National Criminal Justice Reference Service

ncjrs

1.0	2.8	2.5
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1.0	3.6	2.2
1.1	4.0	2.0
		1.8
1.25	1.4	1.6
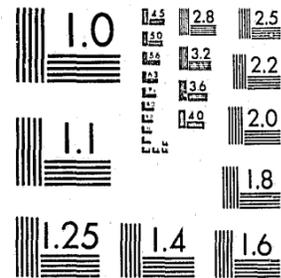
MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART
NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS-1963-A

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POLICE SOURCE BOOK

Bruce Swanton
Garry Hannigan
David Biles

Australian Institute of Criminology

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Compiled by

Bruce Swanton
Senior Research Officer
Australian Institute Of Criminology

Garry Hannigan
Visiting Scholar
Australian Institute Of Criminology

David Biles
Assistant Director (Research)
Australian Institute Of Criminology

Australian Institute Of Criminology

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PREFACE

This compendium originated as a contribution to the Encyclopedia Of
World Police. As that publication experienced lengthy (and as yet
unresolved) production delays, the Australian Institute of Criminology
decided to publish its contribution under the title Police Source Book.

Contributions to the Encyclopedia were required to be presented in a
standardised format aimed at presenting descriptive data in a simple manner.
Copywriters were then responsible for reworking the numerous contributions
from around the world into a uniform style. Constraints of time and
resources have, unfortunately, precluded the opportunity to reformat,
attempt limited analysis or, even, present critical discussion in this
compendium. However, for those with a need for purely descriptive data the
Police Source Book should prove useful.

The decision to publish Police Source Book rather than wait for the
Encyclopedia's appearance was prompted by two factors: (1) increasing
public interest in matters pertaining to police and crime, and (2) requests
from overseas concerning the sorts of data presented. Non-police material
required by the Encyclopedia's format is retained for the benefit of foreign
users. Concern for foreign readers also requires the inclusion of basic
descriptions and procedures that would be entirely familiar to Australian
readers, but which are not necessarily familiar to persons of other
countries. Regrettably, numerous charts, photographs and other graphics
have been omitted.

A word of caution is required in respect of some tabulated
percentages. Not all sum to 100. Errors are not entirely due to rounding
but, in some cases, apparently, are due also to coding difficulties.
Although printouts of most of the surveys cited are held at the Institute,
and available for perusal, queries concerning doubtful percentages are
better directed to the nominated polling agency.

SECTION 1: SOME BASIC FACTS ABOUT AUSTRALIA

Geographical

Australia is a middle order developed country occupying a large
landmass, together with adjacent islands, in the south west Pacific
region. It lies between latitudes 10° 41' S and 43° 39' S and, between
longitudes 113° 09' E and 153° 39' E. The land mass is skirted by the
South Pacific Ocean to the east, by the Timor and Arafura Seas to the
north, the Indian Ocean to the west and, to the south by the Southern
Ocean. Mainland Australia together with the island state of Tasmania
totals 2,968,300 square miles.

As at mid 1981, the country's population totalled 14.58 million.

The national capital of Australia is Canberra, which is located in
the Australian Capital Territory.

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

TABLE 1.1

POLITICAL UNITS, POPULATION & CAPITAL CITIES, MID-1981

state/territory	polity population (millions)	capital city
New South Wales	5.13	Sydney
Victoria	3.83	Melbourne
Queensland	2.29	Brisbane
South Australia	1.28	Adelaide
Western Australia	1.27	Perth
Tasmania	0.42	Hobart
Northern Territory	0.12	Darwin
Australian Capital Territory	0.22	Canberra

Source : ABS

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

Legal & political

The federation of Australia is bound by the Commonwealth Of
Australia Constitution Act 1900. Under the constitution political
authority is shared between the six state governments and the federal
government. Prior to federation each state was a self governing colony,
possessing its own constitution. States still retain their constitutions,

which are in some respects now subordinate to the federal constitution. The federal constitution assigns certain powers to the federal government, those matters not thereby assigned remain exclusively state concerns. Among the more important state responsibilities are those for criminal justice generally and, policing in particular. No constitutional authority exists for federal government involvement in policing, corrections, or crime investigation, other than by way of tate referral.

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

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

Periodic elections are held for all houses of the various parliaments.

Defence

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

Military strengths are shown at Table 1.2.

TABLE 1.2

DEFENCE FORCE STRENGTHS, BY SERVICE, 1981

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

Source: ABS

Whilst under certain circumstances military forces may provide aid to the civil power, such occurrences rarely arise. No paramilitary forces are maintained, although the Special Air Service of the regular army is trained to perform certain tasks in relation to anti terrorist operations. Some thought has been given, within both federal and some state institutions, to the creation of paramilitary or gendarmerie type 'third force' organisations. In the short term at least, however, such bodies are unlikely to materialise. In the longer term though, given appropriate circumstances, the creation of such units is by no means an impossibility despite the constitutional problems that would attach to their creation.

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

SECTION 2: HISTORY & BACKGROUND OF POLICE

Police and policing in Australia have their origins in the three major British settlement initiatives in New Holland. Those initiatives were based on Sydney Cove (New South Wales) 1788, Swan River (Western Australia) 1829 and Adelaide (South Australia) 1836. In all cases, the formation of police organisations was preceded by the appointment of individual Constables who were, whether they worked fulltime or on an on-call basis, mostly subordinate to magistrates and, whose duties could only be marginally described as police work in any modern sense of the term. In Sydney, too, a Watch was established well before the emergence of a modern police service. Such appointments bore close similarity to eighteenth and early nineteenth century practices in England.

The most important point of origin was that of New South Wales, not only because it was the first but, because in the early days of Australia's settlement by Europeans the colony of New South Wales covered not only the area occupied by the present day state of New South Wales but also that of the present day states of Tasmania, Victoria, Queensland, the Northern Territory and the external Territory of Norfolk Island. The colonial government (and police authority) permitted the creation of numerous small police bodies to meet local and special needs throughout the vast region but the largest and most significant of these was always that of Sydney Town, the principal seat of government.

First settlement, in 1788, occurred at Sydney Cove; the great majority of settlers being transported English and Irish convicts. Thefts of precious food, several serious assaults and, a generally low level of public behavior in the infant colony prompted the appointment of a 12 man Watch in August 1789. The only peace officers (exclusive of Justices of the Peace) existing in the colony prior to that time, the Provost Marshal and a Constable, had been unable to cope with the numerous nocturnal offences, especially breakings and garden produce thefts. These Watchmen, who received lodging, rations and clothing only, were subordinate to the Deputy Judge Advocate (who was _inter alia_ a civil magistrate) and other military officers until the cessation of military rule in 1796 However, as a matter of practice, it seems the Provost Marshal exercised some control over police in a day to day management sense. Although the functions of early Watchmen and Constables were popularly referred to as police, it seems probable the term was employed mostly in an eighteenth century rather than a nineteenth/twentieth century sense.

As time passed and the areas surrounding Sydney were first explored and then settled, Constables, many of them freemen, were appointed in the outlying regions. In the larger towns fulltime Constables operated throughout the 24 hours. For a brief period in the mid-1790s, citizens of Sydney Town were required to elect Constables from among their number for 12 month periods. Elected Constables operated mostly at night, supplementing regular Constables and Watchmen.

Once military government terminated in New South Wales, Constables operating in Sydney Town were subordinated to the First Magistrate. That official was also known as Superintendent of Police but he was first and foremost a justice of the peace. Briefly, in 1802, Constables were placed under the Provost Marshal (a civil office) but soon returned to the control of magistrates. The first 20 years of Sydney's physical growth was limited and, as a result, the evolution of police function and organisation was also restricted.

Convict Constables were appointed at Norfolk Island penal settlement in 1791 and at Port Dalrymple, Van Diemen's Land (now Tasmania) in 1804.

New South Wales

The year 1811 saw a significant reorganisation of the Sydney police, although the various grades of Constables remained subordinate to the First Magistrate. It was not until 1839 that the various Sydney Town Constables were headed by a fulltime police official. In the rural areas of New South Wales, Constables were appointed by local Justices and they remained accountable to the particular bench by which they were appointed. They were popularly known as Bench police or, more colloquially, 'benchers'.

As the colony's population increased in the second and third decades of the nineteenth century, various security and administrative problems presented which resulted in the creation of a number of discrete 'police' bodies. The respective fortunes of those bodies, such as mounted patrol, water police, border police, native police and gold escort, varied considerably. Some were disbanded, some combined with others and some were absorbed by other colonies.

Following wild New Year rioting in Sydney in 1850, efforts were made to consolidate all police bodies in the Middle District of New South Wales, _ie_, in that area now known as the state of New South Wales. Those efforts were not entirely successful and it was not until the 1861 communal rioting at Lambing Flat goldfields that the government was able to fully achieve its aim. The present police department of New South Wales was established in 1862.

Victoria

Victoria separated from New South Wales in 1851, achieving colonial status in the process. The Victorian colonial government inherited a fragmented collection of police bodies very similar to that of New South Wales. Once the initial rush of legislation that inevitably accompanied the introduction of colonial government was complete, the new government consolidated its police services in 1853.

Queensland

Queensland did not separate from New South Wales until 1859. At that time New South Wales police, in particular the Native Police, possessed a general responsibility for policing in the area despite the presence of local town and water police Constables at Brisbane. An Inspector General of Police was appointed in 1860 but fragmentation continued until 1864. Even then the Native Police Force retained a separate identity until disbanded in 1900.

Tasmania

In Tasmania, a number of separate police bodies, such as water, town and field police existed prior to 1857; in which year reorganisation of

police services was effected. Legislation, passed in 1856, empowered municipalities to raise their own police forces. Twenty-one such forces were established over a period of years. In addition, a body known as the Colonial Police (the name was changed a few years later to that of Territorial Police) was created. The Territorial Police provided cover in unincorporated areas. An Inspector (later Superintendent) was appointed in Hobart to coordinate the fragmented police service in terms of reporting, budgeting and financing. In 1899, the various police bodies were consolidated, thereby creating the present police force of Tasmania.

Western Australia

Following the commencement of the first civil settlement in Western Australia, at the Swan River Colony in 1829, a number of Constables were appointed by the governor. These freemen plied their normal trade, acting in their office of Constable only when necessary, just as occurred in rural England. By 1832, however, conflict between aborigines and settlers was so fierce that many settlers had departed the colony. A small body of mounted police was appointed to assist the military in providing protection to remaining settlers but police numbers had reduced to a mere handful within five years. Local Constables continued to be appointed in both towns and rural areas, being subordinate to justices of the peace. Police numbers in Western Australia only started to increase in 1849, in anticipation of the arrival of transported British convicts and by 1853 their numbers were sufficient to warrant unification. All police were formally, at least, placed under the authority of a Superintendent, who operated in a manner similar to his counterpart in Hobart. It was not until 1861 that police centralisation was fully effected and it is from that year the present police department of Western Australia is considered to date.

South Australia

The colony of South Australia was first settled in 1836 and, as had happened in Western Australia, a number of freemen Constables were appointed soon after landing. These men, who were subordinate to Justices of the Peace, continued to work at their normal callings, exercising their authority as Constables as and when necessary. Unfortunately, the new colony's existence quickly attracted large numbers of undesirables, many of whom were escaped convicts either from the east or Van Diemen's Land. The necessity for a regular body of police to maintain law and order became quickly evident. Thus, in 1838 a police force of 20 members was established, its jurisdiction being colony-wide. The force had a chief officer who was answerable to a four person commission. But, in 1840, a member of the police commission was appointed Commissioner of Police and the board was abolished. Thus, in the sense of organisational continuity, the police force of South Australia is the oldest in Australia.

Northern Territory

Between 1863 and 1910, the Northern Territory was governed by South Australia. From 1865 to 1869 a small body of Constables were employed at Escape Cliffs, the scene of the Territory's first major settlement attempt.

These men, although they comprised a body of peace officers rather than being just a collection of individuals, also performed many other tasks such as caring for stock and exploring. They were subordinate to the Government Resident. Escape Cliffs was abandoned in 1869 and its personnel dispersed. A detachment of South Australian police arrived at Palmerston (now Darwin), the successor location to Escape Cliffs, in January 1870. South Australian police personnel undertook the Territory's policing needs for the next 40 years. Eventually, however, the South Australian government felt it could no longer bear the administrative costs involved. Thus, in January 1911, the federal government assumed responsibility for the huge but sparsely populated region. A new police body, the Northern Territory Mounted Police, was formed to replace the withdrawn South Australian police employees. South Australian police officers already serving in the Territory were given the opportunity of changing over to the new Force. In 1926, the Northern Territory Police Force (the 'Mounted' had by then been dropped from the title) was split into two discrete organisations. The Central Australia Police was based on Alice Springs and the Northern Australia Police was based on Darwin. The inappropriateness of such division was eventually recognised and the Northern Territory Police Force was reconstituted in 1931.

Australian Capital Territory

The Federal (later Australian) Capital Territory Police Force was established in 1927 as a result of a decision to hold federal parliament sittings at Canberra, instead of Melbourne as was previously the case. The Federal Capital Territory was excised from New South Wales in 1911 but prior to the establishment of the Territory's police force, New South Wales police officers had serviced the area. The Australian Capital Territory Police Force remained a discrete organisation until 1979 when, following a consultant's report, it was absorbed by a security and investigation organisation misleadingly labelled as the Commonwealth Police Force. The resulting hybrid was retitled the Australian Federal Police, although the ACT police component provides the body's only police element.

The years of origin of the various police forces are shown at Table 2.1.

TABLE 2.1

POLICE FORCES: BY YEAR OF ORIGIN

agency	year of origin
South Australia Police Force	1838
Victoria Police Force	1853
Western Australia Police Force	1861
New South Wales Police Force	1862
Queensland Police Force	1864
Tasmania Police Force	1899
Northern Territory Police Force	1911†
Australian Capital Territory Police Force	1927§

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology

External territories

Police forces are formally provided for in three of Australia's external territories, ie, Norfolk Island, Christmas Island and Cocos (Keeling) Islands. Norfolk Island had provision for the appointment of local police officers for many years, although the first freeman police officer was recruited from the Australian mainland in 1896 or 1897. Following that officer's departure, a three man island Constabulary was formed but, did not function effectively. A New South Wales police officer was assigned to the Territory in 1913 and after that time police personnel alternated between mainland personnel and island residents. Since the mid-1950s, however, mainland personnel have performed police duty on the island. Police have performed duty on Christmas Island, apart from a period of Japanese rule during World War II, since 1901, although the island only became an Australian external territory in 1958. Singapore police serviced the island for some four years after its transfer to Australia. Following the withdrawal of Singapore Police Force personnel, rank and file Christmas Island police personnel have been recruited from Singapore whilst mainland Australia has supplied chief officers and technical expertise. Cocos (Keeling) Islands has legal provision for a police force but does not in fact have any regular officers. At times, a Special Constable is appointed from among government employees on the island. In the case of all three island territories, the federal government's Administrator is the appointed Commissioner of Police, a situation which also existed in the Northern Territory until 1964.

Twentieth century development

During the course of the nineteenth century the various colonial police forces were the subject of commissions and committees of inquiry but, viewed historically none can be said to have exerted long lasting influence on agency development subsequent to consolidation. Even in the twentieth century, despite most agencies having been subjected to periodic examination and complaint, it was not until recent decades that some agencies were significantly impacted as a result of reform oriented activities, such as revised complaint resolution procedures. Police development continued throughout the twentieth century, the pace quickening in concert with technological and scientific change. NSW and Victoria were among the first police departments in the world to utilise mobile radio communications but, mainly, a lag existed between technological development in Europe and North America and its implementation in Australia, eg, motor vehicles and teleprinters. The onset of the Great Depression had a markedly stultifying effect on police development in Australia, much as it did elsewhere in the Western world. Indeed, it was not until the mid-sixties that police forces in Australia started to achieve the sophistication of style and practice apparent today. Along with the expansion of police organisations and operations, there have occurred over the last two decades a number of major inquiries into police operation, administration and malfeasance which in aggregate have affected most agencies significantly.

The Victoria Police Force was inspected in 1970-71, following a corruption inquiry, by a former Inspector of Constabulary for England and Wales. The report of that inquiry was subsequently utilised as a blueprint

for force development. In 1982, the government decided to undertake a further detailed review of police function, role and organisation. Similarly, the Queensland government retained a consultant in 1968 (the Commissioner of Police of South Australia) who drew up a blueprint for its police department's development, the passage of time and industrial pressure have meant considerable compromise but the report was influential in creating a sense of direction with respect to force development.

Police records, especially those pertaining to criminal investigation and special branch records, have occupied the minds of politicians and others in recent years, with the result that in South Australia and New South Wales a degree of external control over the privacy and efficacy of such records is now exerted. Indeed, in South Australia, a furore arising from the issue of Special Branch records led, indirectly, to the Commissioner of Police being fired - probably the most traumatic event in the federation's police community since World War II. That same Commissioner had, at the commencement of his appointment, invited English detectives to investigate the death by drowning of an Adelaide academic as it was thought police officers may have been responsible.

The 1974 report of the royal commission appointed to inquire into organised crime in New South Wales clubs led to considerable public doubt as to the probity of certain members of that state's police department. And, it is fair to say, questions of graft at all levels of the agency have periodically figured in the media ever since. A major and far reaching inquiry into the administration of the New South Wales police force reported in 1981. That report is being utilised as a framework for the department's development for the remainder of the eighties. In that same year, the police minister directed the police tribunal to conduct an inquiry into allegations concerning a deputy commissioner of police. Queensland, too, after a major 1964 scandal involving police activities at a well known hotel, has had its share of corruption oriented inquiries, one which was conducted by detectives seconded from England. In Western Australia, three royal commissions have been held in recent years to inquire into serious allegations of police misconduct. A 1978 consultant's report recommending the Australian Capital Territory Police be amalgamated with other agencies to form a hybrid police-security organisation to be called the Australian Federal Police was actioned in late 1979. That reorganisation heralded major federal intrusion into police and law enforcement, arenas traditionally and constitutionally the responsibility of the various states and territories.

Only the police forces of Tasmania and Northern Territory have remained untouched by the reports and inquiries which have placed police under scrutiny elsewhere over the past two decades.

List of police related inquiries, reports, etc

The more important inquiries and reports relating to police are cited below:

New South Wales

1823 Report Of The Commissioner Of Inquiry On The Judicial
      Establishments of New South Wales, & Van Diemen's Land (Bigge)

1835 Report Of The Select Committee On Police And Gaols

1850 Police Establishment Report From The Board Of Inquiry (Hill)

1850 Report From The Select Committee On Police (Thomson)

1852 Report From The Select Committee On The Water Police Department (Holroyd)

1852 Final Report From The Select Committee On The Police Regulation Bill (Holroyd)

1856- Report Of The Board Of Inquiry Into Police Matters (Hay)
1857

1856- Report From The Select Committee On The Native Police Force
1857 (Sandeman)

1862 Report From The Select Committee On The Management Of The Central Police Office (Driver)

1891- Report Of The Royal Commission On Alleged Chinese Gambling And
1892 Immorality And Charges Of Bribery Against Members Of The Police Force (Manning)

1919 Report Of Police Inquiry (Street)

1920 Report Of Royal Commission Into Trial And Conviction And Sentences Imposed On Charles Reeves And Others

1935- Report Of The Royal Commission Into Improper Conduct On The Part Of
1936 The Police Force Of New South Wales In Respect Of Activities In Connection With The Suppression Of SP And Street Betting (Markell)

1935- Report Of Royal Commission As To Whether Any Member Or Members Of
1936 The Police Force Of New South Wales Have Accepted Or Agreed To Accept Any Bribe Or Bribes From Any Person Or Persons In Connection With Illegal Betting Or Intended Illegal Betting, SP And Street Betting (Markell)

1936- Report Of Royal Commission Into Allegations Against The Police In
1937 Connection With The Suppression Of Illicit Betting (Markell)

1954 Report Of The Royal Commission On Liquor Laws In New South Wales (Maxwell)

1974 Report Of The Royal Commission Appointed To Inquire In Respect Of Certain Matters Relating To Allegations Of Organised Crime In Clubs (Moffitt)

1978 Special Branch Criminal Records In New South Wales (Privacy Committee)

1978 Collection, Storage And Dissemination Of Criminal Records By The Police (Privacy Committee)

1979 Report Of The Select Committee Of The Legislative Council On Crime Control (Freeman)

1979 The Employment Position Of Women Police In The New South Wales Police Force (Midgely)

1981 Report Of Inquiry Into New South Wales Police Administration (Lusher)

1982 Report Of The Tribunal To The Minister For Police Pursuant To An Inquiry Under s.45 Of The Police Regulation (Allegations Of Misconduct) Act 1978 Into Certain Matters Relating To Discipline In The Police Force And Mr WAR Allen (Perrignon)

Victoria

1852 Report Of Select Committee On Police (Snodgrass)

1857- Report Of Board Appointed To Enquiry Into The Defalcation Of [JG]
1858 MacGregor, Late Clerk In The Office Of The Paymaster Of Police (Grimes)

1862- Report From The Select Committee On The Police Force (Frazer)
1963

1883 Special Report Of The Royal Commission On Police On The Detective Branch (Longmore)

1883 General Report Of The Royal Commission On Present State And Organisation Of The Police Force (Longmore)

1905- Royal Commission Report On The Victorian Police (Cameron)
1906

1925 Report Of The Royal Commission On The Victorian Police Force (Monash)

1933 Report Of Board Of Inquiry Into Certain Allegations And Complaints Made Against Certain Members Of The Police Force Including The Chief Commissioner Of Police (Kelley)

1936 Report Of The Royal Commission On The Alleged Shooting At And Wounding Of John O'Connell Brophy, A Superintendent Of Police (MacIndoe)

1942- Report Of The Royal Commission Appointed To Inquire Into Certain
1943 Allegations Regarding The Administration Of The Licensing Laws Of Victoria (Clyne)

1971 Report Of The Board Of Inquiry Into Allegations Of Corruption In The Police Force In Connection With Illegal Abortion Practices In The State Of Victoria (Kaye)

1971   A Report On The Victoria Police Force (St Johnston)

1976   Addenda To The Report Of The Board Of Inquiry Into Allegations Against Members Of The Victoria Police Force (Beach)

1978   Report Of The Board Of Inquiry Into Allegations Against Members Of The Victoria Police Force (Beach)

1978   Report Of The Committee Appointed To Examine And Advise In Relation To The Recommendations Made In Chapter 8 Of Volume 1 Of The Report Of The Board of Inquiry Appointed For The Purpose Of Inquiring Into And Reporting Upon Certain Allegations Against Members Of The Victoria Police Force. Part 1 - Police Procedures Relating To The Investigation Of Crime; Part 2 - Investigation of Complaints Against Police (Norris)

Queensland

1861   Report Of Select Committee On Native Police Force And The Conditions Of The Aborigines Generally (McKenzie)

1899   Report Of The Royal Commission Appointed To Inquire Into The Constitution, Administration, And Working Of The Criminal Investigation Branch Of The Police Force Of Queensland, Etc (Noel)

1964   Report Of The Royal Commission Inquiring Into Rumors Of Police Misconduct In Relation To The National Hotel, Etc (Gibbs)

1968   Report On Administrative Inquiry Into The Queensland Police Force (McKinna)

1977   Report Of The Committee Of Inquiry Into The Enforcement Of Criminal Law In Queensland (Lucas)

1977   Report Of Inquiry Into Allegations Of Police Misconduct In Relation To SP Bookmaking At Southport (O'Connell)

Western Australia

1926   Report Of Select Committee Appointed To Enquire Into Practicability Of Converting The Police Benefit Fund Into A Superannuation Scheme (Hughes)

1927   Report Of Royal Commission Into Alleged Killing And Burning Of Bodies Of Aborigines In East Kimberley (Wood)

1937   Report Of Royal Commission Investigating Certain Charges Of Corruption (Hart)

1949   Report Of Royal Commission Appointed To Enquire Into Some Aspects Of The Administration Of The Police Force Of Western Australia Under The Commissioner Of Police

1975- Report Of The Laverton Royal Commission (Clarkson)
1976

1975- Report Of The Royal Commission Into Matters Surrounding The
1976   Administration Of The Law Relating To Prostitution (Norris)

1976   Report Of The Royal Commission Into Matters Surrounding The Trial Of Baymis Ugle & Subsequent Investigations Relating Thereto (Virtue)

South Australia

1853   Report From The Board Of Inquiry Appointed To Investigate The State Of Discipline And Efficiency Of The Police Force (Freeling)

1866   Report Of Commission Of Enquiry Into Management Of Police Force (1866)

1872   Report Of Board Of Inquiry Into The Management Of The Metropolitan Police Force (Boucaut)

1925   Report Of The Royal Commission On Port Pirie Police (Halcombe)

1925   Report Of The Royal Commission On Port Pirie Police (Nesbit)

927   Report Of The Second Royal Commission On Allegations Of Bribery Against Police Officers (Paine)

3   Report Of The Royal Commission On Betting (Ray)

1   Report Of The Royal Commission On The September Moratorium Demonstration (Bright)

1974   Criminal Investigation (CLPMRC)

1977   Report Of The Judicial Inquiry Into Files Held By The Special Branch Of The South Australian Police Department (White)

1978   Report Of The Royal Commission On The Dismissal Of Harold Hubert Salisbury (Mitchell)

Tasmania

1880   Progress Report Of Select Committee On Police (Balfe)

1886   Report Of Select Committee On Centralisation Of Police (Reiby)

1906   Report Of The Royal Commission On The Organisation And Administration Of The Police Force (Oldham)

1949   Report Of The Board Of Inquiry Into Police Conditions (Perrin)

1955   Report On All Aspects Of Inquiry On Allegation Made Against Members
        Of The Police Force (Little)

1962   Report Of The Select Committee Appointed To Inquire Into Police
        Matters In Tasmania (Wedd)

Northern Territory

1973   Report Of The Commission Appointed To Inquire Into The Northern
        Territory Police Force (McKinna)

Australian Capital Territory

1978   Report Of The Select Committee On Police Organisation (Vivian)

Miscellaneous

1975   Complaints Against Police (ALRC)

1975   Criminal Investigation (ALRC)

1978   Report To The Minister For Administrative Services On The
        Organisation Of Police Services In The Commonwealth Area, And Other
        Related Matters (Mark)

1979   Protective Security Review (Hope)

1980   Report Of The Royal Commission Into Drug Trafficking (Woodward)

1980   Report of Australian Royal Commission Into Drugs (Williams)

1982   Report Of The Royal Commission On The Activities Of The Federated
        Ship Painters & Dockers Union (Costigan)

1982   Report Of Commonwealth - New South Wales Joint Task Force On Drug
        Trafficking

Police personnel and functions

A complaint common to police commissioners, both state and territory, is that they need more staff. Each year when police estimates are placed before the relevant police ministers there is always a request for additional staff. To offset the shortage of trained police officers, many police departments have replaced police with public servants in administrative areas, police officers on clerical duties being reassigned to more traditional field duties. This approach helps offset the high cost of training police and best utilises their skills but, on the other hand, it seriously narrows career prospects.

The total strength of the various police forces for the period 1970-1981 is shown at Table 3.1. The figures refer to attested members, excluding cadets, trainees, trackers, etc. Population figures for the same period, complete with police/public ratios are shown at Table 3.2. It will be seen in all cases that the rate of police officers per 1,000 of population increased significantly over the decade of the 'seventies'. The two highest rates occurring, unsurprisingly, in federally funded police agencies, ie, the two territory police forces. Unfortunately, it is not possible to obtain a complete breakdown of staff functions for all police forces. However, a breakdown is possible for the two largest agencies, ie, New South Wales and Victoria; see Table 3.3.

TABLE 3.1

SWORN PERSONNEL : BY AGENCY, 1970-1981

agency	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981
NSW	7144	7513	7741	7923	8212	8382	8482	8504	9011	9091	9225	9357
V	4770	5089	5410	5628	5841	6156	6487	6819	7238	7569	7814	8050
Q	3085	3051	3103	3210	3329	3479	3582	3744	3832	3934	3961	4106
SA	1881	1985	2068	2167	2264	2474	2560	2781	2920	3135	3219	3259
WA	1529	1616	1686	1807	1984	2180	2288	2345	2490	2558	2643	2611
T	717	739	763	791	829	890	938	942	946	956	974	974
NT	235	259	281	318	361	443	418	451	470	538	524	550
ACT	289	347	398	435	524	574	551	551	575	583		

Source: Police department annual reports

TABLE 3.2

POPULATION[†] & POLICE/PUBLIC RATES (per 1,000pop): BY STATE, 1970-1981

state	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981
NSW	4,563.3	4,679.4	4,746.9	4,793.4	4,839.4	4,884.5	4,914.3	4,956.7	5,011.8	5,078.5	5,146.2	5,126.2
	1.57	1.61	1.63	1.65	1.70	1.72	1.73	1.72	1.80	1.79	1.79	1.83
V	3,476.5	3,520.4	3,577.4	3,628.4	3,676.8	3,719.1	3,746.0	3,782.3	3,818.4	3,853.5	3,887.0	3,832.4
	1.37	1.45	1.51	1.55	1.59	1.66	1.73	1.80	1.90	1.96	2.07	2.10
Q	1,809.4	1,881.4	1,932.5	1,987.3	2,046.1	2,084.0	2,111.7	2,136.8	2,116.7	2,197.4	2,247.8	2,295.1
	1.70	1.62	1.61	1.62	1.63	1.67	1.70	1.75	1.81	1.79	1.76	1.79
SA	1,169.4	1,185.3	1,202.4	1,217.9	1,236.2	1,252.1	1,261.6	1,276.8	1,287.6	1,293.8	1,299.1	1,285.0
	1.61	1.67	1.72	1.78	1.83	1.98	2.03	2.18	2.27	2.42	2.48	2.54
WA	1,011.3	1,043.1	1,070.9	1,089.8	1,117.4	1,146.7	1,169.8	1,197.1	1,222.3	1,242.8	1,265.0	1,273.6
	1.51	1.55	1.57	1.66	1.78	1.90	1.96	1.96	2.04	2.06	2.09	2.05
T	389.8	390.2	392.2	395.7	399.3	404.7	407.4	410.6	413.7	417.7	422.9	418.9
	1.84	1.89	1.95	2.00	2.08	2.20	2.30	2.29	2.29	2.29	2.30	2.33
NT	82.0	91.9	96.6	99.7	104.4	89.4	101.4	105.5	112.5	115.9	121.3	123.3
	2.87	2.82	2.91	3.19	3.46	4.96	4.12	4.27	4.18	4.64	4.32	4.46
ACT	137.4	145.6	158.0	168.2	179.6	190.9	203.3	208.2	215.6	222.3	-	-
	2.10	2.38	2.52	2.59	2.92	3.01	2.71	2.65	2.67	2.62		

† '000

Source: ABS

TABLE 3.3

SWORN PERSONNEL : FUNCTION BY NEW SOUTH WALES & VICTORIA, 1979 & 1980

agency	personnel	function
NSW	8	executive (0.09%)
(1979)	3768	uniformed general and administration metropolitan (41.45%)
	1810	uniformed general and administration country (19.91%)
	1089	crime investigation duties metropolitan (11.98%)
	237	crime investigation duties country (2.61%)
	388	scientific and technical (4.27%)
	796	traffic duties metropolitan (8.76%)
	363	traffic duties country (3.99%)
	213	prosecuting duties (2.34%)
	168	licensing duties (1.85%)
	85	water police (0.93%)
	166	women police (1.83%)
V	5168	operations (66.13%)
(1980)	1162	crime (14.78%)
	699	traffic (8.94%)
	380	services (4.87%)
	341	personnel (4.36%)
	9	special duty list (0.12%)
	55	CCP list (0.70%)

Source: Police department annual reports

Police budgets

The administration of modern police systems is an expensive business. Tables 3.4, 3.5, 3.6, 3.7 and 3.8 show police departmental yearly budgets for the states of New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia and Tasmania respectively. From these breakdowns it will be seen that by far the greater proportion of expenditure goes on salaries, wages and allowances.

Average strength of a precinct and average jurisdiction of a precinct

Due to the large number of police stations scattered throughout the states and territories of Australia it is impossible to provide a breakdown of what staff are assigned to each police station. Some police stations have a patrol area extending 100 kilometres in one direction and 200 kilometres in another, whilst others have only a few square kilometres. The one man police station is common in some states, such as Queensland.

The police officer in such cases operates from the police station. His home is normally within the precincts of the police station yard. The officer in charge would normally spend part of his day in the police station attending to administrative matters and part of the day patrolling the district. Some patrols take days in remote areas. In some outback towns the police officer patrols in a four-wheel drive vehicle. Rural camel and horse patrols are no longer operated.

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

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

Total number of precincts or outposts

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

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

Population shifts and aging patterns require that station locations be constantly reassessed, which in turn, require periodic reconsideration of station functions and staffing. Personnel shortages and changing patrol tactics have led to the closure of many suburban police stations in metropolitan areas in recent years. New housing areas, of course, require the opening of new police stations. The current resources boom in Australia has meant the creation of a number of new mining towns in remote parts of the country and the enlargement of already existing townships. The number of operational stations, bases and offices maintained by the various police agencies throughout Australia as at late 1981 were:

New South Wales	-	466
Victoria	-	432
Queensland	-	310
South Australia	-	144
Western Australia	-	159
Tasmania	-	90
Northern Territory	-	36

The headquarters building of each police force is located in its respective state or territorial capital city. The postal addresses of the various agencies are:

Police Department of New South Wales
GPO Box 45
SYDNEY   NSW   2001

Police Department of Victoria
GPO Box 2763Y
MELBOURNE   V   3001

Police Department of Queensland
GPO Box 1440
BRISBANE   Q   4001

Police Department of South Australia
GPO Box 1539
ADELAIDE   SA   5001

Police Department of Western Australia
2 Adelaide Terrace
EAST PERTH   WA   6000

Police Department of Tasmania
GPO Box 308C
HOBART   T   7001

Police Force of the Northern Territory
PO Box 2350
DARWIN   NT   5794

Australian Federal Police
(ACT Police)
PO Box 401
CANBERRA CITY   ACT   2601

TABLE 3.4

EXPENDITURE : NEW SOUTH WALES POLICE DEPARTMENT,
1980 & 1981

item	expenditure	
	79/80	80/81 (projected)
Salaries		
Salaries, wages & allowances	174,058,194	191,971,875
Payments for retirements, etc	3,533,478	3,520,000
Overtime	14,343,480	17,000,000
	$191,935,152	$212,491,875
Maintenance & Working Expenses		
Workers' compensation	156,778	214,000
Meal allowances	7,996	9,200
Allowances, etc	1,445,914	2,230,000
Rent, rates, etc	3,312,838	3,510,000
Maintenance, alterations, additions & renewals	152,391	173,000
Travelling & removal expenses	4,118,519	3,900,000
Motor vehicles	9,800,862	11,800,000
Freight, cartage & packing	57,987	60,000
Postal & telephone expenses	5,212,983	5,600,000
Books, periodicals, etc	113,467	100,000
Gas & electricity	1,120,791	1,333,000
Fees for services rendered	489,789	680,000
Laundry expenses	2,297	2,000
Stores	7,016,604	8,400,000
Other insurance	18,047	19,700
Minor expenses	9,495	11,000
	$ 33,036,758	$ 38,041,900
Other Services		
Purchase of horses	700	2,500
Police boys' clubs	170,000	190,000
Meals for prisoners	307,289	310,000
Funeral expenses	1,103	2,000
Fees and expenses for training courses	63,185	86,000
Overseas visits	47,119	10,000
Compensation re police killed on duty	50,000	75,000
Volunteer rescue association (insurance)	10,000	10,000
Non-recurring service	21,267	
	$ 670,663	$ 685,500
TOTALS	$225,642,573	$251,219,275

Source: Police department annual report

TABLE 3.5

EXPENDITURE : VICTORIA POLICE DEPARTMENT,
1979/1980 & 1980/1981

item	revenue & expenditure	
	79/80	80/81
Revenue		
Police	27,769,994	30,592,630
Expenditure		
Salaries		
Police	126,281,586	144,636,338
Public service staff	22,592,632	14,152,351
	148,874,218	158,788,689
Overtime & penalty rates		
Payments in lieu of long service leave, retiring gratuities	1,641,364	2,250,240
	154,089,455	165,660,762
General Expenses		
Travelling & subsistence	1,770,116	2,067,924
Office requisities, printing & stationery	1,199,352	1,223,923
Books & publications	262,933	361,991
Postal & telephone expenses	2,794,201	3,325,769
Motor vehicles & Police Air Wing - purchase & running expenses	9,224,171	10,915,265
Fuel, light, power and water	1,389,647	1,686,158
Incidental expenses	667,123	959,552
Electronic data processing - expenses	113,793	174,810
Personal equipment, uniforms, clothing & bedding	804,802	707,879
Radio, photographic, scientific & training equipment & materials	1,599,999	2,243,906
Contributions to central fingerprint bureau, Syd	104,626	144,810
Transport of prisoners, search parties & traffic school travelling expenses, etc	120,115	137,287
Burials	8,000	8,706
Provisions for police hospital	15,468	14,175
Police long service & good conduct medals	1,500	1,800
Pay-roll tax	7,457,855	8,593,478
State employees retirement benefits fund - contribution	-	21,992
	27,533,701	32,589,425
Other Services		
Contribution to police pensions fund	4,650,000	5,150,000
TOTALS	186,273,156	203,400,187

Source: Police department annual report

TABLE 3.6

EXPENDITURE : QUEENSLAND POLICE DEPARTMENT, 1979/1980 & 1980/1981

item	expenditure	
	79/80	80/81
Salaries	62,625,178	78,084,275
Wages	601,979	762,759
Overtime & pay for statutory holidays	5,913,765	7,091,679
Allowances payroll	6,523,182	8,853,259
Travelling & relieving allowances	787,722	956,414
Fares, freights, etc	1,825,205	2,615,498
General contingencies	2,693,314	3,225,416
Purchase of motor vehicles & motorcycles	3,757,162	6,081,995
Maintenance of motor vehicles, etc	2,971,344	4,007,666
Radio & other equipment	394,180	883,962
Uniforms	1,097,763	1,303,601
Payroll tax	3,762,219	4,730,947
Grant in aid of police superannuation fund	10,000,000	12,000,000
Cash equivalent of long service leave	1,741,570	1,742,636
Grant to Queensland police-citizens youth welfare association	53,500	58,850
TOTALS	104,748,083	132,398,957

Source: Police department annual report

TABLE 3.7

EXPENDITURE : TASMANIA POLICE DEPARTMENT, 1979/1980 & 1980/1981

item	expenditure	
	79/80	80/81
Salaries, including wages, allowances & overtime	1,966,911	2,260,686
Salaries, including special allowances to officers appointed under Police Regulation Act (No 48 of 1898)	18,501,175	20,291,369
Office requisites, printing & advertising	249,983	239,576
Postal charges & telephones	499,989	521,956
Power, fuel & cleaning	379,994	414,159
Travelling expenses, including transfers & accommodation	319,954	349,553
Scientific & technical sections: Equipment & incidental expenses	138,995	149,488
Furniture & fittings	69,968	68,730
Typewriters: Purchase & maintenance	5,493	6,332
Office machines & equipment	20,027	25,053
Miscellaneous	56,999	54,975
Purchase of motor vehicles	1,009,749	1,348,038
Comprehensive insurance: Motor vehicles	155,332	198,851
Transport expenses, including garage equipment	695,989	849,759
Maintenance of boats	29,990	50,996
Expenses of emergency search & rescue operations	42,806	37,155
Uniforms & equipment	405,640	517,718
Maintenance of properties	450,000	449,992
Medical & hospital expenses of members injured on duty	37,891	39,411
Meals, stores etc for prisoners	26,113	27,288
Contributions to the central fingerprint bureau	12,458	17,235
Police training college: Incidental expenses	101,944	96,977
Division of road safety: Administration & other expenses	470,872	507,000
Costs of Australasian & South Pacific region commissioners of police conference	9,824	–
Costs associated with obtaining additional radio frequencies	4,803	–
Cost of emergency helicopter service	–	90,000
Ex-gratia payment in lieu of workers' compensation	71,300	43,655
TOTALS	25,764,199	28,655,952

Source: Police department annual report

Structure & function

Police agencies in Australia are confined by function, law and tradition, to the states and territories. Environing bodies, such as railway security and investigative agencies, naval police, federal police (exclusive of the ACT police element) and, the Bureau of Customs, for example, do not meet such criteria. Police Source Book is concerned with functional, ie, genuine, police agencies only.

The functions of police forces have not yet been subjected to serious study and, so, no validated statement can be made regarding the precise functions police perform. The various police regulating statutes tend to be rather vague on the subject. A typical example is that of the New South Wales Police Regulation Act 1899, which refers to the commissioner's responsibility for, 'the maintenance of peace and good order, and the security of life and property throughout the state.' At this broad level of abstraction the general purpose of the state and territory police forces is generally consistent, at least in sentiment if not in practice, with Rowan and Mayne's instructions to London's 'New Police' in 1829. Commencing 1980, the Police Department of Victoria sought to formalise its objectives, to wit, 'police objectives are aimed at preservation of the peace, protection of life and property and the prevention and detection of crime.' The Police Department of Queensland also formulates annual objectives, such statements being concerned exclusively with crime and accident reduction.

At lower levels of abstraction, many individual police responsibilities are defined in police rules and regulations as well as in a variety of statutes, eg, traffic and liquor licensing.

In terms of operational emphases, three categories predominate: (1) traffic, (2) criminal investigation, and (3) general duties. General duties is a catch-all category including patrol, public order and station duties. Unfortunately, detailed personnel breakdowns by function and task are not easily available in Australia. For instance, only two police forces operate a metropolitan vehicular patrol service, ie, South Australia and Queensland. Other states have their vehicles under command of the various formations and units although, of course, when on air they become subject to the radio despatcher.

In very broad terms, just over one quarter of all personnel in the various police forces are directly concerned with traffic control and criminal investigation. The remainder, perform all the other duties including water police, air wing, communications, special patrols, rescue & disasters, station operation, prosecutions, youth clubs, clerical, records, research, etc, etc.

Police departments include both civilian and sworn employees. Generally speaking, apart from research, training and radio despatching duties in some forces, civilians have been kept well out of police work - mostly being confined to clerical, cleaning and maintenance duties. The relationship of the head of the civilian component of police departments to the chief police officer varies somewhat according to state. In the police department of New South Wales, for example, the Secretary is a first division public servant and also head of the department's public service component. In other departments, the Secretary tends to be somewhat subordinate. Two departments, ie, Victoria and South Australia, have a Director of Administration rather than a Secretary, a position with clear implications for that official's authority vis a vis the Chief Police Officer. In the Northern Territory, the senior public servant is known as the Director of Accounting & Supply. In all cases, though, the chief officer of a police force is the operational head of his agency and has right of direct access to his minister. Ministers of Police and Ministers responsible for Police usually hold other portfolios as well. In the two largest States, New South Wales and Victoria, similar ministries of police and emergency services have been created. This combination of responsibilities, whilst possessing some disadvantages, is probably the most effective combination possible.

Organisation

A major feature of the police service in Australia is that it is exclusively state and territory based, which means inter alia that single agencies provide metropolitan as well as urban and rural police services. Members normally commence their service in a metropolitan area. Many are then posted, after a couple of years, to a smaller town or even a one or two member rural station. There is no clear pattern. Some police officers prefer country service and spend nearly all their careers at country stations. As the pattern in all Australian police forces is for most members to be promoted to at least senior sergeant rank, members preferring country life tend to end their service as officers in charge of the larger country towns. Other members prefer metropolitan life and tend to stay in the large cities, although often at least a few years of country service is expected of non radio and specialist members. Some specialists, eg, scientific officers, are dispersed throughout a state's major centres but, generally speaking, specialists tend to be based in metropolitan areas.

Although there have been some attempts at decentralisation, particularly in South Australia and, to a lesser extent in Queensland and Northern Territory, centralisation remains a popular organisational principle among Australian police administrators. Economies forced by increasing costs have tended to highlight the greater expense of decentralised organisation and services.

In those states having a metropolitan mobile patrol, ie, South Australia and Queensland, patrol personnel operate from patrol bases. General duty police work from traditional police stations but detectives and traffic personnel sometimes operate from specialist premises also. The resulting reduced interaction between detectives and other police is sometimes lamented by those concerned, as transfer of local knowledge and information is thereby reduced. Area crime collator services are designed to overcome such disadvantages but lack of personal contact inevitably means some loss of information transfer, whether this loss of knowledge is significant is unknown.

Terminology varies but the style of formation divisions is fairly standard. In most states, there is a basic distinction made between country and metropolitan districts or areas. Within those major categories

there exist districts/regions, divisions and stations. An example is
provided at Figure 4.1, showing the formation structure of the police
department of Queensland; the entire state being divided into eight
regions. Each region is further subdivided into between two and five
districts. Within each district are a number of police stations, each of
which has its own patrol area. The operational organisation of the police
department of Victoria is shown, in a very different format, at Figure 4.2

Unfortunately, most police departments do not produce comprehensive
organisation charts and maps. However, the two figures produced here are
sufficient to provide a basic understanding of police territorial
organisation.

QUEENSLAND POLICE DEPARTMENT
ORGANISATION CHART

Source: Police department annual report

FIGURE 4.1

27.

VICTORIA POLICE

OPERATIONS DEPARTMENT
ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER

Probationary Constable
Extended Training
Scheme
(Chief Inspector)

Staff Officer
(Chief Inspector)

Administration
Office

Metropolitan
Co-ordinator
Commander

"O" District
Operations Support Group
(Chief Superintendent)

Country
Co-ordinator
(Commander)

Staff
Officer
(Inspector)

Deputy
(Superintendent)

Staff Officer
(Inspector)

A   District
B   District
H   District
:   District
M   District
P   District
Q   District
U   District
V   District
Y   District
Z   District

Liquor Control
Commission
(Chief Inspector)

Air Wing
(Inspector)

"C"   District
"D"   District
"E"   District
"F"   District
"G"   District
"J"   District
"K"   District
"L"   District
"N"   District
"R"   District
"S"   District
"W"   District

No 1 Division
(Chief Inspector)

No 3 Division
(Chief Inspector)

No 4 Division
Victoria Dock
(Chief Inspector)

No 6 Division
Prosecutions
(Chief Inspector)

Search & Rescue
(Inspector)

Mounted Branch
(Inspector)

Motor Boating Squad
(Inspector)

Dog Squad
(Inspector)

No 2 Division
Licensing Gaming
and Vice Squad
(Chief Inspector)

No 5 Division
G H S G S G
(Inspector)

Source: Police department annual report

FIGURE 4.2

28.

SECTION 5: LEGAL POWERS

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

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

Powers of arrest

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

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

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

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

South Australia

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

Victoria

Powers of arrest are contained in ss.456, 458 and 459 of the Crimes

whether police or otherwise, may at any time without warrant apprehend anyone found committing an offence (other than a breach of regulations) when it is believed on reasonable grounds that the person's apprehension is necessary. The rationale for an arrest may be based on the following considerations:

* to ensure the appearance of the offender before court

* to preserve public order

* to prevent the continuation or repetition of the offence or the commission of a further offence

* for the safety or welfare of the public or the offender.

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

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

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

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

New South Wales

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

* caught committing an offence against any Act

* caught and have committed an offence

* loitering at night and are suspected with reasonable cause of being about to commit a crime

* suspected with reasonable cause of having committed an offence

* found on premises which have been searched under a search warrant and the persons are linked to objects that are seized; or

* believed by police officers to be subject to a warrant that has been issued for their arrest.

Queensland & Western Australia

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

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

Tasmania

Tasmania also has a Criminal Code. Under the Criminal Code 1924 (as amended) the felony/ misdemeanour distinction has been abolished. Unlike Queensland and Western Australia, however, the Tasmanian Code classifies offences into 'crimes' and 'offences'. Police officers in Tasmania are empowered by the Code to arrest without warrant persons found committing crimes or, persons believed on reasonable grounds to have committed any of a number of offences specified under the Code.

Northern Territory

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

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

* to ensure the appearance of the person before a court of competent jurisdiction in respect of the offence

* to prevent a continuation of, or repetition of, or commission of the offence, or

* to prevent the loss or destruction of evidence relating to the offence.

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

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

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

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

Notice of reason for arrest. When making an arrest without warrant, it is not necessary for police officers to explain in detail to their prisoners reasons for their arrest. However, suspects are entitled to know in broad terms what their offences are and, if police officers refuse to tell them or deliberately mislead them, such arrests are tainted with illegality.

Offences against federal laws

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

* a breach of the peace has been or is thought, on reasonable grounds, to be about to be committed by such persons; breaches must involve an offence against federal or territorial laws, or

* police officers believe, on reasonable grounds, that persons have committed an offence against a federal law and a charge against such persons could not be effectively dealt with by summons.

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

Detention for questioning

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

Search & seizure

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

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

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

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

* discover weapons or means of suicide

* secure evidence.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Search of premises and seizure of property

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

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

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

A wide range of statutes provide powers of search in addition to the

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

Police carriage of firearms

The proportion of police officers carrying firearms has increased greatly in recent years.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

In addition to the foregoing, the carriage of shotguns in police

vehicles, sometimes in the absence of official approval, has increased. Too, there has been an increase in recent years in the creation of tactical units (for use against armed offenders and terrorists) that are predicated on the use of highpowered firearms.

Less than a decade ago, the majority of operational police in Australia did not carry firearms. Now, a majority carry them.

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

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

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

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

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

Vicarious liability

It has long been the established law throughout Australia that a master is liable to third parties for injury or damage done through the negligence or unskillfulness of a servant acting in his master's employ. The reason for this is that every act which is done by a servant in the course of his duty is regarded as done under the master's authority, and consequently, is treated as if it were the master's own act. The common law endowed Constables with certain original powers to keep the peace and apprehend offenders. This original authority rather complicates the master and servant relationship of police managers and their subordinates.

Thus, at common law the principle of vicarious liability does not necessarily apply to police officers. There are two major reasons for

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

This anomaly has not been without criticism from various commentators and calls have been made for the unequivocal abolition of the rule. In the absence of a police liability insurance scheme, the victim of police tort, is reduced to suing the tortfeasor, ie, the individual police officer, who is most probably of little economic substance and thereby incapable of paying substantial damages.

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

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

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

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

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

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

SECTION 6: THE TYPICAL POLICE OFFICER

There are differences of style and ethos between the various police forces and information relating to the typical police officer is limited. It is possible however, to present certain loosely related facts.

Female police

Females are significantly underrepresented in the various police forces. Their underrepresentation is not entirely accidental. Until recent times there was a deliberate effort to control the intake of females in all forces and confine their numbers to a prescribed level. It is only in the last decade that most police forces have emphasised female recruitment. There was for many years, too, a rule followed by most forces that required policewomen to resign at marriage. Some forces have prescribed tasks considered suitable for policewomen to perform and recruit accordingly. In some forces, policewomen may not work night shift, although such distinctions are slowly falling away. In yet other Forces, women have been tried on patrol without success or have not performed well in tough areas. These factors have not only contributed to the low numbers of females in the various forces but also account for the low representation of policewomen in the rank of Sergeant and above. As can be seen at Table 6.1, though, female police officer percentages are growing overall.

Entry & selection

The various police departments have seriously attempted in the last decade to improve recruit training, although much remains to be done. The typical recruit graduating from police academies today would have entered around the age of 19 or 20 years. Only a small proportion of new recruits have thought about joining the police service when they left school, the majority joining only after they have first experienced other occupations. As such, the level of commitment at time of joining is in general not high. Most police recruits enter the police service in an attempt to achieve better economic conditions and/or increased job satisfaction. Reasons advanced by recruits for their joining the police service are shown at Table 6.2).

Recruits undertake an initial training course at their respective police academies extending over periods varying between 11 and 26 weeks (see Table 6.3). Older officers would have undergone shorter initial formal training. Not only would their induction periods have been shorter but the quality of their training would also have been significantly lower.

Newly attested Constables have a minimum of at least 10 years of secondary schooling (see Table 6.4) but are more likely than not to have no additional qualifications (Table 6.5). On the other hand, the majority of officers with over 10 years service are most likely to have no educational qualifications at all.

Male officers generally are subject to a minimum height of 173 cm and, female officers, a minimum of 157 cm. Police officers, both male and

TABLE 6.1

POLICEWOMEN: BY AGENCY, 1970-1981

agency	1970 fr	%	1971 fr	%	1972 fr	%	1973 fr	%	1974 fr	%	1975 fr	%	1976 fr	%	1977 fr	%	1978 fr	%	1979 fr	%	1980 fr	%	1981 fr	%
NSW	85	1.18	100	1.33	106	1.36	106	1.33	121	1.47	121	1.44	128	1.51	135	1.58	145	1.60	166	1.83	169	1.83	307	3.28
V	69	1.44	125	2.45	158	2.92	185	3.28	200	3.42	278	4.51	301	4.64	347	5.09	417	5.76	526	6.95	540	6.91	603	7.49
Q	27	0.87	30	0.98	65	2.09	137	4.26	216	6.48	232	6.66	308	8.59	317	8.46	307	8.01	288	7.32	281	7.09	286	6.97
SA	38	2.02	41	2.06	40	1.93	45	2.07	NA	NA	89	3.59	96	3.75	116	4.17	125	4.28	122	3.89	132	4.10	153	4.69
WA	30	1.96	35	2.16	38	2.25	38	2.10	38	1.91	38	1.74	35	1.52	53	2.26	70	2.81	71	2.77	75	2.93	70	2.68
T	13	1.81	15	2.02	21	2.75	18	2.27	25	3.01	30	3.37	38	4.05	40	4.24	44	4.65	51	5.33	48	4.93	46	4.72
NT	8	3.40	7	2.70	5	1.78	5	1.57	5	1.39	6	1.35	9	2.15	8	1.77	13	2.77	22	4.09	31	5.92	32	5.82
ACT	5	1.73	6	1.73	7	1.76	8	2.07	14	2.67	17	2.96	17	3.08	19	3.45	21	3.65	22	3.77	–	–	–	–

NA Not available
fr frequency
Sources: Police department annual reports and departmental spokespersons

40.

TABLE 6.2

REASONS FOR JOINING POLICE: BY AGENCY, 1967

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

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

Table from: [1969] D Chappell & PR Wilson, The Police And The
Public In Australia And New Zealand. St Lucia, UQ Press, p 80.

TABLE 6.3

INITIAL TRAINING PERIODS: BY AGENCY, 1981

agency	provisions
NSW	11 weeks
V	26 weeks
Q	6 months
SA	2 years minimum cadets, 26 weeks for others
WA	13 weeks
T	Cadets 2 years, adults 22 weeks
NT	16 weeks

Source: Departmental spokespersons

TABLE 6.4

MINIMUM EDUCATION STANDARDS: BY AGENCY, 1981

agency	standards
NSW	Higher School Certificate or equivalent
V	Test of General Ability
Q	Junior Certificate, Q 10th Grade
SA	4th Year Standard
WA	Basic
T	Higher School Certificate or equivalent
NT	Higher School Certificate or equivalent

Source: Departmental spokespersons and information materials

TABLE 6.5

OFFICERS' ACHIEVED EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS: BY AGENCY, 1971 & 1976

qualification		NSW	V	Q	SA	WA	T	NT	ACT
No qualifications		5,521	3,937	2,464	1,660	1,351	577	281	479
	%	67.3	66.8	66.8	56.9	62.4	69.0	69.4	72.6
Trade		1,904	1,461	797	1,032	540	167	81	101
	%	23.2	24.8	21.6	35.4	24.9	20.0	0.2	15.3
Technician		211	120	180	72	60	25	18	36
	%	2.6	2.0	4.9	2.5	2.8	3.0	0.4	5.5
Non-degree tertiary		25	10	17	14	3	3	3	4
	%	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.5	0.1	0.4	0.7	0.6
Bachelor or higher degree		73	21	13	3	3	0	0	4
	%	0.9	0.4	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.6
Not class/stated		474	341	218	138	209	64	22	36
	%	5.8	5.8	5.9	4.7	9.6	7.7	5.4	5.5
1976 TOTAL		8,208	5,890	3,689	2,919	2,166	836	405	660
No qualifications		5,786	4,078	2,627	2,070	1,183	627	216	335
	%	79.8	83.8	85.6	89.1	77.2	86.8	76.6	71.0
Trade		1,178	671	363	182	287	80	45	82
	%	16.2	13.8	11.8	7.8	18.7	11.1	16.0	17.4
Technician		168	67	46	35	36	10	16	38
	%	2.3	1.4	1.5	1.5	2.3	1.4	5.7	8.1
Non-degree tertiary		28	12	15	15	11	2	0	4
	%	0.4	0.2	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.3	0.0	0.8
Bachelor or higher degree		21	3	4	1	2	1	0	0
	%	0.3	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0
Not class/stated		69	33	13	18	13	2	5	13
	%	1.0	0.7	0.4	0.8	0.8	0.3	1.8	2.8
1971 TOTAL		7,252	4,864	3,068	2,321	1,532	722	282	472

Source: ABS

After several years service the average police officer would be unlikely to have attended inservice training courses unless selected for specialist duties. The majority of his training would be performed on the job, under the supervision of a senior partner. This is not to say there has not been an opportunity to gain additional qualifications. Police related tertiary training courses are now available for police officers to attend in some jurisdictions (see Table 6.6), although the retention rate on such courses is not high. For example only three per cent of all police officers in the Queensland Police Department have successfully completed the Police Arts & Science Course. Even so, the growth of CAE and Technical College diploma courses for police officers is now something of a growth area in the eastern states.

Age

The great majority of police officers are under 40 years of age, with the greatest percentage of volunteers generally falling in the 25-29 age bracket, see Table 6.7.

Race

The typical Australian police officer is a native of Australia. Little effort is made to recruit minority or migrant groups into the service (see Table 6.8). There are few Aborigines in most police forces and most of those so employed are mostly engaged in the capacity of police aide rather than as fully fledged members.

Religion

The typical police officer in Australia is nominally a member of some religious grouping. The majority being Catholics, Methodists, Presbyterians or Church of England (see Table 6.9).

Physical

The younger members of the force apart from conforming to the minimum height requirements would be of above average health and physical condition. New recruits are required to conform to strict physical requirements prior to entry and during their training period. However, once sworn in to the service, little control is maintained over the physical condition of officers. There is no provision for a weekly physical exercise period (compulsory or otherwise) for members of the various forces and it is not long before many members decline in physical condition and in some instances develop the general physical condition and appearance of their counterparts outside the services. Some forces have attempted to exercise some control over their members physical condition. New South Wales police department, for example, stipulates that members cannot be promoted unless they conform to a certain physical standard and this policy has met with some success. But generally speaking this is not the case.

TABLE 6.6

TERTIARY POLICE RELATED COURSES: BY STATE/TERRITORY, 1983

state/territory	course(s)
NSW	Mitchell CAE: Associate Diploma of Justice Studies (correspondence) (Police & Corrections) Newcastle CAE: Associate Diploma of Police Studies Milperra CAE: Associate Diploma of Community Studies (Police & Corrections)
V	Chisholm Institute of Technology: Associate Diploma of Police Studies Phillip Institute of Technology: Associate Diploma of Criminal Justice & Welfare Administration
Q	Police Advanced Studies Course (selected subjects available at various TAFE Colleges)
SA	Colleges of TAFE (and external studies division): Certificate of Police Studies SAIT: Associate Diploma of Business Administration (Justice)
WA	Nil
T	External studies division of TAFE: Certificate of Police Studies
NT	Nil

Source: Departmental spokespersons

TABLE 6.7

OFFICERS' AGE DISTRIBUTION: AGE INTERVAL GROUPS BY AGENCY, 1971 & 1976

age		NSW 1971	NSW 1976	V 1971	V 1976	Q 1971	Q 1976	SA 1971	SA 1976	WA 1971	WA 1976	T 1971	T 1976	NT 1971	NT 1976	ACT 1971	ACT 1976
15-19	#	303	254	411	364	145	439	360	446	43	112	66	99	0	5	1	10
	%	4.2	3.1	8.4	6.2	4.7	11.9	15.5	15.3	2.8	5.2	9.1	11.8	0.0	1.2	0.2	1.5
20-24	#	1362	1349	807	1397	411	782	551	557	304	276	114	158	35	44	105	106
	%	18.8	16.5	16.6	23.7	13.4	21.2	23.7	19.1	19.8	12.8	15.8	18.9	12.4	10.9	22.2	16.1
25-29	#	1511	1835	737	1128	531	542	403	589	295	595	108	151	100	150	174	190
	%	20.8	22.4	15.2	19.2	17.3	14.7	17.4	20.2	19.3	27.5	15.0	18.1	35.5	37.0	36.9	28.8
30-34	#	1061	1499	622	780	419	458	240	414	245	367	139	113	72	91	77	179
	%	14.6	18.3	12.8	13.2	13.7	12.4	10.3	14.2	16.0	16.9	19.3	13.5	25.5	22.5	16.3	27.1
35-39	#	842	1063	702	557	355	330	223	232	194	250	117	126	40	71	44	88
	%	11.6	13.0	14.4	9.5	11.6	8.9	9.6	7.9	12.7	11.5	16.2	15.1	14.2	17.8	9.3	13.3
40-44	#	785	705	651	575	457	286	193	195	169	211	64	90	12	25	33	27
	%	10.8	8.6	13.4	9.8	14.9	7.8	8.3	6.7	11.0	9.7	8.9	10.8	4.3	6.2	7.0	4.1
45-49	#	615	648	441	494	345	384	160	219	127	153	39	33	8	8	20	30
	%	8.5	7.9	9.1	8.4	11.2	10.4	6.9	7.5	8.3	7.1	5.4	3.9	2.8	2.0	4.2	4.5
50-54	#	443	510	282	375	223	267	137	155	86	134	31	28	8	3	11	16
	%	6.1	6.2	5.8	6.4	7.3	7.2	5.9	5.3	5.6	6.2	4.3	3.3	2.8	0.7	2.3	2.4
55-59	#	312	333	169	189	178	194	46	107	59	66	26	29	7	3	6	14
	%	4.3	4.1	3.5	3.2	5.8	5.3	2.0	3.7	3.9	3.0	3.6	3.5	2.5	0.7	1.3	2.1
60-64	#	15	11	39	31	2	4	8	5	4	2	18	9	0	2	1	0
	%	0.2	0.1	0.8	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.1	2.5	1.1	0.0	0.5	0.2	0.0
65-69	#	2	0	3	0	1	1	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	2	0	0
	%	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.0
70+	#	1	1	0	0	1	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	%	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
TOTAL		7252	8208	4864	5890	3068	3689	2321	2913	1532	2166	722	836	282	405	472	660

frequency

Source: ABS

46.

TABLE 6.8

OFFICERS' COUNTRY OF BIRTH: BY AGENCY, 1971

country of birth		NSW	V	Q	SA	WA	T	NT	ACT
Australia	#	6661	4200	2862	1958	1245	571	215	373
	%	91.9	86.3	93.3	84.4	81.3	79.1	76.2	79.0
UK and Eire	#	383	509	147	281	193	129	55	78
	%	5.3	10.5	4.8	12.1	12.6	17.9	19.5	16.5
NW Europe	#	97	88	28	46	37	13	5	11
	%	1.3	1.8	0.9	2.0	2.4	1.8	1.8	2.3
Italy	#	8	10	3	3	5	0	0	0
	%	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0
Greece	#	2	1	1	†	1	1	0	0
	%	0.0	0.0	0.0		0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0
Mediterranean	#	14	4	4	3	§	1	1	0
	%	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1		0.1	0.4	0.0
Poland	#	9	2	*	2	1	0	0	0
	%	0.1	0.0		0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Yugoslavia	#	5	1	*	*	3	0	0	0
	%	0.1	0.0			0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
Communist Europe	#	20	8	2	7	2	1	0	1
	%	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.2
Other	#	53	41	21	21	45	6	6	9
	%	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.9	2.9	0.8	2.1	1.9

\# frequency
Source: ABS
† Included in Mediterranean
§ Included in Other
* Included in Communist Europe

TABLE 6.9

OFFICERS' RELIGION: BY AGENCY, 1971

denomination		NSW	V	Q	SA	WA	T	NT	ACT
Catholic	1	1935	1187	1108	413	350	131	63	112
	2	26.7	24.4	36.1	17.8	22.8	18.1	22.3	23.7
	3	28.7	28.7	25.6	20.6	26.0	19.8	21.4	32.2
Meth & Presby	1	1223	1174	610	608	252	107	35	92
	2	16.9	24.1	19.9	26.2	16.4	14.8	12.4	19.5
	3	14.2	17.7	20.5	21.7	13.0	15.2	11.7	13.0
Church of England	1	3212	1552	843	647	644	340	95	192
	2	44.3	31.9	27.5	27.9	42.0	47.1	33.7	40.7
	3	35.6	25.5	29.8	24.4	35.2	43.3	19.8	28.6
Other Christian	1	307	468	236	372	117	64	29	33
	2	4.2	9.6	7.7	16.0	7.6	8.9	10.3	7.0
	3	9.1	13.2	10.7	18.5	10.2	9.9	15.3	9.7
Other	1	290	315	102	161	100	43	46	23
	2	4.0	6.5	3.3	6.9	6.5	6.0	16.3	4.9
	3	6.6	8.8	6.5	8.8	9.6	5.6	1.9	10.3
Not Stated	1	285	168	169	120	69	37	14	20
	2	3.9	3.5	5.5	5.2	4.5	5.1	5.0	4.2
	3	5.8	6.1	6.9	5.9	6.0	6.2	30.0	6.1

Source: ABS
1 Number of police
2 Percentage of total number of police
3 Percentage of total state population

In brief, the typical police officer to be found on the streets of the various states and territories is male, over 173 cm tall, between 20 and 30 years of age, married, Anglo-Saxon, generally in modest physical condition, has a basic education, has been trained mostly on the job, has a religious affiliation, being nominally Catholic, Methodist, Presbyterian or Anglican.

Factual descriptive factors as presented above provide, of course, only one perspective on what constitutes police officer norms. These factors are not necessarily related to society's view of the police officer.

Public attitude to police work

Gauging public attitudes to police work is difficult, especially as quantitative data on the subject are limited. There are however, some data available which provide valuable indications.

Given the number of popular programs on Australian television devoted to police work, ie, police dramas, and an apparently high public interest in those programs however unrealistic they may be, it is tempting to conclude there is generally a favourable public attitude toward police work in Australia. However, the superficiality of such impressions is such that they cannot seriously be considered as reliable indicators of public attitudes.

Public views on the crime problem in Australia are not well documented. Thus, it is difficult to assess police performance in this regard. Table 6.10, however, suggests 'crimes of violence' are seen as constituting a serious problem in Victoria and South Australia and, to a lesser extent, in Queensland, New South Wales and Western Australia. Tasmanians, on the other hand, do not perceive violent crime as comprising a serious problem.

A 1982 survey (see Table 6.11) indicates wide public support in all mainland states except Queensland for increased police powers. These findings are particularly illuminating in the light of the federal government's drive to introduce a national crime commission at the expense of police agencies.

There are also data available which suggest the crime preventive aspect of police work is publicly considered to be the most important. A survey conducted on behalf of the South Australian Police Department in 1974 into the question of what the public regarded as the most important police function indicated prevention was viewed far more favourably than detection, see Table 6.12. Other active roles, such as enforcement of traffic regulations, ranked considerably lower.

Police standing & image

It is by no means clear that opinion surveys of public respect for police are sound measures of citizen respect for police competence to fulfil various functions. There is some evidence to suggest that such

TABLE 6.10

PROBLEM PUBLIC MOST CONCERNED ABOUT: BY STATE, 1982

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

Source: McNair Anderson

TABLE 6.11

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

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

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

Source: Spectrum Research

TABLE 6.12

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

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

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

Source: PDSA

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

surveys more accurately measure respondents' satisfaction with their most recent interaction with police employees. Polls concerning police effectiveness are subject to similar criticism. Even though we cannot be entirely sure what such polls are measuring, they are not entirely without value, as they reflect changes in public perceptions over time. In addition, informed observers of the police scene generally agree with the broad rank ordering of agencies resulting from some of the respect and competence surveys.

Survey data suggest public respect for police varies from state to state, with some states showing consistently higher or lower than others. Over the period 1967 to 1978, the percentage of people having great respect for police in their own state has, according to polls, decreased from 72 per cent to 53 per cent. The drop could be significant given the relatively short time span (see Table 6.13), although serious analysis of these changes has not been attempted. Of the mainland states, Western Australia, New South Wales and Queensland, in that order, experienced the greatest loss of public respect. Victoria suffered the least erosion of respect followed by South Australia and Tasmania in that order.

The image of police may also be reflected in public perceptions of how well police do their job. Table 6.14 provides details of surveys conducted between 1973 and 1982. A general decline in all states but WA is apparent.

With regard to honesty and ethical standards, a survey conducted in 1976 indicated police ranked highly relative to other selected occupations; although it must be noted that once again there is considerable variance between states, Queensland and New South Wales police officers apparently being perceived as being least honest in aggregate (see Table 6.15). Interestingly, the interstate variations correlate closely with those of public respect for police. In subsequent polls in 1979 and 1981, the police occupation returned to its relatively high status.

Public perceptions appear to be changing with respect to social status and prestige of police. A 1969 survey showed police as skilled but, nevertheless still a working class group. In 1980, however, police had moved upwards and were regarded as lower middle class workers, the indication being that the police occupation is rising slowly. These data need to be treated with some reservation as researchers suggest the status of police is not rising by nature of improved image (or whatever) but is merely following a broader movement in which certain lower status occupational groups are only relatively gaining ground against the reduced status of some higher prestige groups. (see Table 6.16).

TABLE 6.13

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

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

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

Source: Morgan Gallup Poll

↑ = increase

↓ = decrease

54.

TABLE 6.14

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

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

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

Source: McNair Anderson

55.

TABLE 6.15

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

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

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

Source: Morgan Gallup Poll.

TABLE 6.16

THE SOCIAL SCALE, 1981

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

TABLE 6.16

LOWER MIDDLE CLASS (Cont)	
Real Estate Agent	falling slowly
Policeman	rising slowly
Carpenter	rising slowly
Bank Teller	falling
Racing Jockey	rising spectacularly
Motor Mechanic	stable
Fitter and Turner	rising slowly
Disc Jockey	falling slowly
Printer	falling
Typist/Stenographer	falling
Undertaker	uncertain
Housewife	very uncertain

LOWER CLASS	
Bookie	uncertain
Butcher	stable
Bricklayer	rising slowly
Bus Driver	rising slowly
Taxi Driver	falling
Truck Driver	stable
Junior Clerk	falling rapidly
Storeman	stable
Barman	rising slowly
Debt Collector	uncertain
Shop Assistant	falling
Barmaid	rising slowly
Farm Laborer	falling
Petrol Station Attendant	falling
Office Cleaner	stable
Factory Worker	falling
Wharfie	stable
Massage Parlor Operative	uncertain
Unskilled Laborer	stable
Street Sweeper	rising slowly
Prostitute	uncertain

Source: Ann Daniels

SECTION 7: DISCIPLINE & ACCOUNTABILITY

Each police force is established by statute (see Table 7.1) and is subject to statutory controls of various kinds, including provisions covering employees' responsibilities.

TABLE 7.1

POLICE REGULATING STATUTES: BY AGENCY

agency	statute (as amended to date)
New South Wales Police	Police Regulation Act 1899
Victoria Police	Police Regulation Act 1958
Queensland Police	Police Act 1937
South Australia Police	Police Regulation Act 1952
Western Australia Police	Police Act 1892
Tasmania Police	Police Regulation Act 1898
Northern Territory Police	Police Administration Act 1979

Complaints

When police officers offend against public laws they are (subject to necessary evidence being available) generally proceeded against in open court by means of the criminal law. Purely departmental offenses, though, are dealt with under procedures either contained in statutes or regulations deriving therefrom. Interestingly, the statutory basis of police disciplinary rules permits the argument that as acts of indiscipline are breaches of the law, such matters may be disposed of in magistrates' courts. Instances of police disciplinary cases being so dealt with have occurred in both Tasmania and South Australia, although the adoption of such a course is not usual. Formal provision for such a course of action is made in the Regulations to the Police Act 1892 in Western Australia.

The fundamental distinction that once existed between departments which either follow essentially traditional disciplinary procedures and those which utilise disciplinary tribunals has now largely disappeared, although vestiges of the old 'orderly room' type procedures still remain in some forces. Increasingly, though, more complex procedures are being introduced, and in some cases, outsiders. For example, in South Australia, a Crown Law officer chairs the Police Inquiry Committee.

The most complex and carefully designed complaint and disciplinary system is that provided for police employees in New South Wales and is worth detailed examination.

Late in 1978, the New South Wales parliament passed the Police Regulation (Allegations Of Misconduct) Act. The statute's primary objects are to: (1) provide for the investigation of complaints of misconduct made against members of the police force, and (2) constitute a police disciplinary tribunal. Under this legislation, all public complaints

Ombudsman. Once logged, allegations are forwarded by the Ombudsman to the Commissioner as complaints. The Commissioner then directs investigation of serious complaints by the Internal Affairs Branch. In cases where: (1) a senior officer is complained of, (2) a member of the Internal Affairs Branch is complained of, or (3) the complaint is minor, the Commissioner may appoint another member of the police force to conduct the investigation. Minor complaints comprise approximately 75 per cent of the total. Once an investigation is completed the Commissioner of Police is required to send the resulting report to the Ombudsman. The Commissioner lays any charges he considers necessary on his own initiative. The Ombudsman considers the police report and the Commissioner's subsequent actions, eg, laying of charges. If satisfied, the Ombudsman informs the complainant and the complaint is terminated. If not satisfied, the Ombudsman may recommend to the Commissioner that he take specified action. In the event of the Commissioner declining to accept the Ombudsman's recommendation, the Ombudsman's only option is to make a special report to parliament.

When departmental charges stemming from a citizen complaint are laid against a member, the member concerned is required to state whether he or she admits to them. When admitted, the matter is referred direct to the Commissioner for penalty. When charges are not admitted, they are heard by the Police Tribunal. Appeals from the tribunal's decisions lie to the review division of the Police Tribunal.

There is provision at the outset for informal settlement of complaints, a strategy that has increased considerably since 1982. Where resolution is not possible, though, the full system is activated. A graphic outline of the system is shown at Figure 7.1.

With respect to internally generated disciplinary charges, those which are denied are dealt with by the Police Tribunal in the same way as for charges arising from citizen complaints. When a charge is admitted, the matter is directed to the Commissioner of Police who then determines penalty.

The Ombudsman has no power to investigate complaints on his own or even to initiate complaints and he is generally dependent upon the police Internal Affairs Branch (or other assigned police officers) for the conduct of investigations. A struggle is currently being waged between the Ombudsman and police authorities as to whether the Ombudsman's representative may accompany police investigators as it is felt by the Ombudsman that it is not always possible to judge from police reports whether an investigation has been satisfactorily performed. One interesting provision of the Act (s.45) permits the Police Tribunal to inquire into and report to the Minister upon any matter relating to the discipline of the force. The tribunal, constituted by the President sitting alone, has the powers of a royal commission and may be conducted publicly. This provision has been utilised only once, in respect of allegations concerning a former Deputy Commissioner of the force.

It is too soon as yet to evaluate the present New South Wales police complaint and discipline system. Several more years will need to elapse before a comprehensive 'before and after' evaluation can be attempted. Police discipline charges have risen since the introduction of the new system in 1979 but no trend is evident on the data available.

FIGURE 7.1

NEW SOUTH WALES POLICE COMPLAINTS & DISCIPLINE SYSTEM, 1982
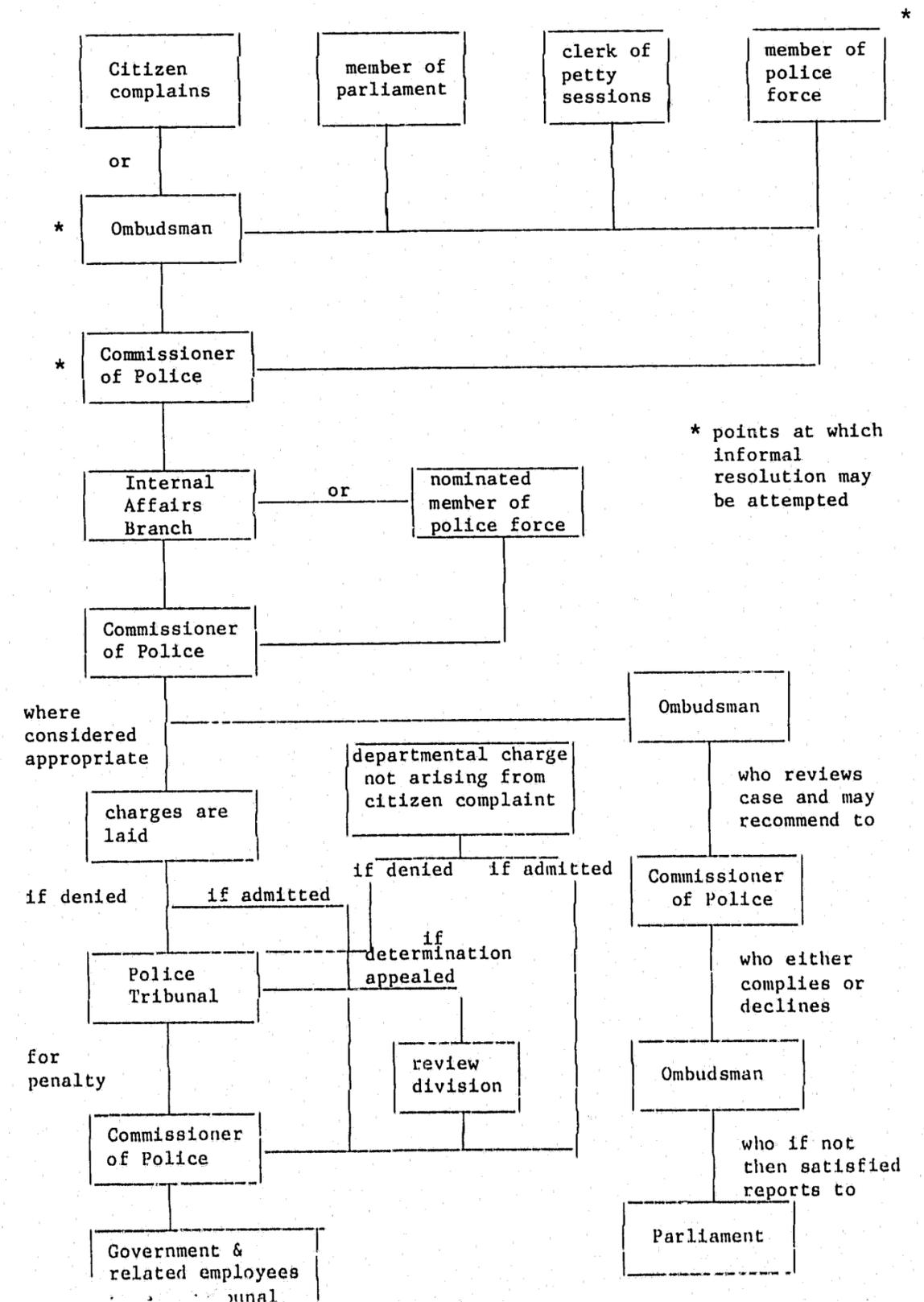
Allegations against police have also increased since 1979, see Table 7.2. The explanation of rising public complaints against police may reflect the decreasing public satisfaction with police. (see Tables 6.13 & 6.14), possible increasing satisfaction with the Ombudsman, or, even a combination of the two. A longer period of time will need to elapse before firm explanations can be advanced. It is felt by some that the scheme has had the disadvantage of creating a depressing effect on members' morale. This may, if true, be a transient phenomenon. Discipline data for recent years are shown at Table 7.3

TABLE 7.2

CITIZEN ALLEGATIONS AGAINST NSW POLICE OFFICERS: 1979-1982

year	total complaints+	allegations		
		not sustained	no determination	sustained
1979	224#	30	0	6
1980	741	497	0	96
1981	830	456	0	60
1982	1121	229	340*	69

+ rows do not tally as there are other outcomes, such as 'no jurisdiction'.
# period Feb-30Jun only.
* this form of determination is a matter of legal dispute at the time of writing.
Source: Ombudsman's annual reports.

TABLE 7.3

NSW POLICE OFFICERS CHARGED: INTERNAL PROCESSES BY EXTERNAL PROCESSES, 1974-1981

year	members charged internally	members charged in criminal court
1974	45	10
1975	35	9
1976	40	21
1977	41	17
1978	28	22
1979	60	27
1980	23	21
1981	30	26

Source: Police department annual reports

It would be tedious to describe in detail the complaint and discipline procedures employed by all other police agencies. Thus, brief details only are provided here for the record. The police department of Victoria has the next most sophisticated system to that of New South Wales. Regulations concerning procedures are contained in the Regulations to the Police Regulation Act 1958. All members of the force are required to accept public complaints. All complaints received must be forwarded to appropriate district commanders. Complaints of a minor nature are assigned to junior commissioned officers to investigate. Serious complaints are referred to the Deputy Commissioner (Administration) for action by the internal investigation bureau. All inquiry reports are inspected by a Deputy Commissioner who, if the complaint is grounded, has three main courses open to him: (1) to direct that the offending member be charged by his district commander, (2) to lay a charge of breach of discipline against the member concerned, or (3) to institute proceedings against the member in a court of law. All final dispositions of complaints are filed at police headquarters where they are annually reviewed by a retired magistrate.

In Queensland, complaints enter the system at one of two points, ie, at local level or through the complaints tribunal. The most common method is for complaints to be received at a local station. All complaints are required to be entered in a complaints register. Such complaints are then passed on to the Deputy Commissioner, through the Regional Superintendent, who exercises an overall responsibility in respect of public complaints. Complaints so received are then either directed to a nominated officer for investigation or forwarded to the Detective Superintendent of the Internal Investigation Section (IIS) for action. Completed investigation reports are then sent to the Officer in Charge of the IIS for scrutiny. When he is satisfied as to the efficacy of an investigation, the Detective Superintendent refers the matter to the Commissioner of Police for decision as to what further action should be taken. Serious cases, especially where breaches of the public law are involved, are normally sent to Crown Law authorities for an opinion. Disciplinary charges are heard by an officer appointed by the Minister. That officer, normally of Superintendent rank, then holds a departmental hearing. Having heard all the evidence, the hearing officer then forwards the matter to the Commissioner of Police for decisions concerning guilt and penalty. Appeals lie to the Police Appeal Board, which comprises a District Court judge, a representative of the Commissioner of Police and a representative of the Police Union.

The Police Complaints Tribunal (created under the Police Tribunal Act 1982) possesses wide powers, including the authority to independently investigate complaints and, to exercise a general coordinating and controlling role with respect to complaints against police employees in Queensland. So far, the Tribunal, which is lacking in resources, has confined itself to screening public complaints. Founded complaints are, in practice, forwarded to the police department for investigation by IIS personnel.

In South Australia, all members of the police department must accept complaints against police officers. Once recorded on special forms, unless promptly resolved to the complainant's satisfaction, they are forwarded through channels to the Deputy Commissioner of Police.

Investigating officers are assigned to inquire into all complaints
received by the Deputy Commissioner. Founded complaints are referred to
the secretary of the Police Inquiry Committee for charge framing. Charges
are then formally served upon offending members. If pleas of guilty
are returned, the matters go directly to the Commissioner for penalty.
Denials result in matters being adjudicated upon by Police Inquiry
Committees. Findings of guilt are sent on to the Commissioner for
penalty. Appeals may be laid to the Police Appeal Board, comprising a
district court judge, a Commissioner's representative and a member's
representative (who is almost invariably a union representative).

In Western Australia public complaints against police are
investigated by a commissioned officer. Founded complaints may result in
a disciplinary charge being laid against the member in question. Charges
are heard by the Deputy Commissioner, although it is the Commissioner who
determines penalty. The Police Appeal Board comprises a stipendiary
magistrate, a Commissioner's representative and a union representative.

Public complaints against police in Tasmania are normally
investigated by a nominated Superintendent. More serious complaints are
inquired into by an Inspector who is attached to the Commissioner's office
for periods not in excess of two years. Unfounded complaint files are
sent to the Crown Advocate's office for perusal and advice. Founded
complaints may result in disciplinary charges being laid. Proceedings may
be heard either by a magistrate or the Commissioner of Police. Appeals
against findings of the Commissioner are heard by the Police Disciplinary
Appeal Board. The board consists of a magistrate, a government
representative and a police union representative.

Under force standing orders, all police officers in the Northern
Territory are obliged to receive public complaints concerning police
behaviour. Complaints so received must be forwarded to appropriate
divisional Inspectors. Founded complaints may result in charges being
laid either by divisional Inspectors or the Commissioner. When it appears
to the Commissioner that one of his members has committed a disciplinary
offence, the Commissioner may cause to be served personally on that member
a written notice stating particulars of the offence. Members so served
have 14 days in which to give the Commissioner a written account of their
side of the matter. Charged members are entitled to appear before the
Commissioner to have their case heard. The Commissioner has the authority
to both hear such cases and determine penalties. Charged members are not
entitled to be represented at disciplinary hearings. Powers of punishment
include reprimand, fine, demotion, suspension or dismissal. Appeals to
the Police Appeal Board may be based on reasons of both finding and
excessive penalty.

It is apparent some forces still rely on procedures better geared
to the disposal of internally generated complaints, ie, members being
charged by supervisors. However, subsequent to a wave of public concern
in the mid-1970s respecting the ability of police to effectively deal with
externally generated complaints, departmental willingness to address
themselves to such problems has improved considerably.

Accountability

Just as the other ranks are held accountable under the various
statutory provisions stemming from their respective Acts so, too, are
chief officers. The various police regulation statutes make varying
provisions concerning the appointment, dismissal and authority of police
commissioners. These various provisions are detailed at Table 7.4

Despite the provisions of the various statute sections relating to
the power to dismiss a Police Commissioner, it would seem that there are
other and overriding powers of dismissal available to governments. It is
not possible to generalise on the point due to the fact that there are
substantial differences of legal powers among states and territories. No
detailed survey of the pertinent provisions has been undertaken to date.
But, the 1978 South Australian royal commission report into the dismissal
of Commissioner H.H. Salisbury held that there existed a general power of
dismissal in respect of all public officials by virtue of letters patent
relating to the office of Governor of South Australia. A 1981 NSW report,
which inter alia considered powers of dismissal of the Commissioner of
Police and questions of that officer's accountability, claims that the
Commissioner of Police in that state can be dismissed at pleasure
regardless of S.4(4)(a) & (b) Police Regulation Act 1899 (which contains
safeguards) – although the evidence is less clear when evidence of
unsuitability is to hand. The power of a Governor to dismiss at pleasure
is also said to stem from letters patent.

TABLE 7.4

MAJOR STATUTORY CONTROLS ON POLICE COMMISSIONERS

agency	nominated, appointing authority	nominated dismissing authority	superordinate authority/ function of (chief) commissioner	tenure/dismissal provisions
NSW	governor s.4(1)	governor s.4(4)(a) & (b)	subject to the direction of the minister, is charged with the superintendence of the police force of NSW s.4(1)	tenure: the commissioner shall retire from office on the day he attains 65 years s.4(3) dismissal: the commissioner may be suspended or removed from office for misbehavior or incompetence but, only in accordance with the following provisions: (1) the minister shall cause to be laid by parliament a full statement of the grounds of suspension within seven sitting days after such suspension if parliament is in session and, if not, then within seven sitting days after the commencement of the next session, and (2) the commissioner suspended under these powers shall be restored to office unless each house of parliament within 21 days from the time when such statement has been laid before it, declares by resolution that the commissioner ought to be removed from office s.4(4)(a) & (b)
V	governor in council s.4(1)	governor in council s.4(1)	subject to the direction of the governor in council has the superintendence and control of the force s.5	tenure: the appointment of the chief commissioner shall be for such term not exceeding five years as the governor in council thinks fit s.4(1A). Retirement is compulsory at 65 years s.16A(b) tenure & dismissal: the governor in council may from time to time suspend, reduce, discharge or dismiss any such chief commissioner s.4(1)
Q	governor in council s.6(1)	nil	subject to the direction of the minister is charged with the superintendence of the police force of Queensland s.6(1)	tenure: the commissioner shall continue in office during such period as he is of good behavior and until the age of 65 years s.6(2)
SA	governor s.6	nil	subject to the Act and the directions of the governor, the commissioner shall have the control and management of the police force s.21(1)	tenure: the commissioner shall retire on the thirtieth day of June next after he attains the age of 65 years s.7(1)
WA	governor s.5	governor s.5	charged and vested with the general control and management of the police force s.5	dismissal: the governor as occasion requires may remove any commissioner of police and appoint another in his stead s.5
T	governor s.8	governor s.11	under the direction of the minister and subject to the provisions of the Act, have control and superintendence of the police force s.8	tenure: the commissioner shall retire from office on attaining the age of 65 years s.9A dismissal: the governor may at any time suspend, reduce, discharge, or dismiss any commissioner s.11
NT	administrator s.7	nil	subject of the Act, the commissioner is charged and invested with the general control and management of the police force and of special constables s.14(1)	tenure: a commissioner who attains the age of 60 years shall cease to hold office as a member of the police force s.10(2)

Source: relevant statutes as shown at Table 7.1

Typical work routine

All police forces operate on a 24 hour day basis the year through. Police officers are required to commence and complete duty at various times so as to provide public cover in the most effective manner possible. Various police industrial awards define some starting times for periods of duty and elsewhere shift times are determined by administrative fiat. The most commonly worked shifts are 8am-4pm, 4pm-12mn-12mn-8am.

Officers are usually restricted from commencing their routine eight hours of duty after 12 midnight and before 5 am. Apart from this restriction, police officers generally may be called upon to commence duty at almost any time. Duty rosters are drawn up and promulgated, usually at least a week in advance. Police officers are generally required to work an eight-hour day, five-day week. There is provision for a half hour meal break sometimes in employees' time. Table 8.1 outlines the conditions under which employees take their meal periods.

There is, of course, a marked difference between the hours worked by operational personnel whose 24-hour responsibility has already been mentioned and the hours worked by administrative personnel. Administrative staff usually work office hours (9am to 5pm) or dayshift (8am to 4pm).

Recreation leave and public holidays

Annual leave entitlements for police officers vary slightly between the various police forces. The variety is due to a number of factors, including differing climatic factors. Conditions applying to recreation leave are shown at Table 8.2. Officers working shifts are in some cases entitled to additional annual leave.

TABLE 8.1

MEAL BREAK CONDITIONS: BY AGENCY, 1982

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

CONTINUED

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TABLE 8.2

RECREATION LEAVE CONDITIONS : BY AGENCY, 1982

agency	provisions
NSW	42 days, 49 days in far west zone and up to 5 days for shift workers
V	49 days all police
Q	42-45 days all police
SA	42 days all police
WA	42 days, 49 in north west
T	42 days all police
NT	49 days all police

NB: Recreation leave is granted exclusive of public holidays
Source: Police Federation

Police officers taking recreation leave are entitled to a loading on their holiday pay. That is, when an officer goes on leave his or her holiday pay is increased by a prescribed loading which is notified in the various Police Awards. The loadings applicable to each police force are shown at Table 8.3.

TABLE 8.3

LEAVE LOADING CONDITIONS: BY AGENCY, 1982

agency	provisions
NSW	17.5% on 4 weeks to a maximum of $363.50, plus extra days for shift workers
V	17.5% on 4 weeks
Q	17.5% on 4 weeks, plus 20% for shift workers
SA	17.5% on 4 weeks, plus 20% for shift workers plus penalties
WA	18.75% on 5 weeks to a maximum of average wage
T	17.5% on 4 weeks, plus 17.5% on 5 weeks for shift workers
NT	17.5%

Source: Police Federation

Professional etiquette

All non-commissioned police officers are required to salute commissioned officers. At least that is the rule but, in some forces the practice has largely lapsed. There is no requirement for non-commissioned ranks to salute each other, as in some European and American police agencies.

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

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

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

Some police forces have a departmental flag.

Description of uniforms

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

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

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

Equipment & weapons

All police carry batons, handcuffs and notebooks when on duty. The handcuffs and baton in some instances are openly displayed. The wearing of firearms is discussed in Section 5.

Occupational hazards

Many police officers in both state and territory Forces, like police throughout the world, experience substantial job related stress. A number of police employee associations have gone before their respective Industrial Tribunals arguing for wage increases by way of compensation for the high levels of occupational disadvantage encountered by members.

Police employees are generally able to travel to and from work in uniform without fear of recrimination from neighbours or members of the public. Even so, each employee association encounters each year several cases of its members being badly treated by neighbours. The number of such cases is not, however, large.

Police officers in Australia are occasionally assaulted in the execution of their duty. Unfortunately, detailed figures are not available in respect of minor assaults in all states but available evidence combined with the impressions of operational officers suggests the incidence of low level violence to police officers is increasing. To give some idea of the frequency of minor assaults on police, in South Australia in 1970 there were 176 recorded incidents of assaults on police and 628 in 1980; in Tasmania in 1974, there were 87 recorded assaults on police and in 1980, 161. In some states, drunkenness has been decriminalised in recent years and as many police assailants are affected by liquor it is thought this particular contribution to assaults on police will reduce, thereby slowing the overall increase.

The number of police seriously wounded between 1970 and 1982 by offenders intending to inflict such injuries is shown at Table 8.4. These figures are fairly low by world standards and there are, fortunately, few signs of significant increase over time.

The number of police officers deliberately killed in the execution of their duties over the period 1970-1982 is shown at Table 8.5. Once again, the figures are somewhat low in comparison to police forces in other parts of the world.

Occasionally, police are obliged to use their firearms in either self defence or in attempting to arrest fleeing felons. As a result, persons are sometimes seriously injured or killed by police officers in the execution of their duty. The frequency of serious gunshot woundings of non-police persons by police officers during the period 1970-1982 is shown at Table 8.6. The number of persons killed by police by means of firearms over the same period are shown at Table 8.7. Regrettably, there is some indication of an increase in frequency in both categories in respect of certain agencies, although it is observed that - as with shootings of police - these figures are low compared with many other countries.

TABLE 8.4

OFFICERS SERIOUSLY WOUNDED WITH INTENT IN THE COURSE
OF DUTY: BY AGENCY, 1970-1982

agency	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
NSW	0	0	1†	0	0	0	1	1	2	1	5	0	0
V	0	0	0	0	1†	1+1†	0	0	0	1	2	2	3
Q	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SA	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0
WA	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	1
T	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NT	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0

† by means other than shooting

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology
NB: These data are not confirmed by the various police agencies and total accuracy of data is not guaranteed.

TABLE 8.5

OFFICERS KILLED WITH INTENT IN THE COURSE
OF DUTY: BY AGENCY,† 1970-1982

agency	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
NSW	1	3	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	2
V	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Q	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
SA	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
WA	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
TAS	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NT	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

† exclusive of suicides

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology
NB: These data are not confirmed by the various police agencies and total accuracy of data is not guaranteed

TABLE 8.6

CITIZENS WOUNDED BY POLICE OFFICERS PER FIREARMS:
BY AGENCY, 1970-1982

agency	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
NSW	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	4
V	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Q	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
SA	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
WA	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
T	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NT	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology

NB: These data are not confirmed by the respective police agencies and total accuracy of data is not guaranteed.

TABLE 8.7

CITIZENS KILLED BY POLICE OFFICERS PER FIREARMS:
BY AGENCY, 1970-1982

agency	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
NSW	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1
V	1	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	2	1+1†
Q	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
SA	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
WA	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
TAS	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NT	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0

† event occurred in South Australia

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology

NB: These data are not confirmed by the respective police agencies and total accuracy of data is not guaranteed

Moonlighting

The policies of the various police agencies on employees working outside their official duties are shown at Table 8.8. As indicated by the table there is a wide official resistance to extra duty employment by officers. In no instance are police officers formally permitted to find employment in any occupation or task of their choosing. Where police officers are able to work at a second job outside their police work they are required to obtain the permission of the Commissioner of Police or Chief Secretary. Such a constraint permits police departments to at least monitor the activities of officers and prohibit them from working in certain occupations. An unsuitable occupation would be the employment of a police officer in an hotel or betting shop. Although an undemocratic attitude is apparent in these limitations, it does not seem unreasonable for the department to insist that members utilise their off duty time to relax and so return to duty refreshed. This point is especially valid in view of extensive employee claims concerning the physical and psychological stresses of police work. Police employee associations are generally supportive of management in this respect, as they can be subjected to complaints from other unions protesting about work being denied their members' due to moonlighting police. Official policies are widely flouted in this area, many police officers moonlighting as photographers, labourers, security guards, etc. Instances of vacationing police officers being employed as masters-at-arms on cruise ships is one such area of employment that has received adverse publicity in recent times. In that case, the Commissioner of Police declined to censure such employment.

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

Resignations

Resignations from the various forces for the period 1970 to 1979 are shown at Table 8.9. Breakdown of reasons for resignations is not possible, unfortunately, as not all departments conduct separation interviews. It is thought on partial evidence that the majority of resignations are due to officers finding more suitable jobs. Some resignations are made under threat of departmental investigation and a small percentage are the product of domestic pressures.

Dismissals & discharges

Dismissal of police employees falls under two major headings: (1) dismissal whilst a probationary member, and (2) dismissal of a confirmed

TABLE 8.8

MOONLIGHTING PROVISIONS: BY AGENCY, 1982

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

Source: Police Federation

TABLE 8.9

RESIGNATIONS: BY AGENCY, 1970-1981

agency	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981
NSW	255	143	162	198	162	100	115	133	148	156	171	237
V	168	109	122	140	168	168	142	189	157	153	138	NA
Q	85	129	77	101	147	124	141	119	80	85	77	67
SA	116	103	100	81	53	36	57	49	42	38	78	NA
WA	105	80	46	43	65	39	55	59	60	69	73	50
T	51	46	25	49	44	28	37	46	52	30	41	21
NT	21	21	29	18	41	26	42	35	44	35	46	54

Source: Police department annual reports.

officer. Cadets, trainees and probationary Constables may be dismissed at pleasure in all forces. The policy of each state police force with respect to its probation period is shown at Table 8.10.

TABLE 8.10

PROBATION PERIOD: BY AGENCY, 1982

agency	probation period
NSW	12 months
V	24 months
Q	6 months probationary training, placed on probation for one year after being sworn in
SA	12 months
WA	Nil
T	12 months
NT	12 months

Source: Police Federation

TABLE 8.11

DISMISSALS & DISCHARGES: BY AGENCY 1970-1981†

agency	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981
NSW	41	52	74	27	13	10	17	20	22	19	14	4
V	5	8	4	9	4	2	5	1	5	14	13	NA
Q	1	3	1	7	7	14	4	4	7	7	1	1
SA	6	5	3	1	1	1	2	0	0	0	1	NA
WA	6	3	4	5	3	3	2	0	1	1	2	4
T	4	4	2	1	1	0	0	1	2	2	0	3
NT	2	NA	NA	1	0	2	4	2	2	2	0	0

Source: Police department annual reports
† Caution: different criteria are employed by departments in arriving at these figures. Thus, they should not be compared. As it is a common practice in some forces to let members resign in certain circumstances,

During their probation period officers are evaluated on their field performance. Increasingly, police agencies are utilising probation as an important personnel management tool.

Confirmed police officers cannot in the normal course of events be dismissed without cause. When confirmed officers are charged in open court with criminal offences and found guilty, they may be dismissed by their respective Commissioner of Police. Whether they are in fact dismissed following such a conviction depends on the nature and seriousness of the offences involved. In cases involving dishonesty, however, dismissal is automatic. Officers may be charged and convicted for offences constituting misconduct under the various police administrative Acts. Once again, depending on the nature and seriousness of the offence officers may be demoted, cautioned or dismissed, the decision resting with the Commissioner in most cases.

The numbers of dismissals and discharges of police officers from the various police forces for the period 1970 to 1981 are shown at Table 8.11. This table incorporates both probationary and confirmed members, including those retiring or resigning in the course of a formal sanction (where known).

Police officers' entitlements to superannuation upon dismissal are shown at Table 8.12.

Retirement age & pension funds

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

The contribution rates of members, age of retirement and pension on retirement are shown at Table 8.13.

The various superannuation systems vary greatly in their structure and it is difficult to generalise concerning them. As a general rule, though, the higher an officer's salary at retirement, the higher will be his or her pension. Some provisions are made for late entrants, as shown at Table 8.14.

Most of the employees' unions, with varying degrees of cooperation from the various state governments, have attempted to achieve optional or early retirement for members. Not all such efforts have been successful. Table 8.15 outlines the conditions of optional and early retirement for police employees as well as their entitlements.

Retirement to pension frequencies for the various police forces over the period 1970 to 1979 are shown at Table 8.16. Premature retirements of police officers for the same period are shown at Table 8.17. A marked increase of such retirements over the decade is evident in respect of Victoria police officers. Data for South Australia and Western Australia

show a slower rate of increase. The remaining police agencies show no significant increase in the number of boardings even in terms of frequencies let alone rates.

Even with the death of an officer after he or she has retired, the various superannuation schemes make provision for remaining family members. These benefits are shown at Table 8.18. Conditions applying to children placed in such circumstances are outlined at Table 8.19.

The conditions of remuneration applicable to police officers boarded out of the service are shown at Table 8.20. It will be noticed that only the police department of New South Wales distinguishes between boardings deriving from injuries sustained either on or off duty.

Adjustments to the various pension schemes are made periodically to offset inflation. The criteria concerning such adjustments are given at Table 8.21.

TABLE 8.12

OFFICERS' SUPERANNUATION CONDITIONS ON DISMISSAL: BY AGENCY, 1981

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

Source: Police Federation

TABLE 8.13

OFFICERS' SUPERANNUATION CONDITIONS: BY AGENCY, 1981

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

Source: Police Federation

78.

TABLE 8.14

EFFECTS OF LATE ENTRY ON SUPERANNUATION: BY AGENCY, 1981

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

Source: Police Federation

TABLE 8.15

OPTIONAL & EARLY RETIREMENT CONDITIONS: BY AGENCY, 1981

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

Source: Police Federation

TABLE 8.16

OFFICERS' RETIREMENTS TO PENSION: BY AGENCY, 1970-1981

agency	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981
NSW	65	50	69	109	66	52	71	75	55	57	61	87
V	47	38	51	43	54	45	57	38	42	42	32	NA
Q	26	18	23	31	33	47	44	48	43	31	114	99
SA	4	3	5	1	8	7	16	20	30	35	15	NA
WA	12	6	10	7	12	15	17	15	10	20	14	15
T	4	3	5	1	8	4	2	3	7	10	5	8
NT	4	6	4	0	1	1	8	4	11	4	3	2

Source: Police department annual reports

TABLE 8.17

OFFICERS' PREMATURE RETIREMENTS ON HEALTH GROUNDS: BY AGENCY, 1970-1981

agency	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981
NSW	NA	NA	NA	NA	51	50	31	33	47	42	66	129
V	37	37	41	60	69	75	100	85	86	107	118	NA
Q	9	23	27	16	26	31	29	28	13	7	10	3
SA	1	2	0	4	4	1	3	15	12	22	17	NA
WA	0	1	1	0	0	1	4	1	8	8	9	2
T	1	2	0	4	4	2	0	3	1	2	4	2

Source: Police department annual reports

TABLE 8.18

SPOUSES' ENTITLEMENTS ON DEATH OF RETIRED OFFICERS: BY AGENCY, 1981

agency	provisions
NSW	Spouse receives 50% of contributor's pension
V	Spouse receives 66-2/3rds of contributor's pension
Q	Spouse receives 5/8ths of contributor's pension
SA	Spouse receives lump sum of 2/3rds of contributor's original lump sum and pension of 2/3rds of the deceased's pension
WA	Spouse receives 22/35ths of contributor's pension
T	Spouse receives 2/3rds of contributor's pension
NT	Spouse receives 67% of contributor's pension

Source: Police Federation

TABLE 8.19

CONDITIONS APPLYING TO CHILDREN OF DECEASED PENSIONERS: CESSATION BY PENSION (1 parent)
BY PENSION (no parents) BY AGENCY, 1981

agency	cessation of child's pension	child's pension – 1 parent	child's pension – no parents
NSW	18 years or, on cessation of being a student	Allowance of $572 pa	Determined by Superannuation Board
V	18 years, fulltime students 18-25 years	10% of pension per child (maximum 3 children), over 3 children 30% maximum	No. of children % of Pension 1 child 45% 2 children 80% 3 children 90% 4 or more 100%
Q	16 years, fulltime students 16-23 years	Allowance of $19.60 per fortnight per child	Allowance of $39.19 per fortnight per child
SA	16 years, fulltime students 16-25 years	14.8% of deceased's pension	60% of deceased's pension
WA	16 years, fulltime students 16-25 years	$16 per fortnight for each child up to the age of 16 years or, 25 years if fulltime student	1-4 children widow's pension divided by 4, more than 4 children widow's pension divided by number of children + $8, provided that each child's pension shall not be less than $20
T	Superannuates – 16 years, fulltime students 16-21 years	Superannuates – widow's pension and child's pension, Retirement Benefit – widow's pension and child's pension	Superannuates – $600 per annum per child, Retirement Benefit – $600 or 20% of widow's pension, whichever is greater
NT	When child is no longer dependant – age has no bearing	Additional 11% of deceased pension for each child leading to maximum of 3 children. If living parent is pensioner, then no difference to pension for having children	No. of Children % of Pension 1 orphan 45% 2 orphans 80% 3 orphans 90% 4 or more 100%

Source: Police Federation

TABLE 8.20

PENSIONER CONDITIONS: BY AGENCY, 1981

agency	provisions
NSW	Normal pension 72.75% of current pay up to 85% of pay if ability to obtain other work impaired. Up to 100% if injury arose from extreme risk and work ability impaired if, discharge not IOD. Up to 20 years service, 24 months pay - 20 years and over, pension to scale (20 years - 48.5%, 30 yrs - 78.5%)
V	70% of salary at discharge
Q	As per table 9.11
SA	Pension same as age 60 years
WA	Approximately 60% of salary, no provision for commutation any portion of pension
T	Superannuation - full pension Retirement benefit - full pension
NT	70% of salary or 45% plus cash conversion or cash in lieu

Source: Police Federation

TABLE 8.21

PENSION ADJUSTMENTS: BY AGENCY, 1981

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

† CPI - consumer price index

Source: Police Federation

SECTION 9: RANKS & SALARY

Principal police ranks & titles

Rank titles employed by the various police bodies in Australia are outlined in Table 9.1. Each state and territory Police Commissioner, subject to ministerial approval, has discretion to establish the rank structure he feels most appropriate for his department. Hence, there are some differences between states as to nomenclature as well as the number of ranks considered necessary. There is, however, a clear distinction made between commissioned and non commissioned ranks in all agencies. Commissioned officers of state police forces are appointed by the executive council of their respective governments. Non commissioned officers and constable ranks are appointed and promoted by the Commissioner of Police. Powers to promote and demote non commissioned police officers generally rest with Police Commissioners but such powers are very much constrained by legal and procedural requirements.

Seniority & promotion procedures

Generally, police officers are promoted to each successive rank after obtaining necessary promotional qualifications, ie, passing departmental qualifying examination and satisfying any 'in rank' provisions. Promotion criteria of the various police forces are outlined at Table 9.2. However, there are exceptions to the rule. In Queensland, for example, a Senior Constable, once he or she has achieved 15 years continuous service in the force, is automatically upgraded to the rank of Sergeant 3/C. Thus, officers promoted in such a manner are not strictly regarded as supervisors. There are no promotional examinations for the various grades of commissioned rank. These officers, once they have obtained commissioned rank are upgraded to the various levels, eg, Inspector to Superintendent, at the discretion of the Commissioner of Police and the minister or executive council. Each officer is evaluated by the Commissioner as to his suitability to receive higher rank and responsibility. In New South Wales, all executive officers are required by statute to be specially screened prior to their elevation.

Salary

Police salaries vary frequently. A comprehensive statement of the situation as at 1981 is given at Table 9.3. Incremental payments are also outlined, such payments being determined by the length of service on a particular rank.

Police officers, apart from the minimum pay entitlements, are entitled to additional benefits such as overtime, penalty rates, etc. These entitlements are shown in comparative form at Table 9.4. It should be realised that the data shown will have been superseded by the time they are published.

TABLE 9.1

RANK TITLES : BY AGENCY, 1982

NEW SOUTH WALES POLICE	VICTORIA POLICE	QUEENSLAND POLICE	SOUTH AUSTRALIA POLICE	WESTERN AUSTRALIA POLICE	TASMANIA POLICE	NORTHERN TERRITORY POLICE
Commissioner	Chief Commissioner	Commissioner	Commissioner	Commissioner	Commissioner	Commissioner
Deputy Commissioner	Deputy Commissioner	Deputy Commissioner	Deputy Commissioner		Deputy Commissioner	Deputy Commissioner
				Senior Assistant Commissioner		
Assistant Commissioner	Assistant Commissioner	Assistant Commissioner	Assistant Commissioner	Assistant Commissioner	Assistant Commissioner	Assistant Commissioner
Executive Chief Superintendent	Commander		Senior Chief Superintendent			
Chief Superintendent	Chief Superintendent	Superintendent 1/G	Chief Superintendent	Chief Superintendent	Chief Superintendent	
		Superintendent 2/G				
Superintendent	Superintendent	Superintendent 3/G	Superintendent	Superintendent	Superintendent	Superintendent
Senior Inspector	Chief Inspector	Inspector 1/G	Chief Inspector	Senior Inspector		Chief Inspector
		Inspector 2/G				
Inspector	Inspector	Inspector 3/G	Inspector	Inspector	Inspector	Inspector
Sergeant 1/C	Senior Sergeant	Senior Sergeant	Senior Sergeant	Sergeant 1/G	Sergeant 1/C	Sergeant 1/C
Sergeant 2/C		Sergeant 1/G		Sergeant 2/G	Sergeant 2/C	Sergeant 2/C
Sergeant 3/C	Sergeant	Sergeant 2/G	Sergeant	Sergeant 3/G	Sergeant 3/C	Sergeant 3/C
		Sergeant 3/G				
Senior Constable	Senior Constable	Senior Constable	Senior Constable 1/G	Senior Constable	Senior Constable	Senior Constable
			Senior Constable			
Constable 1/C		Constable 1/C	First Class Constable	Constable 1/C	First Class Constable 1/C	Constable 1/C
					First Class Constable 2/C	
Constable	Constable	Constable	Constable	Constable	Constable	Constable

Sources: Police department annual reports and departmental spokespersons.

TABLE 9.2

PROMOTION CRITERIA: BY AGENCY, 1982

agency	criteria
NSW	Qualifications and merit, seniority and suitability
V	Qualification; if equal, seniority
Q	Qualifications and seniority and use of merit system and seniority for promotion to commissioned rank
SA	Qualifications, suitability, seniority
WA	Qualification by exam, seniority, suitability
T	Qualification, then selection
NT	Exam, merit, selection

Source: Police Federation

TABLE 9.3

SALARIES: RANK, BY AGENCY, 1981†

Rank	NSW	V	Q	SA	WA Metro	WA Country	T	NT
(all salaries quoted in Australian dollars)								
Commissioner				49,628				
Deputy Commissioner				41,741			37,153	
Asst Commissioner				36,350			34,452	
Snr Asst Comm								
Commander		35,592						
Snr Chief Supt				34,175				
Chief Superintendent	41,094	32,490		32,423	36,438		32,536	
Snr Superintendent	36,576							
Superintendent		30,361		30,588	32,902	33,187	29,657	30,450
Supt 1/C			34,806					
2/C			33,234					
3/C			32,123					
3rd Year	34,877							
1st Year	34,039							
Chief Inspector		27,525		29,454				27,244
Senior Inspector	29,357				30,550	30,834	25,887	
Inspector		26,785			29,013	29,298		
Inspector 1/C			30,899					
2/C			29,677					
3/C			28,183					
5th Year				28,496				
4th Year	27,737							26,344
3rd Year				27,798			25,419	26,045
2nd Year							24,957	25,744
1st Year	26,808			27,100			24,495	26,445
Station Sergeant								
Senior Sergeants		22,474						
3rd Year			21,081					
2nd Year			20,924					
1st Year			20,768					
Sergeant 1/C	23,483			20,822	23,980	24,375	19,680	22,873
3rd Year			19,665					
2nd Year			19,560					
1st Year			19,455					
Sergeant 2/C	22,102			19,691	22,049	22,444	18,519	21,692
3rd Year			18,473					
2nd Year			18,368					
3rd Year			18,263					
Sergeant 3/C	20,682			18,639	20,689	21,084	17,599	20,783
3rd Year			17,182					
2nd Year			17,077					
1st Year			16,972					
Sergeants		20,087						
Senior Constable								
After 15 Years			16,857					

TABLE 9.3 (cont)

Rank	NSW	V	Q	SA	WA Metro	WA Country	T	NT
Snr. Const. (Cont.)								
After 14 Years			16,828					
After 13 Years			16,799					
After 12th Year		18,140	16,771					
After 11th Year			16,742					
After 10th Year	19,331		16,713					
After 9th Year		17,797	16,689					
After 8th Year			16,656					
After 7th Year			16,627					
After 5 & 6th Year		17,602						
After 3 & 4th Year		17,400						
After 2nd Year		17,197						
After 1st Year	19,118							
Grade 1				17,419				
Grade 2				16,702				
One Grade					19,436	19,831	16,601	19,104
Constable 1/C								
2nd Grade							15,011	
4th Year	17,825							
3rd Year	17,612		15,614				15,011	17,778
2nd Year	17,384		15,509				14,826	17,489
1st Year	17,161		15,404				14,454	17,198
One Grade				15,740	17,692	18,087		
Constable								
7th Year		16,411		14,631				
6th Year		16,234		14,441			14,138	
5th Year	16,374		14,331	14,251	16,520	16,915	13,809	16,141
4th Year	16,046	15,899	14,085	14,060	16,091	16,486	13,479	15,845
3rd Year	15,709		13,875	13,870	15,663	16,058	13,152	15,545
2nd Year	15,387		13,770	13,567	15,344	15,739	12,825	15,250
1st Year	15,051		13,097	13,415	15,026	15,421	12,493	14,952
Probationary								14,658
Prob. C		15,062						
Prob. B		13,867						
Prob. A		13,363						

† Caution: salary movements are frequent. This table indicates salary amounts as at mid-1981 only.

Source: Police Federation

TABLE 9.4

PENALTY AND SHIFT CONDITIONS: BY AGENCY, 1981

	NSW	V	Q	SA	WA	T	NT
SATURDAY WORK RATE	Ordinary time	Ordinary time + comp rate 10% below off	Time & half	Time & half (shiftworkers)	Ordinary time	Time & half	Ordinary time + 15%
SUNDAY WORK RATE	Ordinary time	Ordinary time + comp rate 10% below off	Time & half	Time & half (shiftworkers)	Ordinary time	Double time	Ordinary time + 15%
PUBLIC HOLIDAY WORK RATE	Time & half	Ordinary time + comp rate 10% below off	3 X double time & half 8 X time & half	Double time & half	Ordinary time	Double time	Double time
WEEKEND SHIFT LOADING	10% base rate of each rank	10% base rate of each rank up to Snr Sgt	Time & half	No	Specified amount to scale	No	1%
ORDINARY OVERTIME RATE	Time & half first 2 hours then double time	Time & half or time off first 3 hours then double time	Time & half first 4 hours then double time (for non shiftworkers) double time for shift-workers & plain clothes	Time & half first 3 hours then double time	Time & half first 3 hours then double time	Time & half first 3 hours then double time	Time & half
SATURDAY OVERTIME RATE	Time & half first 2 hours then double time	Double time or time off	As Ordinary Overtime Rate	Time & half first 3 hours then double time	Time & half first 3 hours then double time	Shiftworkers double time, day workers first 3 hours time & half then double	Double time
SUNDAY OVERTIME RATE	Time & half first 2 hours then double time	Double time or time off	As Ordinary Overtime Rate	Double time	Time & half first 3 hours then double time	Double time	Double time
PUBLIC HOLIDAY OVERTIME RATE	Double time first 2 hours then double time & half	Double time or time off	As Ordinary Overtime Rate	Double time & half	Time & half first 3 hours then double time	Shiftworkers double time, day workers double time & half	Double time & half
ALLOWANCE IN LIEU OF OVERTIME	No	For CIB to scale	No	No	No	No	No
1 OR 2 MAN STATION ALLOWANCE	No	80% of CIB pt commuted overtime allow (1 man)	Const 12%, Const 1/C 13.5%, S/Const 14.5%, Sgt 17% of Sgt 3/C man/r	18% loading	No	Overtime RDO & weekends. In lieu O/T RDO 15% loading (1 man)	$1100 or 10% of salary (1 man)

TABLE 9.4 (cont)

	NSW	V	Q	SA	WA	T	NT
REST PERIOD AFTER EXCESS OVERTIME	Overtime pay adjusted in lieu of working shift	No	No	No	No	Min 8 hours before next duty	8 hours off duty normal pay
RECALL BETWEEN SHIFTS	3 hours min at time & half for first 2 hours then double time	Time & half, min 3 hours	3 hours min at time & half - non a/w double time for s/w & p/c	3 hours min at overtime rate	2 or 4 hours min at time & half	4 hours min at time & half	24 hours min at double time
ON CALL		No	No	No	No	Availability 50.6c per hour min $4.05 standby 50.6c/ hour min $8.10	4 hours min at time & half
RECALL FROM LEAVE	Time off in lieu or, min 8 hours at time & half	Double time Sat, Sun & Pub Hol, time & half other days, min 4 hours	At Ordinary Overtime Rates	3 hours min at overtime rate	Ordinary rate for time worked & 1 day or 2 days off	4 hours min at time & half	time added to leave
DAY SHIFT ALLOWANCE		No	No	No but day worker paid penalty if shifts worked	No	No	Nil
EVENING SHIFT ALLOWANCE	Commencing between 10am & 1pm 10%, between 1pm & 4pm 12.5%	No	$4.10/shift of 4 hours between 6pm & 6am	15% for shifts ending from 6.30pm & midnight	No	15% per shift Monday-Friday	10%
NIGHT SHIFT ALLOWANCE	Commencing between 4pm & 4am 15%, between 4am & 6am 10%	$3.96 - NCO $6.96 - (?) for shift ext. 5 hours from 9pm-7am	$4.10 same as evening shift	15% for shift ending from midnight to 8am	No	15% Monday-Friday	25%
MEAL BREAK	half hour break	30 mins unless meal taken at post	30 mins in dept time	30 mins	40 mins	20 mins in shift	30 mins in dept time

Source: Police Federation

Ratio of commissioned officers to subordinate ranks

Compared to the armed services and many overseas police forces, the proportion of commissioned officers and non commissioned officers to other ranks in Australia may seem low. Quite apart from questions of sufficient supervisor depth, such small percentages, especially of commissioned officers, seriously affects the career prospects of police personnel. On the other hand, with the single entry system practised in all police forces, increased percentages of commissioned rank positions would undoubtedly result in a drastic drop in executive quality. The various frequences and percentages are given at Table 9.5.

Considerable differences in proportions of commissioned and non commissioned officers exist between some forces. There is certainly no relationship between quality of agency and proportion of commissioned officers, although there does appear to be a low level correlation between agency size and proportion of commissioned ranks, with the smaller agencies tending to have the larger proportions.

TABLE 9.5

RANK PROPORTIONS: AGENCY BY FREQUENCY BY PERCENTAGE, 1970-1981

agency		1970 #	%	1971 #	%	1972 #	%	1973 #	%	1974 #	%	1975 #	%	1976 #	%	1977 #	%	1978 #	%	1979 #	%	1980 #	%	1981 #	%
NSW	1	178	2.5	179	2.4	199	2.6	220	2.8	260	3.2	264	3.1	265	3.1	267	3.1	272	3.0	289	3.2	302	3.2	309	3.2
	2	1850	25.9	1850	24.6	1879	24.3	1922	24.2	2066	25.1	2079	24.8	2105	24.8	2125	25.0	2277	25.3	2293	25.2	2320	24.7	2344	24.8
	3	5116	71.6	5484	73.0	5663	73.1	5781	73.0	5886	71.7	6039	72.0	6112	72.0	6112	71.9	6462	71.7	6509	71.6	6778	72.1	6815	72.0
V	1	155	3.2	188	3.7	246	4.5	266	4.7	269	4.6	302	4.9	308	4.7	342	5.0	371	5.1	375	4.9	358	4.7	384	4.6
	2	294	6.2	1268	24.9	1347	24.9	1426	25.3	1445	24.7	1593	25.9	1571	24.2	1744	25.6	1697	23.4	1835	24.2	1898	25.0	1875	23.0
	3	4321	90.6	3633	71.4	3817	70.5	3936	69.9	4127	70.6	4261	69.2	4608	71.0	4733	69.4	5170	71.4	5359	70.8	5347	70.3	5937	72.4
Q	1	88	2.8	93	3.0	97	3.1	100	3.1	101	3.0	110	3.2	125	3.5	132	3.5	124	3.2	131	3.3	NA		134	2.9†
	2	881	28.5	854	28.0	863	27.8	864	26.9	884	26.5	954	27.4	967	27.0	991	26.5	1026	26.8	1064	27.0			1101	24.2
	3	2116	68.6	2104	69 0	2143	69.1	2246	70.0	2344	70.4	2415	69.4	2490	69.5	2621	70.0	2682	70.0	2739	69.6			3197	70.2
SA	1	57	3.0	58	2.9	61	2.9	69	3.2	81	3.6	89	3.6	94	3.7	101	3.6	103	3.5	108	3.4	108	3.1	106	3.3
	2	399	21.2	441	22.2	497	24.0	518	23.9	566	25.0	645	26.1	677	26.4	719	25.8	757	25.9	783	25.0	478	14.0	476	14.8
	3	1425	75.7	1486	74.9	1510	73.0	1580	72.9	1617	71.4	1740	70.3	1789	69.9	1961	70.5	2060	70.5	2244	71.6	2837	82.9	2638	81.9
WA	1	46	3.0	49	3.0	51	3.0	56	3.1	60	3.0	65	3.0	76	3.3	98	4.2	99	4.0	103	4.0	107	4.0	110	4.1
	2	273	17.8	327	20.2	346	20.5	411	22.7	440	22.2	483	22.1	532	23.2	556	23.7	569	22.8	599	23.4	601	22.7	622	23.4
	3	1210	79.1	1240	76.7	1289	76.4	1340	74.1	1484	74.8	1632	74.9	1680	73.4	1691	72.1	1822	73.2	1856	72.5	1935	73.2	1924	72.4
T	1	44	6.1	47	6.4	51	6.7	54	6.8	57	6.9	58	6.5	61	6.5	63	6.7	66	7.0	62	6.5	63	6.0	61	5.9
	2	64	8.9	70	9.5	132	17.3	148	18.7	144	17.4	148	16.6	147	15.7	145	15.4	145	15.3	154	16.1	164	15.7	155	15.1
	3	609	84.9	622	84.1	580	76.0	589	74.5	628	75.7	684	76.8	730	77.8	734	77.9	735	77.7	740	77.4	814	78.2	813	79.0
NT	1	8	3.4	7	2.7	7	2.5	7	2.2	16	4.4	12	2.7	29	6.9	31	6.9	30	6.4	33	6.1	32	6.0	36	6.6
	2	44	18.7	46	17.8	52	18.5	66	20.7	71	19.7	103	23.2	104	24.9	105	23.3	103	21.9	120	22.3	115	21.5	122	22.5
	3	183	77.9	206	79.5	222	79.0	245	77.0	274	75.9	328	74.0	285	68.2	315	69.8	337	71.7	385	71.6	387	72.5	385	70.9
ACT	1	12	4.1	14	4.0	14	3.5	15	3.4	20	3.8	24	4.2	25	4.5	27	4.9	26	4.5	26	4.4	-	--	-	--
	2	54	18.7	66	19.0	72	18.1	78	17.9	81	15.4	84	14.6	89	16.1	96	17.4	102	17.7	103	17.7	-	--	-	--
	3	223	77.2	267	76.9	312	78.4	342	78.6	423	80.7	466	81.2	437	79.3	428	77.7	447	77.7	454	77.9	-	--	-	--

1 Commissioned Officers including Commissioner, Deputy Commissioner, Chief Superintendents, Superintendents, Chief
   Inspectors, and Inspectors.
2 Non Commissioned Officers including various ranks of Sergeant, including Sergeant 3/C but, excluding technician ranks†, in Queensland.
3 All ranks of constable, ie, Senior Constable, Constable 1/C, Constable, plus trainees and cadets.

Source: ABS

SECTION 10:   RECRUITMENT

Preemployment testing and standards for police entry in Australia vary slightly from state to state, although few marked differences are apparent. The requirements are specified below. Readers should bear in mind that the selection criteria are varied from time to time.

New South Wales

Candidates for entry into the police department must attend the force recruiting office in the first instance. A preliminary medical examination precedes the sitting of a police entrance examination. Those candidates who achieve a pass in the test are then subjected to a detailed background investigation. These procedures are followed by a personal interview. Provided all these preliminaries are satisfactory, the candidate then appears before a selection board where a final assessment is made. Subject to selection board approval, candidates then commence an eleven week initial training course. At the completion of that course, the trainee is sworn in as a probationary Constable.

Candidates must be at least 19 years of age and under 35 years of age at the time of appointment. They must also be Australian or British subjects by either birth or naturalisation.

Those candidates who have either matriculated or attained a pass in the Higher School Certificate at a satisfactory level are excused the police entrance examination. The examination consists of papers on English, mathematics, dictation, essay writing and general knowledge.

Minimum physical requirements are:

males: height 5ft 8.5in (174cm), weight 11st 7lb (73kg), chest expanded 39.5 in (100cm)

females: height 5ft 6in (168 cm), weight - proportionate

Spectacles are permissible provided unaided vision in the weaker eye is 20/40 (6/12) correctable to 20/20 (6/6) in each eye. Where spectacles need to be worn, lenses must be hardened. Defective color vision is a cause for disqualification.

Victoria

In Victoria, police candidates are required to complete an application form in the first instance. They must be either of British nationality or Australian citizens by birth or naturalisation. The minimum acceptable age is 18.5 years, the maximum 34 years. For females the lower age limit is 20 years.

A general ability test is set all candidates. They must, in

addition, pass tests in English, reading, spelling, dictation, general knowledge and mathematics.

Minimum physical requirements are: (1) males - height 174 cm, weight 67 kg, chest deflated 92 cm, expanded 98 cm; chest measurements and weight must be proportionate to height; visual acuity must be 20/20 (6/6) in each eye separately and unaided, and (2) females - not less than 163 cm in height.

Queensland

Police candidates in Queensland are required to be between 18 years and four months and 39 years and four months, although preference is accorded applicants under 35 years. The minimum education standard is that of Queensland Junior Certificate (or equivalent) with at least 18 points in five subjects, including at least four points in English.

Minimum physical requirments are:

males: height 172 cm   ]
                         ] weight must be in proportion
females: height 163 cm]

South Australia

Applicants for entry into the police department of South Australia are subject to defined minimum standards. These are as shown below for persons between the ages of 19 and 29 years:

males: height 5ft 8.5 in (175 cm), minimum weight 10st 8lb (67 kg),

maximum weight: 12st 10lb (80.5 kg)

females: height 5ft 4in (163 cm), weight proportionate to height

The police department of South Australia employs a 'recruit entrance test battery' comprising: (1) general reasoning ability tests, and (2) specific abilities test.

The police department of South Australia subjects candidates to four cognitive tests. Firstly, word knowledge is tested by completion of the ACER word knowledge test. Secondly, 30 words are played to candidates by way of an audio tape. Applicants are required to write them down as a form of spelling test. Thirdly, candidates' listening comprehension is tested by means of playing them a recorded taped report of an event of particular

relevance to police, eg, a break and enter. Subsequently, examinees are asked a series of questions based on the audio report. And, fourthly, numerical attainment is assessed by use of the ACER number test.

A selection panel interview subsequently assesses candidates on qualities such as: (1) motivation, (2) adaptability, (3) stability, (4) social impact and (5) physical impact.

Western Australia

Candidate prerequisites in Western Australia are enumerated in the regulations to the Police Act 1892 (as amended). The minimum height for male applicants is 175.5 cm. Physical standards generally are as shown below:

height cm	minimum weight kg	chest	
		deflated cm	expanded cm
175.5	67.2	90.0	96.5
177.05	69.0	91.0	97.5
180.0	71.3	92.0	98.5
182.05	73.5	92.5	99.0
185	76.6	94.0	100.0

Female candidates under 162.66 cm in height are not admitted.

WA police candidates are required to take the Otis Higher Test - Form C for IQ testing. This form was adapted by ACER from the Otis Self Administering Test of Mental Ability - Form C, for use by the department.

Two written tests confront applicants wishing to join the Western Australian police department. The first is a one hour essay on a selected topic. The second is one hour arithmetic paper. A 60 per cent pass is required in both papers.

Formal objective personality testing is not undertaken by the police department in Western Australia. Instead, all applicants are subjected to a personal assessment interview. This interview covers areas, such as: (1) overall personality, (2) attire, (3) general demeanour, (4) speech, (5) self expression, (6) temperament, (7) aggressiveness, (8) mental alertness, (9) attitude to discipline and (10) maturity.

Tasmania

Police candidates in Tasmania are subject to the following minimum physical standards:

male: 5ft 8.5in (175 cm), weight 10st 8lb (67 kg)

female: 5ft 4in (163 cm), weight in proportion

Candidates must be not less than 19 years nor older that 33 years, although male applicants possessing at least two years service in a police force, or one of the armed services, is acceptable up to and including the age of 35 years.

The Tasmanian Police Department requires all candidates to complete two pencil and paper general ability tests. These tests are designed to assess verbal and numerate ability ranges and also to obtain IQ range and percentile rating. The two tests are: (1) ACER higher test - Form M Sec Q tests for numeracy, and (2) ACER higher test - Form M Sec L for literacy.

In addition to self administered pencil and paper tests, candidates for police entry are also required to pass internal examinations in English and arithmetic. Section A of the English exam consists of a 400 word essay on a given topic: a choice of five is offered. Section B of the exam comprises three sections: (1) punctuating a passage, (2) comprehension and (3) dictation. The object of these two papers is to test spelling, sentence construction, paragraphing, punctuation, correct usage, essay writing, reading and comprehension. Passes in both parts are needed for entry. The arithmetic exam covers 18 basic mathematical problems and is a test of basic numeracy.

Candidates passing the general ability tests are then required to complete the Personality Questionnaire (HDHQ), an artifact of the MMPI, and Cattell's 16 PF test.

SECTION 11: EDUCATION & TRAINING

Each police force possesses its own training establishment(s). These various academies, colleges and schools, provide for both recruit and in-service courses. Those agencies, ie, Western Australia, South Australia, Tasmania, Victoria and Queensland, with cadet programs also either utilise academy resources for cadet training or, in the case of Victoria, operate a separate cadet academy. It is noted, however, that Victoria's police department will terminate its cadet training program late in 1982, a most progressive move.

Recruit courses vary greatly between states as to precise duration although content is less varied. In Tasmania, for example, adult recruit training lasts for a period of 20 weeks and offers places to both males and females between the ages of 19 and 33 years. Generally, two such courses are run each year. On occasions, Fishery Officers and National Parks & Wildlife Officers also undergo the basic Constables' course. The syllabus covers four core areas: (1) police law, (2) education, (3) practical subjects; and (4) outstation duty. The so-called police law element refers to Acts and Regulations, practical police duties, evidence, police regulations and standing orders. Education periods concentrate on English, arithmetic, geography and government. Practical subjects include first aid, drill, self defence, physical training, fingerprinting and ballistics. Outstation duty refers to periods actually spent at police stations observing procedures in the field. The retention rate of recruit courses averages 95 per cent. In-service training courses in the same department cover administration (for Inspectors and sub officers), detective training, bomb disposal, prosecuting, first aid, traffic, diving.

The cadet course in the same agency consists of a two year residential course. The police law element is roughly the same as that for adult recruits. Education covers English, arithmetic, geography, government, psychology, sociology and, typing. Cadets spend approximately five months on practical training at outstations. Religious and moral instruction is conducted on a non-denominational basis by visiting clergy. The retention rate for cadet courses averages 70 per cent.

The police department of New South Wales, which possesses the largest police instructional corps in the country, conducts recruit training as well as an extremely wide range of in-service courses. The partial list of courses attended by members of the department shown below provides an idea of the wide range of instruction available:

Courses conducted at police academy

* initial training (recruits)

* intermediate training (probationary constables)

* secondary training (probationary constables)

* detectives' course

* sergeants' course

* officers' course

* police driver courses (the police driver training school is part of the academy although separately located).

Courses conducted and/or attended by members of the traffic branch:

* breathalyzer operators' course

* junior traffic constables' course

* traffic planning and control course

* basic teaching methods for school lecturers

* police radar operators' course.

Courses conducted and/or attended by members of the police communications branch:

* radio communications induction course

* fulltime broadcast operators' course

* parttime broadcast operators' course

* post trade radio engineering courses

* teleprinter operation

* typing.

Courses conducted and/or attended by members of the criminal investigation branch:

* detectives' course

* short course in criminology

* sheep and wool course

* freehand drawing course

* police draughtsmanship course

* special weapons and operations squad course

* explosives and shot firing course

* destruction of blinds (unexploded devices) course

* explosive ordnance disposal course

* aerial photography interpretation course

* basic photography course.

Courses conducted by water police:

* general water police duties course

* diving training course

* harbour and river masters' course

* navigation course

* radar navigation course

* radio telephony course.

In the police department of South Australia, great thought has been paid to the construction of an NCO course. Four courses a year are run for members close to being promoted to Sergeant (Third Grade). Course content is based on the operational needs of the rank, with clear objectives being set for subjects, modules, lectures, exercises and assessment. Emphasis is placed on analytical and problem solving exercises. Part of the course is residential. Preparation for Sergeant rank is arguably the most crucial of all training responsibilites and the department's close attention to it warrants commendation. In addition to cadet and adult courses, further training is devoted to driver and firearms training.

In Victoria, as in most states, recent increases in establishment have meant a corresponding emphasis on recruit training. The initial Constable training period is now of 17 weeks, followed by a two year field supervision term which includes a four week classroom session. The department's sub officer course for many years led the way in training for supervisory rank. These courses are still held at the Police College. Like New South Wales police, training in Victoria is underpinned by a development section aimed at maintaining the highest standards possible. The section produces a monthly bulletin outlining inter alia important legislative changes. A human behaviour course for probationary Constables was also developed by the section.

The police department of Queensland has upgraded its adult recruit initial and advanced training courses, both of which are conducted at the Police Academy. In line with this new emphasis on training is the creation of a planning and development course for Senior Constables and Constables (First Class). As in the case in NSW, the Queensland police department has nominated training stations, to which recruit course graduates are initially posted. Such stations have training officers on strength and are also periodically visited by training staff officers.

Other courses operated by the department include: (1) hostage negotiators' courses, (2) Sergeant (Second Class) development course, (3) Sergeant (Third Class) development courses, (4) crime investigation courses,

(5) breathalyzer operators' courses, and (6) commissioned officers' courses.

In addition to cadet and adult recruit courses, the police department of Western Australia runs a number of in-service courses ranging from police station management skills for Constables (First Year), through management techniques for Sergeants (First Class) to command and management training for commissioned officers. One course is also conducted each year for Aboriginal police aides. The Detective Training School conducts criminal investigation and detective designation courses, as well as offering a number of seminars focussing on specific criminal behaviours. The following summary of course titles provides a clear idea of the department's training effort:

* promotion

* commissioned officers

* Sergeants (First Class)

* Sergeants (Second Class)

* Sergeants (Third Class)

* Aboriginal police aides

* Constables (First Year)

* recruits

* resuscitation

* prosecutions

* cadets

* advanced detective

* basic detective

* introductory detective

* sexual assaults

The Northern Territory police force, being considerably smaller than its state counterparts, has fewer resources to apply to the training function. The following list of courses conducted by the agency gives some idea of the force's training emphases :

* accident investigator

* breathalyzer

* constable refresher

* radar gun operator

* range officers

* recruits

Despite differing emphases on cadet and adult recruitment and in-service training, recruit training is broadly similar throughout all agencies. Major differences are more reflective of style, ethos and specific statutes, rather than content. Both Victoria and Queensland police forces maintain colleges dedicated to executive training. South Australia and New South Wales conduct executive training for command officers but do not possess separate premises.

Addresses of the major police training establishments in Australia are:

Police Academy
749 Bourke Street
REDFERN   NSW   2016
Telephone (02) 20966

Police Academy
Strathfield Terrace
LARGS BAY   SA   5016
Telephone (08) 2481111

Police Academy
View Mount Road
GLEN WAVERLY   V   3150
Telephone (03) 5601233

Police Academy
2 Clarkson Road
MAYLANDS   WA   6051
Telephone (09) 2717477

Police College
'Airlie'
260 Domain Road
SOUTH YARRA   V   3141
Telephone (03) 265682

Police Academy
South Arm Road
ROKEBY   T   7019
Telephone (002) 477100

Police Academy
Rudd Street
OXLEY   Q   4075
Telephone (07) 704057

Police Academy
Cavanagh Street
DARWIN   NT   5790
Telephone (089) 815555

Police College
17 Laurel Avenue
CHELMER   Q   4068
Telephone (07) 320431

Australian Police College
Collins Beach Road
NORTH HEAD   NSW   2095
Telephone (02) 9775800

A small but growing number of police officers are now undertaking tertiary studies of various kinds. Some officers are studying degree courses at universities and a greater number are studying for police/administration of justice diplomas. Three such courses are now available in New South Wales, two in Victoria and one in South Australia. In

addition, the Queensland Technical and Further Education Department operates a police arts and sciences certificate course on behalf of police officers.

At the present time relatively few police officers hold degrees. In past years, the tendency has been for police officers to acquire legal or accountancy qualifications and then leave the service. There has, however, been a highly desirable swing away from legal studies, with greater interest being shown in police studies, social sciences and business/ commerce.

Wheeled Vehicles

The task of detailing the vehicle holdings of the various police forces is difficult as not all forces publish their vehicle establishment. Some departments are able to present a detailed account of their vehicles, whilst others are not. Table 12.1 outlines wheeled vehicles used by the various departments for the years indicated. All agencies are heavily motorised.

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

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

Most police departments have their own motor vehicle maintenance sections in metropolitan areas which carry out repairs on departmental vehicles. This system usually operates efficiently, contributing greatly to cost reduction. All police are expected to hold a current driver's licence. Most departments have their own driver training sections. These sections test and train police personnel in driving skills in all weather conditions and at different speeds. Some departments now require recruits to be departmentally qualified to drive service vehicles prior to completion of their probationary period.

Boats

All police forces make use of water craft. Coastline data for the states and the Northern Territory are shown at Table 12.2

The number of powered water craft operated by the various police agencies is shown at Table 12.3

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

TABLE 12.1

MOTOR VEHICLES: AGENCY BY TYPE

agency	number	type of vehicle
NSW (1980)	1746	cars
	10	vans
	30	panel vans
	218	trucks and utilities
	70	trailers
	1	mobile field unit
	4	mobile field control radar unit
	48	four-wheel drive vehicles
	122	station sedans
	9	buses
	3	snow cruisers
	1	prime mover
	1	pantechnicon trailer
	1	forklift
	209	motor cycles
V (1980)	1383	cars
	158	motor cycles
	1	trailer
Q (1981)	923	vehicles of assorted description, ie, sedans, utilities, station wagons, four-wheel drives and two buses
SA (1980)	923	assorted vehicles, ie, utilities, station sedans, sedans
	111	motor cycles
	60	4 wd SWB
	10	4 wd LWB
WA (1981)	601	assorted vehicles, including:
		1 x trailer
		3 x boat trailers
		2 x scout cars
		2 x caravans
		2 x horse floats
	18	motorcycles
T (1980)	261	sedans
	35	station sedans
	8	panel vans
	9	utilities
	16	4 wd drives
	3	buses
	4	transit vans
	60	motor cycles
NT (1981)	58	sedans
	27	vans
	10	utilities
	7	four-wheel drive station sedans
	44	four-wheel drive utilities
	5	four-wheel drive extended patrols
	26	motor cycles
	4	buses
	2	trucks
	17	trailers
	11	caravans

TABLE 12.2

COASTLINES: JURISDICTION BY LENGTH

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

Source: ABS

TABLE 12.3

POWERED WATERCRAFT HOLDINGS: BY AGENCY

agency	number	type of watercraft
NSW (1979)	14	vessels for off-shore work 32 feet or over
	1	shark cat
V (1980)	12	boats 54 feet or larger
	2	search and rescue craft
Q (1981)	7+	several smaller craft powered by outboard motors
SA (1980)	6	boats
WA (1981)	2	boats
T (1981)	3	large ocean going boats
	18	smaller in-shore craft
NT (1981)	1	large ocean going craft] two of these craft are
	2	small in-shore craft	employed principally on fishery protection duties

Source: Police department annual reports

Helicopters and fixed wing aircraft

All mainland state police agencies operate rotary and/or fixed wing aircraft. Helicopters are now used for most phases of police work, including search and rescue, pursuit, traffic control, etc. Fixed wing aircraft are also used for the same purpose plus transportation. Some departments now use aircraft to ferry specialist police teams, ie, drug squad officers, to operational areas. To offset high purchase and running costs, departments sometimes hire their aircraft out when not operationally required.

Response time

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

Ratio of vehicles to police officers and land area

Again, it is difficult to calculate meaningful ratios of vehicles to personnel. Police officers are generally entitled to use departmentally issued vehicles only whilst on duty, although there are exceptions to the no take home rule. Hence, many vehicles are used by several members over the course of 24 hours.

The area, in square kilometres of each state, the population, the total strength of each force, the police/population ratio, the ratio of police officers to square kilometres of land for each state and the percentage of each state to the continental land mass are shown at Table 12.4.

TABLE 12.4

AREA, POPULATION & POLICE STRENGTHS. BY AGENCY, 1981

Agency	Area Km^2	Percentage of landmass	Population	Effective Strength	Police- Population Ratio	Police Per Km^2 Ratio
NSW	801,401	10.43	5,126,170	9,357	1:547.84	1:85.65
V	227,600	2.96	3,832,443	8,050	1:476.08	1:28.27
Q	1,727,000	22.48	2,295,123	4,106	1:558.97	1:420.60
SA	984,375	12.81	1,285,033	3,159	1:406.78	1:311.61
WA	2,525,000	32.87	1,273,624	2,611	1:487.79	1:967.06
T	68,319	0.88	418,957	974	1:430.14	1:70.14
NT	1,347,525	17.52	123,324	550	1:224.23	1:2450.05

Source: ABS and police department annual reports.

SECTION 13: COMMUNICATIONS

The Victoria and New South Wales departments pioneered mobile radio communications, being among the world leaders in the field. Due to a large and sparsely settled landmass, radio has always been a priority communications medium for police.

Each police force has its own radio network. These systems operate for the sending of messages from HQ stations to outer stations and from station to station, as well as from fixed to mobile points. Each police headquarters is radio linked with all other police headquarters.

In addition to radio links, multi-channel telephone lines operate at each police department headquarters. These facilities permit either the use of a single common line or the switching to several hundred lines, all operated at the same time. Multiple use is effected merely by the changing of the four last digits of the original seven digit number.

Shortwave links are used by some forces to send messages to police agencies overseas. The use of shortwave radio network to send these messages is considered the most economical and secure means to send most normal unclassified messages.

Emergency calls can be made to all police agencies, at no cost to persons making such calls. Emergency numbers are usually "000" and once a person making such a call dials the requisite number, they are connected to a Telecom operator who then connects the caller with required Police, Ambulance or Fire services.

In major cities emergency calls requiring police action are received 24 hours a day by police operators. These communications operators have direct contact with patrolling police units and are able to despatch vehicles to scenes of crime or to the aid of persons making such calls.

Almost all police forces have foot patrol officers who carry two-way radios and have instant contact with their respective bases. At many police stations hand held radios are available for use by police when appropriate situations such as lost persons, accidents and other incidents arise.

The significant use of computers by police has occurred only within the last decade. The cost involved in setting up computer facilities has been a major constraint. Most forces do not yet have their criminal history files automated. Requests for such information are mostly executed manually. Take, for instance, a patrol officer operating his or her patrol area in a major city. The officer will usually call the central operations centre by two-way radio for information. The operator at the other end places the request on a card, the card is passed on to an information centre - usually in another part of the building, and the information is manually extracted. Once obtained, data are despatched in reverse manner. In-car computer terminals are unlikely to be standard equipment within the next decade.

New South Wales

The NSW police department was the first in Australia to adapt ADP technology to police use, just as previously it pioneered the use of police radio. All district and higher headquarters are Telex linked, with an HF radio back up. In the far west of the state police radio communications are HF. The midwest, down to the metropolitan border, is VHF, whilst in the Sydney and Wollongong areas, UHF communications are maintained.

The NSW police department's backup computer is a Univac 9400, whilst the front end is a Univac 9402, which interfaces with two Data General Novas. All metropolitan plus many country police stations are on line. Other country stations may interface computerised files by Telex. All department of motor transport files are accessible, eg, licences, registrations, convictions. Also available are computerised warrant, CIS, firearm, stolen property and name files.

Victoria

The Victoria police department runs an information retrieval system for operational police along with other systems, such as personnel. The system includes a vehicle of interest file (developed in 1975) which is accessible by registration, chassis or engine number.

The department is currently developing a new persons of interest system. This system consists of 13 sub-systems giving all persons wanted by police for whatever reason (missing persons, escapees, etc) warrants and an 'active' person system. A message switching system currently connects 40 terminals by dedicated lines through police HQ and via telephone lines to Ballarat and Geelong.

The department has designed a system to install visual display units in 18 country divisional stations and, in 1982-83, the department will place 76 metropolitan stations on the system.

The vehicle file produces nine sets of statistical information for operational officers, including a 'Melways' reference system which is valuable for manpower allocation. It is basically an operational system but is also used statistically.

There are 10 systems on a 'priorities list' for the future including a message switching system, a crime-reporting system, property systems, a fraud squad system, computer aided despatch in 1985-86 and criminal histories.

The acronym for the whole system is PATROL, ie, Police Access To Records On Line.

Queensland

There is a computer for police administrative systems (payroll, accounts, etc) which is owned by the state government. The department has daily access to this facility. The department's computerisation is primarily designed to assist police in country areas. There are terminals via dedicated lines with a message switching system. The overall objective is to design and implement a complete on-line integrated police information system. The message-switching system is regarded as one of the best in the world - it can broadcast to one or many terminals simultaneously and all messages are logged complete with time and origin/destination code. Each message is kept on file for two weeks and then microfiched. The message-switching system incorporates 37 country terminals throughout the state, handling about 40,000 messages per month.

South Australia

The police department of South Australia has computer files for payroll, firearms and debtors and, more recently, a crime reporting system (which is offence-oriented). There is a Telex interface with Sydney and Melbourne. Financial constraints have slowed ADP development in the agency.

Western Australia

The Western Australia police department has two main data bases - a central names index which can be searched on names, warrants and descriptions, licences, etc, and a vehicles of interest system containing car type, ownership, police interest, registration details. These systems together generate around 20,000 inquiries per month from police in the field.

Also, the department has a computer-Telex interface system to enable regional stations to link directly. (Over 50 police stations in the northwest and south of the state Telex linked in 1982.) Criminal history details are added to the name index. In 1981 there were 250,000 criminal histories on paper. A decision was made to build a criminal history file from a 'day one' point of origin. A system of 'time elapsing', with dormant files being microfiched, is expected to limit the files to about 50,000-60,000 cases.

Future plans include an 'offence report' system whereby crimes reported, with details of nature of offence, location, time, etc, will be telephoned direct to a key-punch operator.

Northern Territory

The Northern Territory police department uses an IBM computer for a firearms registration system (since mid 1980), motor vehicle registration, drivers licences and accidents records.

Public right of access to crime data banks and police information

There is no general public access to information held by the various police agencies. It is difficult for private individuals to gain access to information held by police departments in the absence of departmental cooperation. In both New South Wales and South Australia, strict governmental guidelines have been laid down with respect to the privacy of criminal and political information held by police.

Due to Australian libel laws, criminal conviction data cannot be used against an individual except (under prescribed circumstances) during court proceedings. Hence, police departments guard criminal history data closely, allowing only limited access to such information on a strict 'need to know' basis.

However, there have been some attempts to legally facilitate the flow of information from some police departments to other government departments and agencies. In Queensland, for example, the Police Act was amended with the insertion of Section 69C. This amendment permits the flow of information held on police file, ie, traffic accident data, to insurance companies. Under this legislation, no government employee can be held responsible for any inaccurate information which might be passed on or the consequences of such information.

The federal government enacted a Freedom of Information statute in 1982, which provides for public access to information under prescribed conditions. The statute is not applicable to states or the Northern Territory. The legislation specifically provides for the exemption of joint state-federal documents from public perusal. A potential for confusion, however, would seem to exist in the situation. Additionally, it is possible some state governments will follow the federal lead with respect of freedom of information legislation.

The political climate in the various states and territories generally has not lent itself to high levels of civil disorder or violence, although there are occasional outbursts of political protest from time to time, eg, Vietnam moratorium marches. In these instances police combat unauthorised activities in public places.

Each police force is prepared for contingencies such as street demonstrations. Departmental administrative staff are in a position to know how many police officers can be called upon at short notice to combat civil disorder. Most police forces now have their own public order squads which are trained for civil disorder control. Officers selected for such duty are often routinely employed on office duties and are thus easily available for immediate callout. Such officers are usually issued with helmets and riot batons. Firearms are not normally issued to persons when engaged on public order duties, although smoke and gas canisters and grenades are available for use.

Police agencies possess sufficient armaments and trained personnel to engage in limited firefights involving small arms only. Violent incidents involving extended use of small or medium calibre firearms or other weapons would require the involvement of military personnel.

Anti-riot techniques & equipment

It is rare that other than hand to hand conflict occurs at political and other demonstrations.   Police are not often forced to use batons on such occasions. They usually attempt to overpower demonstrators (police officers work in pairs where possible) and place them in vans to be transported to a watchhouse for charging and bail procedures.

Police versus students, activists, guerrillas & terrorists

The majority of protest activities are carried out by special interest groups and students. Women's groups, homosexual groups, aboriginal activists, conservation groups, consumer groups, and students are responsible for almost all protest and street demonstrations. During the period 1976 to 1979 the Queensland government restricted street marches. As a result the streets of Brisbane were the scene of scores of protest street marches. Hundreds of students and other protesters were arrested for unlawful street marching. Sydney, too, is the scene of numerous protests, the vast majority of which are orderly.

There has been very little guerrilla and terrorist activity in Australia. In 1978, a bomb exploded outside the Sydney Hilton Hotel when Commonwealth Heads of Government were meeting in that City.   Several people, including a police officer, were killed or injured. The explosion was unofficially credited to a religious group. This was arguably the first serious indication of possible terrorist activity in Australia, with the exception of the activities of suspected Yugoslav separationists in the

'sixties'. However, the sending of explosive devices by mail and the use of explosives in the pursuit of extortion type crime has grown in recent years as have other politically motivated acts of violence including both explosives and assassination by shooting. Compared with North America and Europe, however, such acts are rare.

Bomb disposal squads have been established within most Australian police forces. Personnel are trained in locating and defusing explosive devices. There are many calls made to police concerning the planting of bombs in buildings and other structures. However, there are very few instances in which real bombs (as opposed to dummy bombs) are found.   The hoaxer is, unfortunately, well represented in modern society. The Australian Army has disposal personnel available in each state. Military personnel generally have better knowledge and greater expertise in the field of bomb disposal than police and it is they who attend to the destruction of explosive devices.

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

Surveillance of subversive groups

Public knowledge of police activity in this area is naturally limited. However, a few general observations can be made. There are two branches within the various police forces possessing primary surveillance responsibilities. The more important of these, with respect to subversive groups, are the various Special Branches.

These units are staffed by experienced police officers, either plain clothed or detective staff. Their function inter alia is to monitor and observe the activities of subversive groups. The various special branches also liaise closely with the Australian Security Intelligence Organisation (ASIO). This latter body is not a police organisation despite its being frequently and erroneously referred to as a 'secret police' agency.

Special Branches compile files inter alia on suspected political subversive groups and dangerous political activists. These files are not accessible to the public and little else is publicly known about the workings and activities of these sections.   The Special Branch files of South Australia and New South Wales have both been subjected to outside scrutiny in recent years. The reports relating to these two inquiries are referenced at Section 2.

Other sections used in surveillance of subversive groups are the various Crime Intelligence units. These units mainly carry out surveillance on criminals but have, on occasions, been used to carry out activities involving subversive groups, especially where there is an overlap between traditional crime and politically motivated activists.

Criminal intelligence personnel are trained in the art of surveillance. Sophisticated electronic surveillance equipment is utilized and officers assigned to such duties are generally regarded as among the

more efficient and professional personnel in their respective police forces. In some instances, intelligence sections have been used to carry out surveillance on corrupt police officers but, in recent times this practice has stopped in some states, as the internal investigation function tends to obstruct the external investigation function. Close liaison is maintained between the various criminal intelligence sections and/or units, including Telex links.

A routine CIU function is that of collection, collation and dissemination of crime related data. In New South Wales, an operational arm has been added to the normally passive intelligence unit. The providing of operational arms to intelligence units is generally considered counter productive and, therefore, undesirable.

Use of undercover operatives

The various police departments use undercover personnel and, on occasions, agents, to detect offences. The practice is most common in the drug, unlawful gambling and prostitution field.

Police officers act covertly principally to detect offences and obtain evidence to sustain convictions against offenders. But they also do so to obtain information of a more general nature concerning activities and relationships so as to permit analysts to reconstruct criminal networks. Generally speaking, younger members of the police service are used as agents. They are mostly employed for short periods in an undercover capacity only. If they remain too long in some fields they become compromised and possibly placed in danger. It is not uncommon in gaming and liquor prosecutions for principals to plead 'not guilty' so as to force police to place undercover witnesses in court and therefore subject to identification. Should the prosecution in such cases depend in part on the evidence of undercover police officers, their cover is then 'blown'.

Other police officers are employed under deep cover for intelligence purposes. Such officers are used in a variety of fields, including drugs, gaming, organised crime, 'bikie' gangs, etc. Such work is taxing and policies are being devised to support such officers, especially in terms of health, as the strain can be great. Generally, several years is the limit for police undercover operatives but considerable individual latitude has to be expected depending on the calibre of individual agents and the importance of their work.

The use of agents provocateurs is illegal in all states and although such persons were utilised until the mid 1930's, they are no longer employed. The changing nature of crime, however, has increased the use of non-police undercover agents in recent years. A well publicised case in which police employed an agent occurred in the wake of the Sydney Hilton hotel bombing in 1978. An agent was infiltrated into a religious sect shortly after the explosion occurred.

Electronic surveillance

Telephone 'bugging' and telecommunications interception generally are conducted with great selectivity by police. There is provision in the Telecommunications (Interception) Act 1979 to monitor and alter telephones under prescribed circumstances, including the issue of a warrant.

The use of listening devices by police is controlled by state legislation and police are bound by the statutory constraints imposed on them. The Australian Security Intelligence Organisation Act 1979 empowers officers of that organisation to utilise listening devices within the states and territories regardless of state laws.

It is commonly said that both government and private agencies frequently engage in unlawful surveillance by means of electronic devices. One case, involving an alleged conspiracy to defraud the federal government of medical funds, resulted in a Sydney magistrate bringing to the federal Attorney-General's notice the activities of an investigating federal officer in this regard but it is impossible to state whether such abuse is of the proportions it is sometimes said to be.

SECTION 15: TRAFFIC POLICE

Each police force has control of the administration and enforcement of traffic laws within its boundaries. Legislation, usually entitled Motor Traffic Act (or similar), sets out the various traffic regulations and certain control procedures. The various Acts and their Regulations set out in detail the various speed limits, motorists obligations, etc, and prescribe maximum penalties for offences.

Each of the various police agencies possess what may be loosely termed a traffic branch. Traffic branches are responsible for the enforcement of traffic regulation and rules as defined under the various statutes. These sections operate speed traps (radar) to counter speeding motorists and motorcycle traffic patrols to enforce the traffic rules. Some police forces operate highway patrols to enforce traffic laws along arterial routes which transcend local police boundaries. Police aircraft have also been used in Queensland, New South Wales, Victoria and Western Australia, to assist in this area of enforcement and control.

The staff and equipment of the various traffic branches come under the direct control of a Superintendent of Traffic or similar official. He is in turn subordinate to a senior administrator.

Within police departments, the Commissioner and his fellow executive officers determine broad departmental policy with respect to traffic matters in concert with appropriate government Ministers. The traffic branches execute those policies. For example, in recent years there has been considerable concern expressed by the various police Commissioners concerning the number of road deaths and injuries. Research indicates drivers affected by alcohol contribute significantly to the high rate of accidents. As a result, the various traffic branch officials have been instructed to emphasise the detection of drinking drivers. A significant decrease in the number of accidents involving casualties, given the ever increasing number of motorists and motor vehicle registrations each year is indicated by the casualty data shown at Tables 15.1, 15.2, and 15.3. The decrease is attributed primarily to increased public awareness resulting from police traffic enforcement activities. Dimensions of the traffic problem are given in Tables 15.4, 15.5 and 15.6 which show total vehicle registration per 1,000 of population, total licence registrations and registrations of new motor vehicles.

The traffic control function in Western Australia was assumed by the Road Traffic Authority in 1975. However, it returned to police early in 1982. Even when the Road Traffic Authority did exercise formal responsibility for traffic matters within the state, its patrol personnel were seconded police officers. This interesting experiment in traffic control and enforcement foundered on the rocks of political and occupational opposition.

The numbers and percentages of police officers working in the traffic branches of the various forces are shown at Table 15.7. It will be appreciated, of course, that many other personnel and units of the various agencies also play a significant role in traffic control and enforcement.

Some agencies have proportionately more members assigned to traffic enforcement duties than others. However, this is to be expected, given the considerable divergences in geographic and demographic characteristics among the states and territories.

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TABLE 15.1

ROAD TRAFFIC ACCIDENTS INVOLVING CASUALTIES:† BY JURISDICTION, 1970-1980

	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
NSW	25434	26575	27365	29308	29853	28217	27393	27943	29451	27013	9911
V	16435	15023	14757	14485	12542	12514	12680	14803	14957	13898	7074
Q	7869	8147	7863	8643	8086	8241	7814	7696	8094	7746	4195
SA	7424	7386	8116	9267	9469	8793	8090	7922	8160	8359	2322
WA	5218	5178	4909	5404	4742	5104	5287	6224	7513	7025	2566
T	1425	1385	1371	1479	1393	1496	1603	1603	1641	1507	776
NT	528	660	592	711	575	554	582	634	716	650	347
ACT	877	856	777	854	813	869	833	868	802	816	222

† Accidents reported to police or other relevant authority which occurred in public thoroughfares and which resulted in death within 30 days or personal injury to the extent that the injured person was admitted to hospital.

Source: ABS

TABLE 15.2

PERSONS KILLED IN ROAD TRAFFIC ACCIDENTS: BY JURISDICTION, 1970-1980

	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
NSW	1309	1249	1092	1230	1275	1288	1264	1268	1384	1290	1152
V	1061	923	915	935	806	910	938	954	869	847	608
Q	537	594	572	638	589	635	569	572	612	613	508
SA	349	292	312	329	382	339	307	306	291	309	240
WA	351	332	340	358	334	304	308	290	345	279	268
T	118	130	106	105	111	122	108	112	106	93	96
NT	42	50	53	55	44	64	51	47	68	53	55
ACT	31	20	32	29	31	32	38	29	30	24	27

Source: ABS

TABLE 15.3

PERSONS INJURED IN ROAD TRAFFIC ACCIDENTS: BY JURISDICTION, 1970-1980

	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
NSW	34886	36660	36814	39294	40429	38141	37327	38407	40875	36984	11463
V	23737	21371	20646	20011	17539	17437	17653	19874	20377	19690	8466
Q	10940	11387	10788	11660	10627	11019	10405	10002	10850	10303	4803
SA	10484	10132	10997	12625	12725	12020	11082	10781	11209	11338	2724
WA	7373	7328	6751	7377	6277	6832	7059	8353	10069	9342	3080
T	2171	2056	1968	2103	1911	2137	2323	2343	2274	2114	889
NT	714	926	795	1012	788	789	814	882	980	928	402
ACT	1249	1176	1007	1122	1042	1124	1145	1176	1051	1094	228

Source: ABS

TABLE 15.4

MOTOR VEHICLES† ON REGISTER (per 1,000 pop) :
BY JURISDICTION, 1974-1980

30 June	NSW	V	Q	SA	WA	T	NT	ACT
1974	402.9	427.4	408.7	442.4	449.3	442.0	328.5	427.6
1975	419.8	447.2	413.1	467.1	470.7	461.8	334.5	433.7
1976	426.8	466.6	445.4	482.2	493.4	481.1	315.6	436.8
1977	435.1	470.1	463.9	498.7	523.7	494.9	328.0	456.3
1978	446.7	487.9	485.8	505.4	546.0	515.1	375.1	436.0
1979	457.2	498.2	504.1	509.8	557.5	531.0	371.9	465.9
1980	470.2	490.4	523.0	519.5	565.6	531.6	362.7	450.6

† Excludes motor cycles, tractors, plant and equipment, caravans and
trailers
Source: ABS

TABLE 15.5

MOTOR VEHICLE OPERATORS' LICENCES:
BY JURISDICTION, 1979

agency	licences
NSW	2,886,503
V	2,072,172
Q	NA
SA	741,388
WA	675,033
T	222,217
NT	56,990
ACT	129,498

Source: Police department annual reports

TABLE 15.6

REGISTRATIONS OF NEW MOTOR VEHICLES: TYPE BY JURISDICTION 1980-1981

State or Territory	Motor Cars + Station Wagons	Utilities	Panel Vans	Trucks Articu-lated	Rigid	Other Truck Types	Buses	TOTAL (excl motor cycles)	Motor Cycles
NSW	166,733	12,134	17,118	1,446	13,270	772	1,598	213,071	26,664
V	114,699	7,126	3,845	933	10,463	531	1,023	138,620	14,450
Q	77,917	16,531	7,429	749	3,704	239	591	107,160	13,759
SA	36,629	2,942	2,506	437	2,745	161	270	45,690	6,596
WA	41,660	4,439	4,790	425	4,958	138	473	56,883	6,088
T	13,563	1,758	855	153	509	73	96	17,007	1,278
NT	3,319	2,081	530	74	166	16	39	6,225	991
ACT	7,967	463	318	52	670	9	80	9,559	973

Source: ABS

TABLE 15.7

TRAFFIC PERSONNEL: BY AGENCY, 1979

agency	personnel	percentage of force
NSW	775	8.5%
V	590*	9.3%
Q	179	4.6%
SA	342	10.8%
WA	589	22.6%
T	120	12.3%
NT	50	9.1%
ACT	85	3.2%

* Incl 135 foot officers

Caution: these data should not be compared as conditions vary greatly between agencies.
Source: Police department annual reports.

TABLE 15.8

PROCLAIMED AND DECLARED ROADS: LENGTHS (km) BY JURISDICTION, 1980

	state					
Class of road	NSW	V	Q	SA	WA	T
State highways	10,494*	7,321	10,342]		7,717	1,958
Trunk roads	7,092 [		152]	13,431	[	[
Ordinary main roads	18,304 [	14,564	8,612]		[7,582	[1,139
Total main roads	35,890	21,885	19,106	13,431	15,298	3,097
Secondary roads	299†	–	13,018§	–	8,734	289
Development roads	3,461	–	8,025	–	–	128
Tourist roads	444	798	–	–	–	150
Other roads	2,609	1,031¶	–	–	–	–

* Includes 131 kilometers of freeways and tollways. † Metropolitan only. § Includes mining access roads, farmers roads and tourist tracks. ¶ Forest roads.

Source: ABS

The lengths of proclaimed and declared roads are shown at Table 15.8. The lengths of different classification of roads are given at Table 15.9.

Traffic branch staff wear normal police uniforms, except in some instances where the uniform is adapted to suit their duties. For instance police motor cyclists mostly wear motor cycle riding boots, pantaloons and crash helmets. Equipment used by the various traffic branches is generally the same as used by the rest of the department, although in some states, eg, New South Wales, highway patrol vehicles are marked with the words 'HIGHWAY PATROL'. There are special devices utilised for measuring speeds and driver blood alcohol concentrations which are peculiar to traffic law enforcement.

TABLE 15.9

CONSTRUCTION OF GENERAL TRAFFIC ROADS: LENGTHS (km) BY JURISDICTION, 1980

State/ territory	Bitumen/ Concrete	Gravel§	Formed only	Cleared only
NSW*	70,277	66,616	39,188	13,092
V	61,315	48,569	23,846	22,759
Q	46,566	34,785	56,435	22,960
SA	18,340	20,895	24,274	37,024
WA	32,593	39,214	46,126	40,788
T	7,196	13,867	613	
NT	5,598	4,123	6,651	6,651
ACT	1,865	327	42	–

§ Includes crushed stone or other improved surface. * Excludes 15,397 kilometres of road dedicated but not trafficable.

Source: ABS

Apart from the fact that police forces all have a specific section of their force or staff responsible for traffic enforcement, general police also have a duty and a responsibility to enforce traffic regulations. If a detective, for instance, were to observe a driver commit a serious driving offence he might well charge the offender. Many criminals drive to and from scenes of crime whilst others are as anti social behind the wheel of a car as they are in other circumstances. The strong link between traffic offences and crime is well recognised by police officers. The number of traffic officers who later become detectives is a recognised phenomenon in some states.

Budget & operations

There are no figures available setting out the annual costs of running police traffic branch activities. Traffic operations fall under the general head of law enforcement and no real distinction is made between traffic duties and general police duties when yearly police expenditures are analysed, at least publicly. Of course, due to the considerable involvement of non-traffic branch personnel, such analysis would prove extremely complex.

Traffic officers perform their duties in a number of ways. They may be deployed on highway patrol, motor cycle patrol, foot patrols, radar patrols, etc. Police officers sometimes direct motor traffic at street intersections during peak traffic periods but traffic lights have greatly reduced that particular task. Police operate their own breath analysis sections. Operators attend training courses at their respective police training establishments. In some states, eg, New South Wales, mobile breath analysis units operate in major cities for quick analyses of specimens provided by suspected drink/driving offenders. Generally speaking, however, breath analysis machines are located at police stations and operators are assigned to such stations.

Police are universally responsible for attending serious traffic accident scenes and conducting appropriate investigations. Reports are furnished when serious damage occurs to vehicles, property other than vehicles involved, or persons are injured or killed. In more recent times, minor damage only accidents have not been reported or recorded officially should the value of the damage incurred be below a specified sum in most jurisdictions. The various departments set a minimum limit on what are classified as reportable and non reportable accidents.

When police officers detect traffic offences they are sometimes able to issue 'on the spot' tickets which show the prescribed offence and penalty, although some offences are not catered for by such tickets. There are also the options available of arresting offenders or issuing a summons to appear in court. The actual options selected depend very much on the circumstances involved and the attitudes of individual drivers.

Processing of traffic violations and parking tickets

Police officers initiate traffic proceedings and process them through departmental channels. The processing of traffic complaints before the courts is conducted by police officers. Police prosecutors prosecute traffic matters before Justices or Magistrates. Police prosecuting officers obtain their training by attending departmental training courses, although a number also possess legal qualifications. Charging officers are called to give evidence in court when "not guilty" pleas are entered.

With respect of most charges, traffic offenders do not have to appear in court if they plead guilty by letter. In such cases they are

informed by mail of the fine imposed. In turn, the motorist concerned sends a cheque for that amount to the clerk of the court. Generally speaking, revenue gained from traffic fines goes into consolidated revenue. However, in some cases, costs in tow away cases are split between police departments and local government authorities. There is also a widespread practice of permitting motorists to pay a sum, according to a set scale of charges, in lieu of a fine. In this manner, motorists (again, provided they do not wish to contest their case) can avoid a minor conviction for traffic offences. Such amounts are paid by cheque or postal order into consolidated revenue.

Parking offences involve a slightly different process to general traffic violations. Local government authorities (except in New South Wales) accept a general responsibility to enforce by-laws involving parking regulations. Such authorities establish parking and non parking areas, install parking meters, enforce their use and employ parking officers or by-law inspectors. Such officers patrol the streets issuing parking infringement notices. The processing of these parking breaches is controlled by the various local authorities and does not normally involve police. Parking officers have no power to issue other than parking tickets. In New South Wales, a parking patrol force (not police officers) is operated by the police department. Parking patrol personnel operate in all major centres.

Police possess authority to issue parking tickets but, where other personnel are assigned to such tasks, they tend to concentrate on moving violations unless a serious situation is evident, eg, vehicles parked on pedestrian crossings or too close to intersections. The management of such process, when initiated by police, is carried out by police within their own resources.

Public education

All police forces conduct driver education courses and teach traffic safety to primary school children in major centres of population. In some states, an option available to the courts, subject to the consent of charged motorists, is to direct erring motorists to attend police traffic lectures at designated centres.

Scientific detection

The police scientific section staffs of the various states have a responsibility for collecting exhibits from scenes of crime or accident, recording the scene by photography and associated activities. Exhibits collected are taken to appropriate laboratories. Certain work such as handwriting, document examination and ballistics are handled by police technicians but exhibits requiring an examination by scientists are generally often handled by pathologists or forensic scientists of one sort or another, according to their field of expertise. Each police force in Australia has access to forensic science laboratories. The Victoria police department is the only one in the country to possess its own comprehensive laboratory. The laboratories are mostly attached to government departments such as the Health Department or to universities. At the time of writing a central police forensic institute is to be established in Brisbane.

State forensic chemistry and physical science personnel conduct scientific investigative work on behalf of police. The sorts of materials commonly subjected to scientific examination are numerous, including: (1) alcohol in tissue fluids, (2) flammable materials and accelerants, (3) trace elements, (4) glass, paint and miscellaneous materials, (5) human and animal hairs, (6) natural and synthetic fibers, (7) explosive residues, and (8) documents, paper, ink and printing.

The forensic medicine sections of the various state government departments carry out research in the following disciplines in support of police investigations:

* Forensic pathology
* Anatomical pathology, ie, autopsy service
* Histopathology
* Toxicology
* Haematology
* Serology and immunology
* Microbiology including virology
* Parasitology and protozoology
* Human and animal hairs
* Anatomy including histology
* Radiology
* Odontology
* Psychiatry

The various police departments mostly seek outside assistance from state government agencies and other sources for expert knowledge in respect of:

* Botanical specimens, including wood
* Geological, including mineralogy and soil
* Precious stones and jewellery
* Art objects and paintings
* Entomology
* Accident dynamics
* Materials failure

The wide range of forensic science resources utilised by police outside their own structures should not be taken to indicate that little scientific work is undertaken by police officers. In addition to the scientific duties of police already listed, police officers in most forces perform the following duties:

* Scene of crime examination
* Mapping and illustration
* Terrestial photogrammetry
* Fingerprints
* Physical matching and comparison
* Toolmarks, footprints and other impressions
* Firearms and ballistics
* Bombs and explosive devices
* Documents
* Handwriting
* Typewriting, painting and cheque writing
* Counterfeit and forgeries
* Paper examination
* Laundry and dry cleaning marks
* Breath analysis

In using existing laboratory facilities, the various state police forces have enabled work to be allocated to scientists possessing appropriate specialised skills and who permit access to a wide range of scientific technology.

There are more than 45 laboratories used by police throughout the country in the different fields of science. Some of these sections are regularly employed on police work, while others, such as certain university departments and organisation in private industry, are called upon but rarely.

Very little research is carried out by the various government laboratories providing a service to police. Finance is seldom made available to appoint extra staff for research and it is difficult for staff to meet increasing demands of case work, let alone conduct applied research.

New South Wales

In New South Wales, the Scientific Investigation Section of the Technical Support Branch (which also includes communications) comprises crime scene units, ballistics unit, document examination unit, a photographic unit and a mapping and photogrammetry unit. There are five suburban scientific investigation groups in Sydney, which together with the Sydney section cover the entire metropolitan area. Scientific investigation staff are also posted to 15 country centres throughout the state. Productivity data of the Sydney crime scene unit for the calendar year 1981 give an idea of the volume of work involved:

* scenes of crime and serious occurrence attended   1,340

* restorations of identification symbols   140

* photographic exposures   18,948

* terrestrial photogrammetry scale plans   331

* conventional scale plans   63

* court cases attended by unit staff   137

Victoria

The Victoria police department bases its scientific investigation on the resources of its Forensic Science Laboratory. Laboratory personnel have encountered a growing demand for drug analysis as persons experiment with an increasingly wide range of plant growth containing small amounts of drugs. The need to determine the drug content (including alcohol) in a growing number of sexual assaults and from car drivers has increased an already heavy case load considerably. The laboratory's case load record for calendar 1981 provides an indication of the sheer volume of work involved:

* Exhibits received :

    o biology section   3,468
    o applied science unit   1,371
    o drug unit   6,461
    o alcohol unit:

        - screening samples   18,977
        - drivers' samples   3,966

    o document examination   8,217
    o firearms section   2,297

* Assignments :

    o field investigations   541
    o photographic section   6,645

        - negatives   107,686
        - prints   287,139

Queensland

In Queensland, the major technical units are in the department's Technical Services Section. Units include the document examination section, fingerprint bureau, firearms section, photographic section and the scientific-ballistic section.

During the 1980-1981 financial year, technical personnel undertook the following workload:

* documents examined   3,377

* photographs taken   14,767

    - prints made   158,631

* ballistics examinations   160

* scientific examinations   596

South Australia

The Technical Services Division of the police department of South Australia covers the fields of (1) fingerprints, (2) laboratory, (3) photography, (4) ballistics, (5) crime scene examination, (6) questioned documents and (7) breath analysis. Selected workload statistics for the Division for the year 1979-1980 were as follows:

* fingerprints processed (sets)   16,543

* laboratory, exhibits received   1,165

* black & white photographs printed 97,189

* firearms investigations   138

* bomb investigations   16

* crime scenes examined   16,444

* documents examined   2,754

* breathalyser tests   4,595

Western Australia

The Western Australian police scientific branch contains sections devoted to : (1) fingerprints, (2) criminal records, (3) video, (4) documents, (5) photography, (6) warrants, (7) hazardous devices, and (8) ballistics. Workload statistics for 1980-1981 were :

* fingerprint examinations   13,123

* documents examined   363

* photographic assignments   3,565

* hazardous (bomb) incidents attended   36

* firearms examinations   1,834

Tasmania

The Tasmania police department operates a Scientific Bureau, comprising photographic and fingerprint sections. During 1980-1981, 736 crime scenes were examined by Bureau staff.

Northern Territory

The Northern Territory forensic science section reported the following workload for the year 1980-1981:

* crime scenes attended   285

* serious crime processed   215

* photographic jobs   1,062

* blood tests (alcohol)   853

* drug analyses   180

Other sections placed within the force's Technical Services Directorate include: (1) information bureau, (2) firearm recording section and (3) communications section.

Police dogs & kennels

Several police forces employ dogs in their efforts to identify offenders (see Table 16.1). Dogs, mostly donated, are owned by the several departments and their handlers are sworn police officers. The growing illegal use of explosives and massive upsurge in illegal drug dealing has led to the training of selected police (and other agencies', eg, Customs) dogs to detect explosives or drugs. Other duties involving dogs include tracking offenders, searches for wanted and missing persons, suppression of violence and security of premises. In calendar 1981, for example, police dogs in Victoria were responsible for the apprehension of 315 offenders. In South Australia for the 1979-80 year, dog teams attended 2,732 incidents. During the year 1980-81, police dogs and their handlers in Queensland undertook:

* school patrols   11,064

* suspect location   389

* drug searches   69

* arrests   80

TABLE 16.1

POLICE DOGS: BY AGENCY, 1981

agency	dogs
NSW	9
V	17
Q	10
SA	12
WA	0
T	0
NT	0

Source: Police department annual reports

SECTION 17: INTERNATIONAL PROGRAMS

Being distantly placed from the major cities of the western world, Australians in numerous occupations travel overseas in order to overcome the inevitable culture and technology lag which affects them. Police are no exception to this process and each year some hundreds of police officers and their families travel to Europe and America. Some go specifically to see how the 'job' is performed elsewhere. Others take a more leisurely look at police affairs in the course of what is primarily a vacation. At the official level, a much smaller number of police officers travel overseas on formally approved study tours. Favoured foreign training establishments include the Police Staff College at Bramshill, England, FBI National Academy, Quantico, Virginia; and the School of Justice Administration at the University of Louisville, at Louisville, Kentucky. Other officers travel to specific cities looking at particular phenomena, eg, labor relations or team policing. Sometimes, such travelling is undertaken at departmental expense or with a departmental subsidy. Others travel on a scholarship from the Churchill Trust. Since 1980, a small number of scholarships have been made available through the federally funded Police Study Scholarship scheme which is operated corporately by the police commissioners in company with federal representatives.

Most police forces provided specialists to the Royal Papua New Guinea Constabulary over the last decade, although that need has now greatly reduced. At one stage state/territory police officers served with the UNCIVPOL force in Cyprus but, now, only federal law enforcement personnel are so seconded. The International Training Centre in Sydney has conducted a number of international police courses for officers from a wide range of countries, with an emphasis on Asian and Pacific countries. Some police forces, eg, South Australia, have also conducted international police courses.

All police forces are affiliated with Interpol and two Commissioners attend each major conference of that organisation. The national central bureau is located in Canberra. It was for many years operated by the Victoria police department but following federal attempts to become involved in police affairs, the bureau was relocated in Canberra and is now serviced by federal employees.

Travel abroad by police personnel on formally approved study trips has the advantage of broadening the horizons of the members concerned. Unfortunately, inadequate screening not only sees some inappropriate and ill-prepared personnel travelling but sometimes they are despatched to research matters that have been already fully explored. In addition, some of their subsequent reports are inferior. Due to this major flaw, full benefits have not been derived from overseas visits.

An exchange of detectives is continually practised between both state and territory police forces and between them and the New Zealand Police Force. Increased drug trafficking and movement of criminals between the two countries has led to the exchange of liaison officers. One New Zealand police officer located in Sydney and a New South Wales police officer in Wellington, New Zealand. The need for police attaches to be assigned to selected embassies and consulates has long been recognised. The time is long overdue for the Police Commissioners Conference to raise the matter with the Department of Foreign Affairs.

SECTION 18: PROFILES OF POLICE ORGANISATIONS

Commissioners & ministers' representative councils

Organisations relating to the police occupation and industry largely reflect the orderly political structure of the nation. The Commissioners of Police combine in annual conference, known as the Commissioners' Conference. Pressure of business, in fact, requires at least two meetings a year. A secretariat for the Commissioners' Conference is maintained by the Victoria Police Force. In a somewhat similar manner, the various police ministers and ministers responsible for police have in recent years formed a Council of Police Ministers. The federal government maintains the Council's secretariat. The logical extension of these coordinating initiatives is the creation of an independent interstate police commission but such has not been attempted to date. Such a police commission would possess many advantages, including the placing of both Commissioners and Ministers in the one executive body. At the present time the Ministers' Council is increasingly involving itself with policy matters with which the various ministers are ill-equipped to deal. The lack of relevant background of most ministers combined with the short period of office which they generally possess, results in their less than satisfactory corporate performance.

Youth clubs

Police-Citizens clubs for youth are widely spread in all states but South Australia. The clubs are managed by selected police officers and volunteer citizens and run sport and leisure programs designed to provide creative and pleasant outlets for youngsters. The movement began in New South Wales in 1937, when Commissioner William John Mackay instituted the scheme. He was influenced by similar earlier schemes he had observed in England. Since that time scores of such clubs have been formed across the country. Instruction in the various activities is provided by interested citizens, with commendable results. The Victoria Police in 1980, instituted Blue Light clubs, a highly successful enterprise, which run disco type entertainment for teenagers.

Employee unions

All police personnel, with but minor exceptions, are covered by police specific unions. Bargaining units vary from agency to agency but bargaining agents remain constant. For instance, in New South Wales, Queensland, South Australia and the Northern Territory commissioned officers are represented separately from rank and file members. The other forces, ie, Victoria, Tasmania and Western Australia, have but the one bargaining agent for each force.

There is evidence of an attempt to form a police union in Victoria as early as 1904. However, the first union to sustain its existence was formed in South Australia in 1911, closely followed by Western Australia in 1912. Queensland police other ranks organised in 1915 and Victorian police officers combined in 1917. Their union was 'broken' in 1933 by the Chief Commissioner and a new union was subsequently formed. New South Wales police noncommissioned ranks organised in 1920, followed shortly thereafter by the state's commissioned police officers. Tasmania's police formed their union in 1923, followed ten years later by the Federal Capital Territor. Police in the Northern Territory established their union in

1939, although it was inactive between 1941 and 1945 due to pressures resulting from World War II. The years of formation of the various police unions are provided at Table 18.1.

TABLE 18.1

POLICE UNIONS: BY YEAR OF FORMATION

Association/Union title	year of origin
Police Association Of South Australia	1911
Commissioned Police Officers' Association Of South Australia	1950
Western Australian Union Of Police Workers (originally Police Association Of Western Australia)	1912
Queensland Police Union Of Employees	1915
Queensland Police Officers' Union Of Employees	1925
Police Association Of New South Wales	1920
Commissioned Police Officers' Association Of New South Wales	1920
Police Association Of Tasmania	1923
Police Association Of Victoria*	1933
Police Association Of Australian Capital Territory†	1933
Police Association Of Northern Territory§	1945
Northern Territory Police Officers' Association	1967

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology
* Previous PAV existed 1917-1932. † PAACT changed title to Federal Police Association 12 Jun 79. § Previous PANT existed 1939-1941.

Commissioned officers' associations in NSW and South Australia are affiliated with the Public Service Association or equivalent in their respective states. Thus, the bargaining agents for commissioned officers in those two states in respect of award related matters are the public service associations and not the commissioned officers' association. In Queensland, however, the commissioned officers, generally with assistance from the much larger other ranks union, pursue their own claims.

In 1947, a meeting of union secretaries was held in Melbourne, Victoria. The secretaries agreed to the formation of an Australian Federation of Police Associations and Unions. That body has existed ever since, being successively known as the Police Federation of Australia and, more recently, the Police Federation of Australia and New Zealand. The Federation meets biennially to discuss matters of mutual industrial interest to members. During 1982, the Police Association of New South Wales resigned from the Federation.

Police labour relations are mostly conducted between union representatives and employers. In two states, Tasmania and Queensland, the Commissioner of Police is the employer in respect of all matters, including economic claims. Elsewhere, with but one exception, the employer for purposes of economic matters is the Public Service Board and the employer in respect of all other matters is the Commissioner of Police. In New South Wales, however, the Public Service Board is now the employer (on behalf of the Crown) in respect of all matters.

Police unions perform many vital functions, the most critical of which is the pursuit of economic reward for their members. Economic factors such as pay, allowances, overtime, penalty rates and leave, are included in awards or determinations on a force by force basis. Thus, the Award for Police Officers in New South Wales covers the conditions of employment for police in that state. Each jurisdiction has its own unique industrial arbitration and conciliation structures. Police unions and agencies are basically divisible into those which operate in a system designed for all industries and those which cater specifically to police. In the former category are New South Wales (its access to the Industrial Commission is subject to certain constraints), South Australia, Western Australia and Queensland. Tasmania is in the same category but of a different order in that police in that state utilise the services of the Public Service Board, which provides an arbitration service. It is possible the Tasmanian government will create an industrial commission in the near future. Other police forces, such as Victoria and Northern Territory are serviced by tribunals designed specifically for those forces.

Industrial bargaining is usually conducted between the parties in the form of collective bargaining. Successful results of such negotiations are variously referred to as consent awards, agreements or determinations. Where agreement is impossible between the parties, as is increasingly the case in recent years, resort is made to formal arbitration or conciliation services provided by the various industrial commissions or tribunals. It is now common for full awards to be arbitrated.

In addition to the pursuit of economic reward on behalf of their members, unions spend considerable time in resolving members' grievances, attending to their welfare and keeping them informed of industrial and other pertinent matters. Increasingly, police unions are acting as occupational protectors, which involves an expanding professional role for them.

The postal addresses of the various other rank police employee unions are shown below:

Police Association of New South Wales
PO Box Q283
Queen Victoria Building
SYDNEY   NSW 2000

Police Union of Western Australia
220 Adelaide Terrace
PERTH   WA   6000

Police Association of Victoria
43 McKenzie Street
MELBOURNE   V 3000

Police Association of Tasmania
GPO 1299N
HOBART   T 7001

Police Union of Queensland
PO Box 2
Roma Street
BRISBANE   Q 4000

Police Association of Northern Territory
PO Box 2350
DARWIN   NT   5794

Police Association of South Australia
27 Carrington Street
ADELAIDE SA 5000

Credit unions

Each police force has a credit union, most of which are closely associated with their respective police union. Indeed, in Tasmania, the police credit union is nominally controlled by the Police Association. In several states police union officials are represented on the credit unions' boards of directors. In South Australia, the credit union manager is a seconded police officer, whilst elsewhere he or she is an employed civilian.

International Police Association

The International Police Association, a socially oriented organisation, is well represented throughout all states and territories. Its membership is open to all serving and former police officers.

Support agencies

At the time of writing two organisation in support of police are close to commencing. One, a research body, will be located in Adelaide and the other, a forensic science institute, is to be sited in Brisbane. Neither body will be headed by a police officer and both are closely linked with federal interests.

SECTION 19: CRIMINAL OFFENCES

Criminal statistics are a state and territory responsibility and each police force produces its own annual criminal statistics statements. Counting of criteria vary according to state needs and traditions. Additionally, in South Australia and New South Wales the Office of Crime Statistics and Bureau of Crime Statistics & Research respectively produce additional court related data.

Since 1966, the Australian Bureau of Statistics has produced an annual statement of major crime either reported to or becoming known to police. The counting criteria for the statements are standardised and every effort is made to maximise comparability. The data are published in Year Book Australia. For reasons of convenience this section confines itself to such data. The offence categories employed are: (1) homicide, (2) serious assault, (3) robbery, (4) rape, (5) breaking and entering, (6) motor vehicle theft, (7) fraud, forgery, etc.

Homicide

Homicide involves unlawful killing of persons and includes murder, attempted murder and manslaughter. When homicides arising from traffic incidents are excluded, homicide rates show a general increase over time as well as some marked variations between jurisdictions.

With respect to the mean rate of homicides per 100,000 of population for the period 1964-1965 to 1979-1980 (see Figure 19.1), it will be seen that the highest homicide rate by far is experienced in the Northern Territory, whereas the lowest rate occurred in the Australian Capital Territory. The rate for Queensland slightly exceeded that of New South Wales, followed by Victoria, Western Australia, Tasmania and South Australia in that order.

Annual frequencies and rates per 100,000 population for each jurisdiction are shown at Table 19.1.

FIGURE 19.1

HOMICIDE MEAN RATES (per 100,000 pop):
BY STATE & TERRITORY, 1964-1965 TO 1979-1980
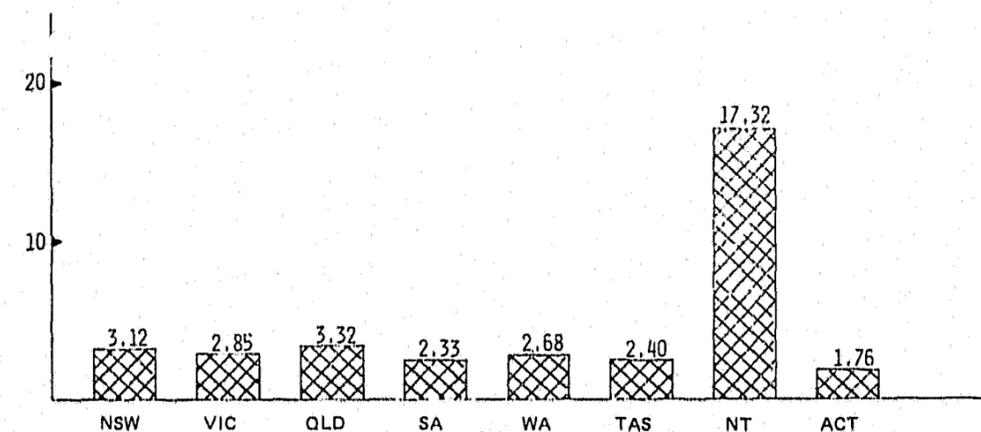
TABLE 19.1

HOMICIDE FREQUENCIES & RATES (per 100,000 pop):
BY STATE & TERRITORY, 1964-1965 TO 1979-1980†

Year	NSW	VIC	QLD	SA	WA	TAS	NT	ACT
1964-65	107 / 2.6	84 / 2.7	47 / 2.9	18 / 1.7	9 / 1.1	4 / 1.1	6 / 11.3	6 / 7.1
1965-66	113 / 2.7	78 / 2.4	48 / 2.9	14 / 1.3	12 / 1.4	7 / 1.9	8 / 14.5	1 / 1.1
1966-67	134 / 3.1	82 / 2.5	55 / 3.3	15 / 1.4	13 / 1.5	5 / 1.3	14 / 24.1	1 / 1.0
1967-68	134 / 3.1	59 / 1.8	48 / 2.8	26 / 2.3	8 / 0.9	8 / 2.1	14 / 21.9	3 / 3.8
1968-69	139 / 3.2	50 / 1.5	50 / 2.9	16 / 1.4	18 / 1.9	12 / 3.1	8 / 11.4	2 / 1.7
1969-70	122 / 2.7	83 / 2.4	28 / 1.6	29 / 2.5	12 / 1.2	13 / 3.4	7 / 9.2	1 / 0.8
1970-71	123 / 2.7	110 / 3.2	50 / 2.8	27 / 2.3	18 / 1.8	8 / 2.1	12 / 14.5	2 / 1.4
1971-72	131 / 2.8	110 / 3.1	44 / 2.4	35 / 3.0	33 / 3.1	13 / 3.3	10 / 11.2	4 / 2.6
1972-73	142 / 3.0	122 / 3.4	76 / 4.0	23 / 1.9	29 / 2.7	18 / 4.5	9 / 9.7	6 / 3.7
1973-74	189 / 4.0	139 / 3.8	82 / 4.6	31 / 2.6	62 / 5.7	6 / 1.5	14 / 14.3	1 / 0.6
1974-75	161 / 3.4	118 / 3.2	73 / 3.7	30 / 2.4	61 / 5.5	14 / 3.5	19 / 27.1	1 / 0.5
1975-76	163 / 3.4	107 / 2.9	80 / 4.0	33 / 2.7	53 / 4.7	10 / 2.4	25 / 26.0	1 / 0.5
1976-77	173 / 3.5	117 / 3.1	88 / 4.3	31 / 2.5	39 / 3.3	9 / 2.2	29 / 28.2	3 / 1.4
1977-78	152 / 3.1	101 / 2.7	72 / 3.3	37 / 2.9	25 / 2.1	7 / 1.7	21 / 19.4	5 / 2.4
1978-79	164 / 3.3	122 / 3.2	92 / 4.2	37 / 2.9	39 / 3.2	7 / 1.7	16 / 14.0	1 / 0.5
1979-80	171 / 3.3	142 / 3.7	74 / 3.4	44 / 3.4	35 / 2.8	11 / 2.6	24 / 20.3	-

† The data for Victoria(73-74), NT(73-76) and, WA(73-80), include manslaughter by driving.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology

Serious assault

Serious assaults include unlawful attacks by one person upon another for the purpose of inflicting severe bodily harm, mostly accompanied by the use of a weapon or by other means likely to produce death or severe bodily injury. Excluded from this category, though, are attempted murder, robbery, sexual offences and offences in which bodily injury results from negligent acts or omissions. It will be realised that a common definition is accordingly difficult to effect. Interpretation of data is complicated by alterations in definitions from time to time in efforts to refine the definition.

Over the entire period 1964-1965 to 1979 to 1980, the Northern Territory shows by far the highest mean rate of serious assault, with Tasmania showing the lowest rate. Victoria appears to possess the second highest rate, followed by ACT, Queensland, New South Wales, Western Australia and South Australia in that order (see Figure 19.2). These, in some cases, gross divergencies, suggest non standard criteria are applied in some jurisdictions, eg, Northern Territory.

FIGURE 19.2

SERIOUS ASSAULT MEAN RATES (per 100,000 pop):
BY STATE & TERRITORY, 1964-1965 TO 1979-1980
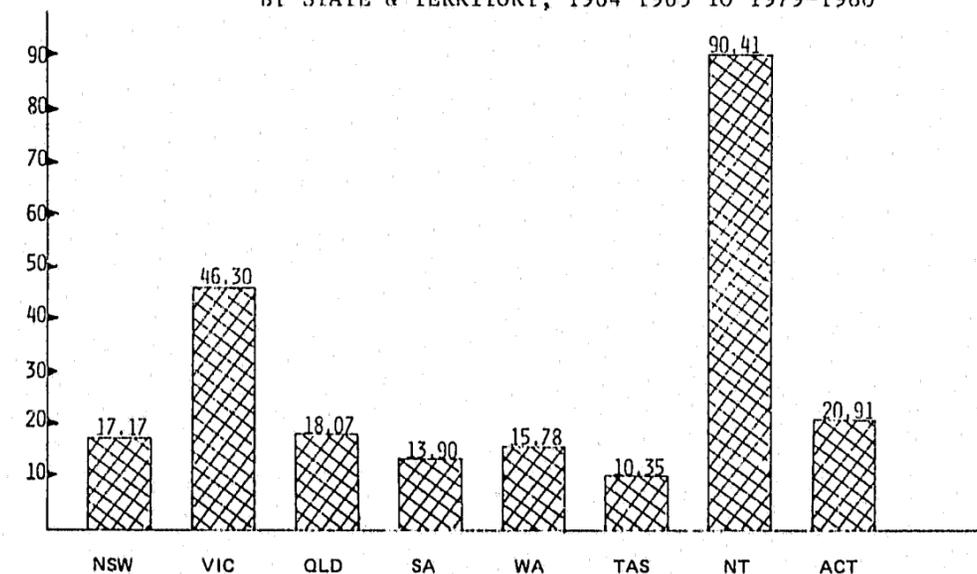
Source: Australian Institute of Criminology

Frequency and annual rate data shown at Table 19.2 suggest a tendency to increased rates in Western Australia, Queensland and South Australia but must be regarded with caution. Criminal justice planners

are better advised to confine themselves to single state data and thus avoid the temptation to compare possibly erroneously standardised data.

TABLE 19.2

SERIOUS ASSAULT FREQUENCIES & RATES (per 100,000 pop): BY STATE & TERRITORY, 1964-1965 TO 1979-1980

Year	NSW	VIC	QLD	SA	WA	TAS	NT	ACT
1964-65	481 11.6	1259 40.1	55 3.4	51 4.8	23 2.8	36 9.8	16 30.2	14 16.5
1965-66	502 11.9	1288 40.3	71 4.3	43 4.0	10 1.2	6 1.6	12 21.8	19 20.4
1966-67	545 12.8	1567 48.2	108 6.4	61 5.5	17 2.0	9 2.4	15 25.9	10 10.0
1967-68	561 13.0	1548 46.9	116 6.8	67 6.0	42 4.7	9 2.4	31 48.4	17 15.7
1968-69	658 15.0	1354 40.3	140 8.0	69 6.1	54 5.8	37 9.7	21 30.0	24 20.5
1969-70	657 14.6	1795 52.5	153 8.6	83 7.2	98 10.0	34 8.8	30 39.5	25 19.7
1970-71	757 16.6	2272 65.2	188 10.4	98 8.4	96 9.5	47 12.1	70 84.3	44 31.9
1971-72	828 17.8	2712 76.7	224 12.1	126 10.6	157 15.0	21 5.3	131 147.2	35 23.2
1972-73	877 18.7	1942 54.2	289 15.2	172 14.4	112 10.5	11 2.8	73 78.5	40 24.5
1973-74	905 19.1	1373 38.0	178 9.1	168 13.9	168 15.5	22 5.5	64 65.3	41 23.4
1974-75	908 18.9	1104 30.1	307 15.4	213 17.2	238 21.3	33 8.1	42 60.0	34 18.3
1975-76	837 17.4	1413 38.3	537 26.7	244 19.7	320 28.1	45 11.0	43 44.8	34 16.9
1976-77	895 18.3	1277 34.2	544 26.7	251 20.0	429 36.7	42 10.2	58 56.3	42 19.8
1977-78	1076 21.6	1531 40.3	738 34.3	262 20.4	367 30.3	85 20.6	42 38.9	53 25.1
1978-79	1134 22.5	1775 46.2	968 44.4	351 27.0	292 23.6	89 21.4	258 226.3	56 25.6
1979-80	1274 24.9	1910 49.3	1263 57.3	482 37.2	445 35.5	142 33.9	530 449.2	52 23.0

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology

Robbery

The definition of robbery includes situations in which offenders use or threaten violence, either immediately before, during or after the time of stealing, to any person or property in order to obtain the matter

stolen or to prevent or overcome resistance to its being stolen. Robbery thus involves offences against both the person and property.

The mean robbery rates for the period 1964-65 to 1979-80, shown at Figure 19.3, indicate that New South Wales, Victoria and the Northern Territory experience a more serious robbery problem than other jurisdictions.

FIGURE 19.3

ROBBERY MEAN RATES (per 100,000 pop): BY STATE & TERRITORY, 1964-1965 TO 1979-1980
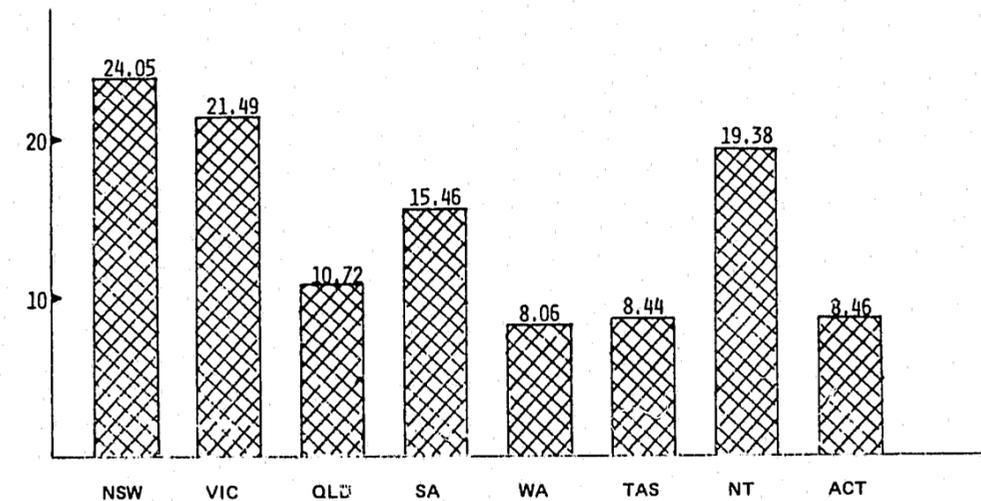
Source: Australian Institute of Criminology

The annual frequencies and rates show at Table 19.3 suggest a relatively uniform increase in all jurisdictions.

TABLE 19.3

ROBBERY FREQUENCIES & RATES (per 100,000 pop):
BY STATE & TERRITORY, 1964-1965 TO 1979-1980

Year	NSW	VIC	QLD	SA	WA	TAS	NT	ACT
1964-65	234 5.6	289 9.2	60 3.7	27 2.6	19 2.3	8 2.2	- -	1 1.2
1965-66	323 7.7	365 11.4	89 5.4	42 3.9	18 2.1	18 4.9	2 3.6	7 7.5
1966-67	383 9.0	415 12.8	93 5.5	47 4.3	20 2.3	19 5.1	4 6.9	4 4.0
1967-68	428 9.9	478 14.5	82 4.8	55 4.9	36 4.0	22 5.8	6 9.4	9 8.3
1968-69	663 15.1	538 16.0	85 4.9	124 11.0	46 4.9	23 6.0	11 15.7	12 10.3
1969-70	822 18.3	697 20.4	100 5.6	117 10.2	40 4.1	26 6.7	10 13.2	8 6.3
1970-71	1089 23.8	770 22.1	175 9.7	138 11.8	76 7.5	32 8.2	22 26.5	11 8.0
1971-72	1608 34.6	877 24.8	213 11.5	187 15.8	112 10.7	48 12.2	33 37.1	21 13.9
1972-73	1457 31.0	872 24.4	302 15.9	182 15.2	89 8.3	51 12.9	24 25.8	19 11.7
1973-74	1519 32.1	891 24.6	294 15.1	262 21.6	130 12.0	46 11.5	20 20.4	22 12.6
1974-75	1705 35.5	889 24.2	343 17.2	288 23.2	141 12.6	46 11.4	39 55.7	16 8.6
1975-76	1319 27.4	826 22.4	332 16.5	269 21.7	145 12.8	35 8.6	29 30.2	18 9.0
1976-77	1353 27.7	965 25.9	282 13.9	265 21.1	127 10.9	38 9.2	19 18.4	21 9.9
1977-78	1716 34.4	1110 29.2	318 14.8	213 16.6	155 12.8	26 6.3	24 22.2	15 7.1
1978-79	1699 33.8	1170 30.4	281 12.9	328 25.3	127 10.3	51 12.3	13 11.4	14 6.4
1979-80	1990 38.9	1227 31.6	312 14.1	494 38.1	143 11.4	49 11.7	16 13.6	24 10.6

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology

Rape

Rape includes attempted rape and assault with intent to rape but excludes unlawful carnal knowledge and indecent assault.

Major problems attach to uniform rape data not only due to possible countingdifferences between jurisdictions but also with respect to the low reporting rates. Changes to ᴄʜe law in some states in recent years, more humane police reception and court procedures, as well as ideological influences, have all operated to make the reporting of rape offences less traumatic to victims. Thus, it is a matter for speculation as to the true extent of the offence at the present time and how much recent data are due to the lessened stigma attaching to victims. Mean rape rates for the period 1964-1965 to 1979-1980 are shown at Figure 19.4. Once again the

FIGURE 19.4

RAPE MEAN RATES (per 100,000 OF pop):
BY STATE & TERRITORY, 1964-1965 TO 1979-1980
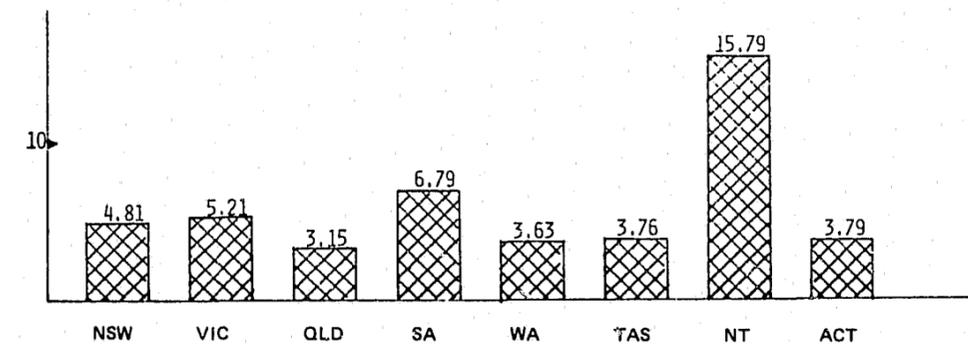
Source: Australian Institute of Criminology

Northern Territory shows a high rate of violent crime but, surprisingly, South Australia shows the second highest mean rate over the period. Almost as surprisingly, is the fact that Queensland, a state possessing something of a reputation as a high rape state, registered the lowest rate.

In fact, the annual rape rates and frequencies shown at Table 19.4 show that Queensland, Victoria and the Australian Capital Territory experience the lowest rates overall.

TABLE 19.4

RAPE FREQUENCIES & RATES (per 100,000 pop):
BY STATE & TERRITORY, 1964-1965 TO 1979-1980

Year	NSW	VIC	QLD	SA	WA	TAS	NT	ACT
1964-65	60 / 1.4	93 / 3.0	50 / 3.1	20 / 1.9	10 / 1.2	7 / 1.9	- / -	? / 3.5
1965-66	78 / 1.9	96 / 3.0	40 / 2.4	24 / 2.2	9 / 1.1	6 / 1.6	3 / 5.5	4 / 4.3
1966-67	69 / 1.6	106 / 3.3	29 / 1.7	23 / 2.1	9 / 1.0	11 / 2.9	9 / 15.5	3 / 3.0
1967-68	91 / 2.1	166 / 5.0	43 / 2.5	49 / 4.4	3 / 0.3	12 / 3.2	4 / 6.3	2 / 1.9
1968-69	105 / 2.4	142 / 4.2	29 / 1.7	36 / 3.2	5 / 0.5	7 / 1.8	7 / 10.0	6 / 5.1
1969-70	116 / 2.6	162 / 4.7	35 / 2.0	24 / 2.1	7 / 0.7	12 / 3.1	21 / 27.6	7 / 5.5
1970-71	173 / 3.8	198 / 5.7	61 / 3.4	31 / 2.6	15 / 1.5	21 / 5.4	16 / 19.3	2 / 1.4
1971-72	184 / 4.0	181 / 5.1	72 / 3.9	61 / 5.1	33 / 3.1	24 / 6.1	16 / 18.0	6 / 4.0
1972-73	206 / 4.4	181 / 5.1	88 / 4.6	46 / 3.8	31 / 2.9	16 / 4.0	15 / 16.1	8 / 4.9
1973-74	308 / 6.5	209 / 5.8	66 / 3.4	101 / 8.3	31 / 2.9	17 / 4.3	25 / 25.5	9 / 5.1
1974-75	364 / 7.6	212 / 5.8	75 / 3.8	91 / 7.3	43 / 3.8	11 / 2.7	22 / 31.4	7 / 3.8
1975-76	342 / 7.1	273 / 7.4	64 / 3.2	131 / 10.6	71 / 6.2	25 / 6.1	7 / 7.3	7 / 3.5
1976-77	307 / 6.3	264 / 7.1	77 / 3.8	148 / 11.8	93 / 8.0	17 / 4.1	15 / 14.6	7 / 3.3
1977-78	365 / 7.3	233 / 6.1	72 / 3.3	172 / 13.4	98 / 8.1	16 / 3.9	17 / 15.7	10 / 4.7
1978-79	419 / 8.3	215 / 5.6	61 / 2.8	165 / 12.7	96 / 7.8	22 / 5.3	13 / 11.4	7 / 3.2
1979-80	491 / 9.6	247 / 6.4	105 / 4.8	222 / 17.1	112 / 8.9	16 / 3.8	29 / 24.6	8 / 3.5

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology

Breaking & entering

Breaking and entering a building (or entering a building and breaking out) and committing c intending to commit a crime therein constitutes an offense. Burglaries and attempted breakings are also included in the breaking and entering category.

Mean breaking and entering rates for the period 1964-1965 to 1979-1980 show high rates exist in all jurisdictions, see Figure 19.5

FIGURE 19.5

BREAKING & ENTERING MEAN RATES (per 100,000 pop):
BY STATE & TERRITORY, 1964-1965 TO 1979-1980
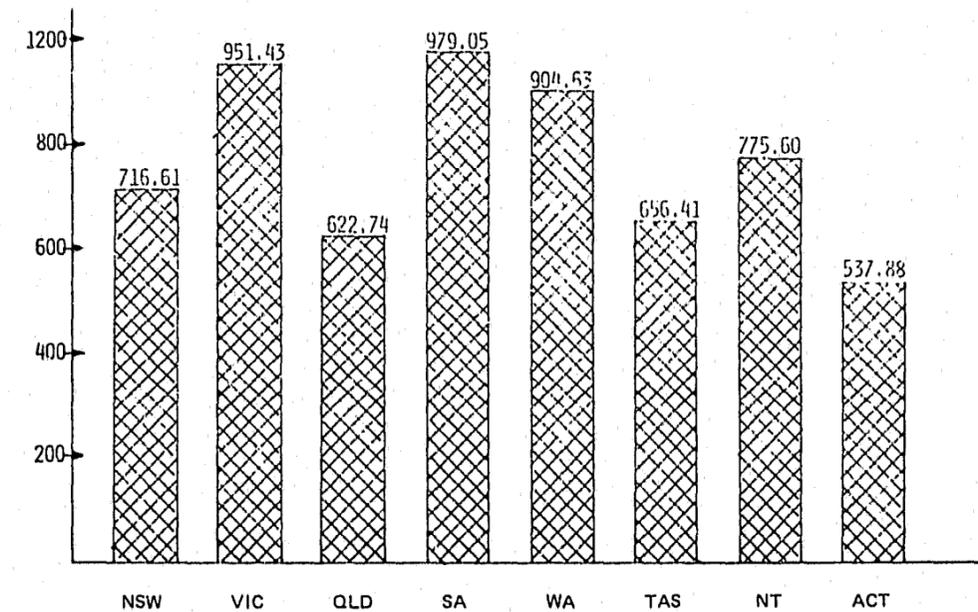
Source: Australian Institute of Criminology

The fuller details shown by the annual frequencies and rates at Table 19.5 suggest a fairly uniform pattern of increase in reporting, with the exception of Tasmania. In that state the growth rate has been, apparently, rather slower.

TABLE 19.5

BREAKING & ENTERING FREQUENCIES & RATES (per 100,000 pop):
BY STATE & TERRITORY, 1964-1965 TO 1979-1980

Year	NSW	VIC	QLD	SA	WA	TAS	NT	ACT
1964-65	9466 228.5	16906 538.8	5401 332.0	4653 442.3	3028 370.2	1911 520.7	149 281.1	299 351.8
1965-66	12032 285.7	22051 690.0	5979 360.4	6009 554.8	3438 410.3	1701 459.7	150 272.7	312 335.5
1966-67	13584 317.9	24288 747.3	6270 371.4	7837 709.2	4799 556.1	1603 428.6	142 244.8	419 419.0
1967-68	17126 395.9	25474 771.5	6515 379.9	7754 694.8	4384 489.3	1849 489.2	251 392.2	412 381.5
1968-69	20677 469.8	25628 763.4	7842 448.6	7575 669.2	6768 721.5	2365 617.5	262 374.3	378 323.1
1969-70	24245 539.9	29644 866.5	9050 508.4	8499 739.7	7272 744.3	2760 713.2	310 407.9	488 384.3
1970-71	36775 804.0	33796 970.6	11847 653.4	9664 826.0	8073 796.2	2954 757.4	587 707.2	637 461.6
1971-72	46873 1007.8	38148 1078.2	14333 773.9	12109 1021.9	8025 765.0	3071 781.4	875 983.1	633 419.2
1972-73	42292 900.4	34988 977.0	13627 717.6	12172 1016.9	9631 903.5	2742 632.4	734 789.2	861 528.2
1973-74	38718 817.2	32892 909.6	13999 719.0	13352 1102.6	11563 1066.7	2324 582.5	1055 1076.5	1236 706.3
1974-75	43722 910.3	34921 951.8	14387 721.5	14628 1180.6	14833 1326.7	2564 633.1	920 1314.3	1203 646.8
1975-76	41135 853.6	33525 909.3	15657 778.2	14027 1132.1	14013 1232.5	2792 682.6	978 1018.2	1196 595.0
1976-77	42142 863.6	37347 1001.5	14318 703.2	14561 1160.2	14433 1235.7	2835 688.0	1141 1107.8	1512 713.2
1977-78	49392 991.4	45573 1199.0	16366 761.2	15273 1189.5	14550 1202.5	3145 763.3	1111 1028.7	1746 827.5
1978-79	50815 1010.0	52613 1368.3	18053 827.4	17970 1384.4	16073 1298.3	3454 830.3	1141 1176.3	1677 765.8
1979-80	54706 1069.7	57382 1480.1	20023 907.7	23873 1840.6	17009 1355.3	3614 862.5	1457 1234.7	1689 747.3

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology

Motor vehicle theft

Motor vehicle theft includes illegal, unlawful or unauthorised use, use without consent, unlawfully assuming control, etc, of a motor vehicle. Attempts are included in the definition although cases of interference are not.

Mean motor vehicle theft rates for the period 1964-1965 to 1979-1980 are shown for each jurisdiction at Figure 19.6. These data indicate

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the Northern Territory experiences the highest rate of motor vehicle theft, followed by New South Wales and Western Australia. Relatively low rates are noted for Queensland and Tasmania.

FIGURE 19.6

MOTOR VEHICLE THEFT MEAN RATES (per 100,000 pop):
BY STATE & TERRITORY, 1964-1965 TO 1979-1980
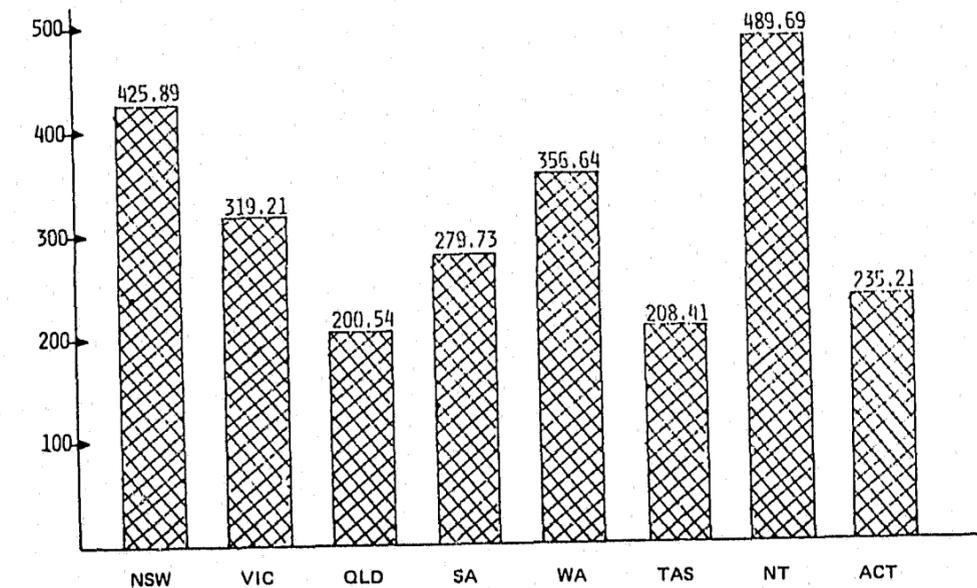
Source: Australian Institute of Criminology

The high reportability of motor vehicle theft makes these data more than usually reliable. From the data shown at Table 19.6 considerable differences between jurisdictions will be noted. Some differences may be attributed to police and media crime prevention campaigns. There is little evidence, however, that the compulsory fitting of steering locks reduces vehicle thefts.

TABLE 19.6

MOTOR VEHICLE THEFT FREQUENCIES & RATES (per 100,000 pop): BY STATES & TERRITORIES, 1964-1965 TO 1979-1980

Each cell shows frequency (upper) and rate (lower).

Year	NSW	VIC	QLD	SA	WA	TAS	NT	ACT
1964-65	11553 / 278.9	7028 / 224.0	1724 / 106.0	1328 / 126.2	991 / 121.1	378 / 103.0	68 / 128.3	145 / 170.6
1965-66	12546 / 297.9	8148 / 254.9	1779 / 107.2	1453 / 134.2	1376 / 164.2	470 / 127.0	92 / 167.3	208 / 223.7
1966-67	12934 / 302.7	8931 / 274.8	1642 / 97.3	1465 / 132.6	1543 / 178.8	497 / 132.9	95 / 163.8	225 / 225.0
1967-68	12675 / 293.0	8734 / 264.5	1528 / 89.1	1870 / 167.6	1960 / 218.8	670 / 177.2	160 / 250.0	199 / 184.3
1968-69	14111 / 320.6	9242 / 275.3	1930 / 110.4	1770 / 156.4	2034 / 216.8	732 / 191.1	199 / 284.3	185 / 158.1
1969-70	16609 / 369.8	10278 / 300.4	2534 / 142.4	1956 / 170.2	2209 / 226.1	581 / 150.1	250 / 328.9	267 / 210.2
1970-71	20408 / 446.2	12054 / 346.2	3668 / 202.3	2357 / 201.5	3358 / 331.2	850 / 217.9	437 / 526.5	369 / 267.4
1971-72	21112 / 453.9	12370 / 349.6	4549 / 245.6	2990 / 252.3	3975 / 378.9	1208 / 307.4	368 / 413.5	349 / 231.1
1972-73	18847 / 401.3	11057 / 308.8	4739 / 249.6	3380 / 282.4	4338 / 406.9	1148 / 289.9	593 / 637.6	412 / 252.8
1973-74	21112 / 445.6	10953 / 302.9	5016 / 257.6	4172 / 344.5	5214 / 481.0	1084 / 271.7	677 / 690.8	598 / 341.7
1974-75	22301 / 464.3	11194 / 305.1	5451 / 273.4	4679 / 377.6	5524 / 494.1	1052 / 259.8	797 / 1138.6	542 / 291.4
1975-76	21769 / 451.7	10880 / 295.1	5199 / 258.4	4846 / 391.1	5279 / 464.3	1032 / 252.3	605 / 630.2	495 / 246.3
1976-77	23443 / 480.4	13067 / 350.4	5189 / 254.9	4496 / 358.2	5499 / 470.8	858 / 208.3	675 / 655.3	481 / 226.9
1977-78	27018 / 542.3	15487 / 407.4	5709 / 265.5	5516 / 429.6	6394 / 528.4	933 / 226.5	645 / 597.2	593 / 281.0
1978-79	30978 / 615.7	15833 / 411.8	6052 / 277.4	6492 / 500.2	6347 / 512.7	780 / 187.5	706 / 619.3	550 / 251.1
1979-80	33237 / 649.9	16906 / 436.1	5991 / 271.6	5850 / 451.0	6427 / 512.1	972 / 232.0	712 / 603.4	456 / 201.8

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology

An alternative method of displaying motor vehicle theft rates is by frequency in relation to each 1,000 registered motor vehicles rather than frequency in relation to 100,000 population, as shown at Table 19.6. This latter method is shown at Table 19.7. It will be seen that the recent rates for Queensland, Tasmania, Northern Territory and Australian Capital Territory show a decline. The massive preponderance of car theft in New South Wales provides grounds for serious concern in that state.

TABLE 19.7

MOTOR VEHICLE THEFT FREQUENCIES & RATES (per 1,000 registered): BY STATE & TERRITORY, 1964-1965 TO 1979-1980

Each cell shows frequency (upper) and rate (lower).

Year	NSW	VIC	QLD	SA	WA	TAS	NT	ACT
1964-65	11553 / 9.16	7028 / 6.90	1724 / 3.32	1328 / 3.49	991 / 3.55	378 / 3.20	68 / 4.86	145 / 5.00
1965-66	12546 / 9.50	8148 / 7.64	1779 / 3.22	1453 / 3.66	1376 / 4.66	470 / 3.79	92 / 6.13	206 / 6.30
1966-67	12934 / 9.43	8931 / 8.08	1642 / 2.84	1465 / 3.54	1543 / 4.87	497 / 3.79	95 / 5.94	225 / 6.25
1967-68	12675 / 8.80	8734 / 7.57	1528 / 2.52	1870 / 4.37	1960 / 5.78	670 / 4.89	160 / 8.89	199 / 4.98
1968-69	14111 / 9.30	9242 / 7.59	1930 / 3.03	1770 / 3.99	2034 / 5.56	732 / 5.05	199 / 9.48	185 / 4.11
1969-70	16609 / 10.30	10278 / 8.03	2534 / 3.77	1956 / 4.18	2209 / 5.55	581 / 3.85	250 / 10.42	267 / 5.34
1970-71	20408 / 12.02	12054 / 8.94	3668 / 5.18	2357 / 4.81	3358 / 7.94	850 / 5.32	437 / 16.19	369 / 6.47
1971-72	21112 / 11.62	12370 / 8.77	4549 / 6.06	2990 / 5.26	3975 / 8.76	1208 / 7.32	368 / 11.87	349 / 5.37
1972-73	18847 / 9.96	11057 / 7.43	4739 / 5.91	3380 / 6.31	4338 / 9.09	1148 / 6.71	593 / 17.97	412 / 5.80
1973-74	21112 / 10.56	10953 / 6.95	5016 / 5.82	4172 / 7.29	5214 / 10.28	1084 / 6.06	677 / 19.34	598 / 7.77
1974-75	22301 / 10.66	11194 / 6.69	5451 / 5.99	4679 / 7.79	5524 / 10.77	1052 / 5.60	797 / 20.97	542 / 6.53
1975-76	21769 / 10.04	10880 / 6.11	5199 / 5.50	4846 / 7.70	5279 / 8.98	1032 / 5.16	605 / 18.33	495 / 5.56
1976-77	23443 / 10.56	13067 / 7.24	5189 / 4.99	4496 / 6.83	5499 / 8.70	858 / 4.14	675 / 18.75	481 / 4.96
1977-78	27018 / 11.80	15487 / 8.35	5709 / 5.17	5516 / 8.14	6394 / 9.46	933 / 4.38	645 / 15.36	593 / 5.93
1978-79	30978 / 12.84	15833 / 8.02	6052 / 5.12	6492 / 9.42	6347 / 8.82	780 / 3.44	706 / 15.35	550 / 5.14
1979-80	33237 / 13.18	16906 / 8.63	5991 / 4.77	5850 / 8.25	6427 / 8.63	972 / 4.23	712 / 15.15	456 / 4.34

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology

Fraud, forgery, etc

This offence category includes all types of fraud, forgery, uttering, falsification of records, false pretences, secret commissions, imposition, fraudulent dealings in goods subject to hire purchase, obtaining credit by fraud and offences involving false claims, deception, trickery, cheating or breaches of trust, embezzlement, fraudulent misappropriation, fraudulent conversion and stealing by a servant or trustee, etc. Forgery and uttering of banknotes is excluded.

Mean fraud rates for the period 1964-1965 to 1979-1980 are shown at Figure 19.7. Reportability rates for this offence category are low and real rates are problematic. On the available data Tasmania rates are lowest and Northern Territory highest. These data, of course, refer to discrete offences and in no way reflect the sums involved.

FIGURE 19.7

FRAUD MEAN RATES (per 100,000 pop): BY STATE & TERRITORY, 1964-1965 TO 1979-1980
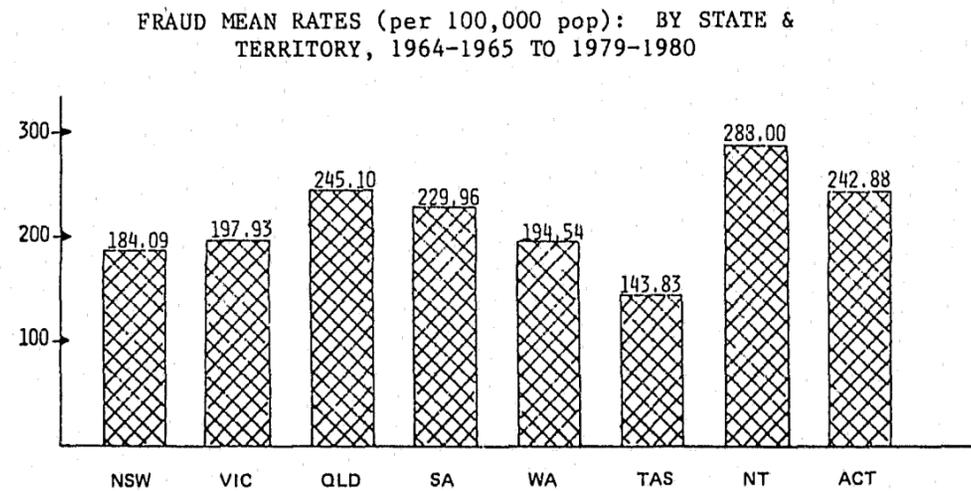
Source: Australian Institute of Criminology

Annual fraud frequencies and rates are shown at Table 19.8.

TABLE 19.8

FRAUD FREQUENCIES & RATES (per 100,000 pop): BY STATE & TERRITORY, 1964-1965 TO 1979-1980

Year	NSW	VIC	QLD	SA	WA	TAS	NT	ACT
1964-65	6636 160.2	4093 130.4	3079 189.2	1813 172.3	1055 129.0	292 79.6	72 135.8	168 197.6
1965-66	5622 133.5	4013 125.6	2843 171.4	1607 148.4	1076 128.4	306 82.7	156 283.6	302 324.7
1966-67	5534 129.5	3673 113.0	2685 159.1	1966 177.9	1136 131.6	200 53.5	124 213.8	280 280.0
1967-68	6427 148.6	3964 120.0	3858 225.0	1848 165.6	1379 153.9	437 115.6	170 265.6	164 151.9
1968-69	5836 132.6	4346 129.5	4062 232.4	2211 195.3	1549 165.1	674 176.0	274 391.4	192 164.1
1969-70	6169 137.4	3700 108.2	3837 215.6	3090 268.9	1932 197.7	600 155.0	130 171.1	183 144.1
1970-71	8062 176.3	6269 180.0	3758 207.3	3471 296.7	2088 205.9	733 187.9	205 247.0	231 167.4
1971-72	10329 222.1	6266 177.1	5609 302.9	3059 258.1	2021 192.7	654 166.4	248 278.7	226 149.7
1972-73	9643 205.3	5802 162.0	3896 205.2	3282 274.2	1983 186.0	915 231.1	334 359.1	423 259.5
1973-74	7253 153.1	5684 157.2	4577 235.1	5440 449.2	1859 171.5	543 136.1	236 240.8	353 201.7
1974-75	6773 141.0	7676 209.2	4517 226.5	2940 240.5	2304 206.1	489 120.7	281 401.4	456 245.2
1975-76	5403 112.1	12373 335.6	5286 262.7	2478 200.0	2571 226.1	438 107.1	221 230.2	482 239.8
1976-77	12776 261.8	9267 248.5	5043 247.7	2509 199.9	2269 194.3	594 144.2	278 269.9	1156 545.3
1977-78	12623 253.4	10428 274.3	7325 340.9	1739 135.4	2905 240.1	911 221.1	243 225.0	710 336.5
1978-79	14289 284.0	10380 270.0	6566 300.9	2642 203.5	3336 269.5	547 131.5	615 539.5	1040 478.5
1979-80	15064 294.6	16526 426.3	8817 399.7	3805 293.4	3949 314.7	808 192.8	419 355.1	- -

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology

The clear tendency to increases in all jurisdictions is certainly significant but, whether it reflects increased regulatory and enforcement activity or actual increase in offences is difficult to say.

Crime data needs generally

For more detailed and meaningful data, readers are referred to the annual reports of each police agency. Gross data relating to all categories of crime, including drugs, are provided therein. Persons requiring more detailed data, eg, crime committed by juveniles or other groups in the community, will need to contact relevant police agencies.

SECTION 20: CURRENT DEVELOPMENTS

The structure of the police service is largely determined by political boundaries. Each state government performs a police authority role for its single police force. A somewhat similar position exists in respect of the Northern Territory, which now exercises a substantial measure of self government. The ACT police force, as is also the case with the umbrella organisation of which that agency is now a part, is responsible to the federal government through the federal Minister for Administrative Services. Apart from the inappropriate combining of the ACT police in 1979 with a predominantly security organisation and, subsequently, a narcotics bureau, the state and territory organisation and structure of police services is ideal.

A great increase in drug related crime is apparent and complex crimes, eg, fraud, committed on a multinational basis have heightened the need for coordination not only between police agencies but, also, between police agencies and non police law enforcement agencies, such as Corporate Affairs Commissions. Greater awareness of trends in crime and public order have forced police authorities to place greater emphasis on cooperation than was previously the case. The forms of cooperation and coordination developed so far have been designed largely according to financial and political criteria rather than commonsense principles. As a result, unfortunate collective decisions have been made by the various police commissioners and ministers which involve serious long term implications for decay in the police service. In addition, the federal government's ambition to extend its law enforcement role has led to substantial duplication. Each police agency maintains, for example, a special branch. These branches cooperate well with the federal government's Australian Security Intelligence Organisation. Since the creation of the body known as the Australian Federal Police, that organisation now also maintains a special branch in each state. Such duplication is clearly unnecessary, wasteful and lacking constitutional justification.

The ability of the federal government to make funds available to hard pressed state and territory police authorities has in part led to significant federal intrusion into policing. The two major bodies representing police employers and authorities are the Commissioners' Conference and the Council of Police Ministers. The former has existed since 1903, whilst the latter body is of very recent origin. As a result of the deliberations of these two bodies, several new initiatives have been attempted. Unfortunately, the major step necessary to ensure harmonious and competent police cooperation has not been taken. This step, the creation of an interstate police commission, would have the capacity to provide all necessary cooperative mechanisms. In its absence, ad hoc decisions are taken to create various 'one off' structures. For example, Queensland, Tasmania, and Northern Territory now have joint state/ territory-federal drug squads. The disadvantages of such joint squads far outweigh any advantages claimed for them.

Another recent initiative undertaken in the name of cooperation is the creation of the Australian Bureau of Criminal Intelligence. This body, based in the nation's capital is staffed by a combination of police officers and public servants. The entire undertaking is largely financed and equipped by the federal government. This body, which cooperates with the various state crime intelligence bureaux, is intended to provide a national view of crime problems in Australia. Similarly, a central police

research bureau was established in Adelaide in 1983. This body also depends largely upon federal funding. By entering into such agreements the state/territory police commissioners are gradually ceding their state based authority to federal officials. The trend to federal control of common services is now well established and it is entirely possible that de facto federal control of police will be established within the next decade through such federal funding and joint operation ploys, rather in the style of the power gained by the Home Office over British police forces and the Federal Bureau of Investigation in respect of the police service in America. There exist in all three countries strong arguments for the removal of central political control of bona fide police agencies. The USA probably provides the closest parallel to the Australian situation and the deleterious effects of federal intrusion into law enforcement and policing in that country have been massive.

One of the factors favouring state tolerance of federal excision of police power is a strong desire for greater uniformity. There exists at many levels in Australia a firm faith in the notion that virtue somehow automatically inheres in standardisation. The thought that standardisation can be disastrous in a country as wide spread and varied in time and space as Australia has no appeal. As long ago as 1922, at an abortive attempt to create a federation of employee bodies, the cause of uniformity was claimed by delegates to be a major motivating influence. The sentiment has been evident in the police community ever since. Whilst standardisation is desirable in a few administrative areas, the strength and effectiveness of a federation as wide flung as Australia rests in diversity. Different approaches, ethos, designs, etc, conduce at least to excellence in some areas. The alternative permits at best mediocrity and, at worst, occupational decay.

It is impossible to accurately gauge the success or otherwise of police agencies in relation to their public order maintenance and crime control roles. In any case, many of the variables determining public order and crime levels in a community, eg, poverty, disease, education and ideologically based causes, are quite beyond the ability of police to control. Rapid social change and increasing complexity act to make assessment even more difficult.

The major hope for a more positive future of Australian policing lies in the growth of education within the various departments. The number of tertiary qualified members is slowly growing but their numbers are still too few to permit qualitative improvement in administrative or operational performance. A less obvious hope for reform lies in the exasperation of younger officers with the perceived inadequacy of their superordinates. Alleged instances of police criminality, some of it highly placed, are particularly objectionable to many younger members (at one stage in November 1981, certain members of all mainland state police forces in Australia were either being dealt with by the courts for serious offences or being sought for committing serious crimes). It is always possible (although far from probable within the foreseeable future) that a reform movement based among younger and better educated police employees may arise in an effort to provide greater dynamism, professionalism, imagination and commitment to police ideals generally. Despite these broad generalisations, it should be emphasised that there is considerable

variation in the quality of the various police forces, ranging from good to poor, and that the service contains many dedicated and competent members. However, totally extended as most of them are in coping with immediate problems, insufficient preparation is being undertaken overall to cope with the increasingly complex world of tomorrow.

There is no single solution to the problems of improving police quality. Certainly, greater professionalisation and professionalism must be achieved. In these respects, it is essential members themselves become well acquainted with the nature of the developmental problems the service faces, improved recruitment and promotion systems are vital (above all, outstandingly competent younger members must receive appropriately rapid advancement, something which is not now generally the case), police unions must accept a professional role, professionalisation must be implemented in departmental structures and processes, an interstate police commission must be created and, the empire building of federal agencies and other interests must be resisted. These essentials represent long term minimum requirements for an improved police service capable of adequately addressing the problems of tomorrow's society.

Numerous bibliographies have been compiled on many aspects of police work and conditions. Unfortunately, there is no compendium listing all the various bibliographies. However, most may be obtained at the various police libraries.

There are several privately owned police libraries of particular merit and most of their owners are generous in assisting police researchers. It would be, unfortunately, invidious to mention these owners here for fear of their being overloaded with requests from students of police studies courses around the country. Each police department possesses its own library, in some cases more than one library. The librarians staffing these libraries are excellent sources of information.

More general sources of information include the various 'Books In Print' and APAIS. Such sources, of course, are not police specific.

Listed below are some of the better known printed materials covering police. Unfortunately, due to difficulties with selection criteria, the sub section dealing with articles is necessarily limited.

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