five week attachment. This series of modules reflect the Constabulary's policing style and covers neighbourhood policing, intelligence, investigation and intervention. The training is progressive, with each module building on the knowledge learnt from the previous one. The aim was that by the end of the series of modules, the student police officers

would have a thorough awareness of the Constabulary's policing style and a good enough level of skills to enable them to police in accordance with it. For the attachments, student police officers would work with local policing teams with their day to day activity guided by coaches from those local teams (Project Board Minutes, January 2004).

On completion of the attachment phase, from week forty-two onwards, student police officers would be expected to perform operational roles, usually within intervention teams, without the support and assistance of coaches until they were confirmed in rank of police constable at the end of the two year training period. During this period, the student police officers have to complete three mandatory stand-alone courses that cover policing serious incidents, such as terrorism, dealing with serious sexual offences including actions as the first responder at a reported incident involving sexual assault and more advanced investigative interviewing techniques (for an overview of the programme see Table 2).

As well as designing and implementing a new training programme for student police officers, the Constabulary's Initial Police Learning and Development Programme also implemented a new system for assessing student officers, in response to the assessment requirements of the national Initial Police Learning and Development Programme initiative.

Table 2: The Constabulary’s Initial Police Learning and Development Programme

Phase 3	Part 1	Weeks 1-17	Initial law, IT and staff protection training delivered at the satellite training centres, one week annual leave
Phase 1	Part 2	Week 18	Neighbourhood policing theory delivered at the central training centre
		Weeks 19-23	Attachment to local neighbourhood policing teams
		Week 24	Intelligence policing theory delivered at the central training centre
		Weeks 25-29	Attachment to local intelligence teams
		Week 30	Investigative interviewing theory delivered at the central training centre
		Weeks 31-35	Attachment to local investigation teams
		Weeks 36	Intervention policing theory delivered at the central training centre
		Weeks 37-41	Attachment to local intervention teams
Phase 2	Part 3	Week 42-104	Posting to local policing teams, usually intervention
		Week 60	Policing serious incidents theory delivered at the central training centre
		Week 75	Dealing with serious sexual offences delivered at the central training centre
		Week 90-91	Advanced investigative interviewing theory delivered at the central training centre

Assessment Infrastructure

Student police officers are assessed against the twenty-two National Occupational Standards (see Appendix 1). In order to deliver assessment against the National Occupational Standards, the Constabulary achieved centre status with an NVQ awarding body. There is a “burden of assessment” and this burden can take a variety of forms. According to Power, “[m]ethods of checking and verification are diverse, sometimes

perverse, sometimes burdensome, and always costly” (1997, p. 1). If forces, such as the Constabulary, are delivering the policing qualification to awarding body standards, a specific infrastructure is required to assess student police officers against the National Occupational Standards. There have to be sufficient numbers of assessors and internal verifiers, and these assessors and verifiers need to hold the relevant qualifications or be actively working towards them. In any case, the assessment of student police officers and the verification of the assessment process has to be undertaken in line with awarding body requirements. Within forces, including the Constabulary, assessors and verifiers are trained and in some cases qualified but then change role as police officer posts are subject to ongoing change. If the new posts do not involve interaction with student police officers, assessment and verification skills lie dormant. There is also a cost implication in terms of registering and certificating not only the assessors and internal verifiers for their qualifications but also the student police officers themselves in terms of the policing NVQs.

As a result, the Probationer Training Units, which previously tutored student police officers for ten weeks and are described above, were restructured into Professional Development Units, staffed by the same sergeant and constables. In order to meet the awarding body requirements, both the sergeants and the constables were expected to qualify as assessors (A1 award) while in addition the sergeants were also required to qualify as an internal verifier (V1 award). These qualifications were not required under the previous national Probationer Training Programme. Standardisation

meetings were implemented also to meet awarding body requirements. The meetings have the aim of aligning assessment practice across the three Professional Development Units in relation to the assessment of student police officers against the National Occupational Standards. Again, this was not a requirement under the national Probationer Training Programme and was designed in part to counter the lack of standardised practice within that previous programme as discussed above.

The clear definition of the National Occupational Standards (see Chapter Two) as well as the existence of workplace expertise is designed to make assessment against those standards unproblematic and this is part of the theoretical basis competence based assessment. It is assumed that once the assessors are familiar with and know the content of the standards and how they relate to their own workplace, the actual practice of assessment will follow easily. It is also assumed that evidence will be collected in an individualised way to suit the requirements of the learner but in a way that will still meet national standards. The training of the assessors and internal verifiers of vocational qualifications, such as that delivered within the Constabulary, is concerned with the mechanics of using the National Occupational Standards and recording performance against them. The interpretation and application of those particular standards are seen as quite unproblematic and the same can be said for external verifiers (Wolf, 1995, pp. 27-28; p. 56).

The standardisation meetings contribute to this view. At these meetings, pieces of evidence that have been submitted for assessment and the judgements made in relation to that piece of evidence and the National Occupational Standards against which it has been judged, are discussed and reassessed by the Professional Development Unit assessors. This is to ensure that the same judgements are being made with similar pieces of evidences. Any problems and issues are also identified and a common approach decided for future assessments should the same issues reoccur.

As Wolf says, this shows that, although the standards on which vocational qualifications are based are intended to be so precise that they convey exactly what an assessor should look for, “this goal of precision has proved elusive” (Wolf, 1995, p. 55). In addition, “the proper relations between judgement as embodied in rules and judgement as an individual and local act-continue to be negotiated, implicitly and explicitly, through the assessment process” (Baume et al, 2004, p. 470). When a portfolio is being assessed, even apparently trivial assessment judgements are not wholly unproblematic; if assessors give reasons for their judgements, implicit assessment criteria can be found within them; complex and seemingly precise assessment protocols can still result in areas of uncertainty for those using them. Also assessors may not properly understand the published outcomes and criteria or they may not agree with them (Baume et al, 2004, p. 471).

A study by Greatorex found that “[a]ssessors approach the criteria...in a similar way. However, the assessors’ responses at criterion level and their comments illustrate that they have individual opinions about which individual criteria and/or evidence requirements have not been met. This is due to individual differences between assessors and how they interpret evidence and criteria” (Greatorex, 2005, p. 162). Another study of comments made by the assessors to explain their assessment judgements suggest “they are responding to the assessment rules on a continuum from ‘rules are rules’ through ‘whether I like them or not’ to ‘my judgements are sounder than slavish application of the rules’. Another continuum stretches from ‘evidence must be clearly and accurately labelled and in the proper place’ to ‘I am prepared to dig for and identify evidence that makes the case’”(Baume et al, 2004, p. 470).

These are the types of issues the standardisation meetings are designed to address. This not only has implications for the standardised application of the National Occupational Standards as common minimum standards within the Constabulary but also across all forty-three Home Office forces within the service.

Additional Assessment Criteria

As with the national Initial Police Learning and Development Programme, it was felt within the Constabulary that the National Occupational Standards did not provide sufficient criteria against which to assess student police officers, particularly in relation to the behavioural aspects of policing.

However, instead of assessing student police officers against the Learning Development Reviews as mandated by the national Initial Police Learning and Development Programme (see Chapter Two above), the Constabulary assesses its student police officers against a range of Core Behaviours and these have changed over time. When the Constabulary's Initial Police Learning and Development Programme was first implemented, there were originally seven core behaviours and these were effective communication, team working, problem solving, community and customer focus, respect for race and diversity, personal responsibility and resilience. As with the five core behaviours used under the previous Probationer Training Programme, there were a series of positive and negative indicators against which to assess the student police officers.

The process to assess student police officers within the Constabulary and any arising issues are discussed at a quarterly meeting between the Professional Development Unit sergeants and the Constabulary's Learning and Development function. It is during these meetings that any process changes and amendments are made. As explained above, the seven core behaviours are used to review student police officers. However, when they are confirmed in rank, they are subject to a yearly appraisal that uses a broader yet overlapping set of behaviours. From January 2009, openness to change was added to the range of Core Behaviours the Constabulary's student police officers are assessed against so there that is some consistency with the appraisal process that comes into play after they have been confirmed in the rank of constable.

Instead of competence being formally judged at two points within the initial two years of service at fit for independent patrol and confirmation in rank, as was done under the previous Probationer Training Programme or even currently under the national Initial Police Learning and Development Programme, within the Constabulary's Initial Police Learning and Development Programme this has increased to three. These three points are week 31 of service for a performance related pay increment; week 42 for fit for independent patrol and confirmation in rank of constable at the end of the two years at week 104. Week 31 is the point at which students were previously deemed as fit for independent patrol under the Probationer Training Programme and the pay increment is fixed in police regulations. This pay increment was carried forward by the Constabulary into the new training programme. In order to be eligible for the pay increment, students have to be deemed by the Professional Development Unit sergeant as "progressing as the organisation would expect for week 31" (Project Board Minutes, April 2004). They were reviewed against five of the seven Core Behaviours (effective communication, personal responsibility, respect for race and diversity, team working, community and customer focus). However, common practice for two out of the three Professional Development Unit sergeants was to conduct reviews against all the behaviours (see Appendix 7, section 2). As a result, all the Core Behaviours are now used to assess student police officers. Student police officers are also expected to have made progress against the National Occupational Standards, although this has not been defined. They are also expected to complete a set of IT tasks contained within an IT assessment booklet.

However, it is not common practice to withhold the incremental pay rise at week 31. Sergeant 1 says “It is a big step to withhold payment. I don’t do it often...I err on the side of giving action plans...the fallback is week 42” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 2.2). Sergeant 2 believes “Pay is withheld on average every third intake for someone and some more than once” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 2, 2.24). For Sergeant 3 “Nine out of ten times the pay increment is given. I’ve held back one in the year I have been in...There are some with development issues but they were not withheld as they were trying” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 3, 2.13). Sergeant 3 also says “Rather than proving they should be given their increment, I am looking to see whether they shouldn’t” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 3, 2.12). It could be that proving a student police officer cannot do something is easier than proving they can.

Nationally students have to be assessed against the Police Action Checklists to be deemed fit for independent patrol (see Chapter Two above). The Constabulary took the decision not to assess against these checklists as it was felt it would introduce a two tier system of assessment. The standard for assessment and competence was taken to be the twenty-two National Occupational Standards. Instead, for fit for independent patrol at week 42, student police officers are assessed against all of the core behaviours and are expected to have made progress against the National Occupational Standards; again this progress is not defined. Again there are further IT tasks to complete. As with week 31, a positive assessment at week 42 for fit for independent patrol is given more often than it is not. Sergeant 3 says “Unless there are any action plans or development at that point, they are fit

for independent patrol if nothing has arisen during intervention” and she “need[s] to prove they are not fit rather than they are” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 3, 3.6; 3.7;). E-mails are sent to the supervisory sergeants two weeks beforehand as a reminder “that students will be fit for independent patrol unless I hear otherwise so I need to have any issues identified” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 3, 3.5).

However, the Constabulary has formalised the use of attachment checklists. These are used instead of the Police Action Checklist, but unlike the Police Action Checklist, these attachment checklists are not used to determine competence or used to make decisions about whether a student police officer is fit for independent patrol. They are designed to give information to the student police officers, and also their attachment supervisors and coaches, about what is expected of them during each attachment. The only exception here is the investigation checklist which does contain tasks the student police officer is assessed against by the coach. These checklists also guide student officers in how evidence can be collected to contribute towards their assessment against the National Occupational Standards. The checklists define the work type and tasks that are relevant to each attachment and identify the National Occupational Standards that relate specifically to that attachment work type and tasks. For example, for the intelligence attachment, one of the work types is listed as “intelligence”. The related task is to obtain, collate and record intelligence on the Constabulary’s computerised intelligence system. The National Occupational Standard this

activity would provide evidence for is the unit concerned with gathering and submitting information that has the potential to support policing objectives.

For confirmation in the rank of constable, all twenty-two National Occupational Standards have to be completed as well as a review against all of the core behaviours. In reality, a review is not conducted at the end of the initial two years of service for confirmation in rank. Instead the week 90 review is used. These reviews have to be positive and there cannot be any outstanding action plans (Appendix 7, section 5). However, as with the week 31 incremental pay rise, there is a degree of inevitability. Sergeant 1 says that student police officers are automatically confirmed in rank and that “if no-one comes to me and says the officer is crap, why should I go looking for bad eggs? I assume it would have been picked up before” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 5.1 & 5.5). Week 90 and confirmation in rank are too late in time to highlight performance issues that should have been apparent earlier. Sergeant 3 says “In terms of performance, and conduct, unless there is a serious discipline issue, it won’t affect confirmation in rank...They are confirmed in rank unless there is a Reg 13 or an extension to their probation. It comes around anyway...it would be nice if it was the other way round” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 3, 5.1 & 5.5). Reg 13 is the performance management and discipline process for student police officers. As with the week 31 payment, it seems competence is assumed unless incompetence can be proved. This is in line with the approach taken to the Code of Conduct (see Chapter Three) and in contrast to assessment against the National Occupational Standards where competence needs to be evidenced

and proved. As Westera says, competence is determined by successful performance and this could be the result of chance. It is more logical that incompetence can be determined rather than competence (2001, p. 82).

Positive reviews against the core behaviours also have to be completed at weeks 60, 75 and 90 of service. Reviews against the core behaviours were also required after the end of each of the four attachments but these attachment reviews were discontinued for a number of reasons. One of these attachment reviews coincided with the week 31 review and was therefore not completed. Not all of the Professional Development Unit sergeants conducted the attachment reviews and it was felt the review process was too bureaucratic and time consuming with reviews being conducted at weeks 31, 42, 60, 75 and 90 anyway.

The Assessors

Regarding who carries out the assessment of student police officers and when this is done, the Constabulary attempted to implement a similar system to the Probationer Training Programme in order to lessen the impact of change that the implementation of the National Occupational Standards brought with it. Assessment under the Probationer Training Programme was split between the Probationer Training Unit and the shift sergeants. When the Constabulary's Initial Police Learning and Development Programme was first implemented, the Professional Development Unit constables assessed student police officers up to and including fit for independent patrol at week 42. They were responsible for assessment against the National

Occupational Standards and completing the reviews against the core behaviours. Coaches, who are responsible for the day to day activity of students while they were on their attachments, had no obligation toward the assessment process although they are expected to liaise with the assessors about the performance of the student police officers. After this point, sergeants on the shifts were responsible for assessment against the National Occupational Standards and completing the reviews against the core behaviours. As with the stage system, the Professional Development Unit Sergeants retained responsibility for the development and discipline of the student police officers for the whole of their initial two years of service. Because the sergeants on shift were assessing student police officers against the National Occupational Standards, they were required to assess to the standards of the assessment qualification (A1 award) but they were not necessarily required to gain the qualification itself. They were also required to attend standardisation meetings.

It seems logical that the shift sergeants the student police officers would be working with during the latter part of their initial two years of service should assess them against the National Occupational Standards. The strategy for assessment of NVQs within the police sector recommends that assessors must be “occupationally competent” (PSSO, 2004, p. 5). Leaving aside the definition of the term “competent”, which has been discussed elsewhere (see Chapter Two above), according to the strategy this means “that each assessor must be competent in the functions covered by the units they are assessing, to the standards described within them, according to sector

practice. They will have gained their occupational competence working within the police sector or within an appropriate occupational sector” (PSSO, 2004, p. 5). Assessors also have to “current experience within their occupational roles” and this is defined as having held “the post for a minimum of one year within the past two years which involved performing the activities defined in the standards as an experienced practitioner or trainer” (PSSO, 2004, p. 5). The shift sergeants were deemed to have this occupational competence and current experience due to their role and position within the Constabulary and due to the tasks they and their teams performed. They were also thought to be best placed to observe the performance of student police officers as they undertook their duties as they were directly responsible for their line management.

However, there were issues with the way responsibility for assessment was split. Assessment of student police officers up until fit for independent patrol was conducted by the constable assessors within the Professional Development Units and met awarding body requirements. The apparent quality of assessment diminished after this point when it became the responsibility of shift and supervisory sergeants. In addition, assessment activity was not being consistently undertaken. There were a number of reasons for this. The sergeants’ own workloads and the size of the teams they managed meant they could not assess to the standards required. The assessment of student police officers would just be one of a range of responsibilities they had. Also turnover of staff meant consistency of assessment could not be guaranteed for individual student police officers. If

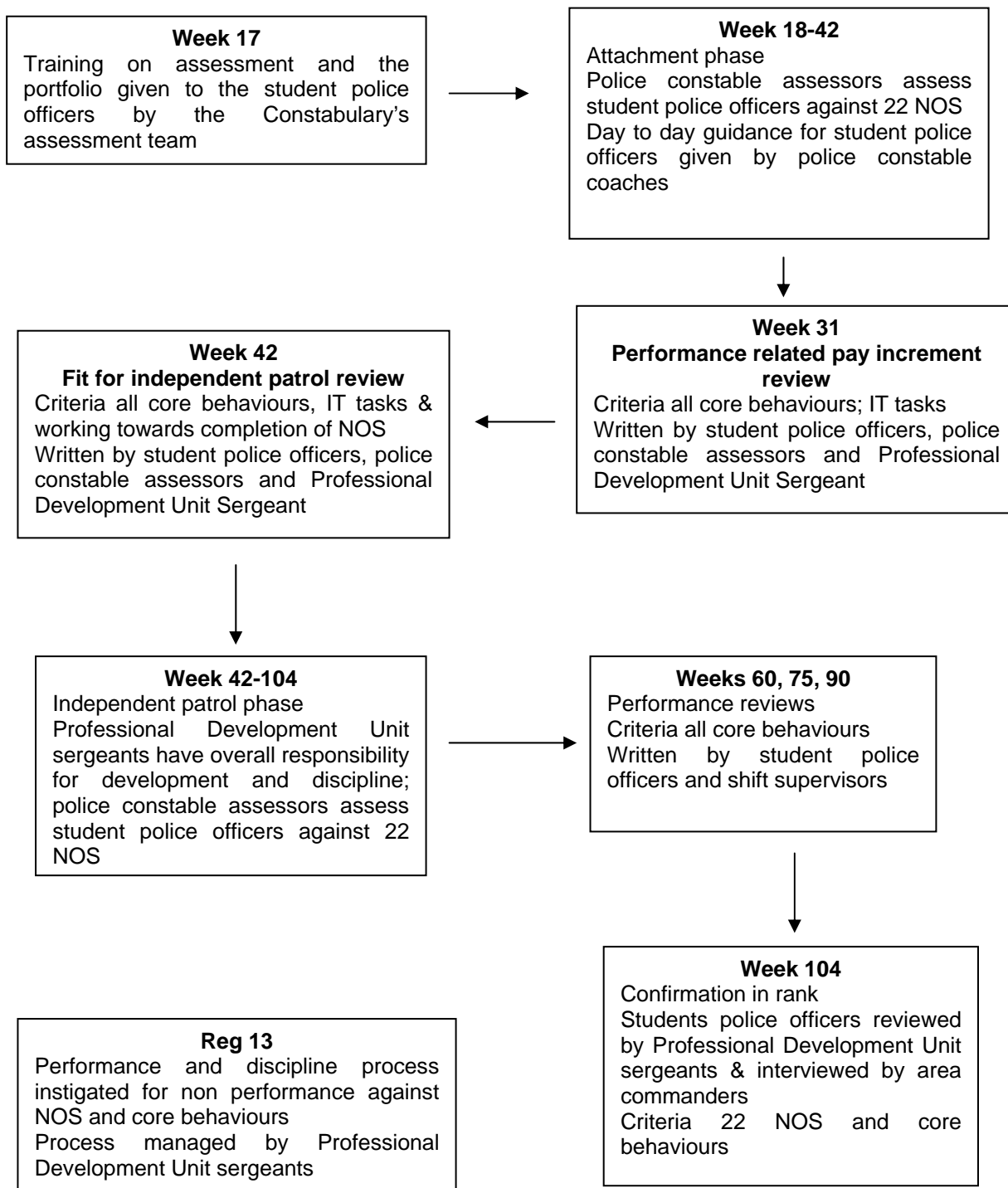
the student police officers' supervisory sergeants changed role, they could potentially be assessed by a number of assessors. There were also cultural issues around where responsibility for staff development sat within the organisation. In effect there was a tension between the responsibility of line managers, such as the student police officers' supervisory sergeants, in developing their own staff and the services provided by the Constabulary's Learning and Development department to develop and train staff on a more widespread basis. A recent article has also highlighted that assessment was done in addition to the "day job of policing" and that sergeants and constables working with student police officers "show resistance to work-based assessment for student officers" (JPR, 16th March 2007, p. 10). The act of assessment was not seen as contributing to policing and as a result, assessment by supervisors was not functioning as it was intended.

Issues surrounding the use of supervisors are not confined to the Constabulary. Field refers to similar issues at a pig station in the Midlands where it was clear that if a supervisor was satisfied with a trainee's performance at the level of overall output, they were simply ticking the relevant boxes in the trainees' log books, apparently with little concern for whether or not each particular unit of competence was being demonstrated in performance (Field, 1995, p. 37).

These were not problems new to the Constabulary's Initial Police learning and Development Programme. They were apparent under the previous Probationer Training Programme as well. This serves to highlight

implementation and ongoing maintenance issues for any assessment system within a workplace. As a result a decision was made that the Professional Development Units would retain responsibility for assessing student police officers against the National Occupational Standards for the whole of the initial two years of service. Shift sergeants would still be responsible for completing reviews against the core behaviours (Assessment Meeting, November 2007). For an overview of the assessment system under the Initial Learning and Development Programme, see Figure Two.

Figure Two: Assessment of Student Police Officers under the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme



The number of National Occupational Standards student police officers were assessed against and mandated for confirmation in rank of constable was always set at twenty two by the National Initial Police Learning and Development initiative (see Chapter Two above). Within the Constabulary, this was difficult to accomplish for a number of reasons. The shift sergeants workloads and sizes of the teams they manage have already been mentioned. In addition, the system of assessment against National Occupational Standards was new to the Constabulary and involved the implementation of a new assessment infrastructure and training regime that took time to embed. Student police officers are recruited on a six week intake cycle, and the original business plan for the Constabulary's Initial Police Learning and Development Programme was worked on intakes of fifteen student police officers. Intakes of twenty were projected during the project phase but in reality intakes could number up to thirty student police officers depending on the requirements of the Constabulary. The size of the intakes, which could vary greatly between intakes, impacted on the Constabulary's capability to assess the student police officers.

As a result, an interim measure was proposed and agreed regarding completion of the National Occupational Standards. When the assessment process was first implemented, the first three intakes had to complete fourteen units or 65% of the National Occupational Standards; the next three intakes had to complete eighteen units or 80% and thereafter intakes had to complete all twenty-two National Occupational Standards. (Project Board

Minutes, November 2005). This interim measure concerned the number of units required for confirmation in rank.

It is worth noting that the twenty-two National Occupational Standards were not prioritised when this interim measure was agreed. However, over time the number of National Occupational Standards to be completed did not rise incrementally as set down by the project board meeting minutes. Instead they remained at fourteen until April 2007 when the minimum qualification of the policing NVQ level 3 and 4 was adopted across the police service. As described in Chapter Two, this policing NVQ comprises all twenty-two of the National Occupational Standards.

In asking the three Professional Development Unit sergeants how many National Occupational Standards they were assessing students against for confirmation in rank, one did not answer the question and one could not answer the question. The remaining sergeant said that there have been 102 confirmations in rank on his area and all have been at fourteen units. The first group of students who would be confirmed with twenty-two National Occupational Standards were due to complete in May 2009.

The Constabulary did not adopt the national Student Officer Learning and Assessment Portfolio, but instead implemented its own portfolio based on the portfolio used for work based assessment for its promotions process so there was a consistency of approach and documentation within the Constabulary. In September 2007 it started using an electronic portfolio based on this

portfolio. Sergeant 2, in his interview, confirmed that fourteen units were required for confirmation in rank for student police officers using a paper based portfolio and twenty-two units were required for those using the electronic portfolio. The number of National Occupational Standards completed in this case depends on the portfolio used and not any definition of competence for a student police officer.

The Constabulary has implemented its Initial Police Learning and Development programme broadly in line with national requirements but with some notable differences. The Constabulary does not assess against the Police Action Checklists for fit for independent patrol and until two years ago, did not require completion of all twenty two National Occupational Standards for confirmation in rank. This was done to meet the Constabulary's own needs and to resolve implementation issues with the new assessment system necessitated by the national Initial Police Learning and Development Programme.

As a result the Constabulary's process for the assessment of student police officers appears more streamlined than the national process as it relies on assessment against the National Occupational Standards and not the Police Action Checklist in addition. The reviews against the Core Behaviours are completed instead of the Learning Development Review as advocated by the National Initial Police Learning and Development Programme. Even with this more streamlined approach, as with the national assessment process it was still thought of as bureaucratic, hence the changes to the assessment

process as described above. One of the operational police officers interviewed said that the assessment process needs to be balanced with an appropriate “return on investment”: “If ...the assessment was balanced, namely you got out what you put in the Constabulary would have better student officers. The assessment system at the moment means there is too much effort for too little benefit.”

Flanagan, when discussing the assessment of student police officers in his recent review of policing, explicitly mentioned that “[t]here is onerous duplication of evidence/cross referencing required” (2008, p. 47). When looking at the National Occupational Standards, the Police Action Checklist and the Learning Development Reviews there appears to be a good deal of similarity between the criteria student police officers are assessed against (see Appendices 1-3).

As well as the duplication of evidence, there also appears to be a heavy burden regarding the time it takes to conduct and complete the assessment of student police officers. A study of a metropolitan force has identified that on average supervisors carrying out assessment activity spend 35.2 hours per student police officer. Under the Probationer Training Programme process they spent 11.5 hours. Student police officers spend 1.9 hours per week in duty time completing paperwork relating to assessment against the National Occupational Standards and a further 4.5 hours off duty time (Flanagan, 2008, p. 47). Flanagan found that the “area of workplace assessment and accreditation has also proved controversial across the

service. The importance of both these areas is high but there is a real risk that we turn them into a bureaucratic nightmare some of which is self-imposed" (2008, p. 46). This appears to be at odds with Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary's recommendation for the police service to design and adopt a simplified portfolio, (HMIC, 2002, p. 108).

Both Hyland (1994, p. 43) and Wolf refer to the bureaucracy of assessment system, with Wolf saying that NVQs have generated ever more detailed assessment requirements of a rather atomistic type to be provided in either authentic work place environments or the closest simulated equivalent. According to her, an analysis of requirements of popular NVQs show that in many cases it is actually impossible to do all the assessments required in the time available (199, p. 109). Eraut et al say that although NVQs claim to be performance-based qualifications, the assessment and quality assurance processes are "dominated by paperwork". This follows on from their commitment to achieving reliability and validity through tightly specified standards (1996, p. 8). The assessment requirements under the new qualifications and credit framework (see Chapter Two) could potentially streamline the assessment process.

The inherent bureaucracy associated with assessment against the National Occupational Standards necessitated a move away from written personal and witness statements as the main source of evidence for the assessment portfolio to a more observation based system. In the view of Eraut, direct

observation is the most valid and sometimes the only method of collecting evidence for assessment (1994, p. 201).

As has been described above, the Police Action Checklist was not implemented within the Constabulary as it was thought this would mean there would be a two tier assessment process. However, this is what the Constabulary has actually ended up. Although paperwork for assessment against the National Occupational Standards and reviews against the Core Behaviours were kept in the same assessment portfolio and so gave the appearance of being a single assessment system, assessment against the two are in reality quite distinct. This distinction is underlined by the fact the Constabulary was required to remove reviews against the Core Behaviours from the student police officers' assessment portfolios as they did not fall within the awarding body requirements for the external verification of assessment against the National Occupational Standards. The reviews are now kept separately. This can also be seen with use of the electronic portfolio as the reviews against the Core Behaviours are not completed using this system. The issues around the time bound nature of the national assessment system has been discussed elsewhere (see Chapter Two above) and the same problems are relevant here.

The Constabulary has interpreted the national assessment requirements as described in Chapter Two to meet its own organisational needs. As a result, although similar, national and local assessment criteria are different, and while student officers may be judged as competent at a local level, if it was

tested at a national level they potentially may not. This does beg the question of what the definition of the competence of student police officers within the police service actually is. It could be argued that the National Occupational Standards, as the common denominator between the national Initial Police Learning and Development Programme and the Constabulary's own programme are fulfilling their remit as a common minimum standard of competence. However, the interviews with the Professional Development Unit sergeants will begin to highlight that this is not necessarily the case.

Chapter Five: The Local Context-The Practitioners

The interviews with the Professional Development Unit sergeants confirm that in broad terms they are assessing student police officers in line with the requirements of the Constabulary's assessment process, as described in the previous chapter. The necessary reviews are taking place at Week 31, 42 and confirmation in rank (see Appendix 7, sections 2, 3 and 5). However, the evidence that is taken into account when the sergeants have to make competency judgements is being gathered from the earliest moment they interact with the student police officers on occasions such as the attestation evening, where student police officers are formally conferred with their powers, as well as introductory sessions and assessed role play exercises during the first sixteen weeks of training (See Appendix 7, Section 1). As Sergeant 1 says "views are formed at the beginning, at the attestation evening" (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 1.1). The attestation is when student police officers are formally sworn with their police powers and receive their warrant cards. Sergeant 1 is looking for student police officers to be engaged in this process. He cited an example of a student police officer who was "bored to tears" when the Assistant Chief Constable was addressing the intake (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 1.1).

The Role of the National Occupational Standards

Equally, what is also clear is the seemingly subordinate role the National Occupational Standards appear to play within the decision making processes of the Professional Development Unit sergeants, despite the central role they have been accorded within the national, and also local, Initial Police Learning

and Development Programme. At the week 31 review for the incremental pay rise, it is felt that it is too early to measure student police officers against the National Occupational Standards (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 6.1). Sergeant 3 says at this point “I don’t necessarily want to see that they have cracked the NVQ” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 3, 6.1). Similarly at the week 42 review for fit for independent patrol, “you can’t say that if a student has not completed three units they are not fit for independent patrol. It might be the student’s fault...it could be the assessor, the supervisor, the workload” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 6.2). In addition, Sergeant 1 says that there are “peaks and troughs” in submitting work for the assessment against the National Occupational Standards, “peaks, when they first start, then it goes quiet on the TAC team attachment, then a peak on CIT. On intervention, it drops off. Students are too busy to submit” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 6.5)¹.

For Sergeant 2, at week 42 there is a target of “twenty pieces of work for evidence” but the “units achieved is irrelevant as we need to ensure they are submitting work” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 2, 6.1). Sergeant 3 likes to see “a couple of units signed off” but more importantly she wants to see that the student police officer has regular contact with the assessors and makes regular evidence submissions. Ultimately, “if students are falling behind with the NVQ but performing well operationally, they are still fit for independent patrol.” If this does happen, the student police officer concerned would get a documented warning (Appendix 7, Sergeant 3, 6.3; 6.4; 6.5).

¹ The TAC team are proactive policing teams responsible for executing search warrants; CIT is an investigative team responsible for interviewing suspects held in police custody and intervention is the Constabulary’s 24/7 emergency response capability.

All of the Professional Development Unit sergeants are aware that the National Occupational Standards need to be completed by the student police officers before confirmation in rank: “The portfolio needs to be completed before they are confirmed in rank” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 6. 12; Sergeant 2, 6.2; Sergeant 3, 6.7) and action is taken by the sergeants to ensure that the National Occupational Standards are completed such as action plans and regular individual review meetings. (Appendix 7, Sergeant 2, 6.1; Sergeant 3, 6.6; 6.5). However, this does not necessarily mean that confirmation in rank is withheld if assessment against all of the standards is not completed: “If a student does not complete the PDP, confirmation in rank is not necessarily withheld...The only thing that might not have been done are the tick boxes on the NOS. There are no guidelines about confirmation in rank and the PDP” (Sergeant 1, 6. 11).²

“Competent” and “Not Competent” Judgements and Development

Certain disadvantages with assessment of student police officers against the National Occupational Standards were highlighted by the Professional Development Unit sergeants. The only judgements that can be made are “competent” and “not yet competent”. As Wolf says “either the person has consistently demonstrated workplace performance which meets the specified criteria or they are not yet able to do so ... Grading is rejected-the idea being that someone either has or has not reached the level required by a holistic model of competence” (Wolf, 1995, p. 22; see also Rolls, 1997, p. 200). Although grading does not fall within the principles of assessment against the

² The PDP is the term used for the student police officer assessment portfolio.

National Occupational Standards, Sergeant 1 does compare student police officers to others on the intake: "I ask why this person looks different...I look for balance" (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 7.6).

Mitchell places a different emphasis on the "competent" and "not yet competent" judgements that are made as part of the assessment process. The assessment process itself entails gathering evidence and making judgements on it in order to make inferences on an individual's competence. These judgements are more subtle than competent or not competent. Instead the judgement being made is whether there is sufficient evidence to infer a student police officer is competent; whether there is insufficient evidence to infer a student police officer's competence at the present time although they may well be so; or that from the evidence which is currently unavailable it is unlikely that the student police officer is competent at present (Mitchell, 1989, pp. 60-61).

Whatever the reality behind the "competent" and "not competent" judgements, such judgements are at odds with the needs of the Professional Development Unit sergeants. According to Sergeant 1, a "blank in the NOS does not say anything. A report from a sergeant can say a lot more. Blanks don't tell me a student can't do it, just they have provided no evidence" (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 6.9). Also there are no "development areas. For a student officer to be competent, they need development areas so they can improve" (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 6.8). Sergeant 2 also wants development and progress because for "week 60, 75 and 90 there are no specified targets

but I want progress” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 2, 6.1). Sergeant 3 comments that she is looking for “development at a basic level. I don’t necessarily want to see a rounded officer out there but someone trying their hardest” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 3, 2.10). She wants to “look at someone throwing themselves in, learning and picking themselves up and doing it again” rather than someone who is “good or excellent”; she is also “looking for development at a basic level. I don’t necessarily want to see a rounded officer out there but someone trying their hardest” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 3, 2.6; 2.10; 2.11). Intake 1 also highlighted areas of development as essential for student police officers (Appendix 9).

As Hyland says, there are fundamental connections between learning and development and both are necessary and complimentary to each other. He feels it would be difficult to imagine a systematic programme of learning which did not in some sense include the monitoring of a learner’s progress (1994, p. 49). The “competent” or “not competent” judgements that are necessitated by assessment against the National Occupational Standards do not allow for the identification of development and improvement which is crucial to the Professional Development Unit sergeants’ determination of the competence of student police officers.

Feedback from Others

Although assessment against the National Occupational Standards is individualistic and based on one to one correspondence between the student police officer and the standards in order to determine competence (Wolf,

1995, p. 21), when making judgements about the competence of student police officers, the views of others is critical to the Professional Development Unit sergeants (see also Intake 1, Appendix 9). Sergeant 1 says “For week 31, I talk to the students and get feedback from the coaches and assessors.” For him “Feedback from the coaches, assessors, supervisors...this is the biggest thing...I make judgements from these...If they all say fine, I look no further” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 7.2; 7.3). For week 42, “I look at comments from supervisors...I look at what they are actually saying about how a student officer does the job” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 7.4). Sergeant 2 says that the “assessor interviews the coach get quite a bit of evidence...performance evidence from the coach...sometimes get if through from the sergeants but you have to hunt them down. I need examples if they thought the student officer was great or if they did not like them. The more sources of feedback the better” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 2, 7.2). Similarly Sergeant 3 also comments “I take into account other people’s feedback...As part of the week 31 procedure I listen to feedback from the coaches and sergeants ... students would have been on two or three teams.” For week 42 “I want exactly the same as the week 31 review...feedback from the coach and the sergeant” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 3, 7.2; 7.3; 7.4).

This approach can on occasion cause conflict between the Professional Development Unit sergeant and the supervisory shift sergeant when it comes to the competence of student police officers. For example, Sergeant 2 recounted an example where a “student officer was not performing well and ignoring the eNVQ ... they were immature and petulant when told to do

things and liked the idea of driving around in a police car and not doing tasks. I thought there were loads of things to action plan here ... The patrol sergeant saw a keen and enthusiastic person and wanted them fit for independent patrol...the custody sergeant had seen their workload spiraling out of control.” He went on to say that “there were conflicting views and I needed to get to the bottom of it. The PDU decided not to make the student fit for independent patrol and the patrol sergeant got the right old hump” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 2, 7.3). From this example, it seems that the view of a student officer’s ability and competence differs between the individuals who have a vested interest in ensuring the student police officer possesses that ability and competence.

However, despite the importance of the views of others when making competency decisions about student police officers, the Professional Development Unit sergeants find that obtaining that feedback from some individuals is far from easy. Sergeant 1 likens it to “banging [his] head against a brick wall” and he says there are enough student police officers in the system for him to employ “a person two days a week just to chase reviews” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 7.8). Sergeant 2 encounters similar problems and has even resorted to “naming and shaming” despite the fact that the supervisory sergeants have a mandatory yearly appraisal objective to complete the necessary assessments for their staff (Appendix 7, Sergeant 2, 7.4). Although difficult to obtain, these views form part of the evidence the Professional Development Unit sergeants make their decisions on and in this respect the reviews against the core behaviours seem more

able to meet the needs of the sergeants than the National Occupational Standards.

The Role of the Core Behaviours

This is not to say that the assessment of student police officers against the National Occupational Standards holds no worth to the Professional Development Unit sergeants. It is clear from the interviews with these sergeants that the interaction of the student police officer with the National Occupational Standards provides evidence for the Core Behaviours. For example, Sergeant 1 says that if student police officers are not engaging with the National Occupational Standards “this shows a lack of personal responsibility. There is a cross over into the core skills ... Non-completion gives evidence for the core skill of personal responsibility” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 6.1; 6.3, 6.4). Sergeant 3 echoes this: “I don’t necessarily want to see that they have cracked the NVQ but I do want to see that they produce regular submissions, they are giving it a go and have regular contact with their assessor. If not, this would flag up personal responsibility ... I am looking for supportive evidence of the NVQ” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 3, 6.1; 6.2).

And it is these Core Behaviours that the Professional Development Unit sergeants seem to rely on most heavily in order to make competency judgements about the student police officers at weeks 31 and 42 and for confirmation in rank. The interviews with the Professional Development Unit sergeants were conducted before the Core Behaviours were changed (see

Chapter Four above). At the time the sergeants were interviewed, five out of the original seven Core Behaviours were assessed for the pay increment at week 31. These were effective communication, personal responsibility, respect for race and diversity, team working and lastly community and customer focus. Resilience and problem solving were not part of the formal assessment. For fit for independent patrol at week 42 and confirmation in the rank of constable, all seven of the core behaviours were assessed.

All three Professional Development Unit sergeants assess the student police officers against the Core Behaviours at week 31. Sergeant 3 assesses against five of them as described above (Appendix 7, Sergeant 3, 2.2), while Sergeants 1 and 2 assess against all seven, although for Sergeant 2, evidence for the five Core Behaviours as listed above have to be mainly positive (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 2.3; Sergeant 2, 2.1). Sergeant 1 is aware that some of the behaviours are hard to evidence and says “resilience might be hard to evidence but you can see it through the actions they take when dealing with incidents and their sick record” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 2.4).

The next point at which the competence of student police officers’ competence is formally assessed is at week 42, which is when decisions are made regarding whether they are fit for independent patrol. The week 42 reviews have to be conducted against all seven Core Behaviours and all three sergeants assess against this criteria (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 3.1; Sergeant 2, 3.2; Sergeant 3, 3.1). The core behaviours are important as

“evidence against the core skill areas is used to see why they are not achieving” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 2, 2. 7).

Clearly apparent in these interviews is the importance of the reviews against the Core Behaviours in making competency judgements about the student police officers. Hanson and Borman say that early attempts to understand job performance focused on measurable output and task performance. Over the last twenty years, the understanding of job performance has broadened and employee contributions to the organisation that go beyond task performance have received increasing research attention and research has focused on “softer” aspects of performance (Hanson and Borman, 2006, p. 141). Research has also shown the “importance of these additional aspects of performance. For example, when supervisors make overall performance ratings, they weight these behaviors heavily” (Hanson and Borman, 2006, p. 141). In making their judgements about the competence of student police officers, the Professional Development Unit sergeants do not merely give these “softer” aspects of performance heavy weightings, they appear to be giving them primacy in their decision making processes. As with the Learning and Development Reviews, these Core Behaviours are based on the Integrated Competency Framework but seem to be treated as an entity in their own right by the Professional Development Unit sergeants.

When looking at the transcripts from the interviews with the Professional Development Unit sergeants, not all of the Core Behaviours are mentioned to the same extent. For Sergeant 1, at week 31, he is specifically looking for

“communication skills, how they fit into the team, personal responsibility ... I drill down into the core skills to see if they have any and if they are using them” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 2.1). Knowledge is also important (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 3.3; 3.4).

Sergeant 2 talks about the attestation, when student police officers are formally attested with their powers. He is looking for verbal and effective communication skills and confidence. He talked about a student police officer who “broke into a sweat at the thought of standing up and talking...it’s the same eighteen months later” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 2, 1.2). He recounts a similar scenario when speaking about his introduction to the student police officers during the first sixteen weeks of their training. He says that “we ask them to stand up and tell us who they are and something interesting about themselves. Some break into a sweat under the pressure” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 2, 1.1). During Op Needle, which is a training exercise whereby student police officers are assessed while responding to a range a role play scenarios undertaken during a simulated patrol, he is looking for “two basic things ... effective communication ... The second part is application of knowledge” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 2, 1. 3). Knowledge is also checked at week 31 and week 42 (Appendix 7, Sergeant 2, 2.2; 3.3). During the area induction day, which is the student police officers first day at their operational area, he is looking for effective communication again and team working skills (Appendix 7, Sergeant 2, 1.4).

Similar Core Behaviours are highlighted by Sergeant 3. She says that “of the ... core behaviours personal responsibility is a big issue for me” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 3, 1.3; 1.4). She also wants to see that the student police officers are team players, flexible and confident (Appendix 7, Sergeant 3, 1.5; 3.4; 3.8). Adaptability is also specifically mentioned. The student police officers “should fit into whatever work environment it is” particularly as the first two attachments completed at this stage are vastly different. She says that some student police officer “adapt and this is what I want to see” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 3, 2.7 and 2.8).

Although all of the seven Core Behaviours are used, at times some are given a different emphasis by the Professional Development Unit sergeants. Behaviours that are specifically mentioned are communication, team working and personal responsibility. However other attributes that are also specifically mentioned are confidence, adaptability and decision making. This suggests that some of the Core Behaviours are given more importance than others when the Professional Development Unit sergeants are assessing student police officers.

When conducting assessments, assessors do not simply match candidates’ behaviour to assessment instructions and the relevant standards in a mechanistic way. According to Wolf, they operate in terms of an internalized and holistic set of concepts about what an assessment ought to show and how far they can take account of the context of the performance, make allowances and refer to other evidence about the candidate in deciding what

they really meant (1995, p. 67). This is certainly what the Professional Development Unit sergeants appear to be doing. As we have seen above, when assessing student police officers, they are taking into account the views of their coaches, assessors and supervisory sergeants, as well as the workload of the student police officers and those officers interacting with them and the relationships between individual officers. Assessment against the National Occupational Standards, and also for the same reasons assessment against the core behaviours, is not purely focussed on whether the student police officers meet the standards but include an array of mitigating factors that also come into play when assessment decisions are made. As Sergeant 1 says “This sergeant normally writes two paragraphs so that he has written five I know this student is exceptional” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 7.7).

It is also clear that the Professional Development Unit sergeants are primarily making competency judgements about the student police officers based on assessments against the Core Behaviours, with evidence from the assessment against the National Occupational Standards supporting these judgements. Issues with the standardised assessment of the National Occupational Standards have been described elsewhere but these same issues would equally apply to the use of the Core Behaviours, which form part of the assessment criteria under the Constabulary’s Initial Police Learning and Development Programme. In fact, there could potentially be more issues with the standardisation of assessment because of the fact that assessment against these behaviours is not subject to the same

standardisation processes that the National Occupational Standards are subject to (see Chapter Four).

In addition, unlike assessment against the National Occupational Standards where training and qualifications are available for assessors and verifiers, this is not the case for assessment against the Core Behaviours. Sergeant 1 says “there is no training for core skill (here he means the core behaviours) reporting...no...that’s not strictly true. Students do reviews at L***** and...reviews at weeks 42 and 31...Assessors and sergeants...they get advice as they go on” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 7.1). Sergeant 3 also says that “for the reviews no formal training has been done...I’ve never been trained. I do guide the assessors on the specifics I am looking for” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 3, 7.1). Given the relative importance of assessment against the Core Behaviours compared to the National Occupational Standards and the amount of the training delivered to the Professional Development Unit sergeants on the use of these criteria, there is perhaps more scope for the them to use their own internalised standards.

It has been said that key assessment judgements have far more to do with whether someone has actually performed to the assessor’s standards than in accordance with the individual performance criteria making up a particular standard. The more experienced the assessor is and the greater the degree they have been operating in a particular field, the more likely they are to have an internalised model of competence. People are unaware they are operating this way (Wolf, 1995, pp. 69-71). Eraut et al similarly comment

that despite the commitment for standards to be precise enough to minimise the scope for different interpretations when making assessments, “[c]omplete specification of decision-making by a set of rules is impossible” and that “[m]any assessors have culturally embedded, internalized, personal standards which may take precedence over the NVQ standards on at least some occasions” (Appendix, 1996, p. 3; p. 6; p. 7). These implicit internalised models of competence are acquired by a process of socialisation rather than instruction (Eraut et al, 1996, p. 1).

The comments made by Wolf and Eraut et al could equally apply to the Professional Development Unit sergeants. They are all police officers of several years’ service who were operationally deployed before working in the Professional Development Units. By emphasising the Core Behaviours over the National Occupational Standards and by emphasising some of the Core Behaviours over others, it could be argued that the Professional Development Unit sergeants are assessing student police officers against their own set of internalised criteria. They are operational police officers who have to ensure that student police officers have been fully prepared to undertake the operational role of a substantive police officer. These internalised standards would therefore not only be the personal standards of the Professional Development Unit sergeants but could also be standards that they believe are operationally and occupationally important and relevant for a student police officer to possess. The interviews conducted with the Professional Unit sergeants do not provide absolute evidence that they are

operating within a framework of personal and operational standards, although it is possible.

Biemans et al say that “recent studies on actual learning in the workplace have revealed many concerns about the relation between vocational education and professional practice” (2009, p. 281). The Professional Development Unit sergeants may also be questioning this relationship. The interviews show that despite the central role of the National Occupational Standards within the Constabulary’s assessment process and their importance within the national Initial Police Learning and Development Programme, they are not the primary source of evidence for competency judgements made about the student police officers by the Professional Development Unit sergeants.

In talking about clinical competence, Wass et al believe the real challenge lies in assessment of a student’s actual performance on the wards or in the consulting room. Any attempt of assessment has to balance the issues of validity and reliability. This necessitates the development of reliable measurements of student performance with predictive validity of subsequent clinical competencies, a gold standard still to be achieved (2001, p. 948). Further Wass et al say that reliability is measure of the reproductability or consistency of a test. It is the consistency of a candidate’s performance across a number of cases, or intercase reliability, which is most important in the testing of clinical competence. Doctors do not perform consistently from task to task and broad sampling across cases is essential to assess clinical

competence reliably. Validity focuses on whether the test that is used succeeds in measuring what it is designed to measure and the ultimate goal for a valid assessment of clinical competence is to test what a doctor actually does in the work place (Wass et al, 2001, p. 946).

The same is true regarding police officers. They deal with a wide range of incidents and situations (see Chapter Three) and like doctors, might not be performing consistently from task to task, particularly as competence can vary across tasks and over time (see Chapter Two). It must be remembered that in assessing student police officers against the National Occupational Standards, it is not their competence as student police officers that is being judged but their future competence as fully trained and qualified police officers. There is a predictive element to the assessment that student police officers undergo. As Rolls says “[p]rofessional training is concerned to create a person who is, at least, ‘safe to practice’. They may not yet be a competent practitioner, but capability evidence can offer the evidence that they may become so” (1997, p. 205). Eraut has a similar view and says “[q]ualifications are based on evidence of what candidates can do at the time and in the context of the relevant assessment activities; but they are commonly interpreted as having a predictive dimension” (1994, p. 205).

There is a general consensus among measurement experts that work samples, simulations and performance assessments will be better at measuring and predicting vocational skills than written tests (Wolf, 1995, p. 43). Tuxworth believes that competences based on an “analysis of the

professional role(s) and/or theoretical formulation of professional responsibilities can be treated as tentative predictors of professional effectiveness” (1989, p. 13).

Hyland says that validity indicates whether a test “broadly measures what it is supposed to measure” (1994, p. 39). Where validity of assessment is claimed, it needs to be qualified by the particular theoretical construction operating in the relevant occupational sector and there would be a wide range operating in a number of different occupational sectors. Both validity, including predictive validity in the case of student police officers as this indicates the degree to which a test will assess how an individual will do in future situation, and reliability are necessary and complimentary in any form of assessment as it would not make sense to opt for one against the other. Both are required if measurement of knowledge, skill or competence is to mean anything (Hyland, 1994, pp. 39-40; Eraut, 1994, p. 192).

The literature about competency based education and training, as well as highlighting the importance of validity and reliability, has also commented on the issues surrounding validity and reliability. Hyland says that the because of an excessive concentration on performance criteria linked to predetermined employer-defined standards, the national vocational qualification model has sacrificed reliability in drive for validity (1994, p. 39). Furthermore, Tuxworth, says that a competent person has abilities and characteristics which are more than the sum of the discrete elements of competence which are derived from the functional job analysis (1989, p. 17).

He points to a lack of research evidence to show that competency based education and training is superior to other forms of education and training in output terms. Face validity is acknowledged as being high and it is easy to show content validity but more problematic, in Tuxworth's view, is predictive validity (1989, p. 17).

With the Professional Development Unit sergeants giving assessment against the National Occupational Standards a subordinate role within their decision-making processes when they are judging the competency of student police officers, it can be called into question whether the National Occupational Standards are a valid and reliable measure of the competence of student police officers. They do not fully meet the needs of the sergeants in formulating competency judgements and making decisions on competence. The "competent" and "not competent" judgements that are made with respect to assessment against the standards do not allow for development and progress, which has been highlighted earlier in this chapter as important to the Professional Development Unit sergeants.

It seems that for the Professional Development Unit sergeants, the assessment of student police officers against the Core Behaviours is a more valid and a more reliable measure of competence. Sergeant 1 believes that "we should not over rely on the NVQ...we need evidence from the core skills" (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 8.2) while Sergeant 2 says "Core behaviours determine whether the student officers are making progress. Evidence will

not always hit the NOS but it will always hit a core behaviour” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 2, 8.2).

Workplace assessment is valid when it registers accurately the presence of skills which convert directly into occupational competence (Wolf, 1995, p. 43). The assessment against the National Occupational Standards do not register the presence of all skills which the Professional Development Unit sergeants feel is directly linked to the occupational competence of student police officers. Sergeant 1 says that the “NOS are not enough by themselves. The qualification is only part of the measure of competence” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 8.1). Sergeant 2 believes the National Occupational Standards “are a means to an end” and a “hoop we have to jump through” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 2, 8.1). By highlighting the Core Behaviours, or rather specific behaviours, the Professional Development Unit sergeants are highlighting skills that they consider relevant to the occupational competence of the student police officers they are assessing but which are absent from the National Occupational Standards.

Alternatives to the National Occupational Standards

Hyland refers to studies that show how “NVQs have led to a narrowing of skills, knowledge and occupational focus, and suggesting that this state of affairs is in nobody’s interests” (1994, p. 12). Similarly, Field says that a “number of studies have indicated that the introduction of NVQs into certain vocational areas has led to a narrowing of focus, a loss of important theoretical knowledge and a de-skilling of occupational roles” (1995, p. 51).

The interviews with the Professional Development Unit sergeants suggest that the National Occupational Standards as a minimum measure of the competence of student police officers may be too narrowly focused. One of the operational police officers interviewed also looked at competence in broader terms and said “If the skills set was right, demonstration of competence across a range of activity becomes less important. If someone has an issue, it would be an issue of skill rather than a demonstration of specific competence in one area and it would manifest itself elsewhere. For example, if a student officer cannot communicate with victims, they cannot communicate with colleagues, suspects, suspects and members of the public.” Another officer said “If the behaviours were right, everything else would follow.”

White says that it is not clear that everything is vocationally related (2006, p. 393). Filling in a form for a complaint of a crime is clearly a vocational activity but interviewing the complainant to get the necessary information involves complex interpersonal skills. These, and other high level skills such as team working and communication, according to White, are not readily understandable as merely vocational because they have “an educative intent in a way that form filling does not, and yet the act of form filling is meaningless as social behaviour in the absence of the educative context” (White, 2006, p. 393).

Westera says that human behaviour in standard situations is likely to become highly automated but in complex situations, such as policing (see

Chapter Three), competences are needed which combine knowledge, cognitive skills and specific attitudes because “competent behaviour is always associated with conscious thinking” (2001, p. 81). The observation is that “something ‘extra’ seems to be necessary to ensure effective and efficient performance” (Westera, 2001, p. 81). The “educative context” and the “something extra”, for the Professional Development Unit sergeants are clearly the core behaviours. They are reliant on these as an alternative to the National Occupational Standards.

When the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme was being designed, the Learning Requirement was also produced. This was derived from the “values and interests both internal and external to the police service and to the criminal justice system” (Elliott et al, 2003, p. 2). Seven categories were included in this requirement, each referring to a core learning goal. These were understanding and engaging with the community; enforcing the law and following police procedures; responding to human and social diversity; positioning oneself in the role of a police officer; professional standards and ethical conduct; learning to learn and creating a base for career-long learning and lastly qualities of professional judgement and decision making (Elliott et al, 2003, p. 3).

The different purposes between the National Occupational Standard and the Learning Requirement were acknowledged. The “former provide a basis for a nationally standardised system of qualifications, the latter provides a framework of common values to inform the planning and evaluation of

curriculum programmes in specific contexts” (Elliott et al, 2003, p. 4). The Core Behaviours can also be seen as providing a values based approach to police competence. In contrast to the authors of the Learning Requirement, the Professional Development Unit sergeants do not give the same acknowledgement to the National Occupational Standards.

White believes that “police training has focused on producing a syllabus of policing tasks and skills, but without paying attention to the wider curriculum that reflects the values of the designers and deliverers” (2006, p. 396). Although the Learning Requirement was produced as part of the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme, it was mapped onto the national standards and absorbed into this framework (White, 2006, p. 392). Even though there are other frameworks available to the police service, such as the Learning Requirement or even the Code of Conduct and the Oath (see Chapter Three), at a national level, the framework that has been chosen is that provided by National Occupational Standards.

Clearly policing and other “[w]ork roles are not a bundle of tasks or routine procedures” (Mansfield, 1989, p. 34). The interviews with the Professional Development Unit sergeants show that the competence of student police officers consists of a range of dimensions that the National Occupational Standards fail to take account of. These will be explored in the following three chapters.

Chapter Six: Attributes

Attributes and the National Occupational Standards

The interviews with the Professional Development Unit sergeants have highlighted the importance they place on the reviews against the Core Behaviours to provide evidence for the competency judgements they make about student police officers. As such these interviews have begun to identify some of the essential features of policing activity that are not included within the National Occupational Standards. However, the interviews with the operational officers, letters from the members of the public, the complaint data and the commendations awarded by the Constabulary all show there is a wider range of attributes that should be considered as central to the role of a police officer and also the competence of student police officers.

Hyland says that “[a]lthough CBET strategies are meant to enhance precision and objectivity, they typically result in check-lists which are ‘empty and uninformative’...and fail to capture significant aspects of human activity” (1994, p. 53). As such they also fail to capture significant aspects of behaviour and human activity related to policing. This is because, in Hyland’s view, at the level of common sense, when looking at the fields of morality and personal values, the idea of applying an industrial model, or even a policing model, of vocational accreditation to the domain of moral values “seem doomed from the outset” (Hyland, 1997, p. 496). Any attempt to reduce morals to skills or competences have been criticised on the

grounds that it fails to capture the complexity of moral development or processes of moral reasoning (Hyland, 1997, p 496). According to James, it is possible to get so entangled in competencies that “you do not see the big picture of someone’s job and miss the cultural things” and as a result “these cultural things often appear to be rendered invisible in a competency system” (2001, p. 305).

Team Working

The first of “these cultural things”, which are not given in any order of importance, is team working. At least one of the Professional Development Unit sergeants looks for evidence of this at the earliest opportunity. Sergeant 2 says that he is looking for “team working skills” from student police officers when they undertake an area induction day when they first join their operational areas (Appendix 7, Sergeant 2, 1.4). Within policing, “team working is the nature of the role.” Student police officers are part of a team and “can’t have an isolated approach” to the work that they do. According to Sergeant 3 “they can’t do things on their own. It’s not a lone working role. They need to see the benefits of the team” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 3, 8.3). One of the operational officers also shared this view and said that they would want to know that a student police officer can function as part of a team. He would ask “are they a team player?” because “policing is a team effort and there is not much room for solo riders” (Appendix 8, 13 (I)).

Another operational officer says that a student police officer should be a “team player but not to the detriment of individuality. They need to do as they are told but should not do it because they are told to. There is a balance between innovation and doing things the way we have always done and good reasons for doing things the way we do. They need to be able to stand up to peer pressure. The sergeant needs a team to do what it’s told. Students need to know they are part of a team. There are team objectives even if they work on their own. They work for a greater team and there is strategic stuff they need to know” (Appendix 8, 13 (III)). One of the values on the Constabulary’s vision statement is to promote team working and part of the organisational strategy is to promote team working across all teams and the Constabulary as a whole and to promote staff identification with the ‘Team *****’ concept.

Among the student officers interviewed there is also the realisation that team work is important if they are to succeed as police officers. They see that “part of being a police officer is helping the team”; an example was given of taking on jobs from the area car so that the area car could focus on what they are supposed to do. They felt there was a requirement on them to support colleagues and be proactive in doing that to “help colleagues through good times and bad” and not to just “sit back” (Appendix 9, Intake 3). Intake 2 of student police officers said “we need to work as part of a team” because they need to see the “big picture” as they needed to work towards team objectives and force objectives (Appendix 9, Intake 2; see also Appendix 9, Intake 1 which also highlighted team working).

Policing within the Constabulary is seen as a team effort. Student police officers need to know that they are part of a team and that even if they work on their own, there are collective objectives that need to be achieved. They have to be supportive of that team by being reliable for others and not letting colleagues or the public down by doing “half a job” (Appendix 9, Intake 2). As one operational officer phrased it “if they say they are going to do something they should do it and not dump stuff on colleagues” (Appendix 8, 9 (IV)).

Benders & Van Hootegem comment that “[t]eamworking is probably older than the phenomenon ‘formal organization’: one can easily imagine bands of hunters chasing mammoths” (1999, p. 609). However, models of competency based education and training and standards, including the National Occupational Standards “assume that competence is an individual attribute” (Mansfield, 1989, p. 27). Even the assessment of student police officers against the core behaviours, which provide the Professional Development Unit sergeants with their primary source of evidence for the competence of student police officers and which includes team working, is done on an individual basis.

This is because individuals, including student police officers have a one to one correspondence with outcome-based standards, such as the National Occupational Standards. It is on this basis that evidence must be collected to show that a student police officer has met every single performance criterion (Wolf, 1995, p. 21). National vocational qualifications are therefore

individualistic in nature and individuals take responsibility for their own achievements and failures (Hyland, 1994, p. 134). According to Hyland this directs the focus away from important interpersonal dimensions and the social context of learning (1994, p. 134). However, this does not just apply to learning but also to the social context and the interpersonal dimensions of the working environment and the way in which student police officers conduct themselves with other people as part of a team.

Boreham has written about “occupational competence, and the point of entry to [his] argument is the distinction between ‘individualism’ and ‘collectivism’...Individualism is usually defined as the tendency to treat the self as the most important social unit ... ‘collectivist’ treat the group to which one belongs, such as the family or work team, as the most significant social unit” (2004, pp. 5-6). He refers to the assumption that occupational competence is an attribute of individuals, highlighting that national vocational qualifications, such as that for policing, assess trainees and award qualifications on an individual basis. This is done regardless of the extent to which their performance is embedded in collective activity of workplace (Boreham, 2004, p. 7). And it can easily be argued that the Constabulary requires a great deal of the performance of its police officers to be embedded in the collective activity of the workplace. The Constabulary works as a whole to provide a policing service to the county it polices and that collective service is made up of the actions of a range of individuals and teams.

As a result, Boreham argues that “it makes perfectly good sense to regard competence as an attribute of a group, team or indeed a community” (2004, p. 8). In doing so, he is not suggesting that there are no individual competencies but rather that “we should recognise both individualistic and collectivistic ways of construing competence, and where appropriate, regard them as mutually constitutive” (2004, p. 8). This is important because “[c]ollective activity, which requires co-operation and communication between sub-systems, depends on the group’s capacity to overcome the fragmenting tendencies of the different perceptions of the sub-systems by developing a sense of interdependency. Lacking this, the members of a complex organisation may act without regard for each other’s needs” (2004, p 11). As we have already seen, policing is a complex occupation (see Chapter Two) and there is a huge potential for individual student police officers to act to the detriment of any team they are working as part of.

Boreham also says that when looking at teams, a new level of complexity is revealed. Some teams have permanent membership with differentiated roles such as bureaucracies and some have permanent membership with undifferentiated roles such as juries. The same can also be said same for transitory teams. At an individual level, student police officers will exercise agency through a combination of individual action and membership of several different teams. In this way, “individual and collective competences are interwoven into most people’s jobs” (2004, p. 14). Student police officers work within a range of different teams on both a transitory and permanent basis. There is membership of the Constabulary as a whole as well as well

individual shifts and departments. Depending on the situation or incident student police officers are required to deal with, they also have to work with individuals, shifts and departments outside of their own, for example, the control room and scientific services which includes forensics and scenes of crime officers.

Teams can also extend outside of the Constabulary. There is a partner agency approach to policing and the Constabulary is divided into a number of crime and disorder reduction partnerships based on local council areas. These were established by the 1998 Crime and Disorder Act and the provisions of the act require that local agencies work together to reduce crime and anti-social behaviour in order to make communities safer. Councils and the police have a joint responsibility under the act and police authorities are also statutory members of crime and disorder reduction partnerships (PSSO, 2003, p. 61). The Constabulary's diversity statement talks of "working in partnership with local people through a process of consultation and engagement, to meet agreed needs and achieve safety, justice and reassurance for all our communities". This extended team can include on occasions the fire and ambulance services, councils, the highway agencies and child protection agencies to name but a few. Multi-agency co-operation is one of the learning areas identified in the Learning Requirement. It recommends that student police officers have to develop an understanding of the importance of multi-agency work and "develop the ability to work in multi-agency and community groups (public, private and voluntary)" (Elliott et

al, 2003, p. 6). The nature of the membership of this extended team is subject to change depending on circumstances.

In workplaces, including within the police context, learning, and working, according to Hager, typically involves developing a gradually growing capacity to participate effectively in socially situated collaborative practices (2004, p. 426). Student police officers have to be able to make holistic context-sensitive judgements about how to act in situations that may be more or less novel as well as the usual and mundane. Judgements therefore are often developed at level of the team or the organisations. The isolated individual or student police officer is not always the most appropriate unit of analysis (Hager, 2004, p. 426).

Hyland says that there is excessive individualism within competency based education and training models. As a result there is a tendency to marginalise the collective values of professional work which serves to de-professionalise work in public service occupations such as teaching, health and social work (1997, p. 492; p. 497). This comment ignores the police service, which is also a public service occupation and one in which such de-professionalisation could also apply.

The ability of a student police officer to work within a team context, be that on a permanent, temporary, police specific or extended basis, is not assessed within the National Occupational Standards. Neither does assessment against the National Occupational Standards assess the impact of a student

police officer's participation in team activities or the overall competence of a team which has a student police officer working within it. Even when student police officers are reviewed against the core behaviours, which includes the specific area of team working, this is done from an individualistic point of view. For example, a week 31 review commented that a student police officer had joined two existing teams and there was "nothing but positive feedback about the way in which she has become part of the team during her attachments." A week 42 review states that a student police officer settled into her teams comfortably and that she has been "only too willing to assist colleagues, volunteering to lead interviews...and assisting with other officers workloads."

Therefore it could be suggested that when assessing the competence of student police officers, the collective actions of the team as well as the individual actions of the student officer should be considered. Assessing student police officers within the context of the team they are working within would potentially determine the impact of the student police officer on the collective competence of that team and identify how that team functions as a whole as a result of the presence of the particular student officer being assessed. It does not seem logical to assess a student police officer's ability to work collectively as part of a team on an individualistic basis as required by assessment against the National Occupational Standards.

Personal Responsibility

Personal responsibility is another area of significant human activity that is not covered by the National Occupational Standards but which can be considered as important to policing. Despite the importance of team work to policing within the Constabulary, “people are responsible for their own actions. Some blame others or the force rather than take responsibility for their actions, behaviours and decisions. Some people learn from their mistakes if it does not go right, or if the organisation makes a mistake they get on with things rather than let it impact on long term behaviour” (Appendix 8, 14 (I)). Student police officers “have to make decisions and stick with it. They have to be personally responsible instead of hiding behind a policy or a tutor or someone old in service” (Appendix 8, 14 (II)).

When assessing student police officers, Sergeant 1 asks “Have they got the personal responsibility to own up to their mistakes and fix them?” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 3.2). Sergeant 2 also highlights personal responsibility as a key area: “Personal responsibility. Do they deal with tasks and what do they do on eNVQ? I check their correspondence to see there is active engagement in their workload ...Are their crimes overdue? This links to personal responsibility.” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 2, 8.6; 8.7). Like Sergeant 1, Sergeant 3 says “Personal responsibility...are they a do-er? Do they use their initiative? Do they take responsibility for their own actions?” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 3, 8.2). Both the Constabulary’s diversity statement and its vision statement refer to the role of personal responsibility in service delivery. Intake 2 of student police officers were aware they needed to take

responsibility for own actions and not expect others to take on their jobs. They know that in order to be efficient police officers they have to manage their own workload and get the job done (Appendix 9, Intake 2).

Resilience

Personal responsibility is linked to resilience. If personal responsibility is defined as taking ownership of tasks, then resilience is doing so under difficult circumstances. Sergeant 2 explains that this is “how they tackle the difficult issues...hideous shifts. If they are scene guarding in T****, do they grumble? I did a direct obs on a student with a literally ‘shitty’ job. The person they arrested defecated and the student officer had to do a strip search and seize the clothing. The student officer did it without complaint. Other officers wouldn’t have” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 2, 8.9). Similarly a commendation refers to an occasion when a police officer successfully resuscitated a disabled male who had collapsed and was no longer breathing. During the process he had vomited and lapsed into unconsciousness. The citation on the commendation explicitly refers to the “exceptionally unpleasant circumstances” under which the officer persisted with the CPR process; the result being that the officer kept the male alive until paramedics arrived (see Appendix 10). Another commendation refers to the saving of life and limb under “harrowing circumstances” (See Appendix 10).

Moral and Physical Courageousness

However, the attributes of personal responsibility and resilience can be seen as part of the wider attribute of moral and physical courageousness. In order for a student officer to be morally or physically courageous, they need to take personal responsibility and be resilient. It is considered that student police officers “must be able to do a difficult job even when pressured by others either physically or in other threatening ways. They must be able to stand up for what is right as they are standing up for people who have not been able to protect themselves” (Appendix 8, 10 (VIII)). Although moral and physical courageousness was generally spoken of by the research participants as one single attribute, there are two elements to this, namely moral courage and physical courage.

Central to the concept of moral courage is “doing the right thing”. Student police officers “will not survive unless they can stand nose to nose with people and stand up for what they think is right and apply the standards we expect. They should not be swayed from doing the right thing” (Appendix 8, 10 (III); 10 (I)). They have to be able to do this even if “the job is difficult” (Appendix 8, 10 (II)).

Recent high profile child abuse and neglect cases highlight the necessity student police officers to be morally courageous and the repercussions can be extremely grave if police officers are not able to undertake their duties in this manner. According to newspaper reports about one particular incident, a detective superintendent said that a police inspector had asked on two

occasions whether or not care proceedings should have been started and that police officers felt strongly that the child should not be returned to his mother. As it transpired, the child was not removed from its family by any of the agencies entrusted with its care, including the police (Guardian, November 2008). Other reports say that police wanted to place the child in care but were persuaded otherwise by social services (Scotsman, November 2008). This is an extreme case but illustrative of the point in question. Student police officers must be able to speak out: “We need someone who can say ‘No we are going to do it this way’. They can’t be a shrinking violet” (Appendix 8, 10 (V)).

Student police officers also have to be physically courageous. The idea of courage can be considered in two different ways. Firstly there is the idea that there are situations where courage is trained for and timetabled, for example, policing operations where warrants are executed or riot duties, such as for the miners’ strike in the 1980s. In contrast there are also situations where courage is needed in situations that cannot be envisaged and occur on a more “ad hoc” basis. These could be large scale incidents such as the London bombings in July 2005 or smaller incidents. For example, two officers were commended for administering first aid to a seriously injured victim of a stabbing at “a particularly disturbing scene”. Another commendation was “for bravery beyond the call of duty and in the face of great personal danger, in saving a male from serious injury or death, who was intent on taking his own life by jumping from a motorway bridge. With little regard for his own personal safety”, the officer involved “also

almost certainly prevented injuries on a massive scale to motorists using the motorway” (see Appendix 10). More recently four officers were recently praised for running into a burning flat to rescue a young woman and her very young child. Their actions were said to have gone “way beyond the call of duty”.

As one operational officer said, “from the recent shooting of De Menezes, there is a video clip of him strolling into a railway station. You never see the passengers running out as they think a bomb is on the train or the police officers running in thinking there is a bomb on the train. Police officers can’t think a situation is too dangerous to deal with. They have got to put themselves above that” (Appendix 8 10 (VI)). Student police officers have to act no matter how they are actually feeling (Appendix 9, Intake 2).

It is vital that student police officers act in physically difficult or dangerous situations. “The officer can’t be a wuss. You can’t have someone who won’t act. They need to leap in and help out otherwise they won’t get respect from colleagues or the public. If a colleague is getting a kicking, the public and colleague will wonder why they won’t help out” (Appendix 8, 10 (IV)). Sergeant 1 emphasises this: “They need to get involved. You don’t want someone picking up the helmets in the background. You want someone who gets involved when things get nasty. I have had students who don’t do this and it affects everyone. When they needed help we all took five minutes to get there. It’s not right but they learnt their lesson” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 8.8; 8.9). Ultimately as one operational officer said, “I would expect any

officer I worked with to have the confidence to support me in a conflict situation. I would need to have confidence that they would step into any fight or altercation physically to assist me, thus protecting my safety and that of members of the public” (Appendix 8, 10 (VII)).

Honesty and Integrity

There is also an expectation that student police officers are honest and similarly “integrity is crucial in this role” (Appendix 8, 9 (VII); Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 8. 5), not least because the code of conduct requires that “police officers are honest, act with integrity and do not compromise or abuse their position” (Appendix 5). Punch, in his article on police misconduct highlights the case of the “Guildford Four” and the “Birmingham Six” who were convicted of bombings during the 1970s. They were released on appeal after doubts arose about their convictions when it was shown they had been pressurised to make their confessions, information was withheld from the courts, forensic evidence was questionable and it emerged that as a result, the judiciary had immense difficulty in comprehending that their colleagues may have been wrong (2003, pp.185-186).

The issue of police honesty, and conversely dishonesty, is a complex one. Goldschmidt and Anonymous in a study of American police officers found that motives from dishonesty stemmed from four main sources, namely, the officers’ negative perception of the operation of the criminal justice system, the organisational pressures from management and the public pressures for productivity, personal satisfaction from presenting an identity as an effective

officer and to a lesser extent, subcultural forces including group insularity and peer pressure (2008, p. 129). Ten members of an urban police department were interviewed. All but one believed extra legal methods are required so that they could function effectively as police officers. They did oppose dishonesty for personal gain or malice (Goldschmidt and Anonymous, 2008, p. 129). In addition the “passionate and consistent responses of almost all of the officers interviewed clearly express a shared belief that police work, and the criminal justice process itself, would be totally ineffective without dishonesty. Interestingly, while some of these officers are philosophically opposed to dishonesty, they, too recognise it is necessary to support those officers willing to take the risks to maintain the effectiveness of the criminal justice system” (Goldschmidt and Anonymous, 2008, p. 130).

Westmarland conducted a scenario based study into police officers’ attitudes towards certain unethical behaviour. Of 1000 questionnaires sent out to officers in the pilot force, 275 were returned. As data was only collected in one force and as the response rate was 28%, the overall generalisability of the findings is limited but still represent an important “first step” to understanding police attitudes and behaviour (Westmarland, 2005, pp. 147-148). Westmarland’s findings suggest that “officers view acquisitive crime (i.e. taking money or property) as very serious and not acceptable, even when the amounts of money are relatively small...This is behaviour they would be likely to report. Other behaviour such as excessive force and bending the law to protect a drunk driving colleague, is regarded as serious but they would be less likely to report it than some of the larger financially

rewarding corrupt behaviour” (2005, pp. 162-163). These two studies show that police integrity and honesty and dishonesty are complex issues. They also highlight that there may be various reasons why an officer may be dishonest, even if they are by nature, honest.

Despite this complexity, honesty and integrity are important because “it goes without saying that people who uphold the law need to display high ethical standards. If you can’t trust them to do what they say...well for me that is an absolute essential. What does the person on the Clapham omnibus look for in a police officer? Someone who is honest” (Appendix 8, 9 (I)). These attributes are “non-negotiable. You can’t have officers that are dishonest, evasive and fall below minimum expected standards of performance. There are moral issues in telling the truth, giving evidence, not destroying public property and lying, not being in cahoots with criminals and getting convicted of an offence...If there was a burglary how would you feel if you knew the officer took another officer’s property? At court, a superintendent’s warning and internal discipline could contaminate the evidence. If a drink driving officer with points is lenient to an offender who then goes on to kill someone the public will have something to say” (Appendix 8, 9 (VI)). Integrity “goes with the job and does not need much in the way of explanation. A student officer needs integrity to take people’s liberty and because of the things they are entrusted to do” (Appendix 8, 9 (IV)).

There are repercussions if a student police officer does not act with honesty and integrity. “Any one of our jobs could fall if there was doubt cast on a

member of staff. Some jobs last years and could be undermined by a perceived lack of integrity” (Appendix 8, 9 (VII)). As a result a “student officer cannot bring anything before a court unless they are honest” (Appendix 8, 9 (V)). This is underlined by the comments of a former high ranking police officer who says “[a]nother important duty is giving evidence in court. If an officer has been found to have lied, it undermines his credibility as a witness and potentially damages any future case he might be involved in. Any convictions, including discipline cases, have to be disclosed to the defence” (Paddick, 2008, p. 8). In addition, “if there is no honesty, people will lose confidence in the police” (Appendix 9, Intake 2).

Team working has already been highlighted as an essential attribute of in order to fulfil the role of a police officer and this is further underlined by the comments of operational police officers who would not want to work with dishonest officers: “I would not want to work with an officer who is liable to lie or cover up mistakes. In terms of evidence gathering i.e. writing up an IRB (incident report book) of involvement in an arrest I would expect the officer to offer an honest account of events. I would not want my integrity brought into question by the dishonest actions of a colleague I may be working with” (Appendix 8, 9 (III); 9 (V)). The lack of honesty and integrity of one police officer could call into question the honesty and integrity of his or her colleagues and that would undermine the ability of the officers to work as a team.

Professionalism

A large number of the commendations awarded by the Constabulary, almost a third, make reference to the professionalism of the officers being commended (See Appendix 10). The letters of appreciation from members of the public also refer to the professionalism of the officers who dealt with them. For example, one letter states that “[t]he initial investigation, fingerprint search, and subsequent follow-up were all carried out in a very sympathetic yet rigorously professional manner” (Appendix 11, 1.13; see also Appendix 11, section 1 and 3.2).

It would be easy to think of professionalism within the police service as revolving around qualifications and professional development in order to give policing the status of a profession, complete with certain characteristics, namely possession of a body of systematic knowledge, a commitment to the client, an occupational association which grants rights to practice and exclusive entry based on recognised credentials (Beckley, 2004, pp. 89-100). However, in areas such as teaching, youth and community work and nursing, the idea of professionalism has always been problematic. None of these groups is seen as being made up of true professionals in that they do not have their own elected governing body, like the British Medical Association, to control access to set standards of professional performance and behaviour and to strike a member off whose performance breaches professional codes; although it can be debated whether or not such systems are an adequate guarantor of professional quality (Hodkinson and Issit, 1995, p. 8). The same is true of policing. There is no governing body

responsible for professional performance and behaviour and neither are there any bodies police officers can become members of once they are accredited as there are in other professions, for example the ACCA or CIMA for accountants or the CIPD for human resources professionals.

Hodkinson believes that it is possible to base principles of practice and education in the caring profession around a conception of professionalism without necessarily accepting the exclusivity of a profession, as described by Beckley above. He argues that the professional approach to teaching, social work, or other similar caring roles, can be based on principles of service to others, striving for expertise, empowerment of workers, both as individuals and collectively and the adoption of a moral code (1995, pp. 63-65). In the context of the commendations and the letters of appreciation, professionalism refers to the manner in which the police officers have acted and not to membership of any professional association or governing bodies or any method of accreditation or qualification. The members of the public and the Constabulary are not praising or rewarding police officers because they have attained the status of a professional in a formal manner but because they are acting in a manner considered to be typical of a professional police officer. The citations of the commendations refer to a wide range of characteristics including commitment, thoroughness, tenacity, dedication, determination, diligence, attention to detail, enthusiasm, perseverance and patience (see Appendix 10). The Learning Requirement also refers to rigour and diligence (Elliott et al, 2003, p. 11). It is important for student police officers to show all of these individual traits to some extent

but collectively these traits can equally be seen as the defining qualities of “professionalism” for a police officer.

It is essential that police officers are able to display these traits and be professional in their dealings with their colleagues and when interacting with members of the public. The most numerous category of complaint is “Other Neglect or Failure in Duty” and this category account for 23.6% the total number of allegations made at a national level (see Appendix 12). It was also the most numerous complaint category for the Constabulary accounting for 25.8% of total allegations, slightly higher than the national figure (see Appendix 13). The category of “Other Neglect or Failure in Duty” includes allegations regarding a lack of conscientiousness and diligence in the performance of duty, conscientiousness and diligence being among the traits highlighted above.

Appearance

Student police officers also need “a professional image when dealing with the public who expect the police to maintain a high level of standards” (Appendix 8, 12 (III); Appendix 9, Intake 2). If their appearance is “sloppy...what image does it portray? You will question someone’s ability to do the job” (Appendix 8, 12 (I)). In policing first impressions count and student police officers need to look the part: “How smart are they? Do they look the part and how do they carry themselves? First impressions count and you do not want a scruff bucket on your doorstep who can’t dress and looks about six ... They will get respect before they open their mouths. If not

they might as well wear shorts and t-shirts like they do for Royal Mail. The public notice standards of appearance, ties, hats, hands in pockets. Comments are made” (Appendix 8, 12 (IV)).

There is a psychological element to the appearance of student police officers: “The first ten seconds with the public gives an impression about deportment and appearance. Looking the part affects attitude and is paramount. There is a psychological impression. If they have their hands in their pocket a member of the public thinks they are slap dash” (Appendix 8, 12 (II)). If a police officer does not “look the part”, their ability to do their job is questioned, and this will happen regardless of how well they perform their job in reality. Appearance is therefore directly linked to standards, or rather the perception of standards. A smart appearance is linked to high standards, and conversely, a less than smart appearance would be linked to lower or poorer standards. Ekblom and Heal concluded that to a certain degree, reassurance derived by members of the public from patrol attendance “stemmed from the familiar, comforting appearance of police car, uniform and notebook” (1982, p. 42). If the appearance of a police officer does not meet expectations, that sense of reassurance might not ensue. As one officer said: “If they look smart and do the right things, you will think your burglary will get investigated even if it isn’t” (Appendix 8, 12 (IV)). Student police officers need to look like they are going to take control of a situation (Appendix 8, 12 (II)).

Leadership

Not only do they look as if they are going to take control of a situation. They actually do need to take control: “The only thing I can remember is how reassured I felt that he was there and in command of the situation” (Appendix 11, 3.4). Intake 2 felt that due to the fact that police officers would encounter a variety of incidents “during their job”, that “you need to make decisions quickly on the street.” They felt members of the public would not want anyone who “dithers” (Appendix 9, Intake 2). Nearly a quarter of the commendations referred to leadership in a variety of circumstances, including prolonged investigations and policing operations (see Appendix 10). Student officers need an ability to lead and take control of incidents and they need to be able to lead others especially in an emergency situation. For example, the leadership ability of an officer in a kidnap situation was commended, which resulted in the “release of the hostage and the arrest of the offenders” (Appendix 9, Intake 2; see also Elliott et al, 2003, p. 11).

Trust

There are a number of attributes that would a student police officers would potentially need to possess and display in order to fulfil the role a police officer. However, all of these attributes are underpinned by trust. One operational officer said “The big question for me is ‘Can I trust you?’ Everything else falls off that” (Appendix 8, (II)). Another said “We police by consent...no that is the wrong...we police with consent. Twenty-two NOS and six inches of paper...it comes down to one thing. Can I trust you? Can I trust you to do the right thing in the right way?” Sergeant 1 asks of student

police officers “do you want this officer to deal with a RTA (road traffic accident) involving your mother? Are you happy for this officer to assist you in a disturbance? Are you comfortable if they arrest a member of your family? If you can trust them for these three things, then that’s as good as it’s gonna get” (Appendix 7, Sergeant, 8.6).

Trust, however, is an abstract concept and problematic to define, in the same way as competence is. As Gilmour says, “[s]ometimes referring to hope, faith or confidence, the same word is used to describe many different things and different words are used when referring to the same thing: trust” (Gilmour, 2008, p. 52; Goldsmith, 2005, p. 447). When talking about trust, there a range of concepts and meanings. There is innocent or implicit trust, where the former is found among young children and the latter in stable, committed personal relationships. A wife will trust her husband if she believes he is acting in a manner consistent with the role of a husband. Likewise, an officer will be trusted when a resident believes they act as a professional officer should (Hawdon, 2008, p. 186). There is also interpersonal and institutional trust. An individual may not trust the police to treat them fairly in an individual relationship but would still trust a Constabulary or police force on an organisational or institutional basis, for example to search for a missing child (Gilmour, 2008, p. 53; Goldsmith, 2005, p. 447; Hawdon, 2008, p. 186). The kinds of experiences people have with the police will influence the level to which they are prepared to trust the police and individuals will vary in their perceptions. For example, “[f]amiliarity, and hence prior knowledge about behaviour and intentions of

actual or potential trustees, will permit greater levels of trust or alternatively, under histories of adverse relations, render the placement of trust less likely” (Goldsmith, 2005, p 447). The same is true of student police officers and the nature of their interactions with members of the public and colleagues will determine whether or not they are worthy of trust and can be trusted.

Trust is important because the position of the police in relation “to the ordinary citizen is one power and control” (Goldsmith, 2005, p. 445). They are therefore “in a position of formal public trust, whether or not their actions accord with their official responsibilities” (Goldsmith, 2005, p. 445). Student police officers, and indeed all police officers, are also placed in a position of trust due to the nature of their relationship with their colleagues, for example they are trusted by their colleagues to act in the best interests of the team, and to act with moral and physical courageousness, honesty and integrity, professionalism and leadership. Both members of the public and colleagues have to trust that student police officers will act in accordance with the attributes identified and described above, and trust is further engendered when student police officers consistently display these attributes.

There are a range of attributes that are considered as essential for student police officers to possess in order to fulfill the role of a police officer. These are team working, moral and physical courageousness including the attributes of personal responsibility and resilience, honesty and integrity, professionalism and leadership. These attributes are all underpinned by trust. This list is neither definitive nor exhaustive. As with the Code of

Conduct, these are attributes that are more obvious when it can be shown that they are not present than when they are. However, what it does show is that there are a range attributes that are not included within the National Occupational Standards and which cannot be assessed within a competency based framework but which should be considered when making judgements about the competence of student police officers. Neither would the National Occupational Standards show the connections between these attributes, which is also important in making those judgements.

Chapter Seven: Skills

The Context

When looking at the skills required by student police officers, a wider context should also be considered. Field has said that “considerable effort has been spent in recent years on the identification of skills shortage areas in Britain, especially in comparison with our major competitor nations, and the results appear to be reasonably consistent” (1995, p. 33). One such review was that conducted by Leitch, who, in 2006, published the results of a review of occupational skills within the United Kingdom. The review was established in December 2004 to consider the skills profile the United Kingdom needed by 2020 in order to maximise growth, productivity and social justice because a rapidly changing global economy is decisively impacting the skills required by the workforce (Leitch, 2006, p. 27). In addition, emerging economies such as China and India, the effect of technology breaking down barriers between what can or cannot be traded and global migration have meant that a wide range of skills have become increasingly important (Leitch, 2006, p. 2). Although the review concentrated on skills as a way to “maximise economic prosperity, productivity and to improve social justice” (Leitch, 2006, p. 1), the skills required for policing have to be seen within this wider context if the police service is to keep pace with the changes identified by Leitch.

Leitch asks “what do we mean by skills?” (2006, p. 28). In answering this question, he says there are a number of categories, for example, basic skills, such as literacy and numeracy, and generic skills, such as team working and communication. These are applicable to in most jobs while other more

specific skills are less transferable between occupations, which themselves entail a mix of different types of skills and require different levels of ability within each (Leitch, 2006, p. 28). This is equally applicable to policing.

The review of skills conducted by Leitch also highlighted the skill areas that were considered to be lacking. He reported that “[e]mployers in the survey felt that soft skills were lacking (particularly team working and customer handling skills), each of which were mentioned as lacking in one half of all workers lacking proficiency” (Leitch, 2006, p. 41). Other generic soft skills such as oral communication, problem solving and written communication were also commonly reported skills gaps (Leitch, 2006, p. 41). Team working was explored in the previous chapter but in general the National Occupational Standards do not cover the range of skills identified by Leitch in his review.

The “Police Sector Skills Foresight” programme report has also reviewed skills on a national level but within the specific context of policing. It “provides a coherent framework through which we can identify the change drivers impacting on the Police Service, analyse their likely impact and formulate a co-ordinated response. It focuses...on the impact these changes will have on the skills needed by police officers” (PSSO, 2003, Foreword; p. 9). As with Leitch, the Skills Foresight report recognises that “[w]orkforce development is a key factor in economic development. There is a well established relationship between improvements in skills and increased performance” (PSSO, 2003, p. 11).

Out of the wide range of skills identified in the Skills Foresight report, six primary areas of development were determined as a priority. These were leadership and commander skills, investigative and detective skills, people management skills, customer care and communication skills, case file preparation and management skills, forensic awareness and crime scene management skills. A further three secondary areas of skill were also prioritised, namely interpersonal skills, information technology skills and performance management skills (PSSO, 2003, pp. 14-15).

The Skills Foresight report “sets out the skills needs, both current and those predicted to arise within the next five years. It is a tool to inform decisions regarding priorities and planned responses, and a guide to the implementation of skills development programmes” (PSSO, 2003, p 9). Given that the national Initial Police Learning and Development Programme is designed to develop the skills of student police officers, not all of the skills identified in the Skills Foresight report are included within the National Occupational Standards, for example communication, information technology, interpersonal skills and customer care, although it is recognised that not all of the skills referred to in the report would be relevant to student police officers.

Policing Skills

The skills required of student police officers can be broadly divided into two main areas, namely those that are related to policing and those that can be found on a more generic basis in other occupational areas. Nearly half of the

commendations cite the investigative skills, detective skills and case preparation skills of the officers being commended (see Appendix 10). One of the Professional Development Unit sergeants wants to know what technical skills the student police officers have, for example, the ability to arrest (Appendix 7, Sergeant 3, 8.4). Intake 1 of student police officers said the “ability to arrest, interview...will show people what student officers can do and what ability they have to be a police officer” (Appendix 9, Intake 1).

The National Occupational Standards, both the current twenty-two units and the ten new units, are directly related to these types of skills. There are specific units relating to investigation, interviewing victims, witnesses and suspects, searching and the use of police actions (see Appendix 1 and Appendix 4). This is not surprising given the relationship between vocational education and qualifications and the workplace (see Chapter Two). In order for student police officers to be competent police officers they obviously need to be well grounded in a range of police specific skills. However, those policing specific skills need to be underpinned by a range of more generic skills.

Technology and Technical Skills

As Eraut says, “in many occupations the nature of professional work is changing quite rapidly, not only as a result of technical change, but also as the result of social change and institutional change” (1994, pp. 164-165). Policing is no different. The social changes have been described in Chapter Three. Regarding technical change, technology is changing the way crimes

are commissioned, particularly through the use of the Internet. Increasing proportions of the population are going 'on line' and when the Skills Foresight report was written in 2003, half of UK households had a connection. At that time, an increasing number of businesses were carrying out activity electronically and again when the Skills Foresight report was written, 95% of UK businesses were on line and in 2000, sales on the internet amounted to £57 billion. As the Skills Foresight report highlighted "we can expect to see a greater proportion of crime committed or facilitated using computers" (PSSO, 2003, p. 73).

Such computer aided crime includes "[o]nline paedophilia, cyberterrorism, identity theft, on line fraud, malware infections, denial of service attacks, hacktivism and online hate crime (to name a few)" (Wall and Williams, 2007, p. 397). The use of the internet for the purposes of crime takes a variety of forms. "At one extreme are 'traditional' crimes that masquerade as cybercrimes. In such cases the Internet has typically been utilized for communication or information gathering to facilitate an 'offline' crime. If the Internet is removed from the activity then the criminal behaviour exists because the offenders will revert to using other information sources or types of communication" (Wall and Williams, 2007, p. 398).

At the other extreme are "true" cybercrimes, such as spamming, which vanish as a criminal activity when the internet is taken away (Wall and Williams, 2007, p. 398). Between these two extremes are a variety of "hybrid" crimes. "These are 'traditional' crimes for which entirely new global

opportunities have emerged (e.g. globalized frauds and deceptions, also the trade in pornographic materials including child pornography). Take away the Internet and the behaviour will continue by other means, but not by the same volume or across such a wide span...Along this spectrum exist myriad crimes and misdemeanours” (Wall and Williams, 2007, p. 398).

As a result, police forces have to think differently about tackling crime because “confusion over what constitutes a cybercrime creates a ‘reassurance gap’ between crimes experienced and those felt...and leads to public concern about ‘cybercrime’, which subsequently shapes the demands made of the police (for reassurance)” (Wall and Williams, 2007, p. 397). Technology also means that the police service has to think differently about engaging with members of the public and within the Constabulary there is an initiative to use “Facebook” to engage with the community, especially young people. In addition, police forces also have to think differently about the skills police officers need to effectively tackle crime. For example, there are a range of child exploitation and protection tactic courses that are aimed at teaching police officers the skills to protect children and investigate abuse wherever it occurs, and that includes crimes commissioned and committed online.

This serves to show how “skills needed within a particular occupation are also changing. Skills that were once seen as high level are increasingly seen as basic skills. The ability to use a computer is one of the most visible and widely used generic skills. The past few years have seen a rapid

expansion in the need for IT skills across all occupations and sectors” (Leitch, 2006, p. 33). IT skills are not concentrated in jobs that are traditionally thought of as being high skilled. Even in occupations thought of as low skilled, there has been a dramatic growth in the use of IT (Leitch, 2006, p. 33). This is because over the past twenty years, the proportion of jobs requiring skills has increased substantially as technology and the global economy has changed. As Leitch stated, technological change often leads to a higher demand for skills (2006, p. 33).

The skills required for policing are not exempt from these changes and the need to keep pace with these changes has been highlighted by research by the Home Office. This found that “recent advances in portable computing and mobile communications could be exploited to enable officers to complete basic administrative tasks without returning to the station. More ambitiously, they could contribute to the police becoming more effective by allowing more real time information to be delivered to them as they need it when working in the community” (Home Office, 2001, p. 30). The “Training Matters” thematic also highlights the importance of the use of information technology as one of the skills “vital to being an effective police officer” (HMIC, 2002, p. 44) and as we have seen above, such skills are mentioned by both Leitch’s review of skills and the Skills Foresight report.

However, until recently, there has been a lack of portable IT systems that could be used by police officers out on the beat as previously identified by the Home Office. Research found that “[n]one of the forces ... visited had

computing systems which could be used when officers were out on the beat” (Home Office, 2001, p. 32). Currently work is progressing nationally and locally to implement mobile information systems to be used by officers. Within the Constabulary, this has focused on issuing hand held devices to frontline police officers. This not only means increasing the amount of information available to officers while they are out on patrol but this also has the potential to impact on force processes and procedures and the way staff, including student police officers, are trained.

However, policing may not be necessarily seen as a specifically technical occupation or even as an occupation that requires a high level of technical skill by police officers working within the Constabulary. The use of information technology and the awareness of how it would impact on the delivery of policing are conspicuous by their absence from the comments made by the Professional Development Unit sergeants, the operational officers and the intakes of student police officers that were interviewed. Only one of the Professional Development Unit sergeants mentioned information technology as part of the criteria he looks for when making judgements about the competence of student police officers. He mentions the completion of tasks within an IT booklet which forms part of the Constabulary’s assessment process for its Initial Police Learning and Development Programme (see Appendix 7, Sergeant 2, section 3 and section 4).

It may be that information technology and associated skills were not explicitly mentioned by the research participants because there was a tacit

acknowledgment that such skills were an integral part of the competence of student police officers. Alternatively and more likely, it could be because policing is still seen primarily as a practical occupation rather than a technical one. However, in order to deliver the practical elements of policing, greater consideration should be given to information technology skills. To keep pace with technological change and the resultant changes is the pattern of offending and commissioning of crime, “[g]reater awareness of what to look for is needed by all operational officers as it affects everything from stop and search (e.g. where a suspect could be carrying evidence on a key ring storage device) to complex organised crime investigations (e.g. drug dealers sending encrypted instructions for a deal overseas)” (PSSO, 2003, p. 73).

Written Skills

Unlike IT skills, written communication has been identified as being a key skill within policing by the research participants because “student officers need to communicate with people on different levels and explain themselves in writing. This is something you don’t realise you need until it is missing” (Appendix 8, 2 (III); 2 (IV)). Written communication is also a skill that the Professional Development Unit sergeants look for in a student police officer (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 8.10; Sergeant 2, 8.5). The Learning Requirement also says that student police officers must “develop the ability to write reports and complete documentation in accordance with established protocols, procedures and systems” (Elliott et al, 2003, p. 7). This is important because “presenting evidence in court is a key requirement” (Appendix 8, 2 (II)).

However, written communication is more than just the completion of reports and documents. Sergeant 1 commented that “You can’t have an embarrassing witness statement in court. I had one student and the court and the CPS asked if they were special needs. Their role in life is to converse accurately in writing. It’s important. They are questioned in court on the recall of details. Their evidence could be shot to pieces. If they are dyslexic and they get the index wrong on a parking ticket it’s neither here nor there...but if it’s a murderer’s car it’s very important” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 8.10).

Not only could a badly written document or piece of evidence affect the outcome of a court case, it also calls into question the professionalism of the student police officer. Professionalism was highlighted as an important attribute needed by police officers in Chapter Six. One of the operational officers commented that “statements and reports are legal documents and bad spelling, grammar, handwriting goes before the court. It does not look professional...The amount you see come through that is crap. It looks sloppy and what impression does it give?” (Appendix 8, 2 (I)).

However, there is currently an ongoing debate within the Constabulary around the relationship between literacy and policing. One view is that development and training should be focused on policing skills and knowledge and not basic skills that a student police officer should already possess. The Skills Foresight report does not explicitly refer to written communication and it could be argued that advances in technology will reduce the need for hand

written reports and the like. However it must be remembered that written communication extends further than the use of pen and paper and that the need for good written skills, including the correct use of grammar and a spelling is not dependent on the medium used.

Although it cannot be quantified, the Constabulary's File Preparation Unit, a unit that prepares files, statements and reports for court hearings, say that there is a high incidence of poor grammar and spelling in the work officers submit. This includes the use of "text speak" and the misspelling of a range of common words that police officers use most regularly. The File Preparation Unit manager says that on occasion this is embarrassing because the administrators within the unit are not allowed to correct any mistakes and have to prepare documents for court exactly as they have been submitted by the police officers. A manager from the Crown Prosecution Service for two of the policing areas within the Constabulary says that in her estimates one in four files submitted for court contain some element of spelling or grammar mistakes and that on occasion this is at an embarrassing level.

In his review of skills, Leitch identified that a "lack of literacy and numeracy skills were each present in one fifth of reported skills gaps" (Leitch, 2006, p 41). Literacy and numeracy can be tested irrespective of the qualification a person holds and in 1996, the International Adult Literacy Survey found that Britain had the tenth highest proportion of people lacking functional literacy of the twelve countries that took part (Leitch, 2006, p. 42). Leitch believes that

the United Kingdom retains a “large and significant basic skills problem” (2003, p 43). Analysis of the best available evidence shows that in 2003, around 6 million people of working age lacked functional literacy skills and nearly 8 million lacked functional numeracy skills (Leitch, 2003, p. 43).

Communication Skills

Out of the skills identified and described in this chapter, perhaps the most important are communication skills, not including written communication skills which have just been discussed above. The Professional Development Unit sergeants believe that “we need to know how students talk to people and how they interact with people. If they can’t do this everything else is wasted” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 8.3). Sergeant 3 says student police officers “need to have effective communication. Can they talk to someone? It’s the key thing in the job...the best tool to deal with a situation” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 3, 8.1; see also Sergeant 2, 8.5; see also Elliott et al, 2003, p. 7).

As with team working, the Professional Development Unit sergeants are looking for evidence of communication at the earliest opportunity. For example, Sergeant 2 uses Op Needle to gather and collect evidence about the student police officers and their communication skills. Op Needle is a training exercise at the end of the sixteen week induction that is designed to simulate operational patrol. Sergeant 2 is specifically looking for two “basic things”, firstly effective communication and this is with the role players and colleagues and also proper use of Airwave, the police radio system (Appendix 7, Sergeant 2, 1.3). On the area familiarisation day that student

police officers undertake when they first begin to work on their operational areas, Sergeant 2 is wants to see “effective communication between the whole group for the whole day”. They are set tasks to complete during the day which helps highlight to Sergeant 2 “how they interact with strangers” because they will be expected to speak to members of the public they do not know (Appendix 7, Sergeant 2, 1.4). This is important to this particular Professional Development Unit sergeant because he has seen incidences where student police officers have “broke[n] into a sweat at the thought of standing up and talking” at the attestation ceremony and also at the introduction sessions with the Professional Development Unit assessors (Appendix 7, Sergeant 2, 1.1; 1.2).

From the interviews with the Professional Development Unit sergeants, the operational police officers and the student police officers, there is an “expectation that people who become police officers are good communicators” (Appendix 8, 1 (VIII)). This is because “this job is all about communicating with people in different situations. This is vital for a police officer” (Appendix 8, 1 (II)). Student police officers “need to speak to members of the public. The initial interaction with a complete stranger is important to policing” (Appendix 8, 1 (VIII)).

There is also an expectation that a student police officer has “to be able to communicate well in a variety of scenarios (Appendix 8, 1 (V); 1 (III)). Ultimately if “student officers cannot relate to others and effectively communicate they will be ineffective as a police officer” (Appendix 8, 1 (IV)).

One reason is that student police officers “need to have the ability to talk to people from all backgrounds and social issues” (Appendix 8, 8 (I)). Student police officers have to have to be able to communicate “with different groups of people such as the homeless, the young, alcoholic people” (Appendix 9, Intake 1). It is essential some form of relationship is built. The nature of the work is to meet people in crisis and a wide range of people on a daily basis. If there is burglary in an affluent area and a drunk in a town centre, student officers need to communicate with both equally” (Appendix 8, 1 (I)).

Also good communication skills are linked to the effect management and resolution of conflict and impacts on officer safety (Appendix 8, 1 (V); 1 (1)). As one operational officer phrased it, “they need to be able to speak to people without getting smacked” (Appendix 8, 1 (VI); Appendix 9, Intake 2). Student police officers “need to maintain order and be able to deal with conflict management. An officer presence in public order situations should be a calming influence on a tense situation” and while they might be able to use defence tactics, what also matters is “what they do verbally on their shift and with the public? How do they deal with people?” (Appendix 8, 3 (I); 3 (II)). As Bayley says, “[p]olice are not the natural enemies of most people. They become so through their unresponsiveness” (2002, p. 87). Sunshine refers to research that has shown that conflicts based on domination tend to become irrational and quickly escalate as hostility increases (2003, p. 520). As such, “reasoning with an agitated drunk male on a Friday night would require assertiveness and firm instructions without escalating the situation” (Appendix 8, 1 (V)). If student police officers cannot communicate “they will

struggle to investigate, engage with the people they serve and they will get into trouble” Appendix 8, 1 (XII); Appendix 9, Intake 1).

The manner in which student police officers communicate is also important to their role as a police officer. The letters of appreciation mention courtesy; respect and politeness (Appendix 11, section 1). This is underlined by the complaint data. The complaint area of “Incivility, Impoliteness and Intolerance” is the second most numerous category at both a national and local level (see Appendix 12 and Appendix 13). The number of substantiated allegations is low. However this does not mean that those making the allegations had nothing to complain about. De Vries says that the “extent to which governmental organizations deliver quality depends on the relation between actual performance and citizens’ expectations” (2002, p. 303). When there is a gap between expectation and perceived performance, it is easy to see why complaints might result. On these occasions the communication and interpersonal skills displayed by the police officers concerned could potentially have fallen short of the expectations of the people they were interacting with.

Interpersonal Skills

Norris has said that there is a “tendency to emphasise the law enforcement aspects of the police role and concentrate on law and procedure” which “means that the social dimensions of police work are undervalued” (Norris, 1991a, p. 2). Therefore what is also important here are not just communication skills but wider interpersonal skills and that is “with

everyone...the community, partners and colleagues” (Appendix 8, 1 (IV); see also 1 (I); 1 (II); 1 (IV); 1 (XI)). It is important for the student police officers that “they like people and are liked. I read write ups and it is clear student officers do not like people. This is hidden in interpersonal skills and communication. Disputes and FAWs with student officers who do not fit in and are not liked have massive implications” (Appendix 8, 1 (XI))³.

The Learning Requirement also highlights the importance of interpersonal skills as one of the criteria is to “develop interpersonal skills and dispositions towards others that facilitate safe, trusting and positive relationships between themselves and their colleagues and the public in complex and sensitive situations” (Elliott et al, 2003, p. 8).

The letters of appreciation specifically mention compassion, sympathy, consideration, support, understanding, kindness, friendliness and reassurance (Appendix 11, section 1). The intakes of student police officers interviewed also mentioned compassion and in addition, empathy (Appendix 9, Intake 2 and Intake 3). They said empathy is needed because while a student police officer may deal with something on a number of occasions, for victims and members of the public, it may be their first experience. As Holgersson and Gottschalk say, “[p]ersons who have been the victim of crime can have different reactions. Some may not need any support at all, while others react strongly over crimes that a police officer does not find so grave...Even when a police officer thinks a police case is unimportant, he

³ FAWs are Fairness at Work complaints. Fairness at Work is the Constabulary’s internal grievance procedure.

must be able to show empathy” (2008, p. 369). Morgan and Newburn also say that “[d]espite the fact that the vast majority of police-public encounters apparently concern issues of a minor nature, there is a good deal of evidence to suggest that police should not underestimate the importance of such incidents to those reporting them-especially when the callers are ‘witnesses’ or ‘victims’ ” (1997, p. 96).

Holgersson and Gottschalk also say that “an important component is to listen actively” (2008, p. 369), and this was also highlighted by the research participants (Appendix 8, 1 (V) and 1 (VII)). Members of the public “must feel like they have been listened to” (Appendix 9, Intake 1). A police officer must have the ability to let the victim tell their story in a way that seems best to the victim, but at the same time as he or she needs to get enough information to be able to make a judgement of what has happened (Holgersson and Gottschalk, 2008, p. 369).

The Link to Procedural Justice

The communication and interpersonal skills of police officers are important and there is a volume of literature that speaks about procedural justice and the impact of the way police officers treat the public. Murphy et al refer to procedural justice, and define it as the “perceived fairness of the procedures involved in decision-making and implementation, and the treatment people receive from authority” (2008, p. 139). If “people believe that an authority’s procedures are fair, research suggests people will trust the motives of that

authority and develop a commitment, or sense of obligation, to accept and follow its decisions and rules” (2008, p. 140).

According to Sunshine and Tyler police legitimacy is directly related to procedural justice. They describe legitimacy as “a property of an authority or institution that leads people to feel that authority or institution is entitled to be deferred to and obeyed” (2003, p. 514). They say that the procedural justice and fairness centre on the police exercising their powers fairly and when the public feel that this happens, they will view the police as legitimate and will co-operate with policing efforts. However, if this authority is exercised unfairly, the result is alienation, defiance and noncooperation (2003, p. 514).

Murphy et al also talk about procedural justice and fairness in their article about public co-operation and support for policing. They say that in a “democratic society, police authority rests on public consent. Policing by consent encourages public trust in police which thereby facilitates an on-going interchange of information between the public and the police and voluntary compliance with the law” (2008, p. 136). Their study shows that police should treat all members of the public with procedural justice if all citizens are to feel they are valued members of the community. By doing so, police will be more likely to increase community co-operation with many aspects of their work (Murphy et al, 2008, p. 152).

Legitimacy and procedural justice are both linked to the way police officers treat the public. Incidence of crime will fluctuate due to factors beyond police

control. Procedural fairness or treating people in an unbiased fashion does not depend on crime rate as it depends on the actions of the police officers themselves. Sunshine and Tyler conclude that “by becoming procedurally sensitive, the police develop a way they are viewed by the public that is to some degree insulated from societal forces ... which shape crime rates but are beyond police control” (2003, p 536). The message here is that “people are more accepting of and cooperative with authorities when they are treated with fairness and respect” (Sunshine and Tyler, 2003, p. 536).

Murphy et al also say that important factors for whether people have received procedural justice is whether they have been treated in a fair way, treated with respect and dignity and been allowed to give their views about a situation or incident (2008, p. 139). Police legitimacy can be enhanced or damaged by contact with individual police officers (Murphy et al. 2008, p. 138). As Davenport also says the “police are seen as legitimate if they treat people with respect” (2006, p. 19). The findings from the complaint data and the letters of appreciation show that “[i]mpressions of police encounters are influenced by the demeanor as well as the actions of the officer (Horowitz, 2007, p. 9). Because the police cannot control some of the factors that determine satisfaction, trust and confidence such as demographics, neighbourhood conditions, vicarious police-citizen encounters, Horowitz believes “officers should focus their efforts where they can have the most direct impact: in each day to day interaction with the public” (2007, p. 10). He says “it behooves our ... police officers to pay close attention to developing what might be called their ‘bedside manner’ ” (Horowitz, 2007, p.

10). Not only would the student police officers' communication and interpersonal skills enhance police legitimacy, there are also other benefits to the police service. Research has shown that the "frustration arising from the lack of public support, appreciation, and co-operation was cited as a major contributing factor to low police morale (Spencer and Hough, 2000, p. 10). By increasing procedural justice and fairness by their own actions, police officers may be able to influence the factors that have a detrimental effect on police morale.

Psychological Impact of Policing

However, to say that members of the public may write letters of appreciation or make complaints simply because they have or have not received procedural justice is to underestimate both the positive and the negative effect that the police can have on members of the public. The way the police treat members of the public can provide reassurance (see Ekblom, 1982, p 57; Appendix 11, section 3 and 1.15). This is important from the Constabulary's point of view as its aim is to provide "safety, justice and reassurance for all." But the letters of appreciation do show that there is also a more "human" element to the contact between the police and the public. Ekblom and Heal say that police "operate in a manner akin to that of a general practitioner: much of the benefit to be gained by contact with either resides not in the substantive treatment prescribed (which may or may not have the desired objective effect) but in the psychological aspects of the encounter" (1982, p. 58).

While this is a somewhat sterile explanation, the letters of appreciation show how their encounters with the police and individual officers have left the writers feeling. One writer says “We are so grateful that he made what might otherwise have been a gruelling ordeal as simple as possible” while another says “These two officers were a huge comfort and strength to us all, along with others who must have attended the incident but with whom we had no contact” (see Appendix 11, Section 3). Other comments include “Their courtesy, consideration and helpful kindness at a stressful time was very much appreciated”, “it may not seem like much to some showing concern and a bit of consideration, but it was really appreciated at a very worrying time” and “They have made an unpleasant incident bearable” (see Appendix 11, section 3).

The overwhelming impression is that members of the public are extremely grateful to the help and support they receive from the police and find police assistance a source of comfort and strength at times of extreme stress. Members of the public in some cases only interact with police officers and other police personnel when they are trying to cope with events in their life that are “devastating”, “unbearable” and involve “extreme stress”, as shown by the incidents these letters refer to (see Appendix 11, Section 3). The communication and interpersonal skills of the student police officers will potentially impact their interactions with members of the public, and other individuals including colleagues, in either a positive or a negative way. For a student police officer to be competent, a positive outcome of those interactions is preferable. As with appearance (see Chapter Six), there is

clearly a psychological aspect to policing that is not catered for within the suite of National Occupational Standards. The assessment of student police officers against the National Occupational Standards would not ensure members of the public would feel they way they describe in the letters of appreciation, because communication and interpersonal skills are not among the criteria of the standards. In addition, the one to one correspondence with the National Occupational Standards by the student police officer would not determine or measure the way an interaction with that student police officer had left another person feeling.

It goes without saying that student police officers need a range of police specific skills in order to perform their role and these specific skills are described to some extent by the National Occupational Standards. However, these skills need to be supported by more generic skills that can also be found in other occupational areas, such as the use of information technology and written communication skills. Also important are communication and interpersonal skills. However these skills are not static and need to change to keep pace with wider social and technological changes. However, such skills are not included in the National Occupational Standards and the competence of student police officers, or otherwise, in using the socially based skills cannot necessarily be determined by assessing the student police officers themselves.

Chapter Eight: Knowledge

The Relationship between Knowledge and Competence

There is a far from clear relationship between the role and nature of knowledge and the principles of competency based education and training. According to Hyland the treatment of knowledge and understanding in national vocational qualification literature shows that the relationship between knowledge, skills and competent performance are not understood. In his view, there is no adequate distinction between theoretical knowledge (knowing that) and practical knowledge (knowing how), except the “persistent downgrading of the former for the latter” (Hyland, 1994 p. 74). Furthermore Hyland says that the “obsession with evidence in the development of NVQ assessment has served to restrict the discussion of the place of knowledge and understanding to purely technical questions, which, by themselves, will never add up to a clear and coherent account of the relationship between knowledge, understanding and intelligent behaviour” (1994, p. 74).

To some extent, the issue arises because of the nature of knowledge and understanding. Wolf says that “knowledge and understanding and skills are constructs” and as such “we cannot open up a student police officer’s head and measure the knowledge it contains any more than we can measure competence” (1989, p. 41). Knowledge that goes to make a occupational competence is unlikely to be just factual and tests that measure just factual knowledge are unlikely to be adequate measure of competence (Wolf, 1989, p. 43). Wolf uses the example of baking a cake. Much of the knowledge

related to baking is learned best through practice rather than being codified; knowledge requirements like this can be unrecognized and this is compounded by the association of knowledge with knowledge that is tested in traditional factual tests (Wolf, 1989, pp. 43-44). As a result, knowledge and understanding are likely to be highly contextualised (Wolf, 1989, p. 44).

It has been said that “[m]uch human know-how is inexplicit” (Hager, 2004, p. 421). Criticisms of higher level vocational qualifications focus on the shortcomings in the assessment and the accreditation of professional knowledge. The difficulty lies in making explicit what is implicit in professional practice as the professional knowledge base is tacit and undefined. Making the implicit more explicit becomes more complex when there is more than one dimension to knowledge. According to Hillier, there is the knowledge of knowing how, knowing what and knowing why as the first type of knowledge; the second reflects national vocational qualifications with their specification of knowledge; the third is the applicability of knowledge and understanding in relation to the occupation or job context and the fourth is the difference between required and pre-requisite knowledge (Hillier, 1999, pp. 201-2).

In addition, knowledge can also be viewed as including a range of different concepts. Eraut speaks of knowledge of people, situational knowledge, conceptual knowledge, process knowledge and control knowledge (1994, p. 77). Holgersson and Gottschalk identify a total of thirty areas of knowledge application that police officers should know including using the skills of other

police officers, prioritising cases and using resources effectively, forming a suspicion, using and understanding different social and language variations and presenting a case to decision makers (2008, pp. 365-77). Hager believes that an account is needed of practice “that goes beyond the inconclusive notion of ‘know-how’ to the more satisfactory idea of ‘workplace judgement’” (2000, p. 286). He identifies eleven features of practical judgement including social forces, personal characteristics, the identification of problems and technical knowledge (Hager, 2000, pp. 290-293). Although neither the Professional Development Unit sergeants, the operational police officers nor the intakes of student police officers spoke about knowledge in the terms used by Eraut, Holgersson and Gottschalk and Hager, these theories highlight the difficulties when attempting to define what police knowledge actually is. The National Occupational Standards do not take into account these subtleties.

It has been highlighted that “[d]octors do not perform consistently from tasks to task” (Wass et al, 2001, p. 946). Additionally, “[c]ompetence is assessed on the demonstration of performance in a range of contexts and matched against a set of visible and agreed criteria. In the more complex higher-level occupations, however, and this is especially true for health promotion, performance alone may not make visible the ‘knowledge and understanding’ required to both undertake the complex functions nor demonstrate an ability to transfer skills to other situations” (Rolls, 1997, p. 205). The same can be said for student police officers because, like medical and health occupations, the range of work they do is complex (see Chapter Three).

Assessment against the National Occupational Standards would not take into account the way student police officers internalise knowledge. According to Schaap et al, a “major problem in competence based vocational education is, however, that it is unclear how knowledge is internalised by students in a personal professional knowledge base” (2009, p. 482). In their view, as “students have to internalise various types of knowledge, explicit attention to the internalisation of knowledge is crucial” (Schaap et al, 2009, p. 482).

Despite these issues, knowledge is an important part of the competence of student police officers. Holgersson & Gottschalk define knowledge as “information combined with experience, context, interpretation, reflection, intuition, and creativity” (2008, p. 366). In their view, professional knowledge is part of police culture and “both have been identified as significant determinants of police performance” (2008, p. 366). As one operational officer explained, “there is a far greater cerebral element to policing than people think. Police officers do not just rush around handcuffing. There are law and procedures and officers need to know and apply these” (Appendix 8, 20 (I)). Even the “most practical PC knows the theory” Appendix 8, 22 (V)). Knowledge of the law is essential to a student police officer (Appendix 8, 22 (1); 22 (II); 22 (III); 22 (VI); 22 (VII)).

Law and Procedure

Student police officers “need a good background in law and procedure” because “knowledge of law is needed out on the streets” (Appendix 8, 22, (II); Appendix 9, Intake 1; Appendix 9, Intake 2; Elliott et al, 2003, p. 7).

Without such knowledge “you don’t know what to do and you could be anyone with a uniform on” (Appendix 9, Intake 3), particularly as recent law such as the Human Rights Act and the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984 has changed the way in which responsible police has been defined and has had a “significant impact on the behaviour of the police and on the culture of policing” (Morgan and Newburn, 1997, p. 52).

According to Beckley, the “Human Rights Act will fundamentally alter the way the UK police do business in positive and aspirational aspects” (Beckley, 1999, p. 47). Further the “commencement of the Human Rights Act ... will place a responsibility to safeguard citizens’ rights and freedoms on every police officer in the UK” (Beckley, 1999, p. 48). Policing activities and police powers have to be examined for compatibility against Human Rights principles. There has to be a legal basis for any police action; it has to be demonstrated that any action is proportionate to the threat or problem being dealt with; the action also has to be relevant to the particular threat or problem and the police action has to be the least intrusive option available. In addition, in any trial process the defendant has to have the access to the same information as the prosecution (Beckley, 1999, p. 52; Palmer, 2000, pp. 56-57; see also Wright, 2000).

The Police Criminal and Criminal Evidence Act gave police a range of powers they had not possessed before on a statutory basis. This was not so much an extension of powers but the rationalisation and legitimisation of pre-existing police practice. The Act and the accompanying Codes of Practice,

which have been revised several times since their inception, provide detailed procedures for a range of police procedure and activity, namely stop and search, search and seizure, detention and questioning of suspects, identification procedures and tape recording of interviews (Newburn and Reiner, 2004, p. 606, Morgan and Newburn, 1997, p. 51). The fact that complaints are being made around breaches of the Police and Criminal Evidence Act, irregularity in procedures and evidence, use of force, oppression and harassment and unlawful and unnecessary arrest emphasises how important it is for officers to know the law and their powers (see Appendix 12 and Appendix 13).

Laws, such as the Human Rights Act and the Police and Criminal Evidence Act contribute to the body of professional knowledge police officers, including student police officers, need to perform their roles. However, because “policing and society is complex and laws are changing all the time”, student police officers “need to maintain professional knowledge even if the two year probation is finished” (Appendix 8, 22 (IV)). The initial training period for a student police officer is two years but recently there were at least eight major new Acts that would potentially impact police powers (Fraud Act 2006, Racial and Religious Hatred Act 2006, Terrorism Act 2006, Immigration, Asylum and Nationality Act 2006, Animal Welfare Act, 2006, Road Safety Act 2007, Forced Marriage and Civil Protection Act 2007, Serious Crime Act 2007).

It has already been noted by Her Majesty’s Inspectorate of Constabulary that “since Victorian times, the quantity of legislation enacted has been such that

today there are over 5,000 offences which an individual could commit. With criminal legislation in England and Wales today being so event led, this figure continues to rise steadily” (HMIC, 2002, p. 15). Linked to this is the recording of policy as doctrine. Since this was introduced, “the service has become prolific in its drafting of doctrine, which includes regulations, codes of practice, operational policing manuals, and practical advice on best practice in the police service” (Flanagan, 2008, p. 51). Again over recent years, forty-one new pieces of doctrine have been written and an additional twenty-two are under development. What is apparent is that an “additive approach” is being used, whereby additional detail is added when an individual policy is added (Flanagan, 2008, p. 51). The body of knowledge for student police officers is an ever expanding one and the law that student police officers need to be aware of is subject to continual and increasing change. In the same as the National Occupational Standards do not adequately reflect the changes within the policing context (see Chapter Three), they would not adequately reflect the changing nature of the knowledge requirements of a student police officer and they appear static in the context of this change.

As well as knowledge of law, student police officers also need knowledge of procedures and processes: “Knowledge and understanding of powers, policies and practices to perform the role. This includes codes of practice, law, service level agreements and standard operating procedures both internal and external with key partner agencies. To fulfil their role student officers need the context of rules, regulations and the culture of the

organisation” (Appendix 8, 22 (VI)). Again this is not a simple as it first sounds. Eraut says that process knowledge “is partly a matter of knowing all the things one has to do...and partly a matter of possessing and using practical and routinized skills” (1994, p. 81). Also included is “routinized behaviour and the rapid thinking on one’s feet that can only be rationalized afterwards” (1994, p. 81).

Wolf says that “[o]ne of the criticisms made of the competency movement is that it tends to conceive of occupational standards in an extremely mechanistic and atomistic way” (1995, p. 49). Hyland believes that instead of a holistic framework, competency based education and training atomises and fragments learning into measurable chunks rather than valuing processes and experiences (Hyland, 1994, p. 54; Field 1995, p. 52). Hodkinson and Issit say that it is the functional analysis of current jobs “which risks atomizing the job, so that the whole becomes less than the sum of its parts” (1995, p. 5). Hager says that atomistic performance descriptors are attractive to some as they offer the possibility of a simple piece by piece assessment by direct observation of the performance of tasks against a checklist. This does raise invalidity problems of several kinds as assessment is done on the superficial aspects of an occupation and this ignores the holistic character of a quality performance; despite the initial attraction for some, this approach leads to unacceptably large amounts of time being spent on assessment of a myriad of discrete tasks (Eraut, 2004, p. 424).

The job of policing can be described as a “myriad of discrete tasks” as the National Occupational Standards show (see Appendix 1). However, the activity of policing is based on a series of processes and procedures. Although articulated somewhat clumsily, Intake 3 recognised that student police officers had to “handle jobs” and “not mess up”. This was because “everything has a set order and cases could be lost if the arrest is not valid” (Appendix 9, Intake 3). Student police officers need an understanding of how what they do or do not do affects an outcome at a later point in the process.

Situational Knowledge and Judgement

Within police training, knowledge is treated as encyclopaedic” (White, 2006, p. 396). However, because of the changing nature of the body of knowledge they need to draw upon, student police officers cannot be expected to know everything. Field says that the equivocation of the meaning of competence, as highlighted in Chapter Two, is paralleled by ambiguity of the relationship between knowledge and competence (1995, p. 47). He feels there is a “world of difference between assessing the knowledge and understanding we hope to develop in say, history or science, which needs to take account of a wide range of cognitive abilities, skills and values, and concentrating only on that knowledge which is thought to underpin competent performance” (1995, p. 47). As a result, as Field believes, confusion comes with trying to capture in behaviouristic terms something that is not totally behaviouristic in nature, namely knowledge and understanding (1995, p. 47). This is because knowledge and understanding do not simply underpin performance. The two

are dialectically related and both related to the situation within which the activity takes place (Hodkinson, 1995, p 60). A student officer may be able to recite the definition of an offence, for example theft, and the points that are needed to be proved in order to determine whether that offence has been committed. But the application of this piece of legislation and consequently, the student police officer's understanding of this definition may vary depending on the circumstances of the alleged theft they are investigating. The student police officers, and those assessing them, have to be sure that they are applying the most appropriate knowledge and understanding to the situation or incident they are dealing with.

In order to do this, student police officers have to be aware of the situations they are dealing with. As one of the Professional Development Unit sergeants comments: "The other thing is do you recognise three different types of incident...Minor day to day stuff students can deal without assistance...incidents that are more complex that will be attended initially ...and then come away to get the injured party the solution...and go back to him...Serious incidents beyond their remit...the 'send everyone' incident" (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 3.4). Eraut says that situational knowledge is "concerned with how people 'read' the situations in which they find themselves. What do they see as the significant features? What aspects of the situation are more susceptible to change? How would it be affected by, or respond to, certain decision or events?" (1994, p. 78).

Student police officers will find themselves in situations in which the “particular combination of features is either rare or even unique in their experience. This will call for sound non-routine practical judgements that are highly context-sensitive. To achieve this [they] will require qualities such as...situational appreciation and attentiveness to the details of the particular case” (Hager, 2000, p. 290). It is the student police officer’s knowledge of the situation that will determine the way they react and deal with it, which in turn will decide the outcome. As such, “situational knowledge is clearly of enormous importance” (Eraut, 1994, p. 85).

In addition, this has to be done in a practical, “common sense” way (Appendix 8, 11 (IV)). According to one operational officer, “most of British law post 1980 is based on common sense, what the average person would think to be right. This is the basis for actions that won’t come back and bite you on the backside” (Appendix 8, 11 (I)). Sergeant 1 gives an example of a student police officer “on foot patrol who handed a pigeon with a broken wing into the police station. She was also on patrol at night when she saw a man ride a woman’s bicycle on the road. She told him to ride on the pavement as it was safer. There was no awareness that as it was late at night and a man on a woman’s bike that it could have been a theft” (Appendix 7, Sergeant 1, 8.4).

Another operational police officer said “do they use common sense, for example a lost mobile phone? Do they look at the evidence and work on a balance of probabilities? Do they use discretion and sort out an argument

rather than crime it?” (Appendix 8, 11 (III)). A student police officer may have an extensive knowledge of the law but if they cannot use it in a practical, common sense way, “it does not matter how much training they have had. If they have no common sense they are onto a loser” (Appendix 8, 11 (II)).

Collective Knowledge

Team working has already been identified as an important attribute within policing (see Chapter Six). Linked to team working is the concept of collective knowledge. Boreham talks of a collective knowledge base and how in order “[f]or effective narration to take place, a group must possess knowledge resources” (2004, p. 10). It is possible for an organisation to possess knowledge over and above the knowledge of its individual members. A study of firefighters in the south of France showed that when teams were deployed to fight forest fires, they possessed a shared model of tactical reasoning or game plan which enabled them to anticipate each other’s actions and interpret each other’s messages when fighting fires. This model developed naturally within each team as a result of experience but after it was made explicit by researchers, it was codified and used by trainers to coach new teams (Boreham, 2004, p. 11).

Weick & Roberts have conducted research into why when aircraft carriers represent “a million accidents waiting to happen”, that almost none of them do (1993, p. 357). The explanation they explore is “that organizations concerned with reliability enact aggregate mental processes that are more

fully developed than those found in organizations concerned with efficiency” (1993, p. 357). They use flight deck operations as an illustration of organisational mind as the technology is relatively simple; the coordination of group activities is explicit and visible; socialisation is continuous and agents working alone have less grasp of the entire situation and system than they do when working together. The system is also constructed of interdependent know-how, where teams of people think on their feet and so do the right thing in novel situations, and the consequences of any lapse in attention are swift and disabling (Weick & Roberts, 1993, pp. 357-8).

During flight operations the men in the tower monitor and give instructions to incoming and departing aircraft. Simultaneously, the men on the landing signal officers’ platform do the same thing; backed by the men in air operations who monitor and instruct aircraft at some distance from the ship. From the aviator’s point of view, he receives integrated information about his current status and future behaviour from an integrated source when in reality several sources are independent of one another and located in different parts of the ship (Weick & Roberts, 1993, p. 362). The same can be said of policing. From a victim’s or a witness’ point of view, although they may be dealing with one or two police officers at the scene of an incident, this relies on the integrated information and action from a variety of different sources.

The research of Weick and Roberts shows that despite high potential for normal accidents air craft carriers are relatively safe and it is safe because of and not in spite of what they call “tight coupling” (1993, p. 377). Their

analysis raises the possibility that technological tight coupling is dangerous in the presence of interactive complexity unless it is mediated by a mutually shared field that is well developed. This mutually shared field is built from interrelating and interaction and is itself tightly coupled socially and not technically. Normal accidents represent a breakdown of social processes and comprehension rather than a failure of technology. Inadequate comprehension can be traced to a flawed mind rather than flawed equipment. As a result, this mindset has little room for heroic autonomous individuals because a well developed organisational mind capable of reliable performance is thoroughly social; interpersonal skills are not a luxury but a necessity as individualism leads to a breakdown of the collective mind as it is oversimplified and is rendered indistinguishable from the individual mind. This leads to accidents as there are fewer interconnections and crews that function as individuals show a rapid breakdown in understanding what is happening (1993, pp. 378).

Unlike Weick's & Roberts' view of aircraft carriers, policing needs individuals to act heroically and autonomously as it has already been identified that student police officers need to act with moral and physical courage in a range of situations (see Chapter Six). As policing is also seen as a team activity (see Chapter Six) it is logical to consider collective knowledge within policing. One of the types of knowledge Holgersson & Gottschalk identify is a type of "collective knowledge", related to a certain patrol or group (2008, p. 368). They say this knowledge becomes visible when a group or patrol is involved in a case, and different roles and working tasks are distributed more

or less automatically within the patrol or group. Even though the individuals within the group or patrol possess this ability, the knowledge is collective and maintained by the members of the patrol or group. This collective knowledge makes the individuals in the patrol or group experience a certain 'flow' when they are working (2008, p. 368). However, the collective knowledge would not just be possessed by members of the patrol or group student police officers are working with. The teams student police officers are expected to work as part of encompass the Constabulary as a whole and can also regularly extend beyond the Constabulary to other partner agencies the Constabulary is expected to work with (see Chapter Six).

In talking about medical practice, Boreham says the "question thus arises whether an important part of the professional knowledge based should be regarded as collective" because "when professional activity is collective, the amount of knowledge in a clinical unit cannot be measured by the sum total of the knowledge possessed by its individual members" (2000, p. 505). The previous major assumption is that work knowledge is possessed by individuals but this is being challenged with the alternative view that "such knowledge is *collective* – possessed by work groups, not by the individuals who belong to them" (Boreham, 2000, p. 505). Therefore it is not only the individual knowledge a student officer possesses and how they apply this individual knowledge that is important but also how they contribute to the collective knowledge of the work group they belong to. As one operational officer asks "Do they understand their role within the organisation? Where they fit in with organisational priorities?" (Appendix 8, 25 (I)). Ultimately

student police officers “will not get it right unless they have a knowledge and understanding of their role and responsibilities and those of key partner agencies” (Appendix 8, 25 (II)). Just as assessment against the National Occupational Standards cannot measure the collective nature of team working (see Chapter Six), they do not measure the contribution a student police officer would make to the collective knowledge of a team or the Constabulary.

Collin and Valleala also mention the social aspect of work. It is their “assumption that from the perspective of a workplace learner or worker, the technical performance of work tasks and the social life at the workplace are not separate elements of the work process” (2005, p. 402). According to the research they carried out at two technology enterprises and three youth centres, “it is essential when supervising work-based learning in the context of formal training to focus attention not on mastering individual skills defined beforehand, but on the operations and activities of the work community and the student’s own perception in it” (Collin and Valleala, 2005, pp. 417-8). The research “lends support to the view that a sense of community at the workplace is an important influence on work performance and learning” (Collin and Valleala, 2005, p. 418).

White echoes this view and says that learning is not systematic but determined by interaction with personal and social factors (2006, p. 396). It is these social factors that are not reflected in the National Occupational Standards.

Emotional Intelligence

There is definitely a “cerebral” element to policing. This not only includes knowledge, but also “emotional intelligence”. This is required on different levels. Student police officers “need to be aware of their own levels of emotional intelligence and be able to empathise with the poorest in society, injured parties, and colleagues. They need to understand what is going on in terms of what people are feeling” (Appendix 8, 15 (I)). This is important because “some jobs start cordially but can change in a moment if the wrong thing is said” and as a result student police officers “need to be able to feel their way intuitively through some jobs” (Appendix 8, 15 (II)). Pinizotto et al say that “[i]ntuitive policing represents a decision-making process that officers use frequently but find difficult to explain to those unfamiliar with the concept. Experienced officers observe actions and behaviours exhibited by criminals that send danger signals to them that they react to before becoming consciously aware of these warnings. Such ‘gut feelings or ‘intuitions’ have saved many lives, not only those of innocent citizens but officers as well” (2004, pp. 5-6).

In addition they need to be aware of themselves: “Are they able to switch off? They need to stop being a police officer at home unless something happens. They are a person first and a police officer second. If they do not have this balance and are not rested they are not effective at work” (Appendix 8, 15 (I); Appendix 9, Intake 2). Chapman and Clarke have found that there was a strong correlation between lower levels of stress and higher levels of emotional intelligence and “that those front-line operational police officers

who were able to understand and manage their emotions reported lower levels of stress and were, according to their reported lifestyles, at less risk of suffering from stress in the future” (2003, p. 44). It is important that student officers “develop the ability to recognise stress in oneself and in others, and to balance their personal commitment to the police role with the preservation of their psychological and physical health” (Elliott et al, 2003, p. 9). Given the problems of knowledge and competency standards, it would be equally difficult to include criteria to measure emotional intelligence within the suite of National Occupational Standards.

Diversity

The knowledge and understanding of diversity within policing “cannot be set aside” (Appendix 8, 23 (III); Elliott et al, 2003, pp. 7-8). The policing of diversity is commonly seen as a new development. This is because concern about police relations with minority communities is often regarded as a relatively recent phenomenon particularly since the urban unrest of the 1980s and as a result of the murder of Stephen Lawrence and the subsequent inquiry (Rowe, 2002, p. 424; see also Davenport, 2006, p. 21).

For example, according to Her Majesty’s Inspectorate of Constabulary, the last thirty years have brought changes which have impacted on police community and race relations. It mentions the implementation of the Police Criminal and Evidence Act, the political and economic climate of the 1970s and 1980s which brought the public order role of policing under scrutiny, and the move away from a foot-beat system of policing to a unit-beat system

supported by 'panda' cars, which resulted in "less continuity" in personal contact between the police and the public. A "fire-brigade" approach to policing became prevalent and overall, there was an abrasive approach in dealing with the public especially within the inner cities (HMIC, 1996/97). However, Newburn and Reiner believe issues around policing diversity are of a longer standing nature because the "last 50 years have been punctuated by expressions of concerns about the policing of minority communities" (2004, p. 618). Rowe states that "it is worth noting that police-community relations have been fraught with difficulty since the foundation of modern police forces in the mid-19th century" (2002, pp. 424 and 425).

There is no doubt the established ethnic minority population has expanded in recent years since the Second World War. In 1951, there were significantly fewer than 100,000 black Caribbean and South Asians in Britain. By the time of the 1991 census there were over three million (Morgan and Newburn, 1997, p. 23). According to Morgan and Newburn, the ethnic minority population is mostly urbanised, "geographically concentrated and residentially segregated (Morgan and Newburn, 1997, p. 25).

Rowe says that "despite its ethnic diversity, Britain remains a relatively ethnically homogeneous nation. The White population of England and Wales, according to the 1991 census, makes up 94.5% of the total. Whereas the minority ethnic population of the major cities is often considerably higher than this nationwide figure suggests, it is equally the case that many parts of the country have an even greater proportion of White

people and are notable for their ethnic homogeneity, not their diversity (2002, p. 425). The nature of the problems around policing diversity are not significant because of the numbers involved but because of the matters of “fundamental principle that are raised in a society with a tradition of policing by consent” (Rowe, 2002, p. 425). This view does not take into account that even a seemingly homogenous white population would have different elements of diversity not always made readily apparent by visible markers, such as age, religion, sexual orientation and nationality to name but a few.

Prior to the Lawrence Report in 1999, police concern with community and race relations was generally focused on ensuring all ethnic groups received an equal level of service delivery. In contrast diversity recognises that the needs and demand of different ethnic groups differ and an identical service applicable to all is untenable (Rowe, 2002, p. 440). According to Rowe, the main focus of diversity in Britain has remained largely on issues relating to race (2002, p. 441). Thematic inspections by Her Majesty’s Inspectorate of Constabulary seem to reinforce this focus with a series of publications entitled “Winning the Race” (HMIC, 1996/7; HMIC, 1998/9; HMIC, 2001). The focus of these reports was community and race relations, which was described as being “fundamental to securing and nurturing the doctrine of policing by consent as the cornerstone of policing style in England and Wales” (HMIC, 2001, p. vii). According to Her Majesty’s Inspectorate of Constabulary “CRR should be at the core of strategic police thinking” (HMIC, 2001, p. vii).

However, diversity needs to be seen as much wider than race as “[r]ecent debates on the extent of and response to rural crime seem to indicate that rural communities have different policing needs to their urban counterparts. Equally, the experience of the elderly, women, gays and lesbians suggest that still other sets of variables need to be factored into the equation when it comes to providing policing services that reflect the diversity of the community” (Rowe, 2002, p. 441). Additionally, the unemployed, those with mental health problems, sleep rough or have issues relation to addictions may also have specific requirements of the police and the “types of ‘communities at risk’...are endless in their permutations” (Rowe, 2002, p. 441). Her Majesty’s Inspectorate of Constabulary’s thematic report entitled “Diversity Matters”, says that the “concept of diversity by the very nature of the word embraces and values all aspects of difference. Most recently, there has been recognition of the wider aspects of distinction in our society, beyond issues of race alone” (HMIC, 2003, p 1). However, “this is not to say an emphasis should not be maintained on areas of culture and ethnicity” (HMIC, 2003, p. 1). The use of the term “race and diversity” within the thematic report still places the main focus of diversity issues on race.

When looking at policing as a whole, although minority groups may have specific needs in the way they are dealt with, they may have more in common than when apart in relation to the provision of a policing response to many incidents (Rowe, 2002, p. 442). However, when considering policing by consent, “consent cannot be gleaned simply by treating all members of the public in the same manner: The public no longer has a consistent or even

coherent set of expectations for the police to fulfil. Given that society is increasingly diverse...the demands placed on the police are no longer straightforward and it may be increasingly recognized that the police cannot satisfy all the expectations with which they are faced” (Rowe, 2002, p. 440).

The importance of diversity to the Constabulary itself is highlighted by the existence of its diversity statement. This states that the Constabulary “promotes diversity by recognising, valuing and respecting the different contributions of [its] communities and staff”. This is achieved by ensuring the fair treatment of all people who contact the Constabulary, working in partnership with local people through consultation and engagement to meet agreed needs and striving to eliminate unfair treatment in service delivery. The diversity statement does not just reflect outwards to the public and communities. It also reflects inwards. As well as trying to eliminate unfair treatment in service delivery, the statement also says that the Constabulary will also try to do the same in employment, securing a workforce that reflects the makeup of the communities it serves and selecting staff on a fair and non-discriminatory basis.

The Constabulary’s own approach to diversity does not focus solely on race. Its diversity strategy is split into six strands of activity, namely race; religion, faith and belief; age; disability; gender and sexual orientation. These strands mirror current equality legislation. The statement itself is more generic in nature as it seeks to meet the needs of the communities without narrowing what those needs or communities are.

What is noteworthy, given the context and importance of diversity, is the low number of allegations around discriminatory behaviour. Nationally this is 1296 allegations, just under 2.7% of total allegations and for the Constabulary 29 allegations, 2.6% of the total number of allegations, particularly given the prominence of dealing with race and diversity within the police service. 63% of the total number of complainants were white, 6% were Asian and 7% were black (IPCC, 2008, p. 23). It might then appear from these statistics that those of minority ethnic background are more reluctant to make a complaint, including around discriminatory behaviour. However, when looking at the statistics for the two largest complaint categories, for "Other Neglect or Failure in Duty" 19% of complainants were Asian and 15% were black while for "Incivility, Impoliteness and Intolerance" 23% of complainants were Asian and 17% were black. Even though the statistics for black complainants are lower, this is more comparable to the numbers of white complaints for the two categories which were 21% and 23% respectively (IPCC, 2008, p. 18).

It is clear that a knowledge and understanding of diversity is essential for a student police officer. In researching what makes a good police officer, Birzer found that a common theme was that "police officers should be well versed in cultural diversity skills. There was also a strong sense among participants that police officers should be free of biases and be able to respect differences (2008, p 207). His data also revealed that it was "important for police to be knowledgeable of the cultural make up in the neighbourhoods they patrol" (Birzer, 2008, p 208). However, given the

nature and issues associated with diversity as described, this is not as simple as Birzer makes it sound.

However, as with situational knowledge and judgement, it is not just knowledge of diversity that is required, an understanding of how should be applied and used is also required. According to one operational officer: “I hear moans about how they are diversified out and it’s all too pc. The reality is there are massive issues in the way individuals deal with diversity issues. It goes from one extreme, no respect, to the other, being oversensitive. Officers don’t treat people appropriate to behaviour and crime at a service or individual level” (Appendix 8, 23 (I)). Research on policing diversity in Lambeth mirrors this and found that “[m]any officers appreciated that there may be variations between ethnic groups in styles of social interaction and that it was important to be sensitive to these. However, their grasp of these variations was often limited, and...it was this rather than overt racism, that seemed to lead officers to be oblivious to the presence or significance of relevant differences” (Spencer and Hough, 2000, p 15). Student police officers need “have a proper understanding of diversity” and the “diversity agenda and do it in a balanced way” (Appendix 8, 23 (I); 23 (II)). As the Learning Requirement highlights, student officers need to become able to “adapt investigative and incident processing procedures where appropriate to meet the special language, social, cultural, political or personal characteristics of minority groups and individuals” (Elliot et al, 2003, p. 8).

Within this, they also need to have an understanding of their own behaviour: “Do they behave properly? We don’t want double standards where they do something different on a night out” (Appendix 8, 23 (II)). Also it can impact on their colleagues: “Is the officer discriminatory against any minority or ethnic groups? I would not want to work with a colleague who may make judgements based on discrimination thereby treating a victim/witness/member of public differently because of this. Again this would impact on me if I worked with such an officer. I would have a duty to challenge the behaviour, and would be extremely uncomfortable if a victim of crime was further victimised by a colleague” (Appendix 8, 18 (I)). Student officers need to be able to “develop an understanding that where personal prejudice may exist this need not lead to personal bias in practice. This implies the ability to detach their personal prejudices from their actions based on an overriding commitment to professional principles” (Elliott et al, 2003, p. 8).

Despite the difficult nature of the relationship between knowledge and competency based education and training, knowledge is a key element of the competence of a student police officer, particularly as the knowledge base police officers draw on is a complex and subject to change. The knowledge they need to possess is not only that they know as individuals but also a type of collective knowledge as policing is a “team” activity. In addition, common sense, emotional intelligence and a knowledge and understanding of diversity is also required by the student police officers. This should be underpinned by situational knowledge and judgement. Each of these are

wide ranging concepts that are difficult to assess. Given their nature, it is questionable whether assessment of the student police officers against the National Occupational Standards is able to fully measure performance against this wide ranging view of knowledge.

The National Occupational Standards and the Assessment of Student Police Officers: Conclusion

The National Occupational Standards were implemented as part of the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme, which changed the way student police officers were trained and assessed. As part of this programme, the Standards were intended to be the minimum standard of competence for new police officers and as such they make up the level 3 and 4 NVQ in policing.

However, they are also part of the mechanism for controlling the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme. The programme devolved the delivery of training away from regional police training centres and into individual forces. In order to ensure that it remained a national programme, control was imposed from the centre, by the Central Authority, and this control is managed in part through the use of the National Occupational Standards. This mirrors the wider context of management and accountability within the public sector and education. While the devolution of training increased the choice for individuals wishing to pursue a career as a police officer and for whom residential training was not practicable, the continuing central control that came with it curtailed the options available to police forces in delivering local training to meet local needs. As Young says, the “educational problem, however, is that these purposes can act against each other” (2003, p. 228).

Despite the existence of the National Occupational Standards, the Constabulary still found it necessary to implement assessment against the Core Behaviours as additional assessment criteria. At a national level, Police Action Checklist and the Learning Development Review are also used. This suggests that the National Occupational Standards were implemented without the resolution of ongoing debates about either the nature and definition of “competence” in the police service or that of “minimum” standards required for student police officers.

Although the development and implementation of the National Occupational Standards as a minimum standard were meant to bring coherence to the assessment of a student police officer, they have failed in this aim. The use of additional assessment criteria and procedures has the potential for fragmentation and could lead to confusion about what the minimum requirements needed for a student police officer actually are.

The use of the Core Behaviours at a local level shows that there is an alternative framework that could be used for assessing the competence of student police officers. A useful starting point for considering the minimum requirement would have been the Code of Conduct and the principles of the Oath that all police officers must abide by and swear to. Both are laid down by statutory instrument and the Code of Conduct forms the basis of misconduct procedures. It is surprising that that these requirements do not feature in the National Occupational Standards. Neither are they fully

reflected in the Core Behaviours, although it could be argued that these are closer to the Code than the Standards.

The measurement of competence against the Core Behaviours contrasts significantly with the National Occupational Standards as it does not rely on “competent”/ “not competent” judgements. Where competence needs to be evidenced under the Standards, instead assessment of the Core Behaviours includes the notion of development and improvement as integral to competence and moves towards an approach where competence is assumed and incompetence is evidenced.

As well as an alternative framework to measure competence, the use of the Core Behaviours also shows that there is an alternative picture of competence than that painted by the National Occupational Standards. Within the Constabulary this picture centres on an inter-related and co-dependent range of attributes, skills and knowledge. These are not reflected within the National Occupational Standards, which have a narrow view of competence based only on policing skills and knowledge.

Through the identification of the attributes, skills and knowledge the Constabulary deems important for a student police officer, key characteristics of policing have also been highlighted. Policing is a “social” occupation in that it is reliant on team working and the exercise of collective knowledge. Assessment against the National Occupational Standards is individualistic and does not measure what the student police officer adds to the

competence of the “team” or their contribution to its knowledge. Policing is also varied, unpredictable and harrowing. The National Occupational Standards do not enable the police service to measure the ability of a student police officer to understand and cope with the impact of such incidents on themselves or on any of the other individuals involved.

There is also a psychological aspect to policing. The benefits of a competent police service should not just be couched in terms of the skills and knowledge that are measured by the National Occupational Standards. Also important is the emotional impact that results from interactions with members of the police service. This cannot be determined by the assessment of student police officers against the National Occupational Standards.

The police service has been seduced by the logic and the simplicity of the National Occupational Standards. They are vocational in nature and derived from the functional analysis of the role of a police officer; they are also seemingly easy to understand and easy to implement with assessment against the criteria they contain treated as straightforward and unproblematic. But policing is far from a straightforward and unproblematic occupation and the process of learning to be a police officer is far from easy. The range of police work and the multiplicity of contexts within which the police have to work means that a more rounded and complex view of competence, is needed; one that emphasises situational judgement.

This study was conceived as a case study of the National Occupational Standards and the assessment of student police officers. It is also a case study that touches on the nature of policing and the nature of police competence. Against this context, the National Occupational Standards seem one dimensional in comparison and as such do not provide a valid and reliable measurement of the competence of student police officers. The police service is determined to use the National Occupational Standards and in the design and implementation of the original twenty-two units and now the ten new ones, it has missed a real opportunity to clearly define minimum requirements of student police officers that more closely reflect the realities of policing.

Appendices

Appendix 1: The Twenty-Two National Occupational Standards

Units	Elements
Communicate effectively with members of communities	Communicate effectively with members of communities
Foster people's equality, diversity and human rights	Foster people's rights and responsibilities Foster equality and diversity of people Maintain the confidentiality of information
Provide initial support to individuals affected by offending or anti-social behaviour and assess their needs for further support	Provide initial support to individuals affected by offending or anti social behaviour Assess with individuals their needs and wishes regarding further support
Gather and submit information that has the potential to support policing objectives	Gather and submit information that has the potential to support policing objectives
Provide an initial police response to incidents	Gather information and plan a response Respond to incidents
Prepare for, and participate in, planned policing operations	Prepare for planned policing operations Participate in planned policing operations
Arrest, detain or report individuals	Arrest, detain or report individuals
Minimise and deal with aggressive and abusive behaviour	Help to prevent aggressive and abusive behaviour Deal with aggressive and abusive behaviour
Conduct investigations	Conduct investigations
Finalise investigations	Finalise investigations
Interview victims and witnesses	Plan and prepare interviews with victims and witnesses Conduct interviews with victims and witnesses Evaluate interviews with victims and witnesses
Use police actions in a fair and justified way	Apply principles of reasonable suspicion or belief Use police actions proportionately Use police actions fairly
Interview suspects	Plan and prepare interviews with suspects Conduct interviews with suspects Evaluate interviews with suspects
Search individuals	Search individuals
Search vehicles, premises and land	Prepare to search vehicles, premises and land Conduct searches of vehicle, premises and land
Prepare and submit case files	Prepare case files Submit case files and process enquiries
Present evidence in court and	Prepare for court and other hearings

at other hearings	Present evidence to court or other hearings
Escort detained persons	Escort detained persons
Present detained persons to custody	Present detained persons for custody process Conduct initial custody reception actions
Develop one's own knowledge and practice	Reflect on and evaluate one's own values, priorities, interests and effectiveness Synthesise new knowledge into the development of one's own practice
Ensure your own actions reduce risks to health and safety	Identify the hazards and evaluate the risks in your workplace Reduce the risks to health and safety in your workplace
Administer first aid	Respond to the needs of casualties with minor injuries Respond to the needs of casualties with major injuries Respond to the needs of unconscious casualties Perform cardio-pulmonary resuscitation

Appendix 2: The Police Action Checklist

Units	Elements
Safety First	Health and Safety-Dealing with disorder/conflict Demonstrate ability to minimise and deal with aggressive and abusive behaviour
Information Management	Utilise PNC – e.g. person check/vehicle check Utilise force information management systems (e.g. – gathering and submitting intelligence/crime reporting/command & despatch)
Patrol	Demonstrate patrol priorities in accordance with local objectives Demonstrate communication with control rooms
Search	Conduct PACE Stop Demonstrate lawful Search – Person Demonstrate lawful Search – Premise Demonstrate lawful Search – Vehicle
Investigation	Utilise CCTV during an investigation Demonstrate initial crime scene management Conduct the initial investigation & report of missing persons Conduct the initial investigation & report of volume crime Conduct the initial investigation & report of a domestic incident Conduct the initial investigation & report of a hate crime, e.g. race, homophobia, disability etc. Conduct the initial investigation & report in relation to a child protection and/or vulnerable person incident Conduct the initial investigation & report of a sudden death Demonstrate initial RTC scene management Interview – conduct a witness interview using the PEACE model Interview – conduct a suspect interview using the PEACE model Demonstrate correct handling of exhibits Provide support & advice to victims and witnesses Respond appropriately to developments during an investigation
Disposal	Report offenders, e.g. PND tickets, reports for summons etc. Make lawful arrests Convey a suspect into custody *only if applicable to your force (in accordance with force procedure)
Custody Procedures	Present suspect to custody in accordance with force procedures Complete pre-charge procedures, e.g. obtain fingerprints, obtain photographs, obtain DNA

	sample and speak with CPS. (In accordance with force procedure)
Finalise Investigations	Complete case files, e.g. summons file, caution file & post-charge files. (In accordance with force procedure)
Road Policing	Demonstrate vehicle stops Check driving documents Complete traffic procedures – HO/RT1 Complete traffic procedures – FPN(E) and (NE) Complete traffic procedures – CLE2/6 or CLE2/8 Complete traffic procedures – VDRS Demonstrate correct administration of the appropriate tests for drink/drugs driving offences
Property	Utilise property systems

Appendix 3: The Student Police Officer Role Profile

Core Responsibility	Task
Community Safety	Conduct patrol
Police Operations	Prepare for, and participate in, planned policing operations Provide an initial response to incidents
Custody and Prosecution	Complete prosecution procedures Conduct custody reception procedures (arresting officer) Conduct lawful arrest and process procedures Prepare and submit case files Present evidence in court and at other hearings
Investigation	Conduct investigation Interview suspect Interview victims and witnesses Provide care for victims and witnesses Search person(s) or personal property Search vehicles, premises and land
Personal Responsibility	Comply with Health and Safety legislation Maintain standards for the management of information Maintain standards of professional practice Promote equality, diversity and Human Rights in working practices Provide an effective response recognising the needs of all communities
Health, Safety and Welfare	Provide first aid
Intelligence	Use information/intelligence to support policing objectives
Behaviour Areas	Description
Leading People	Effective communication Team working
Leading the Organisation	Problem solving Community and customer focus
Leading the Way	Respect for race and diversity
Personal Qualities & Values	Personal responsibility Resilience

Appendix 4: The Ten New Occupational Standards

Units	Elements
Provide initial support to victims and witnesses	Know and understand the factors that affect victims and witnesses and impact on their need for support Be able to communicate effectively with victims and witnesses Be able to provide initial support to victims and witnesses Be able to assess the needs and wishes of victims and witnesses for further support
Provide an initial response to incidents	Know and understand relevant legal and organisational requirements for responding to an incident Be able to gather information and plan a response to an incident Be able to respond to incidents
Arrest, detain and report individuals	Know and understand relevant legal and organisational requirements relating to arresting, detention and reporting of individuals Be able to arrest and detain individuals Be able to report individuals
Search individuals	Know and understand legal and organisational requirements in relation to searching individuals Be able to search individuals
Search vehicles, premises and open spaces	Understand legal and organisational requirements in relation to searching vehicles, premises and open spaces Be able to prepare to search vehicles, premises and open spaces Be able to conduct searches of vehicles, premises and open spaces
Manage conflict	Understand legislation and other relevant guidance related to managing conflict Be able to apply conflict management skills and techniques Use personal safety skills and any issued equipment
Gather and submit information to support law enforcement objectives	Know and understand relevant legal and organisational requirements related to gathering and submitting information Be able to gather and submit information that has the potential to support law enforcement objectives
Conduct priority and volume investigations	Know and understand the legal and organisational requirements in relation to conducting priority and volume investigations Know and understand the professional practice applicable to conducting priority and volume investigations Be able to conduct priority and volume investigations
Interview victims and witnesses in relation to priority and volume investigations	Know and understand relevant legal and organisations requirements in relation to interviewing victims and witnesses Know and understand the principles of interviewing victims and witnesses

	<p>Be able to plan and prepare interviews with victims and witnesses</p> <p>Be able to conduct interview with victims and witnesses</p> <p>Know how to evaluate and carry out post-interview procedures with victims and witnesses</p>
<p>Interview suspects in relation to priority and volume investigations</p>	<p>Know and understand relevant legal and organisations requirements in relation to interviewing suspects</p> <p>Know and understand the principles of interviewing suspects</p> <p>Be able to plan and prepare interviews with suspects</p> <p>Be able to conduct an interview with a suspect</p> <p>Be able to evaluate interviews with suspects and carry-out post interview procedures</p>

Appendix 5: Standards of Professional Behaviour for Police Officers

Standard	Behaviour
Honesty and Integrity	Police Officers are honest, act with integrity and do not compromise or abuse their position
Authority, Respect and Courtesy	Police officers act with self control and tolerance, treating members of the public and colleagues with respect and courtesy
Equality and Diversity	Police Officers act with fairness and impartiality. They do not discriminate unlawfully or unfairly
Use of Force	Police officers only use force to the extent that it is necessary, proportionate and reasonable in all the circumstances
Orders and Instructions	Police officers only give and carry out lawful orders and instructions. Police officers abide by police regulations, force policies and lawful orders
Duties and Responsibilities	Police officers are diligent in the exercise of their duties and responsibilities
Confidentiality	Police officers treat information with respect and access or disclose it only in the proper course of police duties
Fitness for Duty	Police officers when on duty or presenting themselves for duty are fit to carry out their responsibilities
Discreditable Conduct	Police officers behave in a manner which does not discredit the police service or undermine public confidence in it, whether on or off duty. Police officers report any action taken against them for a criminal offence, any conditions imposed on them by a court or the receipt of any penalty notice
Challenging and Reporting Improper Conduct	Police officers report, challenge or take action against the conduct of colleagues which has fallen below the Standards of Professional Behaviour

Appendix 6: The Core Tasks

Unit	Tasks
1. Patrolling	1.1 Planning a beat 1.2 Patrolling a beat
2. Investigating	2.1 Initial investigation of crime 2.2 Supporting victims and witnesses
3. Arresting	3.1 Making arrests 3.2 Escorting detainees 3.3 Searching 3.4 Interview: planning 3.5 Conducting interviews 3.6 Searching land, premises and property 3.7 Gathering and evaluating evidence 3.8 Case papers; documentation and court proceedings
4. Dealing with incidents and disputes	4.1 Incidents 4.3 Disputes
5. Dealing with traffic	5.1 Motoring offences 5.2 Road traffic accidents 5.3 Drink-drive
6. In the police station	6.1 Front office: enquiry desk 6.2 The custody suite: gaoler
7. Working with the community	7.1 Crime intelligence 7.2 Building and strengthening community relationships 7.3 Maintaining effective community relationships
8. Investigating proactively	8.1 Crime prevention
9. Preparing and giving evidence	9.1 Preparing evidence and witnesses for court
10. Dealing with incidents and events	10.1 Incidents 10.2 Events and searches
11. Transferring detainees	11.1 Preparing the detainees for escort

Appendix 7: The Interviews with the Professional Development Unit Sergeants

Section 1: Pre-week 31		
Sergeant 1	Sergeant 2	Sergeant 3
<p>1.“Views are formed at the beginning, at the attestation evening...If they don't pay attention to the evening. The ACC speaks to the recruits and spoke to me and said a student was bored to tears and not paying attention to what he was saying”</p> <p>2.“I look at the first day on area...how they've come through the training...how they've changed...build a picture of the person.”</p>	<p>1.“The first interaction when I first assess student officers is two weeks in at L***** on a Friday afternoon. I get allocated the whole intake and we go and with one of the assessors. We ask them to stand up and tell us who they are and something interesting about themselves. Some break into a sweat under the pressure”</p> <p>2.Looking for “Verbal communication skills and effective communication ...confidence. One student officer at the attestation ceremony broke into a sweat at the thought of standing up and talking...It's the same eighteen months later...we should never have recruited him”</p> <p>3.“Also Op Needle...that is a major interaction where the assessor first sees the student officers” Looking for “Two basic things...effective communication...How do they talk to the role actors and colleagues, how they use Airwave and interact with the person they are paired up with. The second part is application of knowledge taught at L*****. Can they cut through the splurge to see this is a domestic and I need to take positive action?”</p> <p>4.“They have an area induction day...I spend the first day of the</p>	<p>1.“On Day one when they arrive and they do their area familiarisation I am looking at the attitude they adopt to work, enthusiasm and willingness to learn, do they throw themselves in... We assess where they are with their knowledge”</p> <p>2.“The first two days we do an operation with the students. You see a different side to them than at the initial impression at L*****. You see whether they can achieve some kind of performance”</p>

	<p>neighbourhood attachment with them and with an assessor. It is familiarisation with the area where they find out what happens on the area. I am looking for effective communication between the whole group for the whole day...and team working skills. They are set tasks and I want to see that they are all participating. We go to each station and either me or the assessor will take them to the neighbourhood team. We get the students to find the basics...locker, pava, parking...I am looking to see how they interact with strangers”</p>	
Section 2: Week 31		
Sergeant 1	Sergeant 2	Sergeant 3
<p>1.“The students write in vague terms but it is a starting point for me to look at communication skills, how they fit into the team, personal responsibility...I drill down into the core skills to see if they have any and of they are using them” 2.“It is a big step to withhold payment. I don’t do it often...I err on the side of giving action plans...the fallback is week 42” 3.“I don’t separate the seven...I use them all. I don’t understand why they have been separated out.” 4.“Resilience might be hard to evidence but you can see it through the actions they take when dealing with incidents and their sick record”</p>	<p>1.“The review is against the seven core behaviours but for the five specifically listed core behaviour areas...these have to be mainly positive. Their PNB gets inspected to see if it is ELBOWS compliant and to see of they’ve made notes or they have lost it. Also the IT checklist has to be signed by the assessor except the week 42 bits” 2.“If they talk about a burglary I get them to repeat the definition...if they search a house what power do they use? If they do a search in custody what is their power? I don’t just want to read about a great job they are dealing with but also their powers. They must know their powers and not just what they are told to do. The action plan</p>	<p>1.“Week 31 is about performance” 2.“What I go on are the five core behaviours” 3.“Of the five core behaviours, personal responsibility is a big issue for me” 4.“Personal responsibility is a a massive one” 5.“The students should be arriving on time, their attendance should be satisfactory , their work ethic should be positive and they should be pleasant to be around...a team player” 6.“For week 31 I am not looking at good or excellent but that student officers are adequate and satisfactory. If they are below par I will action plan and have development chats” 7.“They should fit into whatever work</p>

<p>5. "I would expect a certain number of arrests...I would expect them to make arrests and submit intelligence. I can't say they need to make five arrests...I want to see that students have demonstrated that they have moved forward rather than turn up on the day and do nothing"</p> <p>6. "All I'm working for is for them to have made some sort of progress"</p> <p>7. "The payment is withheld if the student officer fails any more than one of the core skill areas...also if they've had a period off, but this is a delay rather than a refusal to pay. Evidence against the core skill areas is used to see why they are not achieving"</p> <p>8. "No more than five or six payments a year withheld"</p> <p>9. "This would show a trait ... you know personal responsibility, not on time, not completing work for the shift"</p> <p>10. "Then I action plan for development or there could be a series of issues"</p>	<p>may reflect this. If they are depriving someone of their liberty and stripping someone they need to know why. Coaches can sometimes just tell them to do things without explaining. If they don't know it after ten weeks of policing and it has been hammered into them at L*****, then they will have 30 years of not knowing it. If they struggle, I ask the assessor who recites it parrot fashion. There will be an action plan to research powers and they will be tested at some point"</p> <p>3. "Unless everything is positive, there will be an action plan. A third get action plans even if it is to familiarise themselves with something"</p> <p>4. "Pay not withheld for familiarisation action plans but may be withheld for other action plans and multiple action plans; "Pay is withheld on average every third intake for someone and some more than once"</p>	<p>environment it is"</p> <p>8. "The two policing areas of neighbourhood and tac team are two different entities and you can't compare the two. The tac team is sink or swim if you look at the culture change and style of policing...it is a far cry from L***** and the neighbourhood team. It is about bashing down doors at 5am and is a more aggressive style of policing. Some are fine and adapt and this is what I want to see. Others are more reserved but it is not easy to judge as you have to look at the coaching relationship as well"</p> <p>9. "The main behavioural competency is how would they react if someone was playing up"</p> <p>10. "I am looking for development at a basic level. I don't necessarily want to see a rounded officer out there but someone trying their hardest"</p> <p>11. "I want to look at someone throwing themselves in, learning and picking themselves up and doing it again"</p> <p>12. "Rather than proving they should be given their increment, I am looking to see whether they shouldn't"</p> <p>13. "Nine out of 10 times the pay increment is given. I've held back one in the year I have been in...There are some with development issues but they were not withheld as they were trying"</p>
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Section 3: Week 42		
Sergeant 1	Sergeant 2	Sergeant 3
<p>1.“There is more evidence as the intervention attachment shows what students have learnt from the other three” Same criteria as week 31</p> <p>2.“The way I describe it is as a risk assessment. Is it safe to let them out on patrol by themselves? Are they a danger to the organization?...Are they going to make poor decisions?...Have they got the personal responsibility to own up to their mistakes and fix them?...Before it becomes an issue will they own up and put it right?...Are they a danger to themselves?...Do they recognise dangerous situations?...Will they walk into a crowded pub before back up arrives or will they stand at the door and act as a witness until others back them up?...Are they a danger to colleagues? This goes hand in hand with the first one...Are they going to make a situation worse by being there?...Wind up a situation that needs winding down. Say something to wind up someone getting into the back of the car that others have only just managed to calm down and it ends in a scuffle. Do they have the confidence to back colleagues up when rolling around on the floor?”</p>	<p>1.“Similar in format to week 31 but focus is what they have done on the last two attachments”</p> <p>2.“Student officers need positive indicators for all seven core behaviours.</p> <p>3.“The IT sheet needs to be finished and the PNB is checked. They also have to tell us in their own words about the sanctioned detection rate and the relevance of the six different detection methods...the other thing we test them on is knowledge of particular terrorist targets on the W***. This would not a student officer being made fit for independent patrol but if they had no knowledge they could end up with an action plan”</p>	<p>1.“For week 42 all seven behaviours are looked at”</p> <p>2.“The evidence I am looking for is more reflective and comprehensive...not just what the students do well. I send it back if they say they made the tea every day...or if they use “we” a lot. I want to see an improvement from week 31”</p> <p>3.“I like to see a few things they do quite well in...I would be worried if they were not good at anything”</p> <p>4.“They need to be flexible...there is the culture, shift changes, different people and teams and different stations...If they are not flexible they’ve had it”</p> <p>5.“I send an e-mail two weeks before week 42 to all the sergeants two weeks before week 42 as a reminder that students will be fit for independent patrol unless I hear otherwise so I need to have any issues identified”</p> <p>6.“I need to prove they are not fit rather than they are”</p> <p>7.“Unless there are any action plans or development at that point, they are fit for independent patrol if nothing has arisen during intervention”</p> <p>8.“The big thing here is are they confident? Do they hold their head up on patrol or are they</p>

<p>3. "I would be asking have you got the knowledge to arrest properly? Do you have the nouse to recognise you have made a mistake and go the sergeant and ask how to fix it? That is a pretty big thing"</p> <p>4. "The other thing is do you recognise three different types of incident...Minor day to day stuff students can deal without assistance...incidents that are more complex that will be attended initially ...and then come away to get the injured party the solution...and go back to him...Serious incidents beyond their remit..the 'send everyone' incident"</p> <p>5. "I'm probably looking for negative evidence that shows they can't do this"</p>		<p>vulnerable?" (uses an example of a student police officer who was very bright at L***** but not confident and needed an extra three weeks of coaching)</p>
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Section 4: Weeks 60, 75 and 90		
Sergeant 1	Sergeant 2	Sergeant 3
<p>1. "I am looking for a supervisor to say there are no problems...basically just an overview of how they are doing and all I am there for is to pick up the ones who are failing"</p>	<p>1. "Once the student officer is on shift, it is a similar thing for the week 60, 75 and 90 reviews. The student officer does a self assessment and the supervisor also does a review. This needs an inordinate amount of chasing. It can vary between two lines scribbled on the bottom of a student review to an eleven page week 60...depends on the personalities of the teams. We look at both particularly to highlight anything development. The assessor is tasked with going to the sergeant to set an action plan. We have a database of action plans so when we get to week 75 and it is not achieved we can prove it was a safe action plan. We QA the action plans and what progress there has been on eNVQ"</p>	<p>1. "For weeks 60, 75 and 90 I need targeted performance ... number of arrests, intelligence submissions ...evidence the student is a productive member of the team. This does not always happen but I do prompt for it"</p>
Section 5: Confirmation in Rank		
Sergeant 1	Sergeant 2	Sergeant 3
<p>1."The computer automatically confirms in rank" 2."Week 31 and 42 criteria go into the pot" 3."I assume good reviews unless the student is on Reg 13" 4."I look at the week 90 reviews" 5."If no-one comes to me and says the officer is crap, why should I go looking for bad eggs? I assume it would have been picked up before" 6."The reviews must</p>	<p>1."They need to have a positive week 90 review with no outstanding action plans. 2.Within that I need a supervisors recommendation and if not I will seek it out. There is fourteen weeks between week 90 and confirmation in rank and there is some leeway but manger reviews are usually a month late so this can leave little time to get things IV'd"</p>	<p>1. "In terms of performance and conduct, unless there is a serious discipline issue, it won't affect confirmation in rank"; 2."Attendance is the only way to extend the probation...sick, maternity or restricted duties" 3."The week 60, 75 and 90 reviews need to be done and Reg 13 needs to be started before week 75 if it is needed" 4."We need a good week</p>

<p>show progress throughout the probation and there can't be any outstanding action plans”</p>		<p>90 review ... a positive review and line manager support...positive across all behavioural areas and evidence that the student officer is a valued member of the team” 5.“They are confirmed in rank unless there is a Reg 13 or an extension to their probation. It comes around anyway...it would be nice if it was the other way round”</p>
<p>Section 6: NOS</p>		
<p>Sergeant 1</p>	<p>Sergeant 2</p>	<p>Sergeant 3</p>
<p>1.Week 31-“The NOS don't come into it...it is too early to measure. If a student officer does not engage in the eNVQ, this shows a lack of personal responsibility. There is a cross over into the core skills.” 2.Week 42-“You can't say that if a student has not completed three units they are not fit for independent patrol. It might not be the student's fault..it could be the assessor, the supervisor, the workload” 3.“The eNVQ shows if it is a student being lazy but I still go to a core skill are” 4.“Non-completion gives evidence for the core skill of personal responsibility” 5.“There's peaks and troughs. Peaks, when they first start, then it goes quiet on the TAC team attachment, then a peak on CIT. On intervention, it drops off. Students are too busy to submit. 6.”At ninety weeks, a</p>	<p>1. “For week 42 there is a target of 20 pieces of work for evidence...units achieved is irrelevant as we need to ensure they are submitting work. For week 60, 75 and 90 there are no specified targets but I want progress. If there is no progress I action plan to remind them the eNVQ exists. The good thing about eNVQ is that you can measure progress really quickly as you don't need to get the folders in” 2.Confirmation in rank-Fourteen units for confirmation in rank for students on paper based folders; twenty two units for eNVQ</p>	<p>1.Week 31-“I don't necessarily want to see that they have cracked the NVQ but I do want to see that they produce regular submissions, they are giving it a go and have regular contact with their assessor. If not, this would flag up personal responsibility” 2.“I am looking for supportive evidence of the NVQ” 3.Week 42-“The NVQ...probably a couple of units signed off” 4.“Regular contact with their assessor...I am looking for the student officer to have a good work ethic and make regular evidence submissions...If they have professional discussions, do they arrive prepared?” 5.“If they are falling behind with the NVQ but performing well operationally, they are still fit for independent patrol but they will get a documented warning” 6.”I have monthly updates anyway but if</p>

<p>student officer might not have done anything. E-NVQ shows general trends”</p> <p>7.I identify if a student officer can't do things from the core skill areas and feedback from the coaches, supervisors and assessors. The student might not have made any arrests. This could be an overbearing coach, a lack of knowledge, a lack of confidence”</p> <p>8.“The NOS shows what they can do not what they can't do and why...no development areas. For a student officer to be competent, they need development areas so they can improve. NOS don't show poor practice”</p> <p>9.“A blank in the NOS does not say anything. A report from a sergeant can say a lot more. Blanks don't tell me a student can't do it, just that they have not provided evidence... It could be something to do with their current role and move the students where they can go to incidents. Or it could be something within the student...confidence...knowledge”</p> <p>10. “Using the E-NVQ means we don't get to week seventy-five before identifying an issue as we did with the old paper PDP”</p> <p>11. “If a student does not complete the PDP, confirmation in rank is not necessarily withheld ... The only thing that might not have been done are the tick boxes</p>		<p>there is no improvement, they get a five week action plan and if it is still not solved there will be further action depending on the issue and I will meet with them on a 1:1 basis. A lot get carried away with intervention. They need to see the NVQ as an aspect of their workload...Particularly with the number of students in the system they are not on their own and it takes them a while to realise that”</p> <p>7.Confirmation in rank- “The portfolio needs to be completed before they are confirmed in rank”</p>
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<p>on the NOS. There are no guidelines about confirmation in rank and the PDP”</p> <p>12.14 or 22 NOS must be completed depending on when the student started</p>		
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Section 7: Other Information

Sergeant 1	Sergeant 2	Sergeant 3
<p>1. “There is no training for core skill reporting...no...that’s not strictly true. Students do reviews at L***** and attachment reviews and that includes reviews at weeks 42 and 31. I encourage them to identify bits they don’t do well and that they do...this isn’t consistent. Assessors and sergeants...they get advice as they go on.”</p> <p>2. “For week 31, I talk to the students and get feedback from the coaches and assessors”</p> <p>3.“Feedback from the coaches, assessors, supervisors...this is the biggest thing...I make judgements from these...If they all say fine, I look no further”</p> <p>4.Week 42-“For the reviews I look I look at comments from supervisors...I look at what they are actually saying about how a student officer does the job”;</p> <p>5.“It is hard to quantify...gut feeling”</p> <p>6.Compares students to others on the intake “I ask why this person</p>	<p>1.“Anytime I get an e-mail on someone positive or negative I have a folder for them. For someone on Reg 13 I measure the level of e-mails. If over 100, there is a bit of a problem. There is a like a little league table. One student officer had 186 e-mails and you start thinking they are generating too much work...another had 330”</p> <p>2.Week 42-“The assessors write the review too and there is an expectation it will have feedback from the coaches (as on other reviews) but also the supervisor of the intervention team. Usually students are posted onto the shift they do their attachment on. Before the review there is a dialogue between the PDU and the shift they are posted to. A lot of coaches write a written review. The assessor interviews the coach get quite a bit of evidence...performance evidence from the coach...sometimes get if through from the sergeants but you have to hunt them down. I need</p>	<p>1.“For the reviews no formal training has been done...I’ve never been trained. I do guide assessors on the specifics I am looking for.”</p> <p>2.“I want reviews that are well evidence, balanced, timely and fair given the level of service. I take into account other people’s feedback”</p> <p>3.“As part of the week 31 procedure I listen to feedback from the coaches and sergeants..students would have been on two or three teams. The assessor gets the feedback..there is no fixed document to reduce bureaucracy”</p> <p>4.“The students do the review (Week 42) and the assessor comments. Evidence is the last two attachments. Sergeants see the review and I want exactly the same as the week 31 review...feedback from the coach and the sergeant”</p> <p>5.“Assessors are the safeguard...if there is an issue they would know. If there is a problem I</p>

<p>looks different...I look for balance”</p> <p>7.“This sergeant normally writes two paragraphs so that he has written five I know this student is exceptional”</p> <p>8.“I send out an e-mail to student officers saying their review is due and I chase it with sergeants if known and inspectors...I can't keeping banging my head against a brick wall ... The reason the reviews are not done is that the student is too busy or the sergeant is or they're crap. There's 100 students in the system...I could employ a person two days a week just to chase reviews. With 100 students it is hard to chase who the line managers are...there is a high turnover of student moves and sergeant moves.</p>	<p>examples if they thought the student officer was great or if they did not like them. The more sources of feedback the better”</p> <p>3.I then make a decision...should not be a surprise and it is the PDU's decision and not the shift's. One example is that a student officer was not performing well and ignoring the eNVQ...they were immature and petulant when told to do things and liked the idea of driving around in a police car and not doing tasks...their crime workload was a mess. I thought there were loads of things to action plan here and did not give a decision. The patrol sergeant saw a keen and enthusiastic person and want them fit for independent patrol...the custody sergeant had seen their workload spiraling out of control. There were conflicting views and I needed to get to the bottom of it. The PDU decided not to make the student fit for independent patrol and the patrol sergeant got the right old hump. The student is now on Reg 13 for these reasons”</p> <p>4.“Assessors on area badger until a review is produced despite a PDR objective that they are done. On W***** we have a top ten list of overdue reviews and this gets sent to the Chief Inspector to have people named and shamed. It does work...only three people on it yesterday and previously there were</p>	<p>need evidence”</p> <p>6.If intervention sergeants are not dealing with operational performance it is tough luck. If things go wrong they look to me but it is frustrating and intervention sergeants need to take the lead.”</p>
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	twenty”	
Section 8: Alternative Assessment Criteria		
Sergeant 1	Sergeant 2	Sergeant 3
<p>1.“The NOS are not enough by themselves. The qualification is only part of the measure of competence.”</p> <p>2.”We should not over rely on the NVQ...we need evidence from the core skills”</p> <p>3. “We need to know how students talk to people and how they interact with people. If they can’t do this everything else is wasted”</p> <p>4. “They need common sense. I had a student on foot patrol who handed a pigeon with a broken wing into the police station. She was also on patrol at night when she saw a man ride a woman’s bicycle on the road. She told him to ride on the pavement as it was safer. There was no awareness that as it was late at night, and a man on a woman’s bike that it could have been a theft”</p> <p>5. “Honesty is top of the list...It speaks for itself”</p> <p>6. “I ask do you want this officer to deal with a RTA involving your mother? Are you happy for this officer to assist you in a disturbance? Are you comfortable if they arrest a member of your family? If you can trust them for these three things, then that’s as good as it’s gonna get”</p> <p>7. “There are so many things in the mix”</p>	<p>1. believes the National Occupational Standards “are a means to an end” and a “hoop we have to jump through”</p> <p>2. “Core behaviours determine whether the student officers are making progress. Evidence will not always hit the NOS but it will always hit a core behaviour”</p> <p>3. “It is all seven of the core behaviors”</p> <p>4. “Respect for race and diversity. Do they piss anyone off? Are there any howlers?”</p> <p>5. “Effective communication. How do they talk to people and how do they communicate? E-mails, written reports, IRBs”</p> <p>6. “Personal responsibility. Do they deal with tasks and what do they do on eNVQ? I check their correspondence to see there is active engagement in their workload”</p> <p>7. “Community and customer focus. Are their crimes overdue? This links to personal responsibility.”</p> <p>8. “Problem solving. How do they tackle difficult issues? What’s been done and who is involved?”</p> <p>9. “Resilience. This is how they tackle the difficult issues...hideous shifts. If they are scene guarding in T****, do they grumble? I did a direct obs on a student with a</p>	<p>1. “They need to have effective communication. Can they talk to someone? It’s the key thing in the job...the best tool to deal with a situation”</p> <p>2. “Personal responsibility...are they a do-er? Do they use their initiative? Do they take responsibility for their own actions? Also resilience. Especially if they are young. It grows with them”</p> <p>3. “Team working is the nature of the role. They are part of a team and can’t have an isolated approach. They can’t do things on their own. It’s not a lone working role. They need to see the benefits of the team”</p> <p>4. “What technical skills do they have? Can they arrest? Can they do the custody procedures? Do they know the law and procedures?”</p> <p>5. “If they can’t do this after two years, they can’t do it in the future”</p>

<p>8. "They have to have moral courage. They need to get involved. You don't want someone picking up the helmets in the background. You want someone who gets involved when things get nasty. I have had students who don't do this and it affects everyone. When they needed help we all took five minutes to get there. It's not right but they learnt their lesson"</p> <p>9. "You want someone who is taking a practical part. You don't want someone standing behind you. You don't need someone to watch it. It s better to do something wrong than do nothing"</p> <p>10. "They need to write in good English. You can't have an embarrassing witness statement in court. I had one student and the court and CPS asked if they were special needs. Their role in life is to converse accurately in writing. It's important. They are questioned in court on the recall of details. Their evidence could be shot to pieces. If they are dyslexic and they get the index wrong on a parking ticket it's neither here nor there...but if it's a murderer's car it's very important"</p>	<p>literally 'shitty' job. The person they arrested defecated and the student officer had to do a strip search and seize the clothing. The student officer did it without complaint. Other officers wouldn't have"</p> <p>10. "All the other things, the NOS, the PACs, they are hoops to jump through"</p>	
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Appendix 8: Interview Responses of the Operational Police Officers

1. Communication

(I) "Student officers need to have the ability to talk to people from all backgrounds and social issues. It is essential some form of relationship is built. The nature of the work is to meet people in crisis and a wide range of people on a daily basis. If there is burglary in an affluent area and a drunk in a town centre, student officers need to communicate with both equally. Communication and interpersonal skills include conflict resolution and negotiation as sub headings."

(II) "This job is all about communicating with people in different situations. This is vital for a police officer."

(III) "A police officer needs to get the message across to a wide number of audiences in a wide range of styles."

(IV) "Communication and interpersonal skills with everyone...the community , partners and colleagues. If student officers cannot relate to others and effectively communicate they will be ineffective as a police officer."

(V) "Good communication skills are fundamental to good policing and also impact on officer safety. I would expect the officer to be able to communicate well in a variety of scenarios. Offering support and sympathy to a vulnerable victim of crime would require supportive verbal and listening skills, or reasoning with an agitated drunk male on a Friday night would require assertiveness and firm instructions without escalating the situation."

(VI) "Communication, particularly with the public. They need to be able to speak to people without getting smacked."

(VII) "Good communications skills makes the job a lot easier if they can talk and listen, which again is something you can't train."

(VIII) "What is their communication style? What is their interaction with the public? There is an expectation that people who become police officers are good communicators and not someone who wouldn't say boo to a goose. They need to speak to members of the public. The initial interaction with a complete stranger is important to policing and can open up other areas."

(IX) "Lots of student officers do not seem to be able to hold a conversation of any type. This is more noticeable with younger officers rather than older ones who have more life experience."

(X) "An ability to communicate cuts across everything."

(XI) "They like people and are liked. I read write ups and it is clear student officers do not like people. This is hidden in interpersonal skills and communication. Disputes and FAWs with student officers who do not fit in and are not liked have massive implications."

(XII) "What are their communication skills? How do they interact with colleagues and public? If they can't communicate, they will struggle to investigate, engage with the people they serve and they will get into trouble."

2. Written Communication

(I) "Statements and reports are legal documents and bad spelling, grammar, handwriting goes before the court. It does not look professional...The amount you see come through that is crap. It looks sloppy and what impression does it give?"

(II) "Also writing...Presenting evidence in court is a key requirement."

(III) "Student officers need to communicate with people on different levels and explain themselves in writing. This is something you don't realise you need until it is missing."

(IV) "What is their written work and report writing like?"

3. Conflict Management

(I) "They need to maintain order and be able to deal with conflict management. An officer presence in public order situations should be a calming influence on a tense situation. They need a holistic approach and use of powers contrary to this can be detrimental."

(II) "Can they deal with conflict? If they give a person a slap and PAVA that might be appropriate but also what do they do verbally on shift and with the public? How do they deal with people?"

4. Problem Solving

(I) "Student officers must be able to effectively carry out the gathering of intelligence and information, undertake a threat assessment and identify potential solutions. Choosing the most appropriate solutions is a real skill if not an art along with threat assessment."

5. Ability to Risk Assess

(I) "Ability to risk assess not just their personal safety but when a situation is a threat to the organisation. For example, they receive a piece of intelligence indicating something is going to happen and they do not realise the implications of dealing with it or not."

6. Unarmed Defence Tactics

(I) “UDT and staff protection skills. My life is in their hands and I need to know I can rely on them if I need to.”

7. Basic Street Skills

(I) “If they can’t stop and speak to people and apply knowledge of law and interview skills they will be disadvantaged.”

8. Organisation

(I) “A degree of organisation is required and an ability to prioritise and manage a pretty varied workload even at an early stage in your career.”

9. Honest, Integrity and Trustworthy

(I) “It goes without saying that people who uphold the law need to display high ethical standards. If you can’t trust them to do what they say...well for me that is an absolute essential. What does the person on the Clapham omnibus look for in a police officer? Someone who is honest.”

(II) “The big question for me is ‘Can I trust you?’ Everything else falls off that but what does that mean? They must prove their judgement is good and they are making decisions. At an incident officers need to see what is happening in front of them and not ignore it. Do they arrest or use their discretion?”

(III) “I would not want to work with an officer who is liable to lie or cover up mistakes. In terms of evidence gathering i.e. writing up an IRB of

involvement in an arrest I would expect the officer to offer an honest account of events. I would not want my integrity brought into question by the dishonest actions of a colleague I may be working with.”

(IV) “This goes with the job and does not need much in the way of explanation. A student officer needs integrity to take people’s liberty and because of the things they are entrusted to do. This applies to colleagues as well for example, if they say they are going to do something they should do it and not dump stuff on colleagues.”

(V) “A student officer cannot bring anything before a court unless they are honest. I could not work with someone who was not honest.”

(VI) “Being a police officer there is expectation integrity is non-negotiable. You can’t have officers that are dishonest, evasive and fall below minimum expected standards of performance. There are moral issues in telling the truth, giving evidence, not destroying public property and lying, not being in cahoots with criminals and getting convicted of an offence...If there was a burglary how would you feel if you knew the officer took another officer’s property? At court, a superintendent’s warning and internal discipline could contaminate the evidence. If a drink driving officer with points is lenient to an offender who then goes on to kill someone the public will have something to say.”

(VII) “Integrity is crucial in this role. Any one of our jobs could fall if there was doubt cast on a member of staff. Some jobs last years and could be undermined by a perceived lack of integrity.”

(VIII) “Can the officer do the job fairly and not use their position wrongly?”

10. Physical and Moral Courageousness

(I) "If they see something will they stand up for what is right?"

(II) "If the job is difficult, the student officer does not shy away but does the right thing."

(III) "Student officers will not survive unless they can stand nose to nose with people and stand up for what they think is right and apply the standards we expect. They should not be swayed from doing the right thing."

(IV) "The officer can't be a wuss. You can't have someone who won't act. They need to leap in and help out otherwise they won't get respect from colleagues or the public. If a colleague is getting a kicking, the public and colleague will wonder why they won't help out."

(V) "We need someone who can say 'No we are going to do it this way'. They can't be a shrinking violet."

(VI) "From the recent shooting of De Menezes, there is a video clip of him strolling into a railway station. You never see the passengers running out as they think a bomb is on the train or the police officers running in thinking there is a bomb on the train. Police officers can't think a situation is too dangerous to deal with. They have got to put themselves above that."

(VII) "I would expect any officer I worked with to have the confidence to support me in a conflict situation. I would need to have confidence that they would step into any fight or altercation physically to assist me, thus protecting my safety and that of members of the public."

(VIII) "Student officers must be able to do a difficult job even when pressured by others either physically or in other threatening ways. They must be able

to stand up for what is right as they are standing up for people who have not been able to protect themselves.”

11. Common Sense

(I) “Most of British law post 1980 is based on common sense, what the average person would think to be right. This is the basis for actions that won’t come back and bite you on the backside.”

(II) “This is not linked to policing at all but is general. It does not matter how much training they have had. If they have no common sense they are onto a loser.”

(III) “Do they use common sense, for example a lost mobile phone. Do they look at the evidence and work on a balance of probabilities. Do they use discretion and sort out an argument rather than crime it?”

(IV) “Do they have the ability to use common sense on the streets?”

12. Appearance

(I) “Sloppy appearance...what image does it portray? You will question someone’s ability to do the job.”

(II) “The first ten seconds with the public gives an impression about deportment and appearance. Looking the part affects attitude and is paramount. There is a psychological impression. If they have their hands in their pocket a member of the public thinks they are slap dash. They need to look like they are going to take control.”

(III) “They need a professional image when dealing with the public who expect the police to maintain a high level of standards.”

(IV) “How smart are they? Do they look the part and how do they carry themselves? First impressions count and you do not want a scruff bucket on your doorstep who can’t dress and looks about six. If they look smart and do the right things, you will think your burglary will get investigated even if it isn’t. They will get respect before they open their mouths. If not they might as well wear shorts and t-shirts like they do for Royal Mail. The public notice standards of appearance, ties, hats, hands in pockets. Comments are made.”

13. Team Working

(I) “Are they a team player? Policing is a team effort and there is not much room for solo riders.”

(II) “What do your colleagues say about you? This is never a clincher as it depends on the cohort but their colleagues should be able to trust them to do their share of work, help them when necessary and when they are in trouble.”

(III) “Team player but not to the detriment of individuality. They need to do as they are told but should not do it because they are told to. There is a balance between innovation and doing things the way we have always done and good reasons for doing things the way we do. They need to be able to stand up to peer pressure. The sergeant needs a team to do what it’s told. Students need to know they are part of a team. There are team objectives even if they work on their own. They work for a greater team and there is strategic stuff they need to know.”

14. Individual Responsibility

(I) "People are responsible for their own actions. Some blame others or the force rather than take responsibility for their actions, behaviours and decisions. Some people learn from their mistakes if it does not go right, or if the organisation makes a mistake they get on with things rather than let it impact on long term behaviour."

(II) "They have to make decisions and stick with it. They have to be personally responsible instead of hiding behind a policy or a tutor or someone old in service."

15. Emotional Intelligence

(I) "They need to be aware of their own levels of emotional intelligence and be able to empathise with the poorest in society, injured parties, and colleagues. They need to understand what is going on in terms of what people are feeling. Are they able to switch off? They need to stop being a police officer at home unless something happens. They are a person first and a police officer second. If they do not have this balance and are not rested they are not effective at work."

(II) "Student officers need empathy and need to be able to feel their way intuitively through some jobs. Some jobs start cordially but can change in a moment if the wrong thing is said."

16. Confidence

(I) "Confidence to engage with the public. Are they confident wearing the uniform and speaking to people? Students are "robotic". If they are double

crewed, they will leave it to the other person and not do anything. Are they confident to speak to people to find out offences.”

17. Conscientiousness

(I) “I am not sure this could be measured. An example is the Victim Code. This details how people should be kept up to date. It is easy to do but it is not done.”

18. Non-Discriminatory

(I) “Is the officer discriminatory against any minority or ethnic groups? I would not want to work with a colleague who may make judgements based on discrimination thereby treating a victim/witness/member of public differently because of this. Again this would impact on me if I worked with such an officer. I would have a duty to challenge the behaviour, and would be extremely uncomfortable if a victim of crime was further victimised by a colleague.”

19. Respect

(I) “There is a certain lack of respect, for example, in the past student officers have their hands in their pocket and get a bollocking and they will never do it again. Now they do not respect this or discipline and there is no awareness why this is important. This is a wider society issue and linked to life experience. There are internal and external issues to do with respect.”

20. Intelligence

(I) "There is a far greater cerebral element to policing than people think. Police officers do not just rush around handcuffing. There are law and procedures and officers need to know and apply these."

21. Behaviours and Commitment

(I) "When this constable joined she did not speak to an inspector unless she had done something wrong. Officers now ignore lawful orders rather than do what is requested of them. They will get stuck on before any notice is taken. Those who can't do the job get help or leave. Those who won't ask 'Why should I?' "

22. Knowledge and Understanding of Law and Procedures

(I) "A bit obvious but student officers need to understand processes and legislation."

(II) "Knowledge of law is needed out on the streets. They need a good background in law and procedure."

(III) "Knowledge of law and procedure. Student officers have got to know practice."

(IV) "They do two years of basic skills and need to develop and maintain them. Policing and society is complex and laws are changing all the time. They need to maintain professional knowledge even if the two year probation is finished."

(V) "Even the most practical PC knows the theory."

(VI) “Knowledge and understanding of powers, policies and practices to perform the role. This includes codes of practice, law, service level agreements and standard operating procedures both internal and external with key partner agencies. To fulfil their role student officers need the context of rules, regulations and the culture of the organisation.”

(VII) “Do they know points of law and force policy? Student officers are nervous about law and instead of asking the sergeant should be finding things out for themselves or from peers. Minimum investigation standards. Do they know the points that are needed and why? There is poor completion. Officers hit the checklist but there is a need to dig further. They think if they complete the checklist they don’t need to do anything else but they need to look at the bigger picture.”

(VIII) “Do they know where things are, can they complete paperwork properly?”

23. Understanding Diversity and the Community

(I) “I hear moans about how they are diversitied out and its all too pc. The reality is there are massive issues in the way individuals deal with diversity issues. It goes from one extreme, no respect, to the other, being oversensitive. Officers don’t treat people appropriate to behaviour and crime at a service or individual level. They need to understand the diversity agenda and do it in a balanced way.”

(II) “Do they have a proper understanding of diversity? Do they behave properly? We don’t want double standards where they do something different on a night out. Do they understand the community?”

(III) "Diversity cannot be set aside."

(IV) "It is all about community safety but what does everyone else bring to the party? This is linked to a sound comprehensive understanding of the community they serve and are working for and how this affects powers, policies and practices."

24. Understanding Force Priorities

(I) "Do they understand force priorities? For example, in dealing with a victim, do they know about the Victim Code, Quality of Service, what is important to the victim?"

(II) "Understanding priorities and purpose. They have to understand what policing is all about, for the county and area in particular. If they don't it makes their and my job more difficult if their activities do not fit organisational aims."

25. Understanding their Role within the Constabulary

(I) "Do they understand their role within the organisation? Where they fit in with organisational priorities?"

(II) "Student officers will not get it right unless they have a knowledge and understanding of their role and responsibilities and those of key partner agencies."

Appendix 9: Interview Responses of the Student Police Officers

i) Intake 1

- Examples of core competencies (these are the seven behaviours that student officers are assessed against when they have to complete attachment reviews and also performance reviews at weeks 60, 75 and 90 of service)-this will show how confident we are in doing these and how we achieved them. This also included other people's perception of the student officers to get a balanced view rather than just the student officer's own view. The completed attachment reviews would show areas of strengths and weaknesses.
- What our ethos is-"things that make a good officer"; when questioned further the reply was "everything"
- Skills-proven examples of what we can do, for example, arrest and interview; also communication "with different groups of people such as the homeless, the young, alcoholic people"; this will show what "you can bring to the team".
- Career aims-these were long and short term aspirations and would show the student police officers commitment to the team. It will also highlight commitment to the role.
- Attendance and discipline record-this would be a good selling point if these were "all OK".
- Knowledge of police powers and how they are used-"this will show that we can do the basics and understand how to do the basics if we were by ourselves"; The "ability to arrest, interview and talk to people will show

what student officers can do and what ability they have to be a police officer”

- Team working-this included using their initiative, leadership and communication to highlight the student police officers practical ability to do the job
- Diversity-how student police officers reflected themselves to others; they had to look professional in order to reflect a good image to the public, communities and the force; “good attitude and image was essential”
- Examples of good work and any good feedback-this will show what student officers can do and their level of knowledge
- Areas of development-this will show gaps in the areas of knowledge and how these areas can be developed

ii) Intake 2

- Decisive-“you need to be able to make decisions quickly on the street”; “officers encounter a variety of incidents during their job”; “members of the public would not want anyone who dithers”
- Team player-“we need to work as part of a team”; they need to see the “big picture” (team objectives and force objectives); they need to be reliable for others
- Resilience-“student officers need confidence to do the job and their colleagues would need confidence in them”
- Reliability-student officers need to know that what they are doing is right and their work is right; colleagues need to know that student officers will be there for them and not “drop them in it”

- Knowledge-“know the law and what you are doing” (arresting correctly and interviewing); links to reliability
- Communication-student officers have to be able to talk to people without “getting their backs up” particularly as this is a customer facing profession
- Adaptable-student officers will deal with various incidents and people even on one shift so they need to be able to “chop and change” what they are doing
- Attitude-have to be aware that they are always learning and know where to go to get help; we can’t go out with a “know all attitude”; it was felt a “know all attitude” would get them into trouble
- Compassion-the student officers might have dealt with something numerous times but for victims and the public, it may be their first experience; empathy is needed
- Honesty-“if there is no honesty, people will lose confidence in the police”
- Bravery-“still do what we have to even if we are scared inside”; the students linked this to the Cowardly Lion, in that even if they were scared on the inside, they still had to do things that scared them as the Cowardly Lion did.
- Hard working and thorough-not letting colleagues and the public down by avoiding something or only doing “half a job”
- Ability to lead-able to lead others in a panic situation; take control and responsibility at incidents and at work
- Motivating-able to motivate self and shift; awareness to know that if you are not motivated this has a knock on effect on the team and other people and is negative

- Personal responsibility-take responsibility for own actions and not expect others to take on jobs; manage workload and get the job done
- Perspective-“keep a balance in your life and not let the job bring you down”; “switch off at the end of the shift”

iii) Intake 3

- Types of job, number and results-efficiency, “there is never enough resources and they always want you to do more”
- Flexibility-with shifts, working alone and in a team, working in custody and as an enquiry officer; need to fill in gaps in resources
- Attendance-this included sickness, being on time and being presentable; also being prepared and organised; can not let the team down if there are no resources
- Communication-intelligence gathering, getting the most out of people on the street and being safe; body language; “if you can not talk to colleagues and the public, you can not do the job”; “talk to people at all levels”
- Basic knowledge of law-“without this you don’t know what to do and you could be anyone with a uniform on”, need competence in basic police skills
- Procedure-“everything has a set order and cases could be lost if the arrest is not valid”; “handle jobs” and “not mess up”
- Customer satisfaction-“customers must feel like they have been listened to”; “increase respect for police”; “provide reassurance”

- Ambitions/aspirations-“you have to put yourself forward for courses to become a more effective team member”
- Team work-“part of being a police officer is helping the team”; an example was giving of picking up jobs from the area car so they area car can focus on what they are supposed to do; support colleagues and be proactive and not “sit back”; “help colleagues through good times and bad”
- Feedback from line manager-identify issues and problems as well as the “good bits”
- Local knowledge-“this is of the area and nominals”; “helps effective policing”
- Soft skills-harder to quantify, “provide reassurance and empathy depending on the person”; the student police officers said they “could be expected to spend more time with an old person than a young one”

Appendix 10: The Commendations

"For outstanding detective ability, professionalism and tenacity in the investigation and case preparation of a highly complex fraud, resulting in the convictions of four individuals for fraud and money laundering offences. Also commended by the trial judge."

"For an extremely thorough financial investigation, professionalism and tenacity in the investigation and case preparation of a highly complex fraud, resulting in the convictions of four individuals for fraud and money laundering offences. Also commended by the trial judge."

"For the diligence and bravery demonstrated whilst dealing with a house fire. His swift and selfless actions were far and beyond the normal call of duty and undoubtedly saved the lives of residents within the building at the time"

"For acting in the finest traditions of the police service through apprehension of offenders and the securing and preserving of evidence, which was key to the successful prosecution of the offenders and the removal of a loaded firearm off the streets."

"For a committed, professional and tenacious investigation resulting in the successful conviction for 6 separate counts of perverting the course of justice. The single offender committed 84 speeding offences over a 2-year period on 7 different motorcycles which were registered in fictitious names or not at all."

"Whilst engaged on Operation *****, for outstanding commitment to duty in developing an innovative approach to case preparation, thereby securing the conviction of three offenders for a 'Conspiracy to Steal' whilst at the same time saving the Constabulary resources and finance."

"For leading on an extensive and key piece of work for the Constabulary. The Victims Information and Advice Pack will enhance the service and satisfaction the Constabulary will provide to victims."

"For the co-ordination and implementation of the processes for delivering the Common Assessment Framework (CAF) forcewide."

"For diligent and thorough investigation into a prolific dwelling burglar, who was convicted and sentenced. The investigation and this officer were favourably commented on by the Judge."

"For leadership and tactical planning of an operation stretching the capability and capacity of the ***** Police and ***** Constabulary leading to the successful support of a Heads of Government Conference at a time of increased international tensions, simultaneously with provision of significant public order commitments for football and other spontaneous challenges, and thereby enhancing the professional reputation of our constabulary."

"For outstanding planning and organising skills during Operation *****, which prepared the Constabulary superbly, at very short notice, for a large scale international summit that attracted 20 protected principals from around the world."

"For displaying outstanding detective ability and case preparation skills during a protracted and complex investigation into a wealthy organised criminal family, resulting in the conviction of two family members and confiscation of £1,700,000.00 worth of assets."

"For conducting a thorough investigation into a professional who had abused children over many years. In addition, using tact and diplomacy into gaining the co-operation of reluctant victims who had rebuilt there lives."

"For displaying excellent investigation skills, enthusiasm and dedication to duty, and high standards of case preparation, resulting in the offender pleading Guilty to ten offences of a sexual nature involving children."

"For your work as Senior Investigating Officer into ten serious sexual offences committed against a number of vulnerable victims in *****; careful evidence assembly and liaison with many partner agencies which resulted in the successful prosecution and imprisonment of the offender."

"For outstanding and sustained contribution to the policing of Welwyn and Hatfield through this past year; through skilful prisoner handling which yielded a very large number of detections and led to the imprisonment of many prolific local criminals. This in turn contributed to substantial reductions in crimes committed in the towns."

"Through demonstration and example to his colleagues generated a similar effort in colleagues producing a marked increase in performance from a wide team."

“For due diligence and professional determination to secure evidence in a criminal investigation culminating in the capture of a predatory child sex offender.”

“For displaying excellent leadership qualities in a tri-force operation into the theft and exportation of high value vehicles.”

“For displaying excellent detective and case management skills in a complex case involving 14 defendants and the recovery of 93 high value stolen vehicles.”

“For displaying excellent detective, analytical and case management skills in a joint Force operation which convicted 14 persons of serious offences and recovered 93 stolen motor vehicles worth in excess of £4 Million.”

“For displaying excellent leadership and investigation skills as Senior Investigating Officer for Op ***** a complex investigation into the online sexual abuse of children.”

“For displaying excellent leadership and investigation skills in relation to Op ***** a complex investigation into the online sexual abuse of children.”

“For leadership and perseverance in regard to Operation *****, the investigation into an extremely violent Aggravated Burglary. This resulted in the conviction and sentence of two offenders to 8 years and 17 years respectively.”

“For displaying excellent leadership skills, drive and determination during a protracted test purchase operation lasting six months. Additionally for

faultless case paper preparation and presentation for over 20 offenders, leading to convictions against all offenders for offences related to the supply of Class A drugs. Also commended by the Trial Judge.”

“In recognition for outstanding investigative work as the officer in charge of the case, for Operation *****. Displaying exceptional detective ability, dedication to duty and high standards of case preparation, resulting in the conviction of two persons for conspiracy to commit burglary.”

“For drive, determination and attention to detail in understanding and gripping some challenging issues and helping to deliver a very successful Peer Review for the Constabulary for MoPI issues, against very tight time-scales.”

“For commitment and professionalism in leading the investigation into Operation ***** regarding the supply of Class A drugs in *****. Twenty five suspects were arrested and received sentences totalling 34 years in custody. Also commended by the Trial Judge.”

“For commitment and professionalism in establishing the intelligence case and providing day to day support to Operation *****, an investigation into the supply of Class A drugs in *****. Twenty five suspects were arrested and received sentences totalling 34 years in custody. Also commended by the Trial Judge.”

“For commitment and professionalism in providing covert policing capabilities, and for ensuring the safety of officers deployed on Operation *****, an investigation into the supply of Class A drugs in *****. Twenty five

suspects were arrested and received sentences totalling 34 years in custody. Also commended by the Trial Judge.”

“For a professional, tenacious investigation and prosecution of a large scale drugs dealing and money laundering enterprise resulting in a sentence of 4 years imprisonment a Confiscation/forfeiture of £98,466.35. With a further £181,533.65 benefit to be re-visited at any time in the future.”

"For acting as Senior Investigating Officer in a long, proactive and complicated child death which resulted in a conviction of manslaughter."

“For professional conduct and quick reactions when dealing with a fatal RTC and for attempting first aid to one of the victims in very distressing circumstances.”

“On ***** you successfully resuscitated a disabled male who had collapsed and was no longer breathing. During the process he vomited and lapsed into unconsciousness again. Without any thought for your own safety, and despite the exceptionally unpleasant circumstances, you persisted with the CPR process; reviving the male again and keeping him alive until paramedics arrived.”

“For excellent leadership and thorough professional investigation, together with good file preparation which lead to a large number of vehicles being identified, the offenders being charged with a number of offences, being guilty and resulting in a term of imprisonment and severe financial loss.”

“For showing commendable bravery and professionalism upon arrival at the scene of a kidnap where a male had taken a female hostage with a large knife. PC ***** single handily restrained the male and recovered the knife without any further injury to surrounding members of the public, before effecting an arrest for a number of offences including kidnap and possession of an offensive weapon.”

“For hard work and use of local resources and knowledge to provide a co-ordinated approach to bring offenders to justice and thereby assisting in a significant reduction of graffiti in *****.”

"For detective ability, leadership and motivation during a complex historical child protection investigation."

“For bravery beyond the call of duty and in the face of great personal danger, in saving a male from serious injury or death, who was intent on taking his own life by jumping from a motorway bridge. With little regard for his own personal safety, PC ***** also almost certainly prevented injuries on a massive scale to motorists using the motorway.”

“For displaying excellent leadership and investigative skills in disrupting a significant drugs enterprise operating in ***** and beyond.”

“For the manner in which you led the Area response to support the Force wide policing arrangements following terrorist attacks in London and Glasgow.”

“For excellent judgement, communication and investigative ability in managing a volatile individual and situation during operation *****, a live kidnap scenario, leading to the release of the hostage and arrest of the offenders.”

“For excellent judgement, communication and leadership in managing a volatile individual and situation during operation *****, a live kidnap scenario, leading to the release of the hostage and arrest of the offenders.”

“For diligence and professionalism as officer in the case for Operation '*****', an operation targeting the supply of Class A drugs in the ***** area, thereby greatly contributing to a number of offenders receiving substantial prison sentences and the reduction in the availability of Class A drugs in *****.”

“For leadership, detective skills, attention to detail and commitment over an extended period in regard to Operation *****, an historic conspiracy investigation that ultimately included 123 offences of dwelling burglary and led to the sentence of two prolific offenders whilst creating an example of best practice and a quality benchmark for any future such cases. Also commended by the Trial Judge.”

“For displaying excellent investigative and interviewing skills during a protracted and complex investigation into an Organised Criminal Network, resulting in their Conviction and Confiscation of Assets.”

“For tenacity and professionalism displayed in collating vital evidence during a nine-month covert operation leading to the arrest of numerous offenders for Theft and Handling offences.”

“For displaying excellent investigative skills during a complex large scale investigation into the murder of *****, which assisted in securing the conviction of the offender.”

“For displaying excellent detective skills during the collation of CCTV evidence and for complete and demonstrable professionalism whilst giving evidence. Also commended by the Trial Judge.”

“For displaying excellent detective skills during a complex large scale investigation into the murder of *****. This resulted in the conviction of the offender to 25 years' imprisonment.”

“For excellent judgement, communication and investigative ability in managing a volatile individual and situation during Operation *****, a live Kidnap scenario, leading to the release of hostage and arrest of the offenders.”

“For displaying exceptional vigour and determination and providing excellent support as Deputy Senior Investigation Officer during Operation *****, a live Kidnap scenario, leading to the release of the hostage and arrest of the offenders.”

“For exemplary decision making and excellent leadership skills whilst under sustained pressure as the Senior Investigating Officer for Operation *****, a live Kidnap scenario, leading to the release of the hostage and arrest of the offenders.”

“For outstanding commitment to the development of the Constabulary’s new document scanning capability. In acknowledgement of *****’s commitment to the project and in appreciation of his technical skills in designing the first Optical Character Recognition form used in the force. For dedication, patience and excellent team working with colleagues, both inside the organisation and with external contractors during the design and implementation phases of this process.”

“For displaying outstanding detective ability and case preparation skills during a protracted and complex investigation into an organised criminal network, resulting in their conviction, imprisonment and confiscation of significant assets.”

“For displaying outstanding detective ability, investigative and case preparation skills during a protracted and complex investigation into an organised criminal network, resulting in their conviction, imprisonment and confiscation of significant assets.”

“For displaying outstanding investigative skills relating to vehicle and part examination, during a protracted and complex investigation into an organised criminal network, resulting in their conviction, imprisonment and confiscation of assets.”

"For displaying commitment, dedication and excellent managerial skills whilst supervising the investigation of Domestic Violence and Hate Crime within *****".

"For the energy, enthusiasm and professionalism displayed during your time as Community Inspector for *****. This resulted in you providing an outstanding service to your community and your colleagues."

"For showing the utmost professionalism, commitment and dedication in discharging your duty to save life and limb during extremely harrowing circumstances."

"For demonstrating high degrees of professionalism and courage when attempting to resuscitate a seriously injured male who was a victim of a stabbing at a particularly disturbing scene. Upon ambulance arrival he demonstrated bravery and single-handedly attended the location of the stabbing to ensure that no other persons were injured whilst not being completely sure whether the offenders had left the scene."

"For demonstrating high degrees of professionalism and courage when attempting to resuscitate a seriously injured male who was a victim of a stabbing at a particularly disturbing scene. Constable ***** continued chest compressions on the request of the doctor at scene whilst a surgical procedure was undertaken. Both the doctor and ambulance staff later paid tribute to her courage in assisting them."

"For the very thorough and professional investigation of a highly complex international fraud. This resulted in the successful conviction of two persons for fraud and money laundering offences. One of these individuals is the first qualified accountant to be convicted of money laundering offences in the UK."

Cash has been seized in excess of £750,000 and substantial assets are in the process of confiscation. Commended by the Trial Judge.”

“For outstanding Detective ability, professionalism and tenacity in the investigation of a highly complex international fraud. This resulted in the successful conviction of two persons for fraud and money laundering offences. One of these individuals is the first qualified accountant to be convicted of money laundering offences in the UK. Cash has been seized in excess of \$750,000 and substantial assets are in the process of confiscation. Commended by the Trial Judge.”

“For excellent detective and leadership skills in gathering and presenting evidence that led to a predatory paedophile being imprisoned for 10 years.”

**Appendix 11: Comments from the Letters of Appreciation from
Members of the Public**

1. Manner

1. We cannot thank A*** enough for his professional and compassionate approach to all our enquiries

2. We will be eternally grateful for her sympathy and help

3. I cannot speak to highly of the courtesy, skill and professionalism of all of those with whom I came into contact

4. I was treated with great courtesy and consideration

5. Your officer showed calm and composure as I lay on the tarmac

6. I was as impressed with PC S*****s professionalism

7. PC B**** was immensely supportive & understanding & sympathised with my deep disappointment

8. Their courtesy, consideration and helpful kindness at a stressful time was very much appreciated

9. They have always courteously and genuinely enquired after my mother's help

10. What made the difference was Pc C*****'s understanding, his kind and sympathetic approach and his willingness to listen to my Mother's concerns

11. She did this in a friendly reassuring manner

12. Both these officers were polite, patient and respectful and gave sound advice and reassurance

13. The initial investigation, fingerprint search, and subsequent follow-up were all carried out in a very sympathetic yet rigorously professional manner

14. I must say she was very professional, friendly and very easy to talk to

15. She was very reassuring and kept me relatively calm!
 16. Please thank her on my behalf for her compassion and kindness
 17. I have received continual concern and consideration from Constable J* S***** and PCSO R***** B****
 18. He attended and dealt with URN *** **/**/** in the most calm and professional manner I have seen in many years
 19. She has been of great help and reassurance
 20. He was not only helpful and informative but was kind and understood how I was feeling throughout the process
 21. I am writing on behalf of my partner and I, to compliment the above officer on her attitude and professionalism on the above case
 22. I would like to commend him for the efficient, helpful manner in which he carried out his duties. He gave my husband and me very good advice and was courteous and friendly
 23. I would like to praise PC **** G***** for the professional and sympathetic manner in how she handled my very ordinary report of a crime
 24. The police arrived within minutes and I can only praise their professionalism and efforts
 25. I would like to say how grateful, I was to the officers, how professional they were
 26. H***** police responded to our call very promptly and were most helpful in helping us deal with the aftermath of the crime.
2. The Process of Communication
 1. A*** ensured that all our concerns were addressed

2. She was also kind enough to answer our myriad of questions about the incident
 3. She gave me assurance that the matter was being dealt with: said she would keep us in the picture
 4. Then, throughout, officers have kept my mother and myself informed as to what has been going on
 5. The lady who answered my call could not get a response and said she would make enquiries...That same lady called me back at approximately 3.10am to inform me my daughter had been taken to S***** and said I should be contacted in the morning
 6. Constable J* S***** and PCSO R***** B**** who have kept me in the loop at all stages and have visited me ensuring that I knew what procedures were being taken
 7. His passage of information to ourselves, whilst co-ordinating the operation from our garden was excellent, constantly calming and reassuring all involved
 8. It was also extremely reassuring to us and if only he knew it, our 6 month old son, to be visited and informed of the results earlier this evening
 9. Always willing to listen to any concerns we have about the surrounding area, and answer any queries we have
 10. Moreover PC/**** was available to us when further reassurance and information was required
3. How the Officers left them Feeling as a Result of the Interaction
1. We are so grateful that he made what might otherwise have been a gruelling ordeal as simple as possible

2. Her professional and sympathetic approach was a huge comfort to us at a devastating time
3. These two officers were a huge comfort and strength to us all, along with others who must have attended the incident but with whom we had no contact
4. The only thing I can remember is how reassured I felt that he was there and in command of the situation
5. As I pay several hundreds of pounds to get my car repaired the only comfort I will gain is the knowledge that these three excellent public servants were firmly on my side throughout this ordeal
6. I felt cared about and that I was listened to
7. Their courtesy, consideration and helpful kindness at a stressful time was very much appreciated
8. Let them know how reassuring it was for my mother, as well as my brother and I, in the way this was being dealt with
9. Unfortunately I do not know the names of all the officers involved, but we are grateful to them for their concern and interested attention
10. It may not seem like much to some showing concern and a bit of consideration, but it was really appreciated at a very worrying time
11. They have made an unpleasant incident bearable
12. This is something I feel has strongly reassured us about our prospective safety in the town centre
13. These actions truly do make a difference and have certainly made a lasting impression on that little girl at a point where her life seems hard
14. Giving us confidence at a time of extreme stress

15. But for them to see first hand the quality of police both male and female that your area has, has made them all feel much safer

Appendix 12: National Data for Police Complaints 2007/2008

Allegation Category	Number	Substantiated	Unsubstantiated
Serious Non-Sexual Assault/ Other Assault	7297	82	2373
Sexual Assault/ Other sexual conduct	128	13	53
Oppressive Conduct or Harassment	3174	65	811
Unlawful/ Unnecessary Arrest or Detention	2573	64	991
Irregularity in Evidence/ Perjury	1039	39	444
Corruption or Malpractice	290	11	115
Mishandling of Property	1352	49	377
Breach of PACE, Codes A-E, Unspecified Breaches	3938	183	1276
Lack of Fairness and Impartiality	1998	34	516
Discriminatory Behaviour	1296	11	463
Other Neglect or Failure in Duty	11385	652	2791
Incivility, Impoliteness and Intolerance	10385	184	1827
Traffic Irregularity	635	18	108
Other Irregularity in Procedure	993	62	304
Improper Disclosure of Information	877	72	262
Other	920	41	267
Total	48280	1580	12978

Appendix 13: Constabulary Data for Police Complaints 2007/2008

Allegation Category	Number
Serious Non-Sexual Assault/ Other Assault	102
Sexual Assault/ Other sexual conduct	0
Oppressive Conduct or Harassment	46
Unlawful/ Unnecessary Arrest or Detention	48
Irregularity in Evidence/ Perjury	12
Corruption or Malpractice	43
Mishandling of Property	27
Breach of PACE, Codes A-E, Unspecified Breaches	80
Lack of Fairness and Impartiality	27
Discriminatory Behaviour	29
Other Neglect or Failure in Duty	284
Incivility, Impoliteness and Intolerance	254
Traffic Irregularity	9
Other Irregularity in Procedure	82
Improper Disclosure of Information	11
Other	47
Total	1101

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