

**EVALUATION OF POLICE SERVICE
SERVICE DELIVERY IN THE
SOUTHERN GOLD COAST AREA**

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis has not previously been accepted in substance for any degree. The main text of the thesis is original work. All sources referred to are properly acknowledged.

Cameron B Hall

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"The Hidden Panacea"

Gather ye 'round and dim the light,
'tis a secret I have I'll share this night.
Its about the crime we want to stop,
not the report that we want to jot.

It's an ancient tale as old as time,
veiled in mystery, though I know by rote.
About our life, yours and mine,
our kin and all the other folk.

The secret I feel, you already know,
for nary a new thought is often spoke.
My chronicle opens to the page and row
and therein lies my secret hope.

Our seed it grows in the soil we till,
we cherish peace, and promote goodwill
and we tell our seed they must be great,
whilst we turn our backs, upon their fate.

For the past holds the future,
that lesson is never learned,
as our seeds unfold and pass the door,
to make our mistakes again and more.

Break this cycle - and prevent the crime,
avail your children of your time.
Lassies and laddies as I'm telling this tale,
it's all about prevention and not about jail.

So open your eyes and read the lines,
the message is clear, we've been there before.
If you have a new thought, notion or idea,
look again my friend, it's been already here.

Prevention is not new, it's as common as salt,
'though this may be novel to some of you folk.
If you think it's no good and maybe a fad,
then walk as a victim, you'll wish it, you had.

From the desktop of unpublished dreams

Cameron B Hall

ABSTRACT

This study explores how the residential and business sectors of the community in the southern Gold Coast area perceive the police service provided to them. The study also records the community level of satisfaction with that service. To provide a context for these community outcomes, contemporary policing issues in Australia are discussed, in particular how policing has developed from the early convict days to the current methods used by the Queensland Police Service to deliver its service. This study discusses such issues in policing as technology and the current concepts underlying police response times and police numbers and the impact this has on crime and community satisfaction levels.

International concepts in crime prevention and community policing are explored and are highlighted by examples of community policing case studies conducted by the Queensland Police Service. Various studies relating to crime prevention are reviewed and the community fear of crime is discussed. Of particular interest is the expansion and theoretical considerations of situational crime prevention as relates to routine crime prevention activity and the role of guardians. The role of police as guardians for break and enter crime is of particular interest. The study concludes that a police response in this role is inadequate and alternative strategies must be implemented. Alternative strategies of guardianship could find the police implementing activities that empower the community with knowledge and resources to perform the role of guardians against break and enter crime themselves.

CHAPTER ONE

The Study

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The Queensland Police Service provides a policing service responsive to issues of break and enter crime for the community who reside or work in the Southern Gold Coast Area. Criticism of that service has been levelled at the local police managers by the community through an elected representative. Police management sought to determine the satisfaction level of this community with the police service and the issues affecting delivery of this service.

1.1 BACKGROUND AND ISSUES

The key performance indicators of the Queensland Police Service Corporate Plan 1995 - 1998 prominently featured community satisfaction with Police service delivery. The Corporate Planning section of the service is responsible for the measurement and analysis of these indicators on a state wide basis. At a meeting of the Regional Assistant Commissioners, it was decided that the Corporate goals would be endorsed as regional goals and reflected in the District and Divisional goals. This process included the use of the same key performance indicators.

Data collected in this study followed pre-determined guidelines that were constrained by a number of methodological, ethical, and political factors. Issues impacting on the way police provide their service is influenced by both internal and external factors and forces. Internal factors include the availability of resources such as vehicles, staff and scientific technology. External factors

include changing demographics, government policies, community expectations of service delivery and fear of crime. All these factors affect the way police provide their service and subsequently how satisfied the community is.

1.2 PURPOSE STATEMENT

This study investigates the community level of satisfaction with the Queensland Police Service delivery in the southern Gold Coast Area. Satisfaction level is defined for this study as the level of satisfaction reported by the survey respondents. The survey respondents are dichotomised into two sets, residents living within the study area and people working within the study area. This study also explores the notion of guardianship and the ability of police to perform this role in relation to break and enter crime.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The study aims to explore the following issues of respondents who were either permanent residents in the study area or people employed within the study area:

- to assess the level of satisfaction of respondents who had contact with police ;
- to identify reasons for dissatisfaction; and
- to identify sources of perception of crime levels.

1.4 SETTING OF THE STUDY

The Gold Coast region extends 42 kilometres north from the Queensland/New South Wales border and west to the city of Logan. It is the combination of a mild climate, good safe surfing beaches and tourist promotion that has made the Gold Coast the premier tourist centre of Queensland. The same conditions also make the Gold Coast a popular destination for those seeking employment, thus often causing an influx in lower socio-economic groups. Similarly, those seeking a retirement home are also attracted to the Gold Coast, thus concentrating an ever growing, ageing population in this small area.

The Gold Coast region is distinct from any other area of Australia, and this has resulted in distinct population characteristics. It continues to be one of the fastest growing urban areas in the country, with a population growth rate almost four times the national average. By 1996, the Gold Coast statistical district (which includes the Tweed Heads area) was expected to reach a population of over 340,000 and replace the Canberra statistical district as the seventh most popular urban area in Australia (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1993).

Policing strength of the South Eastern Police Region (SER) consists of the Executive Officer at rank of Assistant Commissioner, one Chief Superintendent and two Superintendents who manage 875 Police Officers and 77 un-sworn Staff Members. The population level grew faster than predicted in 1993 by the Australian Bureau of Statistics, to the extent in 1996 police provided a service to a population of 541,089 in an area covering 4,059 (sq km) comprising two Police Districts, Gold Coast and Logan, (QPS Corporate Plan 1995 -1998).

The study focuses on police service delivery in the following statistical local areas that define the study area, as depicted in Table 1. The study area is located within the Gold Coast division encompassing the southern end of the Gold Coast.

TABLE 1. SUBURBS BY STATISTICAL LOCAL AREAS THAT DEFINE THE STUDY AREA

Statistical Local Area	Suburb
0074	Currumbin
3468	Currumbin Waters
3472	Elanora
0077	Bilinga
3474	Burleigh Heads
3458	Coolangatta
3491	Palm Beach
3506	Tugun

The Gold Coast also has a high rate of tourism. For the June quarter 1993, some 1,915,000 domestic tourists and 599,000 international tourists visited the Gold Coast, (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1993).

1.4.1 TOURISM

The region hosts almost 25 million visitor days a year or an average of almost 70,000 visitors every day. This means that on any one day, visitors add almost 20% to the resident population of the Gold Coast. Almost half of the Gold Coast's overnight visitors are from elsewhere in Australia. More than 30% are day-trippers, the remaining 20% being international visitors.

1.5 LIMITS OF THE STUDY

- Internal reliability was maintained by developing and testing the survey instrument to ensure that it asked the questions sought.
- External validity was maintained as the study related only to the southern Gold Coast area.

1.6 PLAN OF THE STUDY

The next chapter explores contemporary policing issues in Australia, particularly in the context of how policing has developed from the early convict days to the current methods used by the Queensland Police Service. Such issues as technology and immigration and how changes in these areas have impacted on policing generally are discussed. The contemporary concepts of police response times and police numbers is also introduced.

International concepts in service delivery, crime prevention and community policing are explored, followed by highlighting some Queensland community policing activities that have been on trial. Various studies relating to crime prevention are reviewed and issues of fear of crime are commented on in this chapter. Within the context of Routine Activity, as developed by Felson (1987), the guardianship role of police as it impacts on break and enter crime is explored.

Chapter Three presents the methodology, introduces the survey instrument and discusses the demographics of the study area.

Chapter Four reports the results from the survey and summarises the key findings of respondents into questions of perception of service delivery and perceptions of crime from both residential and business employees sampled.

Chapter Five presents the conclusions of the study and discusses findings relative to the research in the literature review. It is argued that while reported satisfaction of both groups is similar, residential respondents respond differently to business respondents in the area of break and enter. It is argued that this difference is related to how both groups rely on the guardianship but primarily use police to validate break and enters for insurance claims. The discussion also examines how the perception of safety is acquired by both groups.

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review

2.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter explores literature relating to the relationship between police and government and how the fear of crime and perception of service delivery in any community impacts on police policy and resources. The role of police is discussed within a historical policing context. This chapter also addresses issues of how police numbers affect the response to crime through motorised patrol work, and introduces the issue of break and enter crime. Furthermore, public satisfaction with how police deliver their service is expanded through theories of crime prevention, the notion of guardianship and consideration of police management to calls for service.

2.1 THE RELATIONSHIP OF POLICE AND GOVERNMENT

Police officers need to be aware of their relationship with government. In the Australian liberal-democracy model, police and the government have a symbiotic relationship, based on the acknowledgment that they rely on each other. It would be difficult to imagine a police organisation without a separate instrumentality to make the laws. Likewise, it would be difficult to imagine a government making laws without the mechanism to enforce them.

The liberal-democratic system ensures that the minority is protected by the majority and that freedom of expression and freedom of political belief is maintained. There are three predominant sources of power in a liberal-democracy. These are:

- Legislative - the arm of government that enacts the laws in Parliament;
- Executive - the executive applies the law; and
- Judicial - this arm of process interprets the law, whether civil or criminal.

The concept of the separation of powers maintains that there should be a distinct dividing line between those who make, enforce and judge the actions of others within the legal context.

Despite the strong argument that in a liberal-democracy there needs to be strict adherence to the principles of the separation of powers, there are those who argue that no such doctrine exists (Thynne & Goldring, 1987). It is arguable that the doctrine of the separation of powers is merely a structure without substance. This contention centres on the premise that there in fact is no real demarcation, as argued below:

The doctrine itself is essentially artificial - often no more than an analytical device which is used broadly to delineate the functions and membership of the main institutions of the state. It is virtually impossible to apply in practice - especially in relation to legislative and executive functions (Thynne and Goldring, 1987, p: 6).

Booth & Lake (1991) noted that one hundred and sixty years or so after Rowan and Mayne defined the function of the police for the London area, here in Queensland little has been added to the original message. It would seem that

the same functions police were responsible for all those years ago are the same things the police are responsible for today.

2.2 FEAR OF CRIME

The fear or concern of crime has traditionally been seen as intangible or abstract, as a crime may not have actually occurred to the person who fears it. It has been said that people experience costs resulting from their knowledge of and emotional responses to the criminal victimisation of their contemporaries. Fattah & Sacco (1989) suggest that those who are vicariously victimised, like those who are directly victimised, may be said to experience the costs of crime. So who is most fearful? James (1993) suggests that the most fearful groups are the single, elderly people living alone in comparatively trouble-free areas.

Much has been written about the disproportionate level of actual crime and the fear of crime by the elderly. It is not enough for society to discount this fear, as it is real and pervasive and appropriate strategies must be developed. An English study by Midwinter, (1990) found that although fear of crime is experienced more by elderly women than elderly men, that fear transcends socio-economic barriers and bears no relationship to the actual level of crime in particular neighbourhoods. The question remains, if actual crime does not happen to the elderly then why do they fear it so? Midwinter, (1990) and Grabosky, (1989) suggest that ageing is a period of decreasing physical strength and agility, which means resistance is both less effective and more dangerous than for younger persons. Even relatively minor injuries may result in serious and permanent damage to the older victim while the enormous psychological impact must also be addressed. Crime itself is no longer the only problem faced by residents,

business owners and community representatives.

Fear of crime and concern about the amount of crime occurring in neighbourhoods are significant problems in their own right (Hough & Mayhew 1985). The media is tireless in revamping stories about people who are imprisoned in their own home because of their perception of rampant crime in the streets. Several researchers believe that as the fear of crime increases, those with the capacity to leave the undesirable areas do so and leave the way open for the criminal element to firmly establish their presence and activities. (Wilson & Kelling 1982; Skogan 1987). When recording how crime affects a community, police statistics look to the actual reported crime rate, not how the fear of crime affects the quality of life nor how this in turn affects the structure of the community.

Conversely, it could be argued that there is a healthy fear of crime level, warranted in society. 'Common-sense' precautions and sensible actions will often prevent many types of crime. However, over popularisation of the debate on fear of crime may lead some in the community to take inordinately dangerous strategies to avoid crime in the first place, such as going armed, purchasing savage dogs and 'hard wiring' electric fences.

The cause of fear or concern was shown in answer to questions posed by Skogan (1987), "How safe do you feel or would you feel being out alone in your neighbourhood at night?" This questioning did not relate to the likelihood of them being personally offended against. Skogan (1987) generalised that most people who report being fearful of crime have not been victimised themselves

and many are not in a high risk group as far as prevalence of victimisation by assault is concerned. Skogan (1987) went on to challenge the perceived myth, that people mostly feared unknown areas rather than the known ones, by suggesting that people saw their own neighbourhood as being the most unsafe place. Urbanites also feared their own town centre, particularly on weekends and parks generally, even if well lit at night. The next section introduces literature relating to policing within a historical context, the factors affecting policing and the role of police in society.

2.3 POLICING YESTERDAY AND TODAY – A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Policing in Australia has undergone considerable change since the original convict settlement at Sydney Cove and has experienced rapid social, political and economic changes. While initially one of primarily convict origins the population is now diverse. As society underwent considerable changes so too did the policing function in the new colony. The military were the first to undertake the police role on arriving at Sydney Cove and kept the peace in and around the settlement. Punishment of convicts by the military was commonplace. The prevailing circumstances made it a difficult task to maintain law and order. Swanton (1984) suggests:

Criminal behaviour represented a serious problem to authorities at Sydney Cove from the very first weeks of settlement. The fact is not, perhaps, surprising given that the great majority of people in the small settlements were felons under sentence. Stealing of vital stores and food, in particular, threatened the well-being of all. The fact that few offenders were apprehended ensured continuance of the problem, (p: 1).

Milte and Weber (1977), described the military policing role as one of drunken excesses and roguery. Such drunkenness and roguery spilled over into the law enforcement role of the military. With few able to police the settlement satisfactorily, it was inevitable that within a relatively short time frame, convicts themselves were sometimes given the task of policing.

2.3.1 First Police

It seemed an anathema, that those who were tried, convicted and transported to Australia for offences such as fraud would, in a short period of time, be responsible for keeping the peace of the colony. Putting convicts in such a position of authority and trust ensured that they would not have the support of either the convict class or the free settlers. Ward (1968) explores this phenomenon:

From the point of view of the convicts, and of a great many other Australians who were strongly influenced by their outlook, those who became policemen and overseers were not the best prisoners but the worst. By consenting to act as constables they broke, in the most flagrant possible way, the first principle of 'government men' and bush workers, that of loyalty to one's mates (Chappell & Wilson 1969, p: 29).

Incentives were offered to convicts to encourage them to become the instruments of the government by undertaking a policing function. The rewards for betraying 'one's mates', were liquor, clothing and the chance at freedom. These incentives were there to induce the best quality convict to undertake the duties of the police. Sadly, the result was quite the reverse. Instead of getting the best quality convict, the opposite resulted. The convicts who were lazy and dishonest were lured to the position with the chance of easy reward. Honest toilers who already occupied the position were forced out of the service and in their place was installed a lesser of the criminal class.

Changes to the colony, with particular emphasis on the spread of colonisation, led to the need for a permanent, efficient policing structure. The employment of convicts as police was one factor that influenced the policing role in Australia; other factors which had their part in shaping Australian policing included, bush ranging, the discovery of gold, participation in wars, economic depression and industrial conflict.

2.3.2 Factors Affecting Policing

The face of policing in Australia has been affected by the social issues outlined above. Other factors which have affected the role of police and the consequent perceptions of them include technological factors. Technological advances allowed for increased perceptions of police presence, particularly in the sparsely settled and widely scattered areas in Queensland.

During the early years of colonisation, mounted (horse) patrols and foot patrols were the only modes of transport available to police. With the advent of motor cycles and cars in the late 1920's and early 1930's and later, four-wheel-drive vehicles and light aircraft, even the remotest areas of Queensland could be reached with comparative ease.

Motorised transport had, to an extent, a negative effect for the police. It took the police officer away from direct contact with people and isolated him/her from the community. In contrast today, attempts to redress this problem are being made by putting police back in contact with the community served (Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux 1990).

Use of aircraft too, has assisted police in gaining access to the more remote areas of Queensland. Thursday Island, Kowanyama and other Aboriginal settlements are now within hours of Cairns. Prior to the introduction of aircraft, days and weeks were spent getting to these areas by boat and motor vehicle. Hence, transport has contributed significantly to an effective policing function.

In the past, police relied upon the mail, mounted police messengers and the

electric telegraph. Where possible, police establishments were located close to post and telegraph stations, still many police were great distances from communications centres. Telephones, Morse code transmitters, telexes, the fax, police computer networks, and long distance radios fitted to vehicles and stations have contributed to giving the more remote stationed police officers access to essential information.

Printed matter too, has always been important, intra-service communication in the form of the *Queensland Police Gazette* was first printed and distributed in July 1864. This publication is now complimented by the Bulletin. Other advances have improved policing in modern times, examples of these are photography (1892) and fingerprinting (1904). Bullet proof vests, ASP batons, portable roadside breath testing devices, red light cameras, speed cameras and breath analysing instruments have also played their part. Computers in city and country areas, providing e-mail and internet connections have meant that communication is now both modern and fast.

Heavy reliance upon technology is characteristic of all police services around the world in developed nations. There is, though, a negative side to this. In the pursuit of greater technology, there is a movement away from the community. Study shows that technology does not, and will never, replace the contribution that can be provided by the community.

2.3.3 Defining the Police Role

The police function is different from the police role. The police function is more concerned with the question of 'why are police here?' The function of the police

is to preserve the peace, prevent crime, detect offences and offenders and bring the guilty parties before a court of law.

The police role is one of liaison with the community and thereby achieving policing aims or function. The style of policing adopted also dictates what the role will be in a given situation. Alderson (1979, p: 35) describes these styles as including the following:

- Pro-active
- Repressive
- Passive
- Preventative
- Reactive
- Informal
- Community
- Punitive

The shape of the modern day police service is roundly attributed to the work of Sir Robert Peel in the early 1800's who was the Irish Chief Secretary from 1812 to 1818. Under Sir Robert's guidance, legislation passed during 1814 in Ireland was closely followed in principle by London in 1829. Thus the paradigm of modern policing was created in the 'office of constable'.

The office of constable is formalised by the Queensland Police Service Administration Act 1990. This is however, not the primary reason they are allowed to carry out the duties required as police officers. It could be argued as to what good would it do them if they were merely authorised by law to hold such office, but did not receive the support of society. Public opinion can have tremendous power and influence on the way police serve their community.

If the power and influence of the community is used against the police, then police officers and the Queensland Police Service would not function. It exists with the mandate of the people. In the words of London barristers Rowan and

Mayne, "The police are the public and the public are the police" (Bedford, 1987, p: 127).

2.3.4 Queensland Police Service Corporate Commitment to Service Delivery

The QPS has developed a Corporate Plan with a Mission Statement reflecting the philosophy of the organisation:

To serve the people in Queensland by protecting life and property, preserving peace and safety, preventing crime and upholding the law in a manner which has regard for the public good and the rights of the individual (QPS Corporate Plan 1995-1998).

A strategy for the enhancement of professionalism within the Service, for example, is the upgrading of recruiting and promotion procedures to ensure the application of impartiality, equity and the merit principle. To carry out their duties, the Queensland Police Service provides members with extensive procedures, policies, guidelines, training and supervision, but these cannot hope to encompass every possible policing contingency. Therefore there will always be a need for police to use sound reasoning and discretion when performing their role. It is also important to note that the police role varies from jurisdiction to jurisdiction as the community composition changes.

This management strategy aims to positively affect service delivery by being flexible and sensitive to the concerns of the local community. It has long been touted by proponents of the community policing philosophy, that the best crime prevention/community policing activities are those that are carried out at the local level.

2.3.5 Previous Research of Public Satisfaction with Police Service Delivery in the South Eastern Police Region.

An unpublished study by the South Eastern Regional (SER) Police (1992) and a paper by the Criminal Justice Commission (1996) report on the respondents level of satisfaction with the Police Service. In 1992, research was conducted by staff from the SER who targeted respondents from the Northern Gold Coast area. The research conducted in 1995 by the CJC was a State wide survey of respondents.

Some disparity exists between the recorded satisfaction levels in the research undertaken between 1992 and 1995. Superficially it would appear the public satisfaction of police performance declined between 1992 and 1995 from about 78% to a level of about 66%. Any future investigation in the same area would need to use the same sampling instrument to provide clearer data, as it is unclear whether sample sizes and styles were influential in the results achieved.

2.4 POLICE NUMBERS AND RESPONSE TO CRIME

This section will explore the literature relating to the impact of police numbers on crime and the effect this has on public satisfaction with service delivery. Public concern over statistics of reported crime is often used to support the claim that law enforcement resources are insufficient to cope with the demand for police services. "Queensland had the worst ratio of police to population (1:400, 1993) of any Australian state, as compared to the Northern territories (1:194)" (Fitzgerald, 1989, p: 84). However, the main point contradicting this call for greater resources, is that a significant proportion of current police resources are devoted to tasks quite unrelated to the prevention of crime and the apprehension of offenders.

2.4.1 Levels of Police and Crime

Some analysts suggest that within the police service, like other public services, the costs tend to grow in higher proportions than do benefits. For example "one additional patrol car, fully manned [staffed] (2 officers), on a twenty-four hour basis, would cost almost \$300,000 per year" (Wilson, 1992, p: 34). From a perspective of cost-benefit analysis, proposing whether a particular activity represents a worthwhile use of resources, by comparing the monetary consequences, the question needs to be raised as to whether this extra cost of \$300,000/year be worth the additional service? If an increase in cars was to be part of a national policing strategy, then "... a mere 10% increase in police expenditures Australia wide would cost taxpayers some \$200 million per year" (Wilson, 1992, p: 34).

In earlier studies, questions were asked regarding the public perceptions in relation to police conduct and performance. In all Australian states more than 75% of respondents assessed collective honesty of their police as being about the same as their respective general community, (McNair Monitor, 1982, p: 18). All states were found to be dissatisfied with police efforts in apprehending burglars. Queensland was second only to New South Wales, amongst the most dissatisfied states with the police service (burglary), with regard to how police dealt with organised crime.

Typically, the response to the rising crime rate has been a call for more police, and especially for more police officers on patrol. In Queensland, the Police Unions, management and the government are all united in their calls for more police. If asked a direct question "Do you think there should be more police?"

respondents largely answer 'YES', (McNair Monitor, 1982, p: 18). The rationale for this response is simply the popular belief that the addition of more personnel performing a guardian role will enable the police to fulfil their mission of deterring crime and catching criminals more effectively.

While this strategy has superficial plausibility, study into the relationship between per capita police numbers and reported crime rates provides little support. Rouse (1985), in a comparison of official crime statistics and police numbers for 26 large American cities in 1976, found no clear relationship between police strength and crime statistics.

Levine (1975), in an analysis of changes in police strength and crime rates between 1961 and 1971 for American cities with populations of over 500, 000, also found no relationship between the average increase in police strength and the degree to which the rate of robberies and murders declined. The average increase in crime rates in the three cities that bolstered police strength the most was quite similar to the average increase in crime in the 13 cities that added least to their police forces.

However, simple correlations fail to take into account external factors such as social, economic and demographic variables that may be independently affecting the crime rate. Having acknowledged this problem, a number of other studies have utilised sophisticated simultaneous equation models that employ a variety of social structural variables and statistical controls. These studies have been equally dubious in their results. For example, Kobrin (1972), Phillips and Votey (1972), Swimmer (1974), Welford (1974), and Bennett & Bennett (1983) all reported the number of police and per capita variables such as unemployment,

income and population were held constant, the rate of crime was unaffected.

In contrast, Morris and Tweeten (1971) and Pogue (1975) found a positive relationship between levels of police and crime. In all these studies, however, the amount of variance in the level of crime explained by police strength was very small. For example, in the study by Bennett & Bennett (1983), which involved a cross-national comparison of some 60 countries, it was found that much less than 1% of the variance in official crime rates was explained by levels of police personnel.

While such studies appear to cast doubt upon any direct relationship between police strength, police expenditure and crime rates, these studies suffer from a major methodological flaw. Primarily, such studies only take into account recorded crime rates and thus overlook the possibility that additional police personnel might detect more crime or might encourage a higher rate of reporting from the public. An increase in recorded crime might occur with no alteration, or a reduction, in the actual volume of crime in the community.

While the findings of studies correlating police numbers with crime rates are inconclusive, they provide little support for the view that police numbers or resources have a significant impact upon the volume of crime. Crimes therefore, often result from factors that are entirely beyond the ability of the police to control, such as "economic conditions, social and demographic influences, and such environmental considerations as the availability and intensity of street lighting," (Wilson, 1992, p: 36).

2.4.2 General Duties Patrol Work

To a large extent, the expansion of policing in modern times has been focused around the provision of uniformed police personnel on a continuous basis for patrol duties. Weatheritt, suggests,

"Patrol is the backbone of police work. Every police officer starts on the beat and patrol (general duties) absorbs a larger proportion of manpower than any other policing function. For most people the visibility and behaviour of patrol officers provide the most concrete evidence to them that policing is being done", (Weatheritt, 1986a, p: 22).

Accordingly, the major part of police resources is allocated to general duty patrol work. Estimates suggest that approximately 75% of the total police are front-line officers with patrol duties (based on figures obtained from the QPS South Eastern Region). The majority of patrol work is undertaken by the general duty cars, which are typically staffed by two officers. The cars respond as directed by the Communications Centre and station Officer in Charge to reports of crime and other calls for assistance or patrol within a designated area in an un-tasked fashion. They thus have opportunity for both a pro-active and a reactive component. Police managers claim that this method of tasking aims to prevent crime through the deterrence of potential offenders. It reassures the public by providing a visible police presence and to detect offences in progress, thus apprehending offenders in the course of offending. Historically, there has been very little empirical evidence by which to assess these claims.

Increasing the resources of the police services is not guaranteed to affect the

amount of crime. The term 'production function' is used by economists to describe the relationship of resources to objectives. Conventional wisdom assumes the relationship between police staff numbers and the crime rate to be negative, that is, an increase in police resources will produce a decrease in the incidence of crime, and a decrease in police manpower will result in an increasing crime rate. As yet there is no evidence to suggest that a production function management style exist at all with regard to the relationship between police resources and crime rate.

A factor in this is that most serious crimes, including murder, robbery, and rape are rarely encountered by police on patrol. Operation "New Direction" is an unpublished (1996) police report of a South Eastern Region police initiative that was designed to reduce the incidents of personal violence and property offences. The project mobilised almost 20 staff for 8 hours in a designated crime area. They performed a number of activities including community surveys, property identification, traffic patrol, and community assistance.

A summary of the outcomes of Operation "New Direction" suggested that on this occasion, there was little detection of property or personal violence offences/offenders achieved by saturating a crime 'hot spot' with police. Most crime occurs in private or out of sight of any patrolling police. The National Institute of Justice (1985) concluded:

"Although one can allocate patrol resources in a manner which will maximise the interception capabilities of patrol units, these interception capabilities are quite limited even when operating at optimum levels", (p: 75).

In other words, some difference in the probability of intercepting a crime can be made by changes in patrol coverage, but the chances of interception are still very small.

2.4.3 Vehicle Patrols and the Impact on Crime

Ericson (1982) when writing of his Canadian experience in mobile patrolling made the following comments:

"...the bulk of the patrol officer's time was spent doing nothing other than consuming the petrochemical energy required to run an automobile and the psychic energy required to deal with the boredom of it all", (p: 206).

Conflicting somewhat with Ericson's belief, earlier studies have shown that increased patrolling does have some effect on the crime rate. Schnelle, Kirchner, Casey, Uselton & McNees, (1977) conducted an experiment in Nashville and found that increases of up to 30 times the normal patrol level had no effect on the day time burglaries, but did have a measurable effect on night time burglaries.

In a New York experiment a "Crime Control team" was introduced and patrols in 'hot spot' areas were increased by 400%. This response reduced crime in the experimental area to a greater extent than in the control area, Tein, (1977). The New York City Police Department reported that in 1972 a dramatic increase in existing foot patrols reduced reported offences, Chaiken, (1974). Whilst these studies conflict with Ericson, (1982) it is important to note that each required an extensive increase in human resources to partake in the patrol activity.

Whether any police service could maintain that level of saturated patrolling over an extended period of time is perhaps questionable.

Arguably the most well known exponent of the deterrent efficacy of mobile preventive patrol was O. W. Wilson, former chief of the Chicago Police Department. Wilson believed that creating the impression of a police omnipresence would convince potential offenders that they could not get away with committing crime. Wilson suggested that the fear of apprehension would act as a deterrent: "The officer lessens opportunities for misconduct by the observation and supervision of persons and things during his routine movement from one point to another on his beat" (Wilson & McLaren, 1963, p: 353).

It was thought to be important that the movement of officers be random and unsystematic, in order to make it difficult for criminals to predict the whereabouts of the police. Wilson's belief in the deterrent effects of routine preventive patrol became the popular police view of the mid-twentieth century. Two decades ago it was noted that, "Police departments have historically depended on patrol activities to deter crime," (Schnelle, Kirchner, Casey, Uselton & McNeaset, 1977). "It is generally agreed that the presence of a uniformed police officer is a deterrent to criminal activity" (New Zealand Police, Extension Studies, 1998, Unit 2, p: 7).

From the 1970's onwards there has been a proliferation in the literature questioning the assumption that mobile patrols have a deterrent impact. Arguably the best known study in this field is the Kansas City Preventive Patrol Experiment, which was essentially "An attempt to determine through extensive scientific evaluation the value of visible police patrol,"

(Kelling, Pate, Dieckman & Brown, 1974, p: 1).

"A year-long study saw the area served by the Kansas City Police Department divided into comparable blocks and the following three different levels of police intervention were applied in these areas:

- *Reactive - officers entered this area only in response to calls for assistance. Thus, visible police presence in the area was substantially reduced, and no routine preventive patrol occurred at all;*
- *Proactive - police visibility was increased to two or three times its usual level through greatly increased use of preventive patrol; and*
- *Control - no changes occurred in this area at all, with the pre-experimental level of patrol being held," (Kelling et al. 1974, p: 4).*

Analysis of the data revealed no significant differences between areas of intensive patrol and areas of no patrol in the level of crime. Criticism was levelled at this study. This criticism centred on its methodological shortcomings (Davis and Knowles, 1975; Fienburg, Larntz and Reiss, 1976; Schnelle et al. 1977).

They suggested that its definition of random patrol was unclear, and it made no attempt to quantify the actual degree of change in preventive patrol activities in the areas of high and low intensity patrol. Rather, the study assumed a direct correlation between changes in the number of patrol cars and changed levels of preventive patrol, when the two do not necessarily follow.

Despite this criticism, several subsequent evaluations of the effects of increasing

patrol strength have supported the Kansas City results. For example, a study of increased patrol strength in Nashville by Schnelle et al. (1977) found that an increase of between 8 and 15 additional patrol officers did not produce an appreciable change in the reported crime rate, though it did produce an increase in arrests.

There have been a number of other studies of changes in patrol strength which have produced rather more ambiguous results (Schnelle et al. 1977; Elliot & Sardino, 1971; Tien et al. 1977; & Gay, 1977). These have all involved forms of saturation policing and these will be reviewed in more detail later. It should be noted that all of these studies have involved very substantial increases in patrol strength within small areas; and they merely support the policing truism that a police officer on every second street corner is capable in some contexts of effecting a marked reduction in crime.

At the other extreme, the evidence from police strikes overseas indicates that removal of the police from the streets altogether, at least when there is advance publicity of that fact, will result in an increase in crime. Between these two extremes, the bulk of the evidence supports the view that moderate increases or decreases in patrol strength seem to make little or no difference to the volume of both reported and unreported crime. Contrary to the doctrine of Police Chief O. W. Wilson & Kelling (1963), Wilson, J. (1975) concludes:

Substantial increases in random preventive patrol by police in marked cars do not appear to have any effect on the crime rate police time spent driving the streets waiting for something to happen is not time well spent, (pp: 96-97).

A study from New South Wales suggests that "each potential burglary target, such as a house or shop, could expect coverage by police on patrol for an average of about 32 seconds per day" (New South Wales Bureau of Crime Statistics and Study 1995, cited in Criminal Justice Commission, *Residential Burglary in Queensland*, Study Papers Series, Volume 3, Number 1 January 1996. p: 13). It could therefore be extrapolated, that a 100% increase in police patrols would only afford about 60 seconds coverage for the average domestic and business break and enter target in Queensland.

The reliance on random mobile patrolling methods to deter crime and produce community satisfaction with policing has other detractors. The study findings in this respect have not been encouraging. For example, after reviewing attempts to assess the probability that a police patrol will intercept a crime in progress, the National Institute of Justice (1985) concluded:

Although one can allocate patrol resources in a manner that will maximise the interception capabilities of patrol units, these interception capabilities are quite limited even when operating at optimum levels (p: 75).

In other words, some difference in the probability of intercepting a crime can be

made by changes in patrol coverage, but the chances of interception are still very small.

Such a result is borne out in study. Despite the size of aggregate crime figures, criminal activity is still fairly rare in relation to any particular time or place; and police patrols, being necessarily thinly spread, are therefore unlikely to come across a crime in progress. Moreover, the estimates from victim surveys and from examinations of police records, suggest that less than half of all offences are committed in public places (Elliott and Sardino, 1971; Elliott, 1973, and Hough & Mayhew, 1983). Of those which are committed in public, most are committed quickly, stealthily, without warning and often without premeditation.

Study conducted by the Criminal Justice Commission, *Residential Burglary in Queensland*, Study Papers Series, Volume 3, Number 1 January (1996) and Bottomley and Coleman, (1981) have shown that the discovery of serious crime by the police themselves is strictly limited. A further example by Steer, (1980) found in England that only 3.1% of indictable offences were discovered directly by the police as a result of routine patrol or investigative work. To the extent that the police do discover offences directly as a result of their own activities is minimal and these are usually either so-called "victimless" offences (for example, possession of drugs), or they are petty street offences or traffic offences (for example, disorderly behaviour and driving while disqualified).

This is supported by a study of patrol cars undertaken in the Western Coastal and Hutt Police Divisions (Robinson & Hutton, 1987). In this study, observers accompanied one patrol car per shift for 24 hours a day over a two week period. Over this period, the number of arrests arising from police-initiated activity, as

distinct from a call from the public, was relatively small. In the Western Coast police division less than one arrest every four shifts and in the Hutt police division, less than one arrest every five shifts. Moreover, only two of the arrests, one for drugs and one for driving with excess blood alcohol, followed the discovery of a crime in progress. The remainder were either trivial offences, such as threatening behaviour or insulting language, which arose during the course of police questioning, or the arrest of persons who were recognised as being wanted for earlier offences.

Existing study supports the view that, while the presence of police cars on the street provides the public with some degree of reassurance, changes in the level of that presence makes little difference. In the Kansas City experiment, (Kansas City Police Department, 1977), for example, there was no difference recorded in community satisfaction with policing between the areas with different levels of patrol intensity. Indeed, in the experimental areas the changes in patrol strength passed virtually unnoticed by most people.

This indicates that changes in patrol strength are unlikely to have a deterrent impact or an effect upon community satisfaction with the police. The fact is that, while people may be vaguely aware of a police presence on the streets, neither criminals nor the public can tell whether an area is heavily or superficially policed. Hence, they do not seem to notice changes in the intensity of the police presence, except in instances of extreme saturation policing.

This is clearly demonstrated by the Indianapolis Police Fleet Plan reported by Fisk (1970), which endeavoured to increase public perceptions of police presence by buying additional marked patrol vehicles which officers were expected to

retain for their personal, off-duty use. There was no clear effect upon public perceptions of policing or upon recorded levels of crime. What this also suggests, of course, is that any deterrent impact of law enforcement is dependent upon people's subjective perceptions of the likelihood of detection. Certainly there is some evidence from the road traffic area that an apparent change in law enforcement activity - for example, by the introduction of random breath-testing or "blitz's" against drink driving - does reduce the incidence of offending when there is accompanying widespread publicity. The deterrent effects of these changes or campaigns are short-lived, offenders may come to accept the perceived higher risk, or they may come to realise that the risk is not as great as they first thought, or as publicity dies down, they may simply ignore the prospects of detection.

2.4.4 Technology and the Impact on Crime

In this section, there is some exploration of the developments in technology and their influence on police operations. Advances include video surveillance units in banks and stores, designed to make the apprehension of offenders easier. The advent of micro-computers in patrol vehicles, (MINDA) provides instant access to all the information held in police data bases. It is claimed that patrol officers will perform many more activities such as license and vehicle checks because the mobile computers make it so much easier. One police agency increased its database inquiries from a monthly average of 500 to more than 80,000 a month after a mobile data communication system was installed (Clede, 1986).

Significant advances in the scientific world have influenced the nature of policing. For instance, without the advent of the computer, programs such as

the Crime Reporting Information System for Police (CRISP) that allows all Queensland police access to up-to-date legislation would not be possible. In response to advancing technology Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux (1990) argued that there are seven predominant factors which influenced the formation of Community Policing.

These include:

- *The isolation of police officers in cars;*
- *The narrowing of the police mission to crime fighting;*
- *A scientific approach to management that stressed efficiency more than effectiveness;*
- *Increased reliance on high-tech gadgetry instead of human interaction;*
- *Insulation of police administration from community input;*
- *A long-standing concern about police violation of minority civil rights;*
- *Initial attempts by the police to reach the community, such as police/community relations, Crime Prevention, and team policing units (Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux, 1990, pp: 67-68).*

The contemporary concept of 'community policing', was adopted to counteract the march towards technology and away from society. Kelling et al. (1974) expressed doubts as to whether or not developments such as these necessarily produce as many advantages and benefits as is popularly claimed. They go on to suggest that while some improvements in efficiency may occur, it is debatable

whether overall police effectiveness is substantially enhanced by such measures. The 'freeing up' of patrol officers' time holds little merit unless the extra time is diverted into meaningful activity. Improved communication systems can only ever be as useful as the quality of information programmed into them.

Further criticism has been voiced by Bradley, Walker & Wilkie (1986) and Weatheritt (1986) who suggest that adopted technology may have socially disadvantageous consequences. Cars, radios, computer systems and so forth may superficially appear to create a more efficient police department, while at the same time negatively influencing the way the police relate both to the public and to each other. These technological advances tend to put the police both physically and psychologically out of touch with the general community. The police begin to deal only with the 'problem people' and attend only to the sites of crime and not the community neighbourhood.

Technology by itself cannot provide any magical solution to the problem of police effectiveness. Claims that DNA testing could dramatically alter the approach to solving certain types of crime certainly is appealing. The claim is however limited by relating only to "certain types of crime".

The technical panacea is not likely to be such a cure-all after all. It appeals as a solution to those who refuse to acknowledge the complexity of policing and who have a naive and misplaced hope in the existence of easy answers.

2.4.5 Response Times: How Fast is Fast Enough

Belief in the need for the police to be able to respond quickly to calls from the public is often accepted without challenge, by both police and public alike as the central police priority. The assumption has been held for a long time that the police are there, 24 hours a day waiting for the public to call, whereupon they will instantly react. As suggested by Kelling et al. (1974):

The main activity of police is patrol - involving cars roving on patrol, not only for order maintenance and crime prevention purposes, but also to be in good position to respond rapidly: they are "out there", ready to spring (p: 36).

The persistent assumption has usually been that faster police response times must inevitably bring positive outcomes, such as increased apprehension of criminals, higher levels of public satisfaction with police performance, and reduced injuries to the public. This view was particularly evident in Queensland in the 1960s when it was hoped that the merits of such technological advances as motorised "Mobile Patrols" and more sophisticated communications systems would be borne out in greatly increased criminal apprehensions. It had even been predicted "in the United States in 1929, when the first mobile two-way radio came into operation, that the police would now be in the position to eradicate city crime completely" (Kelling et al. 1974, p: 3).

Table 2. (below) shows the average estimated time that it takes for a break & enter complaint to be processed by police in the study area, for the time period 9/8/95 to 15/3/96. (Information limited by the job card system).

**TABLE 2. AVERAGE ESTIMATED TIME TO PROCESS A
BREAK & ENTER COMPLAINT IN THE STUDY AREA.**

BREAK AND ENTERS	TIME DETAIL	TIME TRAVEL	TIME SCENE	TOTAL TIME
BURLEIGH HEADS	35	13	35	84 mins
BROADBEACH	41	7	43	93 mins
COOLANGATTA	59	9	33	102 mins
ALL OFFENCES				
BURLEIGH HEADS	39	6	38	85 mins
BROADBEACH	39	3	39	81 mins
COOLANGATTA	38	4	35	77 mins

Of the three police stations servicing the study area, Coolangatta staff took the longest to process a break and enter complaint. Coolangatta had the longest delay in detailing the job to a car and spent the least amount of time at the scene. However, in relation to all offences overall, Coolangatta had the fastest job detailing and time at scene.

Today it is still generally assumed that rapid response is a desirable police goal contributing to overall police effectiveness. Thus, Blumstein's administrative study of the police organisation argued that response time was a significant factor in the apprehension of criminals and urged such steps to be taken towards its reduction as the increased use of "computer automation in the police communications centre" (Manning, 1977, pp: 213-214). Similarly, in Larson's study (1972) it is used as one of the principal indicators of police performance and the assumption being made is that a reduction in response time will increase community satisfaction with the police.

Subsequent study on the relationship between rapid response and the likelihood of apprehending offenders on the scene has produced rather conflicting results. On the one hand, some studies have claimed that the postulated relationship is either weak or non-existent (Kansas City Police Department, 1977; Pate, Ferrara, Bowers & Lorence, 1976; Spelman & Brown, 1981). Others have suggested that rapid response, if it does not exceed a few minutes, does result in a considerably enhanced probability of apprehension (Isaacs, 1967; Clawson & Chang, 1977; Tarr, 1978). Despite these conflicting results, there are two reasons why it may be concluded that a reduction in overall response time to public calls for assistance is unlikely to increase the number of apprehensions.

Firstly, those studies that do show an inverse relationship between response time and apprehension probability are not able to demonstrate a causal link. Rather, it might be that for certain types of calls, patrol officers will respond more quickly because they realise that the likelihood of an arrest is higher or they are more 'interested' in that type of offence. Interviews with serving police in Queensland, would suggest that "officers will generally respond more quickly to burglary reports which indicate that the offender is still on the premises", (interview SER Staff, 1996).

Secondly, those studies that have not shown a relationship between response time and apprehension probability have demonstrated that the definition of rapid response itself needs to be re-thought. A traditional definition has been 'the time which elapses between the receipt of the call and the arrival of the police at the scene'. The overlooked element in this definition is the time taken between the commission of the offence and the receipt of the call by the police, in

other words, the community response time. Once this began to be taken into account, the community response time emerged as a much more critical component of the response time continuum than the time lapse between the police logging the call and arrival of police at the scene.

Studies have found that there are significant delays between a complainant's discovery of an offence and its reporting. For example, in a British study of police response to calls from the public, 40% of callers took 25 minutes or more to bring their problem to police attention (Ekblom & Heal, 1982, p: 15). In the Kansas City study, even robberies, which were reported most promptly, had an average community reporting time of 23 minutes (Manning, 1977, p: 215).

Spelman and Brown (1981), reported a study conducted for the USA Police Executive Study Forum where calls for assistance involving crimes in which victims or witnesses observed the offence in progress, or were actually confronted or attacked by the offender. They concluded that the speed at which the police were called did have some impact upon the chance of arrest, but only in the event that the police were contacted immediately after the episode. In almost 90% of reported serious offences, they were not contacted immediately.

This has been confirmed by Kessler (1985), who maintained that the chances of apprehending and arresting a criminal at the scene dropped below 10% even if one minute elapsed between the time the offence was committed and the time the police arrived. Unless both the client mobilisation interval and the police response time are reduced to a matter of a few minutes or less, a reduction in that response time will be unlikely to increase the number of offender apprehensions. In relation to the vast majority of crimes, of course, the client mobilisation

interval itself makes that a quite unrealistic goal, so that rapid response is irrelevant to the chances of apprehension.

Even if rapid responses do not usually produce more effective policing in terms of criminal apprehensions, it has been suggested that they should be retained for their positive impact on community evaluations of police performance (Ekblom & Heal, 1982). However, the studies in this respect has all reached the same conclusion. That is, the strongest predictor of community satisfaction with police response time is not the actual response time but rather the difference between expected and observed response times (Pate, Ferrara, Bowers & Lorence, 1976; McEwen, Connors & Cohen, 1986). Thus, if victims reporting a burglary expect an immediate police response, they are dissatisfied at having to wait an hour or more for the police to arrive. If however, they are led to expect that, for a non-urgent job, a delay of up to two hours or more is likely, they are still satisfied even if it takes the police that long to arrive.

A more recent Australian study called "County Town Policing" in Canberra, (Collins, 1994) showed that a third of the residents are prepared to wait for a lengthy police response to a reported crime after they have been informed of how long that response would take. "the key factor is not the speed of police response, but rather the certainty of the police attendance" (Collins, 1994, p: 17).

This consistent finding should be interpreted with caution. It does not mean, of course, that rapid response is never related to community satisfaction. As the National Institute of Justice (1985) has reported:

it appears highly unlikely that a community who is calling for police assistance while someone is attempting to break into his or her residence, would be satisfied with a 15 minute or 45 minute response time, (p: 84).

Such calls, however, account for a very small percentage of the total calls for assistance and for the rest, where the complainant has already delayed calling the police, the findings would suggest that *expected* rather than *actual* response time is the critical variable in determining community satisfaction.

In summary an overview of the literature in this section demonstrates that random mobile patrols have only limited success in achieving policing goals. This conclusion holds regardless of the intensity of patrol strength, unless a strategy of saturation patrolling is adopted. The deterrent impact of changes in police strength is questionable as the number of crimes discovered by passing police patrols is small. Rapid response to calls for assistance makes no difference to the outcome of most cases and community satisfaction seems unaffected by changes in the number of police patrols on the streets.

This does not mean, of course, that routine police patrols achieve nothing, and that their removal from the streets altogether would not have negative effects. The literature does suggest however, that the impact of police patrols upon the volume of crime has been overstated by police departments. Increases in patrol strength cannot in themselves be expected to have a significant effect upon the volume of crime, fear of crime level and community satisfaction with the police.

2.5 CRIME – BREAK AND ENTER

This section explores the crime of break and enter in Queensland and how police time is shared with other calls for service. Break and enter is one of the most prevalent crimes in the world and the study area is no exception. Carters Criminal Law of Queensland defines break and enter, in part as:

A person who breaks any part, whether external or internal of a building, or opens by unlocking, pulling, pushing, lifting, or any other means whatever, any door, window, shutter, cellar, flap, or other thing intended to close or cover an opening in a building ... is said to break that building. A person is said to enter a building as soon as any part of his body or any part of any instrument used by him is within the building...(p: 5752).

According to Shower, (1991) the rate of break and enter is disproportionately higher in neighbourhoods inhabited primarily by the young, minorities and renters. Break and enter is committed disproportionately by males, juveniles and others who are close to their own home. This type of crime generally involves a modest economic loss but maintains a higher psychological cost to the victim.

The rate of break and enter offences is regarded as a significant problem by the Australian community. The 1998/99 ABS Population Survey Monitor indicates that 65% of people surveyed (59% of Queensland respondents) consider that housebreaking is either a major problem, or somewhat of a problem in their neighbourhood. The National Campaign Against Violence and Crime (NCAVC) acknowledged this community concern by stating, 'residential burglary is one of the most common crimes in Australia and is an issue of major concern to the

Australian public (NCAVC 1997), and also by directing its largest funding allocation to the prevention of residential burglary (Prenzler & Townsley, 1998).

It may be that public fear of burglary is well out of proportion to risk (Prenzler & Townsley, 1998), or it may be that the actual rate of unlawful entry offences is much higher than indicated by official statistics and public disquiet is well founded. Crime victimisation surveys conducted by the Australian Bureau of Statistics indicate that not all crime is reported to police and that unlawful entry offences are substantially under reported. Results of the 1993 ABS Crime and Safety Survey indicate that slightly more than 20% of break and enter and 65% of attempted break and enter incidents were not reported to police. Similar figures are reported in the 1995 Crime and Safety Survey where 23% of Queenslanders did not report their last break and enter incident and 71% did not report their last attempted break and enter.

Although official crime statistics indicate that across the period 1991/92 to 1995/96 there has been a stable rate of total break, enter and steal offences reported to police within Australia and Queensland (Mukherjee, Carach & Higgins 1997). A slight upwards trend in break and enter of dwellings is reported - for Australia, 1122 in 1991//92 and 1160 in 1995/96, and for Queensland, 1076 in 1991//92 and 1110 in 1995/96 (per 100 000 population). For break and enter of other premises there has been a slight decrease - for Australia, 920 in 1991//92 and 806 in 1995/96, and for Queensland 1055 in 1991//92 and 825 in 1995/96 (Mukherjee et al. 1997). These offences comprise a notable proportion of property related offences reported to police. Furthermore responding to unlawful entry offences consumes considerable police time and results in a comparatively low clear up rate (13% in 1997/98 and 1996/97:

Queensland Police Statistical Review 1997- 1998 and 1996 – 1997).

2.5.1 Break and Enter in the Study Area

Table 3. (below) illustrates the number of reported break and enter complaints reported to police in different Queensland Police regions for the periods 1992 to 1995. Data collection is limited by the antiquated job card system.

TABLE 3. NUMBER OF REPORTED BREAK AND ENTER OFFENCES FOR EACH POLICE REGION

POLICE REGION	1991/92	1992/93	1993/94	1994/95
South Eastern Region	14414	12206	15877	13203
Gold Coast District	8365	6601	8285	6746
Logan District	6049	5605	7592	6457
Metro South Region	10979	12878	13995	12022
Metro North Region	13730	10367	11687	9323
North Coast Region	7177	7647	8984	9033
Southern Region	5871	5992	7339	6195
Central Region	3738	4076	4214	3913
Northern Region	4224	4510	4786	3360
Far Northern Region	4454	4289	3733	3351

(source:- Queensland Police Service Statistical Review 1996)

As can be seen from Table 3. South Eastern Police Region is comprised of two districts, Gold Coast District and Logan District. The Gold Coast District incorporates the study area and reports the greatest number of recorded break and enters of the two districts.

The following Table 4. shows the number of break and enters for all premises for the 12 month period 16/3/95 to 15/3/96 by suburb.

**TABLE 4. NUMBER OF BREAK AND ENTERS
(DWELLINGS,BUILDINGS & SHOPS)
12 MONTH PERIOD - 16/3/95 - 15/3/96
BY SUBURB**

SUBURB	FREQUENCY
Southport	1133
Surfers Paradise	646
Burleigh Heads *	268
Burleigh Waters	104
West Burleigh	52
Burleigh Gardens	1
Burleigh Heads	1
Labrador	566
Palm Beach*	394
Broadbeach	302
Broadbeach Waters	83
Mermaid Beach	197
Mermaid Waters	142
Currumbin*	122
Currumbin Waters*	26
Currumbin Valley	18
Currumbin Beach	1
Currumbin Creek	1
Elanora*	124
Tugun*	121
Coolangatta*	102
Isle of Capri	70
Bilinga*	58
Nobby Beach	33

(source:- QPS Information Management System (IMS))

The suburbs with the asterisk are those in the study area. The data presented in Table 4. indicate that the rate of break and enter crime in Palm Beach is the highest within the study. This prevalence may impact on the community perception of service delivery.

It is unknown how many of these offences are attributable to youth, but according to Thomas & Heim (1994), youth are a key group with respect of offending. Therefore, both pro-active and reactive policing strategies aimed at reducing offences by this group may contribute to an improvement in the level of calls for service. Table 5. reports the total number of calls for service for each suburb in the study area as compared with all other suburbs in the region.

**TABLE 5. THE TOTAL NUMBER OF CALLS FOR SERVICE
PER SUBURB PERIOD 9/8/95 TO 15/3/96**

Suburb	Frequency
Bilinga*	108
Currumbin Waters*	110
Isle of Capri	182
Nobby Beach	190
Tugun*	383
Elanora*	507
Currumbin*	606
Coolangatta*	618
Miami	926
Mermaid Beach	931
Burleigh Heads*	1090
Labrador	1589
Palm Beach*	1602
Broadbeach	1674
Surfers Paradise	2758
Southport	3943

(source:- Information Management System (IMS))

The suburbs with the asterisk are those in the study area. As indicated in Table

5. Of the suburbs in the study area, Palm Beach and Burleigh Heads had more calls for services to police than any other suburb.

Issues impacting on the ability to respond to calls for service are depicted in Table 6. In this table the total number of calls for service, the total number of operational staff per division as at 31 March 1996 and the rate of calls for service per officer are compared. Operational staff include officers on leave but doesn't include administration & trainee staff. Operational staff (Op) refers to staff available on the road per week. This is for the time period 9/8/95 to 15/3/96 only, this being twenty-nine weeks. There is one car only per division.

TABLE 6. CALLS FOR POLICE SERVICE AND NUMBER OF AVAILABLE POLICE FOR DIVISIONS IN THE SOUTHERN GOLD COAST AREA

DIVISIONS	Calls for service	Op Staff	Ratio
COOMERA	890	15	59/1
MUDGEERABA	1264	15	84/1
RUNAWAY BAY	2249	13	173/1
NERANG	2717	21	129/1
BURLEIGH HEADS	2947	16	184/1
COOLANGATTA	4246	17	249/1
SURFERS PARADISE	4884	31	157/1
BROADBEACH	6558	11	596/1
SOUTHPORT	7006	44	159/1

As depicted in Table 6. the number of calls for service including those that are crime related appear to impact on the ability of the police to deliver a timely efficient service to all clients. Across all divisions, police didn't attend to 4067 calls for service for various reasons. If an average ratio of the calls for service per week per officer is taken, the data indicate that of actual calls attended there were an average of 7.5 calls attended per officer per week. If the unattended calls are

included in the calculation, then there was an average of 8.4 calls for service per officer per week. It would appear that on the strength of those figures that a case could be made for improving policing practices so that more calls for service could be answered. This calculation does not take into consideration leave or court requirements of the available operational staff.

2.5.2 How Police use their Time

The work performed by police is often portrayed in the media as being predominately concerned with apprehending criminals, fighting crime and responding to emergency situations. The police service perpetuates this image in its career advisory pamphlets that it supplies for public recruitment information. The unpublished Queensland Police Service recruiting pamphlet (RC 84 4/96) states:

What does a police career offer? Challenges and the unexpected; the Opportunity to help people; responsibility; service to the community and Esprit de corps, and it's the most demanding and satisfying career you could consider.

To a limited extent the adventures alluded to in this document are true, but a study paper by the Criminal Justice Commission, (1996), Vol. 3, no. 2. suggests that this public image of police activities is not the reality of the day-to-day work.

Bayley (1987) suggests that it is unclear as to how police spend their working hours. Queensland Police Service records are currently held in a variety of systems ranging from cardboard job cards to computerised systems. This makes data difficult to compare across the State, extraction time consuming, and consequently an unlikely occurrence.

It may be argued that, since the reactive component of patrol work depends upon the number of calls for assistance received from the public, increases in reported crime justify proportionate increases in patrol strength. However, this assumes that reactive policing occupies a great deal of patrol time, and the increases in the number of calls are unable to be absorbed by existing patrol officers. A number of recent studies have called that into question.

In the United States, a number of observational studies of patrol workload have concluded that, on average, more than half of all patrol time is uncommitted, in the sense that it is not taken up with reactive tasks, and is available to be used in different ways at the discretion of individual patrol officers. As part of the Kansas City Preventative Patrol Experiment (Kelling et al. 1974), observers found that 60% of patrol time was uncommitted, and that this could be divided almost equally into four categories of tasks:

- Mobile police related (looking for suspicious cars or people);
- Non-police related (meal breaks, personal errands);
- Non-mobile police related and contacting other personnel (paperwork, surveillance, discussing cases); and
- Residual (time spent in headquarters, court, or at the garage).

Cordner (1979) also found that 55% of patrol time was uncommitted, with approximately 40% of this being spent on various kinds of patrolling and a further 40% on meal breaks and personal jobs. Robinson & Hutton (1987), in the study of "I" (Incident) car patrols in Western Coastal and Hutt Police Divisions, found a workload pattern which showed an even greater proportion of uncommitted time available to officers.

The average number of calls per shift was a little over three on early and night shift, and just over five on late shift. The average time spent in attending to these calls (including travelling time) was a little over one hour per eight-hour shift: 11.8% of total patrol time in Western Coastal and 13.4% in the Hutt. Even on late shift, (which was clearly the busiest shift), the percentage of time spent in response to calls was usually well below 20% of the total time, (Robinson & Hutton, 1987).

These are only average times, and take no account of the inevitable fluctuations in police workload. The fact that much patrol time is uncommitted does not necessarily mean that it is therefore available for other, perhaps more productive, tasks. It may be that such time is generally too fragmented to be re-deployed effectively.

Robinson and Hutton (1987) found that there were a small number of shifts in which the police responded to one call after another with little uncommitted time. There was however, no basis for the view that patrols were generally so busy responding to calls for assistance that they have no time left for other tasks.

An English study by Burrows and Lewis (1988), also found that while much of patrol time consisted of short periods of inactivity between responses to calls for service, there were still substantial periods of continuous uncommitted patrol time. This was even during the busy shift (2pm - 10pm). Almost a fifth of a patrol officer's time was spent on periods of continuous uncommitted patrol longer than one hour, and in other shifts the proportion was considerably higher. These studies suggest therefore, that the ability of patrol officers, and of the police organisation as a whole, to cope with an increase in reported crime within existing resources is greater than has often been supposed.

Previous studies by Lab (1984) focused on a traditional perspective of police work by looking at how much time officers spent on crime or law enforcement activities. Studies by Sherman (1983) and Wilson & Western (1972) show that crime related activity may be as low as 10% of all the variant duties that police perform. An activity study by the QPS Corporate Planning Section (1995) recorded the time general duty uniform police below the rank of Senior Sergeant spent dealing with activities that required a resolution or finalisation.

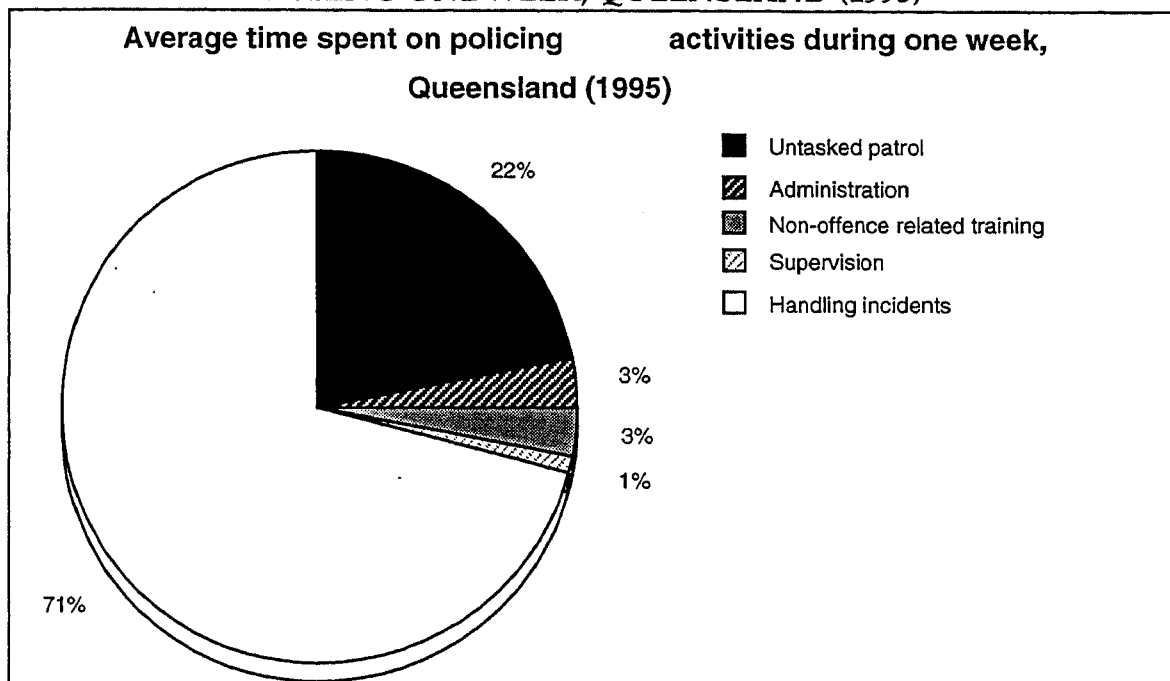
Goldstein, (1996) suggests that the real difficulty with policing is the enormous gap between the image of policing and the reality of policing. Goldstein provides some examples of this gap:

- *The police spend most of their time on controlling serious crime, but they really spend the largest percentage of both their time and energy on other matters. The police are often evaluated, trained and supervised based on a small percentage of what they do.*
- *The police are omnipotent. They can handle whatever problems are presented to them. But in reality, police capacity is extremely limited. Police are often without the authority and the resources to do that which is expected of them. They often resort, as a result, to improvising in responding to common requests for service. (1996, pp: 6-7).*

Goldstein (1996) suggested that by exploding some of the myths of policing then the role police are able to play will more closely reflect the role they do play and therefore the community satisfaction level will improve as will the morale of the service. The police will then be fulfilling realistic, achievable goals not those that are fuelled by misunderstanding.

Figure 1. reports data on policing activities on a state wide basis. Seventy-one percent of officers' time was taken up with handling incidents, responding to reported offences and other related activities. Most of the remaining time, 22 percent was devoted to 'untasked' or non-specific patrolling.

FIGURE 1. AVERAGE TIME SPENT ON POLICING ACTIVITIES DURING ONE WEEK, QUEENSLAND (1995)



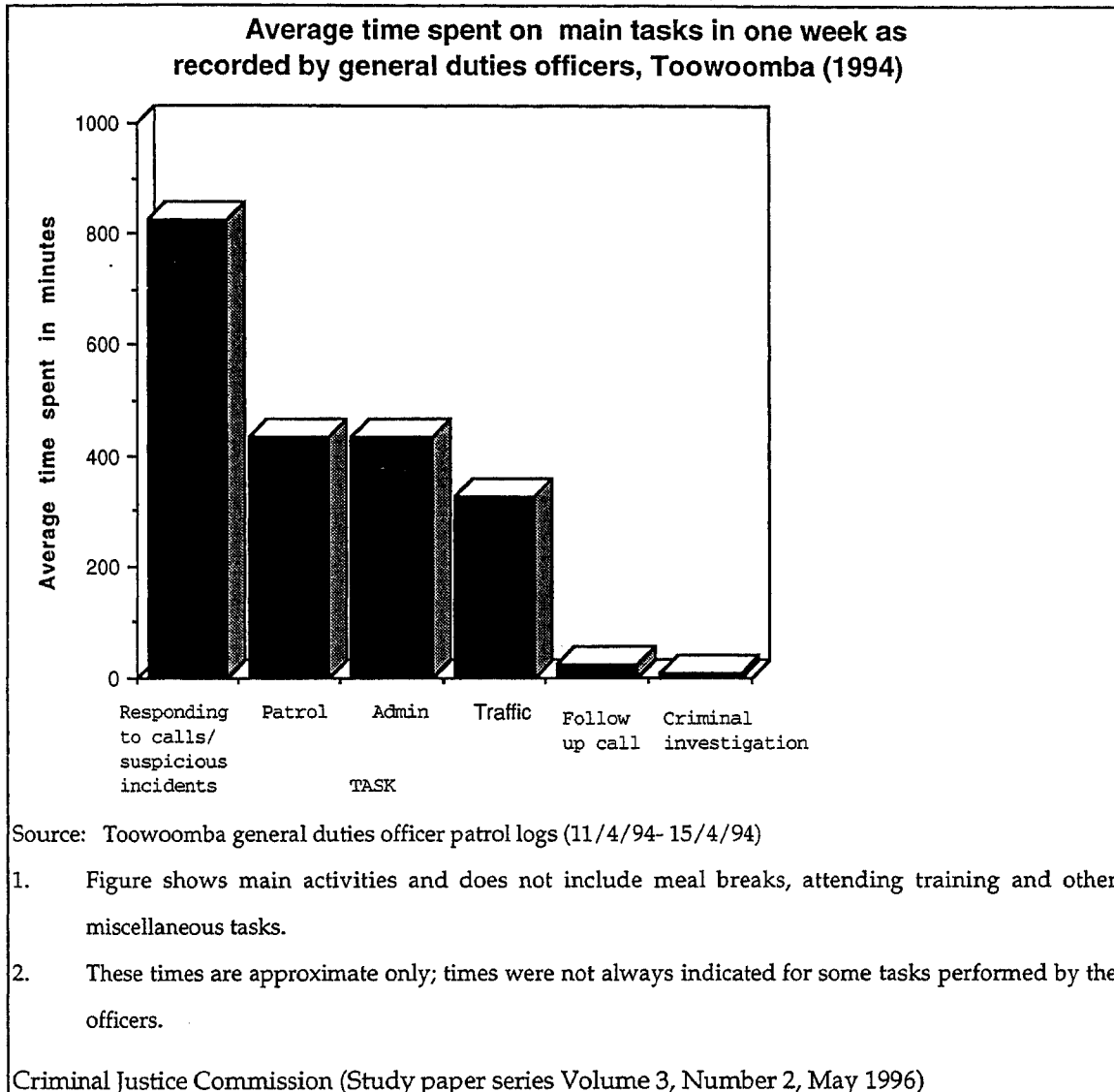
Source: QPS Statewide Activity Survey 1995.

1. Figure shows the time spent by traffic and general duties officers below the rank of Senior Sergeant. Meal breaks were excluded from the calculation.
2. The estimates of the proportion of time spent on handling incidents and policing problems includes all activities (such as responding to calls, investigating, paperwork, training, patrols and presenting evidence in court) that were undertaken by the officer concerned in completing or finalising the task.
3. Unweighted percentages are presented in this figure.

Criminal Justice Commission (Study paper series Volume 3, Number 2, May 1996)

Figure 2. (below) presents the average time spent in one week on various activities by two teams of Toowoomba general duties officers working the same shifts. The figure indicates that responding to calls for service and suspicious incidents was the most frequently performed police duty. This activity accounted for about 14 hours, or 35% of total shift time for the week.

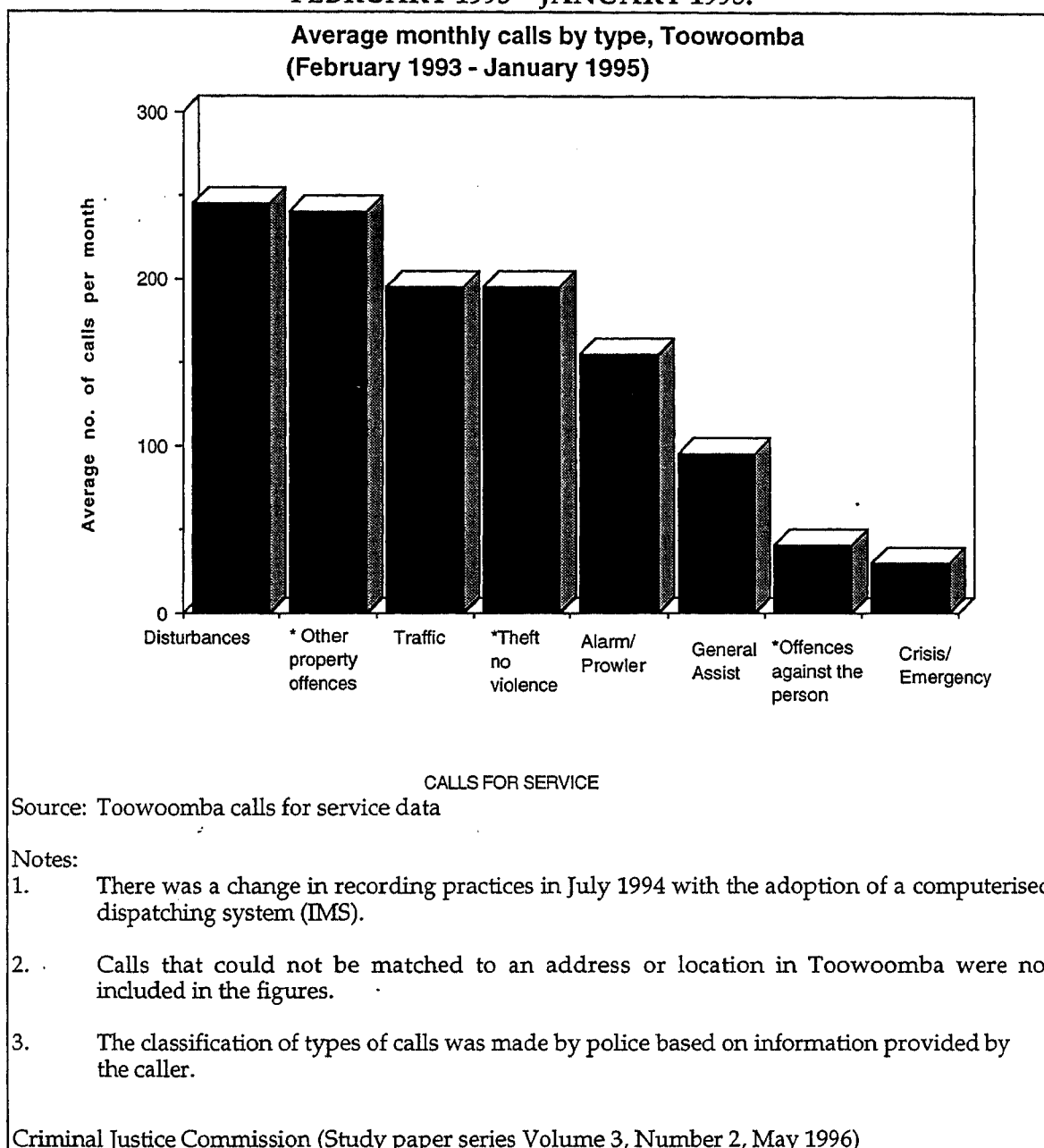
FIGURE 2. AVERAGE TIME SPENT ON MAIN TASKS IN ONE WEEK AS RECORDED BY GENERAL DUTIES OFFICERS, TOOWOOMBA (1994)



Other activities were general patrolling (7.5 hours or 19% of total shift time) and administration also about 7.5 hours or 19%.

Very little time was devoted to investigative work or follow-up calls. The Toowoomba data presented in Figure 3. support other studies that have found that the majority of police patrol work does not entail dealing with crime.

**FIGURE 3. AVERAGE MONTHLY CALLS BY TYPE IN TOOWOOMBA.
FEBRUARY 1993 – JANUARY 1995.**



This study by the CJC shows that around one third of the calls responded to by police required the completion of a criminal offence report. Although in the majority of cases like traffic incidents and disturbances, a criminal offence report

is not required police are still required to play an enforcement role.

An inference drawn from the data captured by the CJC study is that there may be a lingering perception by both police managers and the public that the real role of police is the response to and investigation of crime. This is only one aspect of general duty police work.

Further, the work performed by the general duties police could not be considered to be primarily either pro-active or preventative as general duties police in Queensland rarely investigate criminal matters. A predominance of the calls for service, such as family and neighbour disputes are issues that cannot be dealt with successfully by police in isolation from other service providers. The following section explores community policing in Queensland.

2.6 COMMUNITY POLICING

Against the historical background provided in earlier sections of this discussion, grew the concept of community policing. The notion of community policing was enshrined in the policing principles of Sir Robert Peel, founder of the London Metropolitan Police service, and the acknowledged 'father' of modern policing (Braiden, 1987). Peel argued in 1829 that the aim of policing was:

to maintain at all times a relationship with the public that gives reality to the historic tradition that the police are the public and that the public are the police. The police being the only members of the public that are paid to give full-time attention to duties which are incumbent on every community in the interests of community welfare and existence (Braiden, 1987, p: 2).

Policing in Queensland is attempting to redefine policing activity as 'community policing'. Authors such as Braiden argue this change in definition has resulted from the perception that "the entire system has come adrift of its original mandate" (Braiden, 1987, p: 1), and that policing had developed into a profession concerned only with law enforcement. Consequently a narrow focus for policing had evolved, with all policing being reactive in nature.

Braiden believes a link exists between this narrow focus of policing and the inability to prevent crime. The link is the availability of appropriate human resources in the area of crime prevention (Braiden, 1987).

The Queensland Police Service has begun to explore the notion of community policing to attempt to counter this problem and promote policing which involves, and better serves, the community (Bryett & Harrison, 1994).

2.6.1 Community Policing in Queensland

Community policing in Queensland grew from a prominent recommendation by Commissioner Tony Fitzgerald QC in his 1989 report on the illegal activities of Queensland police (Fitzgerald, 1989). According to Bryett and Harrison (1994) at the time of the Fitzgerald inquiry, community policing was undergoing a world-wide renaissance as many community members and police officers recognised that policing had lost sight of its role as a community service.

Fitzgerald argued that the Queensland Police Force was less effective than it could be, and further, that the workload of police officers had risen over time. This resulted in less attention being devoted to the solving of each crime and necessitated a change in the fundamental approach to policing in Queensland (Community Policing Support Branch, 1991). Fitzgerald therefore recommended that preventive policing should be prioritised and become part of the work of every officer, and that "Community Policing should become the primary policing strategy." (Fitzgerald, 1989, p: 233).

Problem oriented or community policing shifts the policing paradigm from a monopolistic bureaucratic effort to reach organisational goals to focusing on the customer needs. This could be better described as a 'Marketing Approach'. Marketing is a belief that holds that the key thrust of the organisation is to ascertain the needs, wants and values of target customers and to structure the

organisation to provide the desired customer satisfaction more effectively and efficiently, (Australian Institute of Management, 1997).

There are of course underlying implications in adopting the marketing approach. First, the police agree that the reason they exist is to satisfy a defined set of needs and wants of a defined group of customers in a target market. Second, customers can be segmented into different market groups depending on their needs and wants. Third an active program of gathering information is needed to be able to learn all about the target markets and therefore make the best possible responses. If the service provider places the customer first, they will do a good job of satisfying the customers needs and wants.

Marketing, according to unpublished literature from the Australian Institute of Managements' Marketing course is a problem solving approach. Problems as the customers have defined them and the benefits that they expect to receive from the solution they select. It is important for any policing organisation to acknowledge that they exist only because of the customers and managers to the extent that they can satisfy the needs of those customers. The marketing paradigm involves everyone in the organisation delivering customer satisfaction. Unless the organisation can harness the talents of its people and direct it toward satisfying the customer, then the results will be sub-optimal.

The Police offer a service that is multi-faceted, often nebulous and provides for a wide range of issues and activities. To achieve the goals of a customer, the police will have to be able to provide flexible, specialist solutions to divergent community (customers) needs. A unique aspect of this type of policing is the evaluation of activities, which is enshrined in the framework of problem-oriented

policing (Braiden, 1987). This tendency to evaluate programs and activities is novel in the field of policing, but is becoming increasingly common (Bryett & Harrison, 1994).

2.6.2 Beat Patrols

Internationally, experiments have been conducted on the impact of different levels of foot patrols. Results from arguably the best known experiment, the Newark Foot Patrol (late 1970's) suggest that residents were more aware of the presence of foot officers than motorised patrols, and there were significant reductions in their fear of crime and perceptions of their own risk. However, crime levels, as measured both by a victimisation survey and reported crime statistics, were not significantly altered. On this basis the Police Foundation's subsequent evaluation concluded:

...the general impression is gained that while foot patrols may not have a significant effect on crime, it does affect communitys' fear of crime, the protective measures they take to avoid crime and the perceived safety of their neighbourhoods in consistent and sympathetic ways. In general, when foot patrol is added, communitys' fear of typical street crimes seems to go down and the generalised feelings of personal safety go up, (Young & Cameron, 1981, p: 22).

In Queensland, community policing involves the police and community working together to identify opportunities and solve policing problems. A 'community' is normally people in social interaction in a geographical area, and can also include

people of the same race, religion or people in business; retailers, shopping centres and so on. "Crime prevention is too important an issue to be left just to the police." (Booth, Crompton, & Lake, 1991, p: 3).

2.6.3 Toowoomba Beat

The Toowoomba pilot project (Booth et al. 1991) was designed to promote a community-based policing style characterised by localised, problem-oriented service delivery. To facilitate the acceptance of the project by the community and the police alike, a number of strategies were developed. Principally these were the assignment of two resident officers to two defined beat areas on a long term basis, and their use of foot patrols within their beat. These officers were supported by the traditional methods, but supplied the majority of responses to calls for service and did most of the first contacts within their beat.

The project aimed to establish the satisfaction the general community had with the service provided by police. The data gathered by the researchers indicated that 89% of all respondents were satisfied with the way the beat officers handled their calls for service. When the data were further analysed, a comparison between the beat areas and the comparative areas was made. It was found that 94% of respondents were satisfied with the service provided by police in the beat area and 83% in the comparative areas. A further output of the project was the high level of job satisfaction that the beat officers reported.

2.7 PROBLEM ORIENTED POLICING & THE AT RISK PREMISES PROJECT

The At Risk Premises Project (TARP) adopts the problem oriented policing (Goldstein, 1979) approach to reducing unlawful entry offences within selected Queensland Police Service (QPS) divisions by targeting some underlying causal factors of crime. The project expands upon work previously undertaken by the North Coast Region Stop Break Project and a project currently being undertaken by the Beenleigh Break and Enter Reduction Project (Criminal Justice Commission, 1997). The Beenleigh Break and Enter Reduction Project (BERP) was funded by the National Campaign Against Violence and Crime (NCAVC) and is a joint project between the QPS and the Criminal Justice Commission (CJC).

TARP trials a staged response to break and enter incidents on a division wide basis. First stage TARP is a preventive response to incidents of break and enter whereby attending officers conduct a security assessment of the victimised premises and advise the neighbours that a break and enter has occurred in the vicinity. It is based upon the staged approach adopted by both the North Coast and Beenleigh projects. However, TARP also promotes the development of police and community partnerships with a view to the establishment of locally appropriate crime prevention strategies and an enhanced reactive policing response focused on a 'hotspot' area. TARP employs the SARA methodology of Eck and Spelman (1987) for problem solving:

Scan the problem;

Analyse the problem;

Respond to the problem; and

Assess the effectiveness of the intervention (p: 3).

2.7.1 TARP Project Rationale

The rate of break and enter offences is regarded as a significant problem by the Australian community. The 1998/99 Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) Population Survey Monitor indicates that 65% of people surveyed (59% of Queensland respondents) consider that housebreaking is either a 'major problem', or 'somewhat of a problem' in their neighbourhood. The National Campaign Against Violence and Crime (NCAVC) acknowledged this community concern by stating, 'residential burglary is one of the most common crimes in Australia and is an issue of major concern to the Australian public (NCAVC 1997). Furthermore, NCAVC directed its largest funding allocation to the prevention of residential burglary (Prenzler and Townsley, 1998).

The Queensland Labor Government placed a strong emphasis on advancing police practices and enhancing problem-oriented policing in its election commitments during the 1998 campaign. One of the initiatives funded in the 1998/99 State Budget was the establishment of a special unit to develop a process of identification of "at risk" premises and patterns of "break-ins", with the aim of developing information to assist communities and community planners address security issues.

TARP adopts a problem-solving approach to the reduction of break and enter of residential and non-residential properties. Within selected divisions experiencing a high rate of unlawful entry offences police officers will respond to break and enter incidents with first stage TARP. Within smaller areas identified as crime hotspots TARP encourages the formation of community and policing

partnerships which will be supported to establish locally specific initiatives designed to reduce break and enter.

2.8 CRIME PREVENTION

This section explores the development and some of the crime prevention theories. The failure of traditional methods of policing to reduce crime has been recognised in many countries. The international focus is now on crime prevention rather than intervention. This means that policing must target situations that cause crime before it actually occurs. Such an approach requires that the many different groups responsible for dealing with the areas where crime is generated work together. For example, those working in areas such as planning, social services, employment and training, the police, the courts and other such areas must adopt an integrated approach (Lidgard, 1986). Although Australia has been slower than other Western countries to take this preventive approach to crime, crime prevention initiatives are now being undertaken across Australia (Lidgard, 1986).

2.8.1 Definitions of Crime Prevention

There are many ways in which crime prevention can be categorised when researchers use various typologies to construct dimension of crime prevention. Crime prevention has been defined by Lidgard (1986) as:

All those measures which have the specific intention of minimising the breadth and severity of offending, whether via a reduction in the opportunities to commit crime or by influencing potential offenders and the general public (p: 73).

However, Miller (1991) argues that definitions of crime prevention should not only encompass the idea of reducing actual levels of crime but also the concepts of fear of crime and perceived levels of crime in the community.

The definition of crime prevention used by Queensland Police is:

the anticipation, recognition and appraisal of a crime risk and the initiation of action to remove or reduce it (Queensland Police, Crime Prevention Manual, 1996, p: 2).

Edwards (1993) discusses four different crime prevention strategies. The first of these is the identification and removal of causes of crime. This requires that social factors, for example family breakdown or child abuse, which may increase the likelihood of a person participating in crime, be identified. Identifying young offenders and implementing measures to prevent them adopting a criminal lifestyle may be possible in some cases.

The second strategy is removing the opportunity for crime. This involves for example, communities avoiding high-crime areas to prevent being mugged. The third strategy involves removing criminals by sending the offender to prison or relocating young offenders away from high crime areas. The problem with the

All those measures which have the specific intention of minimising the breadth and severity of offending, whether via a reduction in the opportunities to commit crime or by influencing potential offenders and the general public (p: 73).

However, Miller (1991) argues that definitions of crime prevention should not only encompass the idea of reducing actual levels of crime but also the concepts of fear of crime and perceived levels of crime in the community.

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latter is that it may result in relocating the crime to another area.

The final example by Edward is called target hardening. This involves procedures such as ensuring the security of houses and vehicles, installing burglar alarms and lighting public footpaths. All these measures make it more difficult for crime to occur. These four crime prevention strategies can be applied to small-scale crime but have little effect in large-scale and personal crime.

Fattah (1993) presents two approaches to crime prevention. These are situational prevention and attitudinal prevention. Situational prevention is a preventive approach to crime that reduces opportunities for crime. Measures to reduce opportunities for crime are directed at specific forms of crime and

involve the management, design or manipulation of the immediate environment so as to increase the efforts and risks of crime and reduce the rewards as perceived by a wide range of offenders (Fattah, 1993, p: 30).

Like Edwards' approach it involves target hardening but also various other measures such as surveillance, property identification, access control, entry / exit screening, deflecting offenders and target removal (Fattah, 1993). Situational prevention is particularly successful with property crime.

Fattah's second approach, attitudinal prevention, targets crimes of violence rather than property crimes. Fattah (1993) argues that many crimes of violence could be "effectively prevented by changing certain cultural values and attitudes that are responsible for or that promote specific types of criminal behaviour, particularly violent behaviour" (p: 31). For example, Fattah argues that by

changing patriarchal attitudes, the incidence of domestic violence against women can be reduced, by changing prejudices, violence towards immigrants, ethnic or religious minorities and homosexuals assaults can be reduced (Fattah, 1993).

Miller (1991) divides crime prevention strategies into three categories; primary, secondary and tertiary. Primary crime prevention strategies are strategies which aim to change the "physical and social environment responsible for the conditions which are precursors to criminal behaviour" (Miller, 1991, p: 302). This resembles Edwards' first crime prevention strategy that involved the identification and removal of the causes of crime. Primary crime prevention strategies involves attempts to "influence public policy which controls or determines these conditions in areas such as education, housing, employment, leisure and recreation" (Miller, 1991, p: 302).

Secondary crime prevention strategies target youth who are at risk of offending by intervening in the early stages and attempting to divert youth from the criminal justice system (Miller, 1991). Tertiary crime prevention strategies target those who have already offended and attempt to prevent them from repeating their crimes. Examples of this strategy include arrest, sentencing and rehabilitation programs (Miller, 1991). This strategy is usually carried out in traditional policing methods. Community-based crime prevention strategies usually undertake primary and secondary forms of intervention.

Felson (1987) is a proponent for situational crime prevention in the context of routine activity where the role of the guardian is vital. Felson (1987) describes routine activity theory as being based on the premises:

that criminal events result from likely offenders, suitable targets and the absence of capable guardians against crime (p: 204).

For Felson (1987), the guardian may be either property owners or the police. Like Felson the previous theories of crime prevention have placed the onus of crime prevention on the Government, the police, the victim or the offender.

Clarke (1983), provides another perspective on the incidence of crime as described in the theory of rational choice situational crime prevention:

specific acts are undertaken on a rational basis for a particular point of time in a specific situation. It is assumed that crime is a purposive behaviour designed to meet the offender's needs for such things as money, status, sex and excitement (p: 205).

Clarke's (1983) rational choice situational crime prevention theory further describes crime prevention as the ability to manage three strategies. The first strategy can be interpreted as making it harder for the offender to get in, the second is make it harder to get away and the third is to reduce the motivation or pay-off by engraving or marking the property. Clarke's (1983) theory introduces situational changes to the built environment and moves the primary onus for prevention and guardianship from the police to the owner, thus crime prevention becomes a community responsibility.

Break and enter crime has been examined in this study and it appears that there is little that police as guardians can do to reduce or prevent break and enter by

deploying traditional strategies such as random or saturation patrolling. This suggests that traditional policing methods will have little impact on community satisfaction.

The literature also suggests that when police answer a call for service to break and enter crime they achieve little by way of prevention or detection. It may be suggested that what they do achieve is to partially validate any insurance claim made by the victim. It is arguable whether or not this activity is a legitimate policing role.

2.8.2 QUESTIONS FOR FUTURE CONSIDERATION

Whilst not explored in this study, the question remains, whether the rate of calls for service regarding complaints of break and enter would decrease if insurance companies didn't insist that the police report number be provided to them by the victim? If the need for a police report number was waived, and insurance companies investigated the integrity of the claim themselves, then police resources could be re-deployed to respond to other calls.

A further consideration is whether or not community satisfaction with police service delivery would be improved if police provide break and enter victims with information and strategies that empower the victim to effectively take up the role of guardian and prevent further re-victimisation. The TARP project might be a method of testing this hypothesis.

2.8.3 SUMMARY

The literature in this chapter has explored the relationship police have with government and how fear of crime and community needs are met within a limited framework of budgets, policy and resources. The literature has taken an historical perspective of policing on the impact of technology and discussed the ramifications of police service delivery on community satisfaction, whilst highlighting the crime of break and enter.

The literature has indicated that there exists a conflict between the amount of time that police have available to respond to calls for service and the subsequent satisfaction level of the client. This is compounded when the level of staffing is not matched to the level of calls for service in particular areas.

Despite the amount of work that police are required to do, the literature suggests that different response strategies to calls for service will alleviate much of the burden for police by allocating time to serious issues and negotiating routine ones. In particular, the adoption of TARP may resolve many calls for service to break and enters and the conflict between the role of police as guardians and community having responsibility for crime prevention.

CHAPTER THREE

Methodology

3.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the methodology used in the study and introduces the subjects who participated, research design used to examine the questions of interest and procedure used to collect data.

3.1 SUBJECTS

Subjects selected for this study consisted of two groups. The first group is defined as those respondents who were permanent residents in the study area. The second group is defined as those respondents who were employed in a business within the study area.

3.1.1 The Sample

A random sample of 600 respondents was selected from the Gold Coast Electronic White Pages 1996. The survey was conducted by random sampling households and businesses within eight suburbs of the Gold Coast as previously described.

Not selectively sampled, respondents included residents and employees, victims and non-victims, the young, the aged and both genders. This allowed attitudes to service delivery to be examined as well as encompassing socio-economic characteristics of broad groups in the study area.

The random telephone numbers were obtained from Australia On Disk, which represented the total number of phone numbers in the specified area (excluding mobile numbers). Table 7. Depicts the proportion of residential to business respondents.

Table 7. Sample of Respondents

Respondent	N	%	Sample size	Sample %
Residential	18,449	83	498	83
Business	3,740	17	102	17
Total	22,189	100	600	100

The total proportion of residential and the total proportion of business as possible respondents are Residential 83% and Business 17% respectively. To achieve a sample size approaching 600 interviews, 498 interviews (83% of 600) and 102 (17% of 600) was chosen.

The sample provided by Australia On Disc were sorted by phone number, which created a bias towards certain geographical areas. In order to create a list which interviewers could simply work down from top to bottom, it was necessary to re-sort the numbers to eliminate bias. Therefore, business numbers were sorted alphabetically by business name and the residential by first initial.

3.2 DESIGN

A 'one shot' case study (pseudoeperimental design) was chosen for this study, (Huck, S. Cormier, W. & Bounds, W. 1974). Consistent with such designs, this study does not attempt to provide built-in controls as used in an experimental study, rather it purports to be a descriptive study.

Limitations of this design are acknowledged as being the absence of control thus reducing the validity of the results. Notwithstanding the limitations of a one shot case study, it remains a popular design and is frequently used. As will be mentioned later, the specificity of conclusions reached in this study has been affected by the lack of service wide quality information.

3.3 MATERIALS

This section outlines the structure and development of the study instrument. Whilst there are several methods for the researcher to assess satisfaction levels, Majchrzak, (1984) suggests that the most common is the use of the survey questionnaire.

Rossi, Wright, & Anderson, (1983) and Morris, & Fitz-Gibbon, (1987) and Dillman (1978), suggest that the sheer weight of advantages in using the mail-out survey should dictate its frequent usage. The Mail-out survey has a number of advantages over the telephone or face-to-face interview and Dillman (1978) outlines four reasons as being: (1) the ability to cover a larger geographical area in comparison to that able to be achieved by other methods. (2) larger sample

sizes may be achieved because study staff were not required to fill out the survey; that is done by the respondent. (3) faster completion in some instances in comparison to the other methods if other methods require the researcher to locate the respondent at home. (4) requirements of fewer staff, because the mail-out survey is self-administered and allows more privacy and time for the respondent to provide considered responses.

Although Dillman (1978) lists a number of advantages of the mail-out survey, there remain significant problems with their use. The mail-out survey is prone to having a low response rate and there is the perception that only a particular 'type' of person fills them out and returns them. Dillman (1978) suggests that the researcher conducts follow-ups, uses an attractive easy to use format and conducts the survey towards the end of the working week and never over holiday periods.

Because of a number of constraints including training requirements, a random telephone sampling technique was used in preference to the face-to-face interviews and mail-out surveys. Contrary to opinions of Rossi, et al. (1983) the researcher decided that the random telephone interview would be the most appropriate. With restrictions on human resources, approaches were made to community members interested in study activities. As a result, Bond University offered to be involved in the data collection phase of the study. This allowed the involvement of their Crime & Deviance undergraduate students to participate in a real-life social study activity. By involving the students in the study, they were accredited with a module for their course.

The benefit of using the random telephone survey meant that all the respondents' replies could be gained in a short period of time and within the university semester, whereas the alternative mail out method may have resulted in a protracted response time and a possible low rate of return.

3.3.1 Instrument Design

A telephone survey instrument used is given in Appendix (I). The instrument was designed to collect information on:

- Demographics;
- Public satisfaction with Police service delivery;
- Reasons for dissatisfaction with Police service delivery; and
- Perceptions of crime.

Whilst many other responses were gathered, only the results relating to public satisfaction with police service delivery have been reported in this study. The other data are too extensive for the purpose of this study.

The items included in the survey instrument were chosen to elicit the required types of information needed for identifying successful and unsuccessful police responses to calls for service and crime prevention strategies. On the basis of these data, informed judgements on the effectiveness of the service delivery could be made.

3.3.2 Pilot Survey

It was necessary to assess, from the outset, whether the study would be able to achieve its objectives using the study direction and question categories already outlined. Therefore the content of the study survey was largely dictated by the responses to a pilot survey.

The purpose of the pilot survey was to ensure that the initial draft survey instrument would collect relevant data to answer the questions being tested and that it was easy for respondents to understand and complete. The constructed survey needed to be relevant to the QPS Corporate Goals and SER Regional Goals. For the purpose of this pilot a reference group of stakeholders and QPS staff were exposed to the survey instrument and feedback on effectiveness obtained, with changes made to the instrument prior to conducting the study.

3.4 PROCEDURE

The following section outlines the procedure used to administer the survey and the data collection method.

3.4.1 Data Collection

The data collection staff were supplied with a selection of random, telephone numbers. Where the number thus obtained proved to be unattended, they were instructed to try that number on at least five (5) later occasions. Meanwhile they were to try the next number on their list.

To achieve a viable sample size the target was for 600 surveys to be completed. To achieve this target, based on trials of the survey instrument and providing enough leeway for unexpected technical problems, the following break down was calculated and depicted in Table 8.

TABLE 8. HOURS WORKED TO CONDUCT SURVEY

Day of Week	No per hour	Hours calling	No. of staff	Totals
Thursday	3 surveys	8	7	168
Friday	3 surveys	8	7	168
Saturday	3 surveys	8	7	168
Sunday	3 surveys	8	7	168
Possible Target				672

The hours of the survey on weekdays were from 9am to 5.00 pm to ring business premises and residential calls. The hours on weekends were also from 9.00 am to 5.00 pm. The following chapter reports the results of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

Results

4.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results of the study in terms of demographic breakdown, respondents' satisfaction to police service delivery and their perceptions of safety.

4.1 SAMPLE OBTAINED

The projected possible sample size was 600. Due to limited time, a sample of 559 was achieved. The study sample gained consisted of two groups, permanent residents of the sample area ($n=455$) and those employed within the sample area ($n=104$), total ($N=559$). The perceptions and needs of the different groups, are presented in two parts:

- Perceptions of respondents who were permanent residents to issues of police service delivery; and
- Perceptions of respondents who are employed in the study area to issues of police service delivery.

4.2 RESPONSES OF PERMANENT RESIDENTS IN THE STUDY AREA

This section presents the responses of permanent residents in terms of:

- Demographic breakdown;
- Perceptions of the permanent residents with the service delivery of the Queensland Police Service in the study area; and
- Respondents perception of safety.

4.2.1 Demographic Breakdown

Demographic breakdown is reported in terms of:

- Suburb of residence
- Gender
- Age
- Home ownership
- Household composition

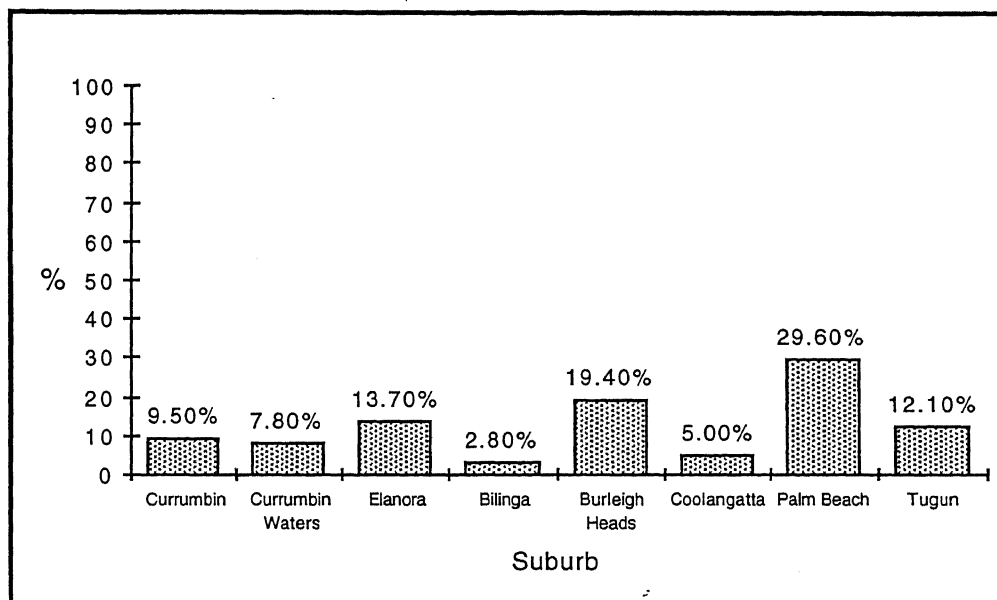
Respondents to the telephone survey were selected randomly (with replacement) for each of the suburbs previously listed. Total numbers sought for each suburb were determined on the basis of population size. The distribution of responses received from the respondents sampled in the telephone survey is outlined in Table 9. (below).

TABLE 9. FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF PERMANENT RESIDENT RESPONDENTS BY SUBURB

Statistical Local Area	Suburb	Frequency	Percentage
0074	Currumbin	43	9.45%
3468	Currumbin Waters	36	7.91%
3472	Elanora	62	13.63%
0077	Bilinga	13	2.86%
3474	Burleigh Heads	88	19.35%
3458	Coolangatta	23	5.05%
3491	Palm Beach	135	29.67%
3506	Tugun	55	12.08%
		N = 455	100%

The large sample of randomly selected respondents depicted in Figure 4. (below) who identified their suburb as Palm Beach may be attributed to the high percentage of elderly persons living in Palm Beach, but this was not tested and is a limitation of the survey methodology.

FIGURE 4. FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF PERMANENT RESIDENT RESPONDENTS BY SUBURB



4.2.2 Gender

Table 10. presents the break down of the frequency and percentages for gender of the permanent residential respondents.

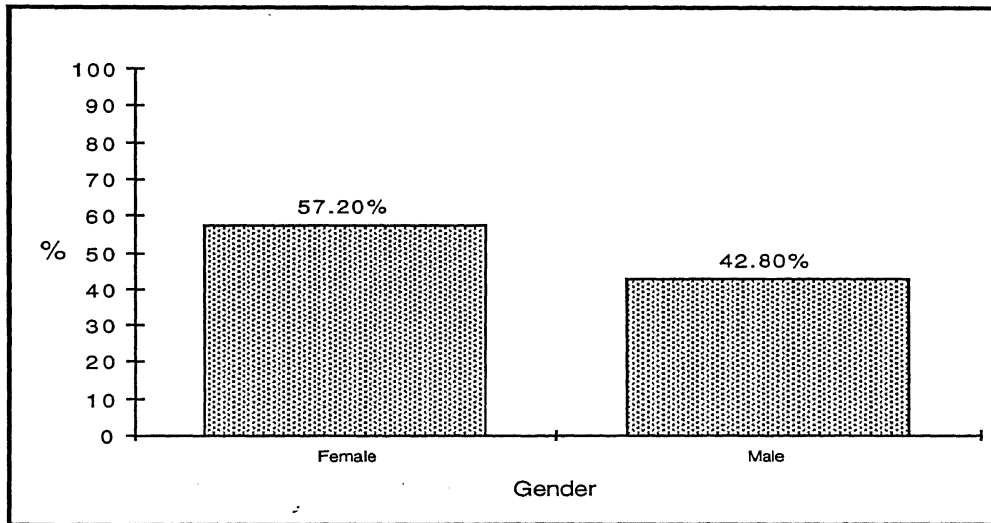
TABLE 10. FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF PERMANENT RESIDENTIAL RESPONDENTS BY GENDER

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	194	42.60%
Female	261	57.40%
Total	455	100.00%

As reported in Table 10. there are more female than male respondents (14.80%). There is thus a potential bias of survey results which should be considered in the analysis.

Figure 5. depicts the gender break down of the permanent residential respondents.

FIGURE 5. FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE PERMANENT RESIDENT RESPONDENTS BY GENDER



4.2.3 Age

Table 11. depicts (below) the age of the permanent resident respondents.

TABLE 11. FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF PERMANENT RESIDENT RESPONDENTS BY AGE

Age	Frequency	Percentage
16-19	18	3.96%
20-29	41	9.01%
30-39	55	12.09%
40-49	50	10.99%
50-59	82	18.02%
60+	209	45.93%
	N = 455	Total % = 100

Of the respondents, 45.93% are in the age group 60+. Their responses may influence results obtained and should be considered when interpreting the results.

4.2.4 Home Ownership

Table 12. (below) indicates the frequency distribution for the type of home ownership by respondents who are permanent residents. Of those interviewed 69.45% own their own home. This suggests that this proportion of the sample has a major investment in their area.

TABLE 12. FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF HOUSEHOLD OWNERSHIP FOR RESIDENTS

Home Ownership	Frequency	Percentage
Buying Home	34	7.48%
Renting - Private	79	17.37%
Own home	316	69.45%
Renting - Government	14	3.07%
Other	12	2.63%
	N = 455	Total = 100%

Responses of those respondents who own or are purchasing their homes were combined, (77.93%). In comparison, 20.44% of respondents who are renting, whether this rental was privately owned or government sponsored are also combined. 'Other' responses (2.63%) were re-coded as missing.

4.2.5 Household Composition

Household composition is relevant only for the resident sample of respondents who were at home when contacted, regardless of whether or not they were employed. The resident sample is represented in Table 13. (below).

TABLE 13. FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF HOUSEHOLD COMPOSITION FOR RESIDENTS

Household Composition	Frequency	Percentage
Single	88	19.34%
Single parent	13	2.86%
Couple	160	35.16%
Nuclear family	137	30.11%
Extended family	15	3.29%
Divorced	8	1.76%
Separated	1	0.22%
Group share	12	2.64%
Other	21	4.62%
	N = 455	Total = 100%

Table 13. shows that almost 66% of the respondents lived as a couple or nuclear family and less than 25% lived alone.

4.2.6 Summary

In summary, the results indicate that respondents were predominantly females; the majority of respondents were 60 years of age or more; home ownership was higher than any other category and most respondents lived either as a couple or in a nuclear family.

4.3 PERCEPTIONS AND REPORTED SATISFACTION OF PERMANENT RESIDENTS IN THE STUDY AREA WITH THE SERVICE DELIVERY OF THE QUEENSLAND POLICE SERVICE

This section presents the responses of permanent residents in terms of:

- Satisfaction level
- Satisfaction level by suburb
- Reasons for dissatisfaction

4.3.1 Satisfaction Level of Respondents who had contact with the Police

In this section, the issues of client satisfaction of respondents who had actual contact with police in the last year are examined. Of the 455 residents surveyed, 190 (38.77%) responded to this question. The respondents who reported having actual contact with the police were asked about their satisfaction with the service provided. Table 14. (below) presents the reported satisfaction levels of the respondents.

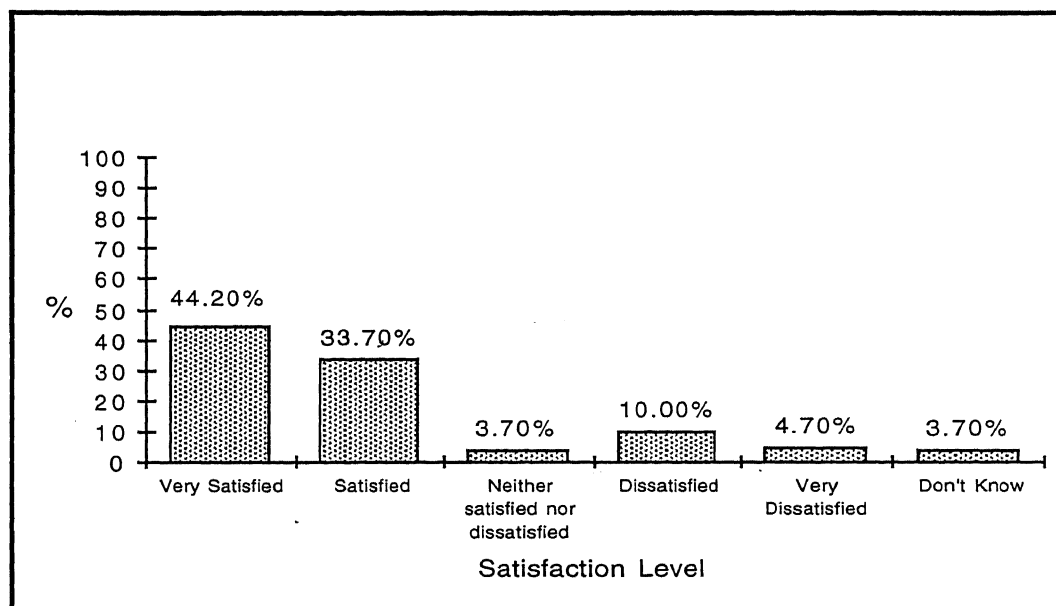
TABLE 14. REPORTED FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF SATISFACTION LEVEL WITH SERVICE PROVIDED BY POLICE OF RESPONDENTS WHO HAD CONTACT WITH POLICE

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Very Satisfied	84	44.20%
Satisfied	64	33.70%
Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied	7	3.70%
Unsatisfied	19	10.00%
Very Unsatisfied	9	4.70%
Don't know	7	3.70%
	N = 190	100.00%

As can be seen from Table 14. of the 190 respondents reporting contact with the police in the last year, 148 (77.90%) were satisfied or very satisfied with the service provided by police. Those who were either dissatisfied, very dissatisfied or who did not know, represent 18.40% of this group of respondents, a further 3.70% could not decide.

Figure 6. illustrates the reported satisfaction levels of these respondents (n=190) who had actual contact with the police.

FIGURE 6. REPORTED SATISFACTION LEVEL WITH SERVICE PROVIDED BY POLICE OF RESPONDENTS WHO HAD CONTACT WITH POLICE



4.3.2 Percentage of Respondents by Suburb Who Were Very Satisfied or Satisfied With the Service Police Provide.

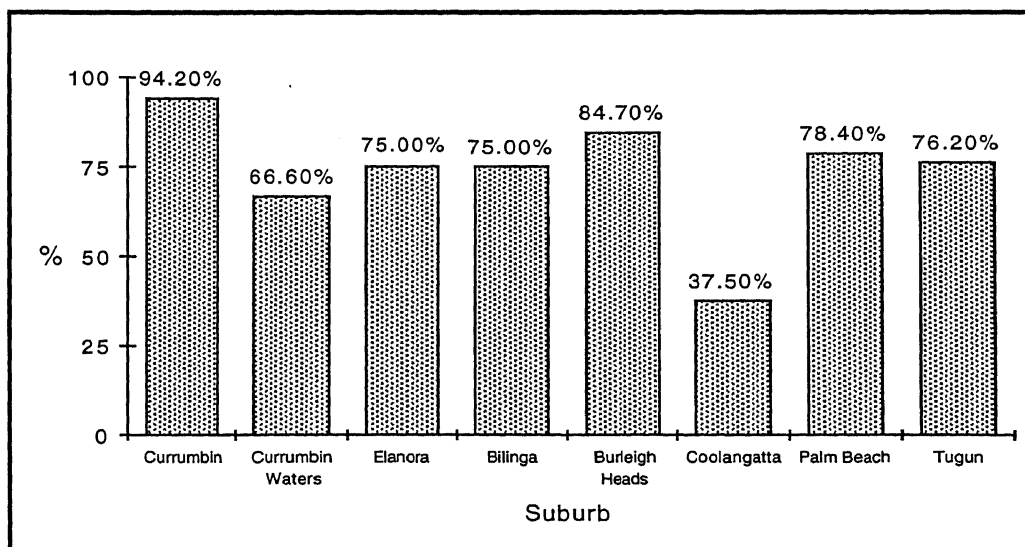
Table 15. (below) illustrates the variations in the percentages of respondents who had contact with the police, where N=190 and who were satisfied with the service police provide in their particular suburbs.

TABLE 15. PERCENTAGE AND NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS BY SUBURB WHO WERE VERY SATISFIED OR SATISFIED WITH THE SERVICE POLICE PROVIDE

Suburb	Percentage	Number
Currumbin	94.20%	23
Currumbin Waters	66.60%	14
Elanora	75.00%	25
Bilinga	75.00%	3
Burleigh Heads	84.70%	39
Coolangatta	37.50%	9
Palm Beach	78.40%	54
Tugun	76.20%	23

Results depicted in Table 15. indicate that respondents from seven suburbs have a greater than 60% satisfaction level while Coolangatta is the only suburb with a satisfaction level lower than 40%.

FIGURE 7. PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS BY SUBURB WHO WERE EITHER VERY SATISFIED OR SATISFIED WITH THE SERVICE WHICH POLICE PROVIDE



4.3.3 Reasons for Dissatisfaction

The twenty-eight respondents who indicated dissatisfaction with police gave 56 reasons for this dissatisfaction. The four most common responses that constituted 55.00% of replies are summarised in Table 16. (below) "Other responses" are not included.

TABLE 16. REASONS CITED FOR DISSATISFACTION BY RESPONDENTS WHO HAD CONTACT WITH THE POLICE

Most Common Responses	Number of Respondents	Contact with Police			
		Break & Enter	Stealing	Domestic Violence	Noisy Parties
Slow to arrive / do not come when sent for	35.70% n = (10)	80.00% (8)	10.00% (1)	0 (0)	10.00% (1)
Do not keep person informed / don't come	25.10% n= (9)	71.40% (7)	14.30% (1)	0 (0)	14.30% (1)
Do nothing / don't do enough to stop crime	21.10% n = (6)	33.33% (2)	33.33% (2)	16.67% (1)	16.67% (1)
Manner unfriendly / arrogant / over-casual etc.	18.10% n = (6)	20.00% (1)	60.00% (4)	20.00% (1)	0 (0)
Total	100% N= (31)				

As can be seen in Table 16. the greatest number of dissatisfied respondents indicated that they were victims of break and enter. Break and enter crimes registered 52% of the time as the most common reason for respondents to have had contact with police.

The most common reasons that respondents gave for their dissatisfaction with the police service delivery were:

- 35.70% - Slow to arrive/do not come when sent for;
- 25.10% - Do not keep person informed/don't come back;
- 21.10% - Do nothing/ don't do enough to stop crime; and
- 18.10% - Manner unfriendly/arrogant/over-casual.

4.3.4 Summary

In summary, the results in this section indicate that respondents who had contact with the service which police provide recorded a combined satisfaction level of 'very satisfied' and 'satisfied' of 77.9%. Respondents from seven suburbs reported as having greater than a 60% satisfaction level, with only Coolangatta not in this group. The most frequently reported reason for dissatisfaction with the police service provided was that the police were slow to arrive or did not come when sent for. This group also reported that break & enter was the most frequent reason for calling on police service.

4.4 SOURCE OF PERCEPTIONS OF CRIME LEVELS BY RESIDENT RESPONDENTS PERMANENTLY LIVING IN THE STUDY AREA

This section reports the response of the permanent residents in terms of their perceptions of safety. Three areas were probed. These are:

- Source of Perceptions of Crime Levels
- Perception of Safety by Time and Place; and
- Perception of Safety by Gender.

4.4.1 Source of Perceptions of Crime Levels

The respondents were asked on what they based their opinions regarding the level of crime. From the 455 respondents, eight hundred and forty-five separate responses were received, with some respondents quoting multiple sources. Table 17. indicates the sources of information that created the perceptions of respondents in relation to the level of crime expressed as a frequency from a possible 455 individual responses per category.

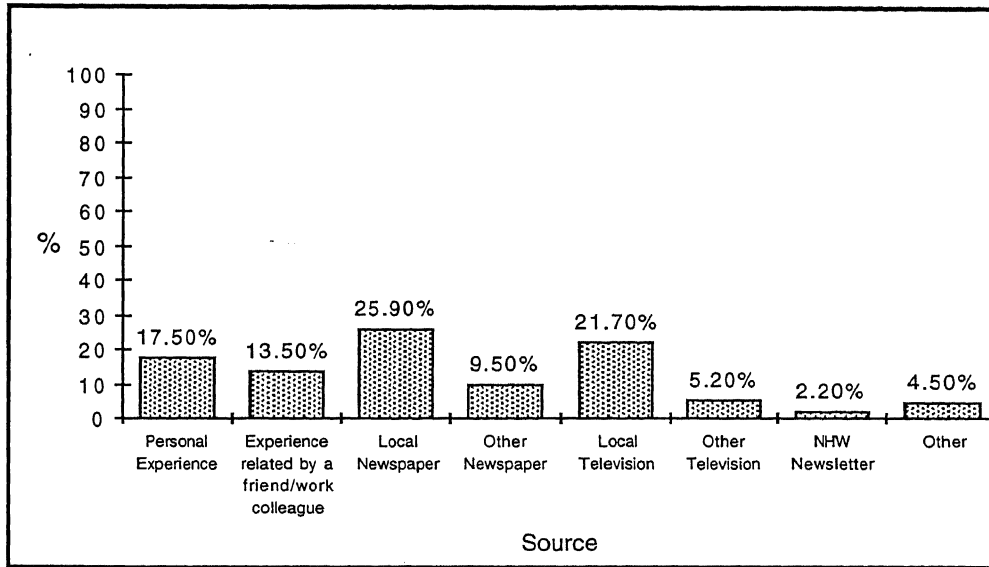
TABLE 17. FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF SOURCE OF PERCEPTIONS OF CRIME LEVELS BY RESIDENT RESPONDENTS

Source	Frequency	Percentage
Local newspaper	219/455	48.13%
Local television	183/455	40.22%
Personal experience	148/455	32.52%
Experience related by friend / work colleague	114/455	25.05%
Other newspaper	80/455	17.58%
Other television	44/455	9.67%
Other	39/455	8.57%
NHW newsletter	18/455	3.95%

As can be seen from Table 17. the respondents identified local media as the major source of their perceptions of crime levels. Some 48.13% of respondents quoted the local newspapers as the source of their perception, 40.22% cited local television, while 17.58% gave other newspapers. Some 32.52% gave personal experience as the source.

Figure 8. indicates the sources of information that created the perceptions of respondents in relation to the level of crime.

FIGURE 8. SOURCE OF PERCEPTIONS OF CRIME LEVELS BY RESIDENT RESPONDENTS



In total, the media (newspapers, local television) was shown to have the greatest influence on perceptions of crime reported by respondents. As stated previously, perceptions of crime which came from "personal" and "related to friends or colleagues" experience is reported as 32.52% for personal experience and 25.05% from friends. The results figure may be skewed to a result favouring media, as four of the prompt questions used on the survey instrument contained possible media responses.

4.4.2 Perceptions of Safety by Time and Place

To establish the times of the day and places where respondents considered themselves to be at most risk, the respondents were asked the following question.

Q.24 Do you feel safe in your home during the day?

TABLE 18. FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGES OF THE COMBINED POSITIVE PERCENTAGE SCORES FOR RESPONDENTS WHO FEEL SAFE IN HOME DURING THE DAY

Suburb	Respondents	Frequency Safe / Unsafe	Percentage Safe / Unsafe
Palm Beach	n = 135	118 / 17	87.20 / 12.80%
Burleigh Heads	n = 88	81 / 7	92.60 / 7.40%
Elanora	n = 62	59 / 3	94.80 / 5.20%
Tugun	n = 55	46 / 9	84.40 / 15.60%
Currumbin	n = 43	39 / 4	92.50 / 7.50%
Currumbin Waters	n = 36	35 / 1	97.00 / 3.00%
Coolangatta	n = 23	23 / 0	100.00 / 00%
Bilinga	n = 13	9 / 4	72.80 / 27.20%
Total	N = 455		

Table 18. illustrates, residents in all suburbs with the exception of Bilinga reported a greater than 80.00% level of safety in their own home during the day.

FIGURE 9. PERCENTAGE SCORES FOR RESPONDENTS WHO FEEL SAFE IN THEIR HOME DURING THE DAY

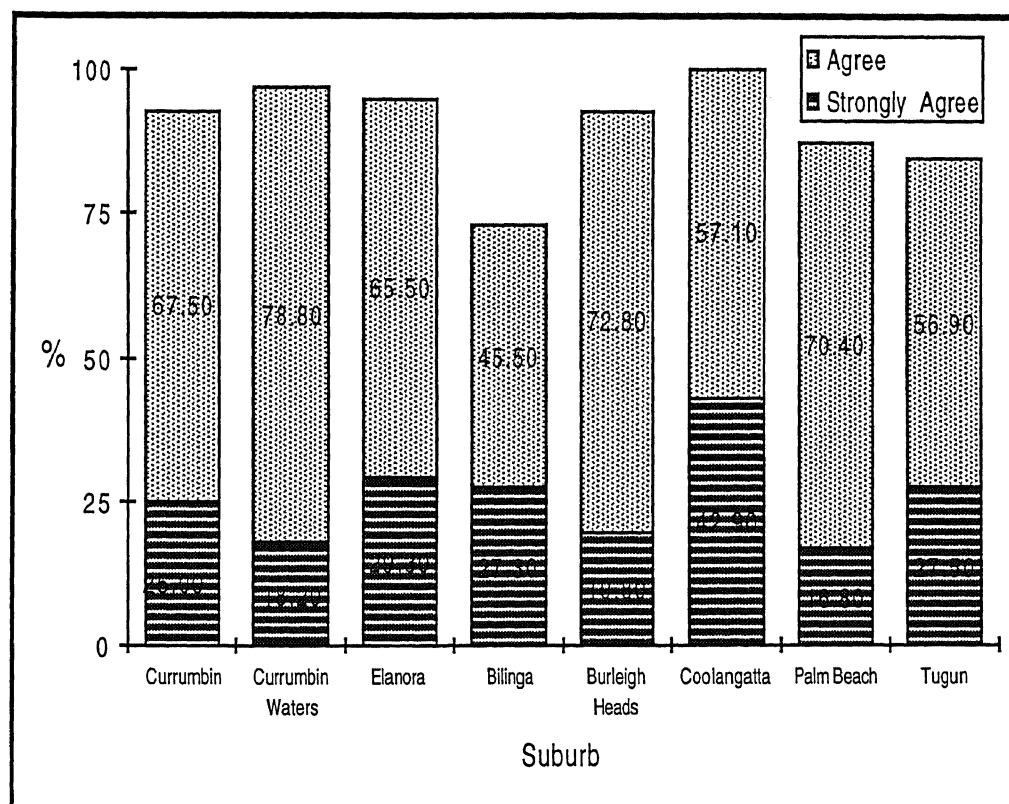


Figure 9. indicates that most respondents either "Agreed or Strongly Agreed" that they felt safe in their homes during the day regardless of the suburb in which they live. Only respondents from Bilinga reported less than an 80.00% level of safety whilst in their own home during the day, Tugun and Palm Beach were next lowest percentages.

To establish the times of the day and places the respondents considered themselves to be at most risk, the respondents were also asked to what extent they felt safe walking the streets around their home at night. The following question was asked:

Q.26 *A number of statements have been made about the Queensland Police Service. Could you tell me whether you agree or disagree with these statements? "You feel safe walking the streets around your home at night".*

Table 19. Illustrates the respondents' concerns when walking around the streets of the home at night.

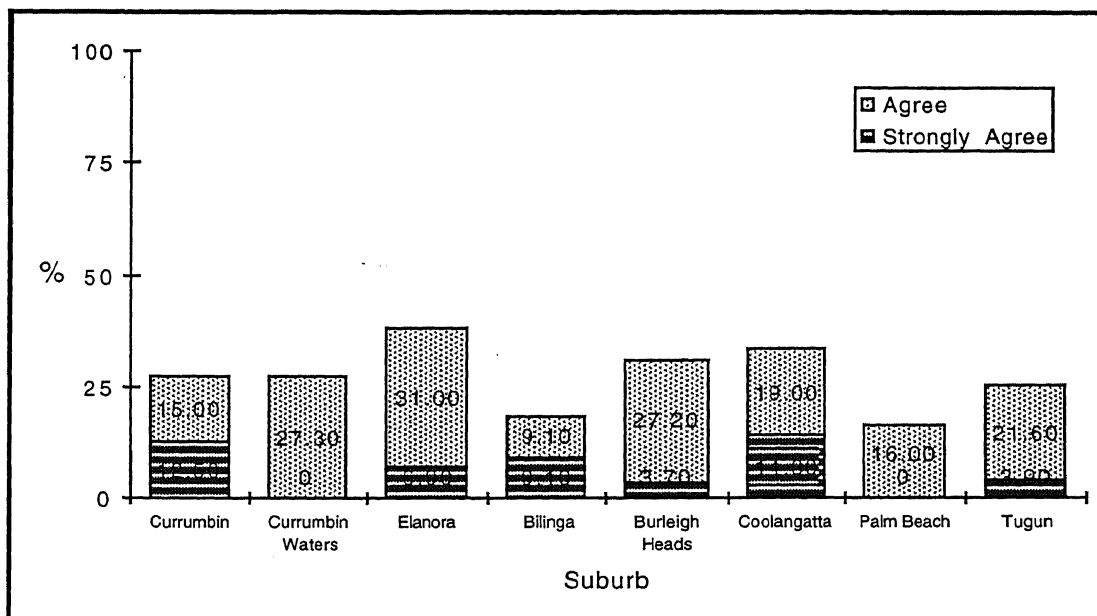
TABLE 19. PERCENTAGE SCORES FOR RESPONDENTS WHO FEEL SAFE WALKING IN THE STREETS AROUND THEIR HOME AT NIGHT

Suburb	Respondents	Frequency Safe / Unsafe	Percentage Safe / Unsafe
Burleigh Heads	n = 88	27 / 61	30.90 / 69.10 %
Elanora	n = 62	23 / 39	37.90 / 62.10 %
Palm Beach	n = 135	21 / 114	16.00 / 84.00%
Tugun	n = 55	13 / 42	24.60 / 75.40 %
Currumbin	n = 43	12 / 31	27.50 / 72.50%
Currumbin Waters	n = 36	10 / 26	27.30 / 72.70%
Coolangatta	n = 23	7 / 16	33.30 / 66.70%
Bilinga	n = 13	2 / 11	18.20 / 81.80%
Total	N = 455		100.00%

Table 19. depicts that all respondents, regardless of suburb, reported feeling less safe walking the streets around their homes at night (37.90% - 16.00%) than when at home during the day, (100% - 72.80%).

Figure 10. illustrates the respondents' concerns when walking around the streets of their home at night.

FIGURE 10. PERCENTAGE SCORES FOR RESPONDENTS WHO FEEL SAFE WALKING IN THE STREETS AROUND THEIR HOME AT NIGHT



Reported in Figure 10. are the respondents' combined responses of "Agree or Strongly Agree" that they felt less safe when walking in their streets at night. The suburbs that reported the least degree of safety were Palm Beach (16.00%), Bilinga (18.20%) and Tugun (25.50%). The respondents from these suburbs also reported in Figure 11. feeling the least safe within their own homes.

4.4.3 Perception of Safety by Gender

Table 20. (below) depicts the percentage and frequency of respondents who feel safe walking in the streets around their home at night by gender.

TABLE 20. PERCENTAGE AND FREQUENCY OF RESPONDENT WHO FEEL SAFE WALKING IN THE STREETS AROUND THEIR HOME AT NIGHT BY GENDER

Response	Female Frequency	Female Percentage	Male Frequency	Male Percentage
Agree Strongly	8	3.00%	12	6.30%
Agree	31	11.60%	73	36.60%
Uncertain	17	6.00%	17	8.00%
Disagree	133	50.90%	72	37.10%
Disagree Strongly	71	27.20%	21	10.30%
	N = 260	100.00%	N = 195	100.00%

As shown in Table 20, 42.90% of male respondents felt safe walking around their streets at night, while less than 15.00% of female respondents felt safe.

FIGURE 11. PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENT WHO FEEL SAFE WALKING IN THE STREETS AROUND THEIR HOME AT NIGHT BY GENDER

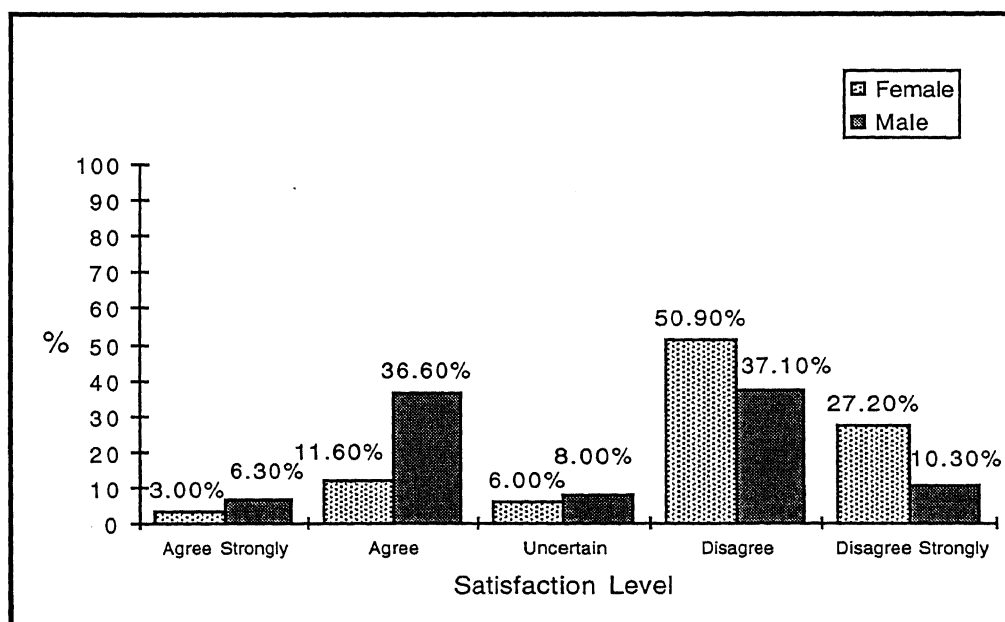


Figure 11. illustrates that 78.10% of female respondents felt unsafe on streets at night, in comparison to 47.40% of males who held this view. Fourteen percent of respondents (male and female) were uncertain.

4.4.5 Summary of Perception of Safety

Almost 90.00% of resident respondents in Tugun felt that the risk of crime affecting them was low. Similarly, approximately three-quarters of resident respondents in Currumbin Waters and Bilinga felt that the risk of crime affecting them was low, as did approximately two-thirds of resident respondents in Currumbin, Elanora, Burleigh Heads and Coolangatta. The only suburb where more respondents felt the risk of crime affecting them was high rather than low, was Palm Beach.

All respondents, regardless of suburb, reported feeling less safe walking the streets around their homes at night (37.90% - 16.00%) than when at home during the day, (100% - 72.80%).

Seventy-eight percent of female respondents felt unsafe on streets at night, in comparison to 47.40% of males who held this view. Fourteen percent of respondents (male and female) were uncertain.

4.4.6 Overall Summary of Residential Responses

Of those resident respondents, the results indicate that respondents were predominately females, 60 years of age or more and home ownership was higher than any other category. Most respondents lived either as a couple or in a nuclear family.

Respondents who had contact with the service that police provided recorded a combined satisfaction level of 'very satisfied' and 'satisfied' of over 75%. Respondents from seven suburbs reported a greater than a 60% satisfaction level with the service provided. The most frequent reason for dissatisfaction was that the police were slow to arrive or when sought did not come.

Almost 90.00% of resident respondents in Tugun felt that the risk of crime affecting them was low. Similarly, three-quarters of resident respondents in Currumbin Waters and Bilinga felt that the risk of crime affecting them was low, while two-thirds of resident respondents in Currumbin, Elanora, Burleigh Heads and Coolangatta felt the same. The only suburb where more respondents felt the risk of crime affecting them was high rather than low, was Palm Beach.

All respondents, regardless of suburb, reported feeling less safe walking the streets around their homes at night (37.90% - 16.00%) than when at home during the day, (100% - 72.80%).

Seventy-eight percent of female respondents felt unsafe on streets at night, in comparison to 47.40% of males who held this view. Fourteen percent of respondents (male and female) were uncertain.

The next section reports the responses of respondents within the study area who were contacted at their workplace.

4.5 RESPONDENTS WHO ARE EMPLOYED IN THE STUDY AREA

Businesses in the study area were also contacted and responses were recorded from the person who answered the telephone. All respondents were informed that their responses were to relate to the area in which they were employed.

This section presents the responses of respondents who were interviewed whilst at their workplace in terms of:

- Demographic Breakdown;
- Perceptions of the Police Service Service Delivery by Respondents Employed in the Study Area; and
- Perceptions of Safety.

4.5.1 Demographic Breakdown

In this section, the demographic breakdown, of the 104 respondents is reported in terms of:

- Suburb of employment
- Gender
- Age

Whilst 102 respondents were sought, 104 were obtained.

4.5.2 Suburb of Employment

The responses from those employed within the sample area formed the second category as it was felt that the responses of this group (i.e. the employed group) might be different from the residents. It was postulated that those employed in the area might have different perceptions of the delivery of police services.

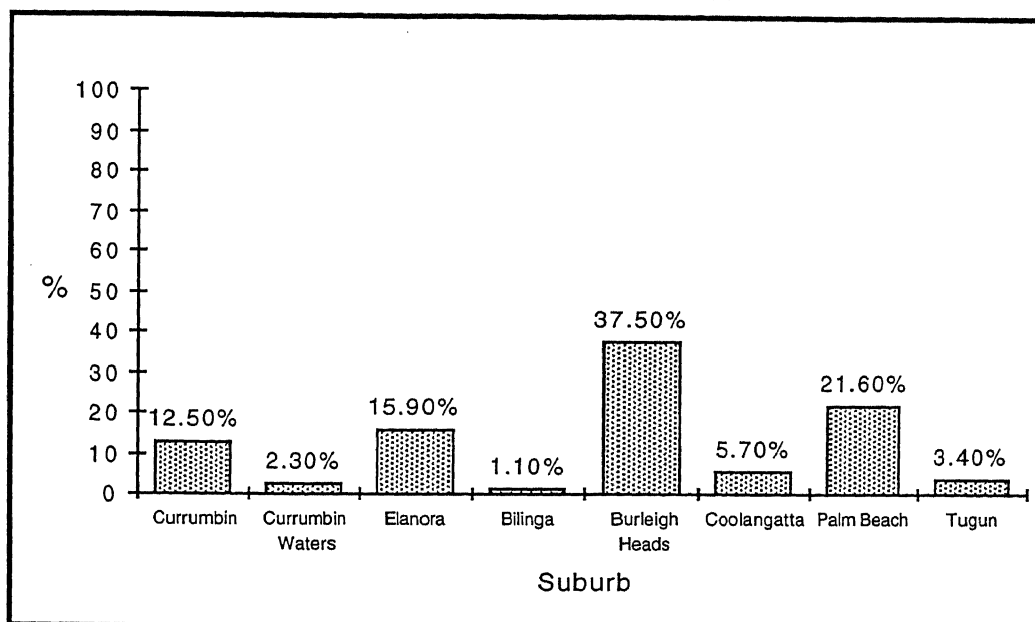
The distribution by suburb of persons interviewed who are employed in the sample area is represented in Table 21.

**TABLE 21. RESPONDENTS EMPLOYED IN STUDY AREA
BY SUBURB**

Suburb	Respondents	Percentage
Currumbin	n = 13	12.50%
Currumbin Waters	n = 2	2.30%
Elanora	n = 17	15.90%
Bilinga	n = 1	1.10%
Burleigh Heads	n = 39	37.50%
Coolangatta	n = 6	5.70%
Palm Beach	n = 22	21.60%
Tugun	n = 4	3.40%
Total	N = 104	100.00%

Table 21. illustrates that both Burleigh Heads and Palm Beach account for over 50% of respondents in the survey. Represented in Figure 12. is the demographic profile of the respondents in businesses included in the survey, by suburb.

FIGURE 12. PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS WHO WORK IN THE SAMPLE AREA BY SUBURB.



4.5.3 Gender

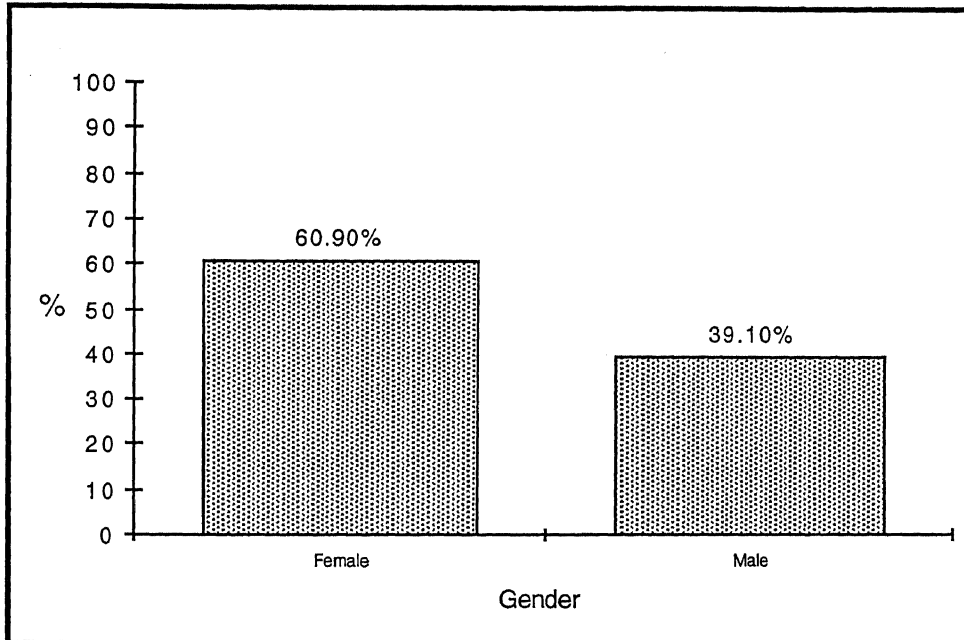
Table 22. (below) provides the frequency and percentage break-down of the gender of respondents who work in the study area. The majority of respondents (60%) are female.

Table 22. Gender of respondents who work in the sample area

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Female	63	60.90%
Male	41	39.10%
Total	N = 104	100.00%

Figure 13. provides the frequency and percentage break-down of the respondents who work in the sample area by gender.

FIGURE 13. GENDER OF RESPONDENTS



As the survey was conducted by telephone interviews and as most businesses seemed to employ women at the initial contact point of reception and/or administration, this may explain the higher proportion of female respondents.

4.5.4 Age of Respondents

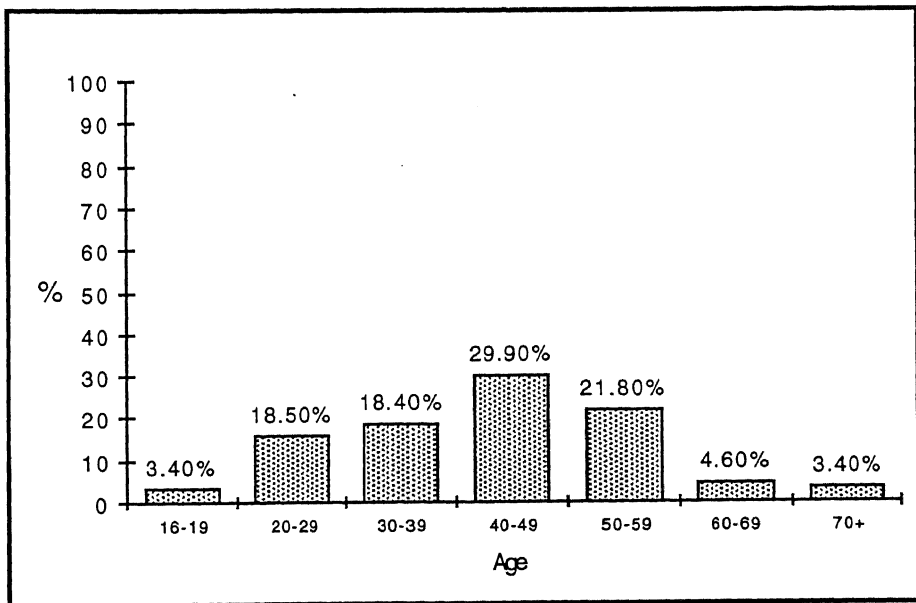
Table 23. (below) provides the frequency and percentage break-down of the age groups of the employee respondents.

TABLE 23. AGE OF EMPLOYEE RESPONDENTS

Age	Frequency	Percentage
16-19	4	3.40%
20-29	20	18.50%
30-39	19	18.40%
40-49	32	29.90%
50-59	24	21.80%
60+	1	8.00%
	N = 104	Total = 100.00%

The results in Table 23. indicate that more than 29.80% of the sample is over fifty years of age, while 70.20% under fifty years of age.

Figure 14. provides the frequency and percentage break-down of the age groups of the employee respondents.

FIGURE 14. FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE BREAKDOWN OF THE AGES OF EMPLOYEE RESPONDENTS

4.5.5 Summary

The results reported in this section indicate that the majority of the respondents who work in the study area are employed in Burleigh Heads and Palm Beach, (58%). A majority of these respondents were female who represented over 60% of those surveyed. The majority (65%) of the respondents were between 30 to 59 years of age.

4.6 PERCEPTION AND REPORTED SATISFACTION OF RESPONDENTS EMPLOYED IN THE STUDY AREA WITH THE SERVICE DELIVERY OF THE QUEENSLAND POLICE

This section presents the responses of working respondents in terms of:

- Satisfaction level
- Satisfaction level by suburb
- Reasons for dissatisfaction

4.6.1 Satisfaction level of Respondents Employed in the Study Area.

104 respondents were requested to indicate their level of satisfaction with the service by the police to their business. Only those who indicated that their business had contact with the police were included in this section. Of those approached, forty-eight (48) were eligible to be included in the sample.

Table 24. reports the percentage of respondents employed within the suburb who were satisfied with the service provided by police.

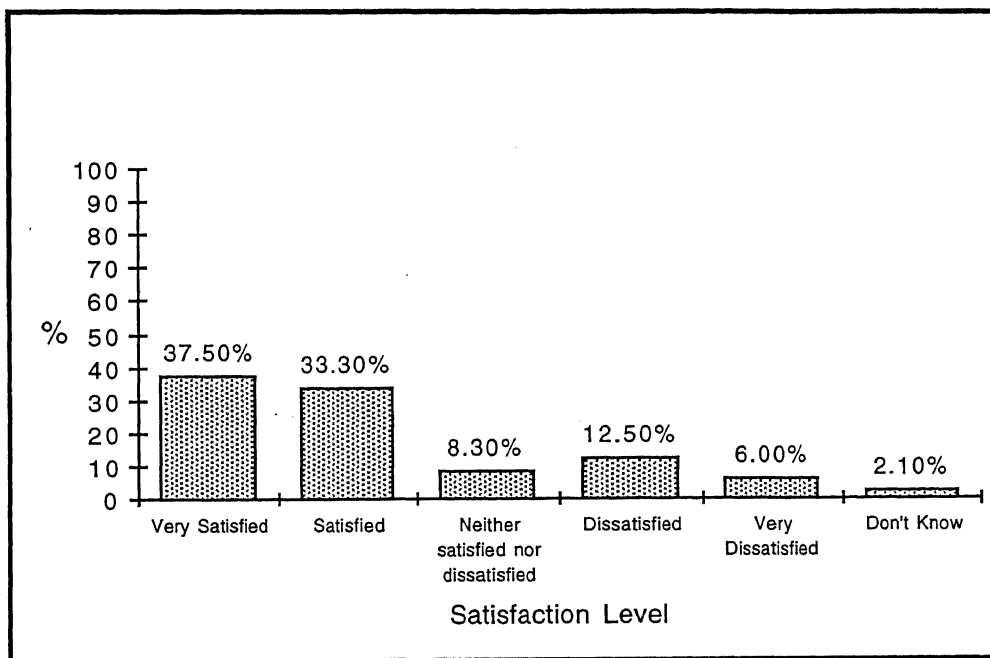
TABLE 24. PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS EMPLOYED WITHIN THE SUBURB WHO WERE SATISFIED WITH THE SERVICE PROVIDED BY POLICE

Responses	Frequency	Percentage
Very Satisfied	18	37.50%
Satisfied	16	33.30%
Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied	4	8.30%
Dissatisfied	6	12.50%
Very Dissatisfied	3	6.30%
Don't Know	1	2.10%
	N = 48	100.00%

As can be seen in Table 24. more than seventy percent (70.80%) of respondents were either "very satisfied" or "satisfied" with the service provided, while two percent (2.00%) did not know.

Figure 15. illustrates the percentage of respondents employed within the suburb who were satisfied with the service provided by police.

FIGURE 15. PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS EMPLOYED WITHIN THE SUBURB WHO WERE SATISFIED WITH THE SERVICE PROVIDED BY POLICE



4.6.2 Reasons for Dissatisfaction

While 70.00% of respondents were satisfied with delivery of police service it was important to ascertain why there was dissatisfaction and the reasons for such dissatisfaction.

In the following Table 25. two of the eleven reasons most often given as reasons for dissatisfaction were: "not enough police" and "slow to arrive".

TABLE 25. COMPARISON BETWEEN TYPE OF CONTACT AND REASON FOR DISSATISFACTION

Most Common Responses	Frequency	% of Respondents	Contact with Police		
			Assisted Police	Break & Enter	Stealing
Other reasons	4	36.00%	4	-	-
Not enough police	2	18.00%	2	-	-
Slow to arrive	2	18.00%	1	-	1
No response	3	28.00%	-	-	-
	N = 11				

4.6.3 Summary

Contact with police and the type of contact is depicted in Table 25. It can be seen that the greater number of dissatisfied business respondents had contact with the police when the respondents assisted the police or had some non-criminal contact. This contrasts with responses from residents whose contact was more likely to be associated with some activity of criminal intent in their area.

4.7 SOURCE OF PERCEPTIONS OF SAFETY BY RESPONDENTS EMPLOYED IN THE STUDY AREA

This section reports the respondents' responses in terms of:

- Source of Perceptions of crime levels;
- Source of Perceptions of crime levels by suburb; and
- Perceptions of safety.

4.7.1 Sources of Perception of Crime Levels by Respondents Employed in the Study Area.

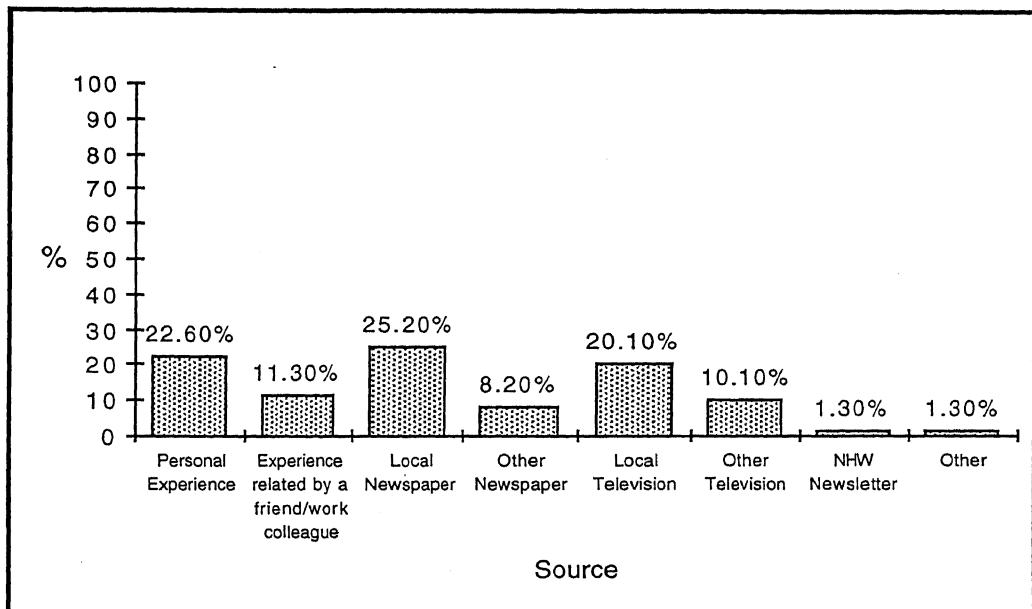
Respondents were asked the source of information on which they based their opinions regarding the level of crime. Table 26. (below) reports the responses as: One hundred and fifty-nine responses, with some respondents quoting multiple reasons.

TABLE 26. SOURCE OF PERCEPTIONS OF CRIME LEVELS FOR RESPONDENTS EMPLOYED IN THE STUDY AREA

Source	Frequency	Percentage
Local Newspaper	40/104	38.46%
Personal experience	36/104	34.61%
Local television	32/104	30.76%
Experience related by friend / work colleague	18/104	17.30%
Other television	16/104	15.38%
Other Newspaper	13/104	12.50%
NHW Newsletter	2/104	1.92%
Other	2/104	1.92%

As depicted in Table 26. 38.46% of respondents reported local newspapers as their source of information about crime levels, while 30.76% cited local television. Some 34.61% cited personal experience, which ranked second after local newspapers. Figure 16. presents the respondents' sources of information about crime levels.

FIGURE 16. SOURCE OF PERCEPTIONS OF CRIME LEVELS FOR RESPONDENTS EMPLOYED IN THE STUDY AREA



4.7.2 Perception of Safety of Respondents at their Place of Employment During the Day

To establish the time of the day and places the respondents who worked in the business sector considered themselves to be at most risk, they were asked the following question:

"Do you feel safe in your business during the day?"

The response to this question is depicted in Table 27. (below). Sixteen respondents to the survey did not reply to this question.

TABLE 27. PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS WHO FEEL SAFE WALKING IN THE STREETS AROUND THEIR PLACE OF EMPLOYMENT DURING THE DAY

Suburb	Number of Respondents	Degree of Safety Safe / Unsafe
Elanora	14	85.70 / 14.30%
Burleigh Heads	33	87.90 / 12.10%
Palm Beach	19	89.40 / 10.60%
Coolangatta	5	100.00 / 00.00%
Currumbin	11	100.00 / 00.00%
Tugun	3	100.00 / 00.00%
Currumbin Waters	2	100.00 / 00.00%
Bilinga	1	100.00 / 00.00%
	n = 88	
N = 104	Missing = 16	

All respondents recorded more than an eighty-five percent level of safety when walking around the streets of their place of employment during the day. Five respondents recorded one hundred percent level of safety in response to this question.

To establish the time of the day and places the respondents who worked in the business sector considered themselves to be most at risk, they were asked the following question:

Q.21 "Do you feel safe walking in the streets around your business during the day?"

The response to this question is depicted in Figure 17. Sixteen respondents to the survey did not reply to this question.

FIGURE 17. PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS WHO FEEL SAFE WALKING IN THE STREETS AROUND THEIR PLACE OF EMPLOYMENT DURING THE DAY

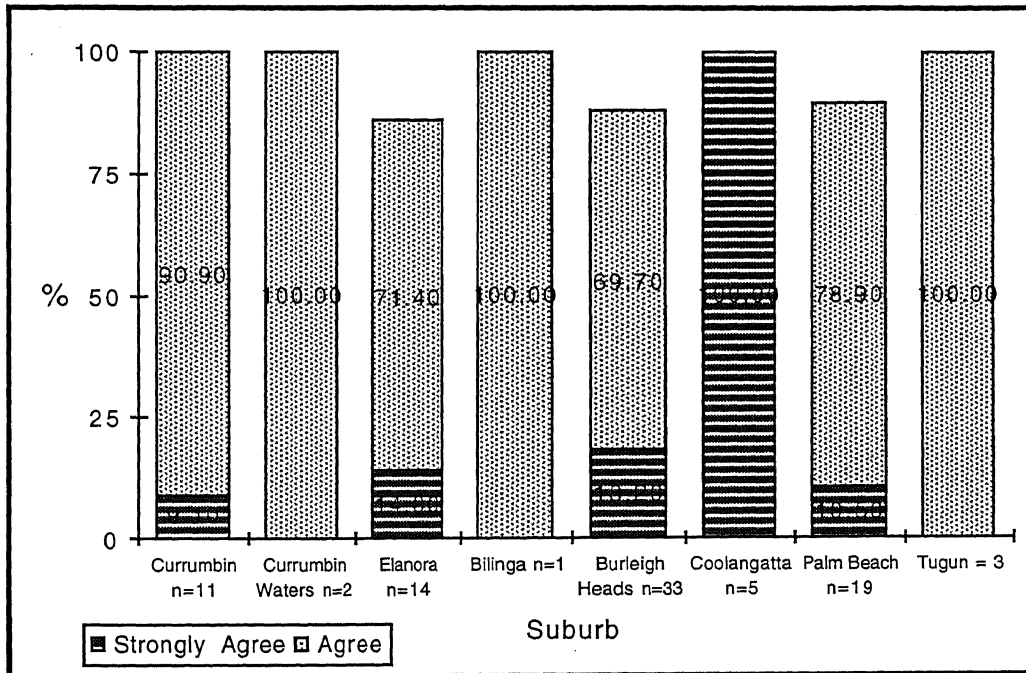


Figure 17. Reports the percentage of responses of "Agree" or "Strongly Agree". As stated previously, all respondents recorded more than an eighty-five percent level of safety when walking around the streets of their place of employment during the day. Five respondents recorded one hundred percent level of safety in response to this question.

4.7.3 Summary

Local newspaper, personal experience and local television were the three main reported sources of the respondents' opinions on crime levels.

Of all suburbs only Burleigh (69.70%), Palm Beach (78.90%) and Elanora (71.40%) reported less than total safety when walking around their place of business during the day.

4.8 OVERALL SUMMARY OF RESULTS

The summary of results are presented in the sections as they have been reported.

4.8.1 Permanent Residents – Overall Summary

The results indicate that respondents were predominately females, 60 years of age or more and home ownership was higher than any other category. Most respondents lived either as a couple or in a nuclear family.

Respondents who had contact with the service that police provided recorded a combined satisfaction level of 'very satisfied' and 'satisfied' of over 75%. Respondents from seven suburbs reported a greater than a 60% satisfaction level with the service provided. The most frequent reason for dissatisfaction was that the police were slow to arrive or did not come when requested.

Almost 90.00% of resident respondents in Tugun felt that the risk of crime affecting them was low. Approximately three-quarters of resident respondents in Currumbin Waters and Bilinga felt that the risk of crime affecting them was low. Some two-thirds of resident respondents in Currumbin, Elanora, Burleigh Heads and Coolangatta felt the same. The only suburb where more respondents felt the risk of crime affecting them was high rather than low, was Palm Beach.

All respondents, regardless of suburb, reported feeling less safe walking the streets around their homes at night (30.90% - 16.00%) than when at home during the day, (100% - 84.40%).

Seventy-eight percent (78%) of female respondents felt unsafe on streets at night, in comparison to 47.40% of males who held this view. Fourteen percent of respondents (male and female) were uncertain.

4.8.2 Respondents Employed in the Study Area – Overall Summary

More than 70.00% of respondents who reported having contact with the police were satisfied with the service provided. The perceptions of the employed respondents of the crime levels in their street or neighbourhood were slightly higher than the reported perceptions of the residents.

Unlike the residents, the highest number of dissatisfied respondents in the employed sector had contact with the police when they assisted police or had non-criminal contact. Eighty percent of respondents who reported coming in contact with police stated this contact had occurred within the last two years.

Little difference existed between the suburbs surveyed and the satisfaction level of the respondents. Respondents over 40 years of age were more likely than other groups to have reported being dissatisfied. There was little difference between the male and female respondents' dissatisfaction levels.

CHAPTER FIVE

Discussion

5.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter draws on the findings in the study and discussions in the literature review to support potential options for future exploration by the Queensland Police Service in relation to the following broad areas:

- Public Satisfaction with Police Service Delivery; and
- The Perception of Crime in Neighbourhoods.

5.1 PUBLIC SATISFACTION WITH POLICE SERVICE DELIVERY

5.1.1 What the literature review revealed

An overview of the literature demonstrates that random mobile patrols have only limited success in achieving policing goals. This conclusion holds regardless of the intensity of patrol strength, unless a strategy of saturation patrolling is adopted. The deterrent impact of changes in police strength is questionable. The number of crimes discovered by passing police patrols is small and rapid response to calls for assistance makes no difference to the outcome of most cases. Community satisfaction seems unaffected by changes in the number of police patrols on the streets.

It suggests that the impact of police patrols upon the volume of crime has been overstated by police departments and the increases in patrol strength cannot in themselves be expected to have a significant effect upon the volume of crime, fear of crime level and community satisfaction with the police. Larson, (1972) tested the assumption that a reduction in response time will increase community satisfaction with the police and found that this did not hold true.

A more recent study by Collins (1994), called "County Town Policing" in Canberra, Australia showed that a third of the residents are prepared to wait for a lengthy police response to a reported crime after they have been informed of how long that response would take. "...the key factor is not the speed of police response, but rather the certainty of the police attendance" , (Collins, 1994, p: 17).

This consistent finding should be interpreted with caution. It does not mean, of course, that rapid response is never related to community satisfaction. As the National Institute of Justice (1985, p: 84) has reported, "it appears highly unlikely that a community who is calling for police assistance while someone is attempting to break into his or her residence, would be satisfied with a 15 minute or 45 minute response time". Such calls, however, account for a very small percentage of the total calls for assistance and for the rest, where the complainant has already delayed calling the police, the findings would suggest that *expected* rather than *actual* response time is the critical variable in determining community satisfaction.

5.1.2 What the study revealed

Of the three police stations in the study area, Coolangatta staff took the longest to process a break & enter complaint, (Table 2). Coolangatta had the longest delay in detailing the job to a car and spent the least amount of time at the scene. However, in relation to all offences overall, Coolangatta had the fastest job detailing and least amount of time spent at the scene.

The most common reasons that respondents gave for their dissatisfaction with the police service delivery were:

- 35.70% - Slow to arrive/do not come when sent for;
- 25.10% - Do not keep person informed/don't come back;
- 21.10% - Do nothing/ don't do enough to stop crime; and
- 18.10% - Manner unfriendly/arrogant/over-casual.

5.1.3 Potential options for future exploration

The police stations of Coolangatta and Broadbeach are situated at opposite ends of a strip of the southern Gold Coast area that has one of the highest calls for police service. This location appears to increase the response time required to attend jobs and in some cases has meant that some calls for service are not answered at all. A relocation of the policing resources in a central position along that strip would provide a better coverage of the community. This could be achieved by building a new station or utilising a beat approach.

5.2 THE PERCEPTION OF CRIME IN NEIGHBORHOODS

5.2.1 What the literature review revealed

Crime itself is no longer the only problem faced by residents, business owners and community representatives. Fear of crime and concern about the amount of crime taking place in neighbourhoods are significant problems in their own right (Hough & Mayhew 1985). The media is tireless in revamping stories about people who are imprisoned in their own home because of their perception of rampant crime in the streets. Researchers (Wilson & Kelling 1982; Skogan 1987) believe that as the fear of crime increases, those with the capacity to leave the undesirable areas do so and leave the way open for the criminal element to firmly establish. When recording how crime affects a community, police statistics look to the actual reported crime rate, not how the fear of crime affects the quality of life nor how this in turn affects the structure of the community.

Conversely, it could be argued that there is a healthy fear of crime level, warranted in society. 'Common-sense' precautions and sensible actions will often prevent many types of crime. However, the over popularisation of the debate on fear of crime may lead some to taking inordinately dangerous strategies to avoid crime in the first place, such as going armed, purchasing savage dogs and 'hard wiring' electric fences.

5.2.2 What the study revealed

Almost 90.00% of resident respondents in Tugun felt that the risk of crime affecting them was low. Approximately three-quarters of resident respondents

in Currumbin Waters and Bilinga felt that the risk of crime affecting them was low. Some two-thirds of resident respondents in Currumbin, Elanora, Burleigh Heads and Coolangatta felt the same. The only suburb where more respondents felt the risk of crime affecting them was high rather than low, was Palm Beach.

All respondents, regardless of suburb, reported feeling less safe walking the streets around their homes at night (30.90% - 16.00%) than when at home during the day, (100% - 84.40%). Seventy-eight percent of female respondents felt unsafe on streets at night, in comparison to 47.40% of males who held this view. Fourteen percent of respondents (male and female) were uncertain.

5.2.3 Potential options for future exploration

Activities such as the At Risk Premises Project (TARP) may be undertaken by the local police. TARP is based on the situational crime prevention theory of authors such as Clarke (1983) who posit that the removal of easy access will deter potential offenders. The TARP response places the onus of guardianship on the owner of property rather than on the police. TARP encourages the police to deliver factual, timely information to break and enter victims and provide them with an audit of their home or business. Additionally TARP accesses the services of the Volunteers in Policing to provide follow-up support. The primary aims of this project is the reduction of the fear of crime by providing knowledge to prepare victims, potential victims and potential repeat victims with strategies to reduce the incidence of break and enter. An expected outcome of this project is increased public satisfaction with the police.

5.3 CONCLUSION

This study has highlighted the need for police to provide a flexible, specialised, targeted service to the public. This approach would herald a paradigm shift in the psyche of the Queensland Police Service from a prescriptive provider to a consultative provider of service. The literature indicated support for a negotiated response to calls for service and a move away from being the guardians of break and enter by empowering the community to take responsibility for their property. This has been reinforced by the responses of respondents in the study.

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COMMUNITY'S PERCEPTION OF POLICE SERVICE DELIVERY IN THE
SOUTHERN GOLD COAST AREA

Good) my name is). I am ringing on behalf of the Queensland Police Service. We are conducting a survey about the service police provide and also about attitudes to crime in the Southern Gold Coast area. Your telephone number has been selected at random and I ask if a person over 16 years of age will give us about 10 minutes of time to respond to the survey questions. Your identity will not disclosed through this survey. Should you not wish to answer some questions we will skip those.

Q 1. Are you or any member of the household related to an employee of the Queensland Police Service?

- Yes1
- (Explain that we are surveying non-police related people, thank them and terminate the call)
- No2

Q 2. What is your current residential status? are you.....
(prompt)

- A Permanent resident1
- (anyone who has lived there for over 6 months)
- A tourist.....2
- Working in this suburb only.....3
- Other (specify).....4

Q 3. What suburb are you in now?
(prompt) Read out

- Currumbin.....1
- Currumbin Waters.....2
- Elanora.....3
- Bilinga.....4
- Burleigh Heads.....5
- Coolangatta.....6
- Palm Beach.....7
- Tugan.....8
- Other (specify).....9

Q4 Under what circumstances have you had contact with the police in your neighbourhood?

(Do Not Prompt)

- Never.....(go to Q 9)..... 1
- Break and Enter..... 2
- Stealing..... 3
- Assault..... 4
- Wilful damage..... 5
- Domestic violence..... 6
- Traffic accident..... 7
- Community meeting..... 8
- Apprehended for an offence..... 9
- Neighbourhood Watch..... 10
- Random Breath Testing..... 11
- Noisy parties..... 12
- Other (specify).....13

Q 5. When was that?

(Read Out)

- Within the last year..... 1
- 1-2 years..... 2
- 3-4 years..... 3
- 4-6 years..... 4
- More than 6 years..... 5
- (Do not Read Out)
- Can't remember..... 6

Q 6. How satisfied are you with the service provided by the police?

(prompt) Read out

- Very Satisfied.....(go to Q 9)..... 1
- Satisfied.....(go to Q 9)..... 2
- Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied.....(go to Q 9)..... 3
- Dissatisfied..... 4
- Very Dissatisfied..... 5
- Don't know/can't say..... 6

Q7. Why are you dissatisfied?

(Do not prompt: Three (3) Multiple responses accepted)

SLOW TO ARRIVE/do not come when sent for.....	1
Use undue FORCE OR VIOLENCE, OR ASSAULTED someone.....	2
Behave ILLEGALLY/break the rules.....	3
Behave UNREASONABLY or unfairly.....	4
Offenders NOT CAUGHT/property NOT RECOVERED.....	5
Do nothing/DON'T DO ENOUGH to stop crime.....	6
DO THE WRONG THING/are incompetent.....	7
Do NOT keep person INFORMED/DO NOT COME BACK.....	8
RACIST language or behaviour.....	9
Manner UNFRIENDLY/rude/arrogant/over-casual etc.....	10
Are NOT ENOUGH POLICE.....	11
Do not have enough contact with LOCAL COMMUNITY.....	12
SKIPPED QUESTION.....	13
CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM too lenient.....	14
Not enough GOVERNMENT action.....	15
Other reason (Specify).....	16

Q8. If you were not happy with the police are there any reasons why you wouldn't complain about this?

(Do Not Prompt. Three (3) Multiple responses accepted)

The matter is not serious enough.....	1
It would not do any good.....	2
I would not be believed.....	3
It would be too much trouble.....	4
None of my business/leave it to someone else.....	5
Afraid of repercussions/harassment.....	6
Would not know how to make complaint.....	7
Would not know where to make complaint.....	8
SKIPPED QUESTION.....	9
Other reason (Specify).....	10

Q 9. On a scale of one to ten, where one is very low and ten is very high, how would you rate the risk of crime affecting you?

Very Low										Very High	Don't Know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	

Q 10. On a scale of one to ten, where one is very low and ten is very high, how would you rate the current level of crime in...

(Read Out)

10(a) Your Street

Very Low										Very High	Don't Know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	

10(b) Your Suburb

Very Low										Very High	Don't Know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	

10(c) Queensland Overall

Very Low										Very High	Don't Know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	

Q 11. What do you base your opinion on?

(Prompt: Three (3) Multiple responses accepted)

Personal experience.....	1
Experience related by a friend or work colleague.....	2
Local newspaper.....	3
Other newspaper.....	4
Local television.....	5
Other television.....	6
Neighbourhood Watch Newsletter.....	7
Other (specify)_____	8

Q 12. Do you think police performance in the area in which you live has...

(Read Out)

- Changed for the worse..... 1
- Stayed about the same..... 2
- Changed for the better..... 3

(Do not read out)

- Don't know..... 4

A number of statements have been made about the Queensland Police Service. Could you tell me whether you agree or disagree with these statements.

CIRCLE THE APPROPRIATE RESPONSE

(Probe: Is that Strongly agree/strongly disagree or just agree/disagree)

Read out questions 13 to 23 & circle the response	Agree strongly 1	Agree 2	Uncertain 3	Disagree 4	Disagree Strongly 5	Dont Know 6
Q 13. Police give road safety programs a high priority in your suburb.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Q 14. There needs to be more Police patrolling the streets in vehicles.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Q 15. The community as well as the Police, are responsible for preventing crime.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Q 16. Police give crime prevention a high priority in your suburb.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Q 17. You feel that crime prevention is your responsibility.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Q 18. There needs to be more police patrolling the streets on foot.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Q 19. The police involve the community in programs in your suburb.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Q 20. Police give community policing a high priority in your suburb.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Q 21. There needs to be more Police patrolling the streets on bicycles.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Q 22. Crime prevention is solely the responsibility of the police.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Q 23. There needs to be more police stations in your suburb.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Interviewer No.:

Appendix (i)

Read out questions 24 to 32 & circle the response	Agree strongly 1	Agree 2	Uncertain 3	Disagree 4	Disagree Strongly 5	Dont Know 6
Q24. You feel safe in your home during the day.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Q25. You feel safe in your home at night.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Q26. You feel safe walking in the streets around your home during the day.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Q27. You feel safe walking in the streets around your home at night.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Q28. You feel safe walking in the streets around entertainment spots at night	1	2	3	4	5	6
Q29. Most break & enters happen at night. (bet 9 pm & 6am)	1	2	3	4	5	6
Q30. You feel that you have ready access to your local police.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Q31. You know where your local police station is.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Q32. You know how to contact your local police.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Q 33. What local police road safety programs are you aware of?

(Prompt: Multiple responses accepted)

NONE.....	1
Operation Drag.....	2
Radar 'speed traps'.....	3
Random Roadside Breath Testing RBT.....	4
Random Road Watch.....	5
'Booze Bus'.....	6
Driver Reviver.....	7
Speed cameras.....	8
Operation Safe Corridor.....	9
Other (specify).....	10

Q 34. What issues concern you the most in your suburb?

(Do not prompt : Three (3) Multiple responses accepted)

Break & Enters.....	1
Stealing.....	2
Traffic offences (Speeding & Drink driving).....	3
Unlawfully using motor vehicle.....	4
C.E.S. Centre location.....	5
Needle exchange centre location.....	6
Not enough police.....	7
Street disturbances.....	8
Poor access to a police station.....	9
Drugs.....	10
Youth unemployment.....	11
Drunken youth.....	12
Graffiti.....	13
Domestic Violence.....	14
Weapons.....	15
Skateboards.....	16
Other (specify).....	17

Q 35. What police activities should be carried out in your area to stop crime from happening?

(Do not prompt : Three (3) Multiple responses accepted)

- More foot patrols..... 1
- More police in cars..... 2
- More police stations..... 3
- Better usage of current resources..... 4
- Concentration on crime hot spots..... 5
- Education of the public..... 6
- Address youth crime..... 7
- Other (specify)..... 8

Q 36 What police activities should be carried out in your area to improve road safety?

(Do not prompt : Three (3) Multiple responses accepted)

- More foot patrols..... 1
- More police in cars..... 2
- More police stations..... 3
- Better usage of current resources..... 4
- Concentration on crime hot spots..... 5
- Greater education for the young..... 6
- More drink driving campaigns..... 7
- More radar traps..... 8
- Media attention..... 9
- Other (specify)..... 10

Q 37. What police activities should be carried out in your area to help build better community interaction?

(Do not prompt : Three (3) Multiple responses accepted)

- More foot patrols..... 1
- More police in cars..... 2
- More police stations..... 3
- More public relations activities..... 4
- Marketing of Service..... 5
- More interaction..... 6
- Other (specify)..... 7

Q 38. What are some of the things you could do to stop crime from happening?

(Do not prompt : Three (3) Multiple responses accepted)

- Nothing..... 1
- Not my responsibility..... 2
- Neighbourhood Watch..... 3
- Report Suspicious Activities..... 4
- Watching out for my neighbours..... 5
- Don't know..... 6
- Other (specify).....7

Q 39. Where should police stations be located?

(Do not prompt : Three (3) Multiple responses accepted)

- In my suburb..... 1
- In my neighbourhood..... 2
- In shopping centres..... 3
- Centrally..... 4
- Close to transport amenities like bus & rail..... 5
- Don't know..... 6
- Other (specify).....7

Q 40. What has caused the greatest increase in crime in your suburb?

(Do not prompt : Three (3) Multiple responses accepted)

- CES 1
- Needle exchange Centre..... 2
- Night clubs..... 3
- Hotels..... 4
- Youth..... 5
- Unemployment..... 6
- Lack of Police..... 7
- Drug taking..... 8
- New housing estates..... 9
- Don't know..... 10
- Other (specify).....11

Q 41. Have you heard of the term Community Based Policing?

- Yes..... 1
- No (go to quest 43)..... 2
- Don't know..... 3

Q 42. What does the term Community Based Policing mean to you?

(Do not prompt : Three (3) Multiple responses accepted)

- Working with police..... 1
- The police & community working together..... 2
- The police getting back to the community..... 3
- Other (specify)_____4
- _____

Q 43. Have you heard of the term Crime Prevention?

- Yes..... 1
- No (go to quest 45)..... 2
- Don't know..... 3

Q 44. What does the the term Crime Prevention mean to you?

(Do not prompt : Three (3) Multiple responses accepted)

- Stopping crime before it happens..... 1
- Using security locks and screens..... 2
- A police public relations exercise..... 3
- Other (specify)_____4
- _____

DEMOGRAPHICS

The following questions are about you and your household. If there are any questions you do not wish to answer, just tell me and we will move on to the next question.

Q 45. SEX (Prompt)

Female.....	1
Male.....	2

Q 46. AGE (Prompt)

Missed.....	0
16-19 years.....	1
20-24.....	2
25-29.....	3
30-34.....	4
35-39.....	5
40-44.....	6
45-49.....	7
50-54.....	8
55-59.....	9
60-64.....	10
65-69.....	11
70-74.....	12
75+.....	13

Q 47. HOME OWNERSHIP (Prompt)

Missed.....	0
Own home.....	1
Buying home.....	2
Renting - Government.....	3
Renting - Private.....	4
Housing co-operative.....	5
Other (Detail).....	6

Q 48. HOUSEHOLD COMPOSITION (Prompt)

Missed.....	0
Single.....	1
Single parent.....	2
Couple.....	3
Nuclear (parents & children).....	4
Extended family.....	5
Divorced.....	6
Separated.....	7
Group share.....	8
Place of employment.....	9
Other (Detail).....	10