

- UTOPIA UNREALISED -

**AN EVALUATION OF A CONSULTANCY
TO DEVELOP A NATIONAL
FRAMEWORK FOR POLICE EDUCATION
AND TRAINING TO ENHANCE
FRONTLINE RESPONSE TO ILLICIT
DRUG PROBLEMS IN AUSTRALIA**

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation presents an evaluation of a funded consultancy that was intended to bring about change in the education and training of police in Australia in response to illicit drugs. Sponsored by what was at the time known as the Commonwealth Department of Health and Aged Care, the ultimate goal of the consultancy was a national framework for police education and training to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug problems. The research used a case study design. Guba and Stufflebeam's (1970) Context, Input, Process, and Product (CIPP) model was used to organise the presentation of a rich description of the design, development and implementation of the consultancy. Application of this framework enabled illumination of a number of issues related to social policy, change and innovation, and quality improvement processes. The study explores the role of education and training in organisational change and concludes that the potential of external consultancy activity to effect meaningful change in police education, training and practice is limited by a number of factors.

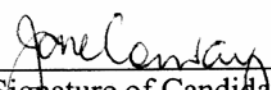
Key findings of the study are that while a number of consultancy processes could have been enhanced, the primary determinants of the extent to which a change in police education and training will enhance frontline practice are contextual and conceptual factors. The study reveals that the response of frontline police to illicit drug use is influenced by multivariate factors. The findings of this study suggest that while frontline police are keen to provide solutions to a range of practice issues in response to illicit drug problems, they desire concrete strategies that are well defined and supported by management, consistent with policy and within the law. However, the complexity of police activity in response to illicit drugs; the

dissonance between the conceptual frameworks of police and health agencies; and, resistance to what is perceived as externally initiated change in police practice, education and training; were found to be powerful inhibitors of an utopian attempt to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug problems.

Using the metaphor of board games, the study concludes that the development of an education and training framework will be of little value in achieving enhanced frontline practice in response to illicit drug problems unless the criteria for enhanced response are made more explicit and seen to be congruent with both the conceptualisation and operationalisation of police roles and functions. Moreover, the study questions the mechanisms through which changes in policy are conceived, implemented and evaluated and highlights a need for greater congruence between evaluation frameworks and the nature of change.

CERTIFICATION OF DISSERTATION

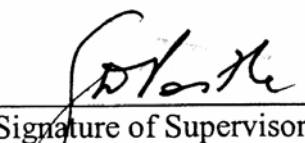
I certify that the ideas, experimental work, results, analyses, software and conclusions reported in this dissertation are entirely my own effort, except where otherwise acknowledged. I also certify that the work is original and has not been previously submitted for any other award, except where otherwise acknowledged.



Signature of Candidate

22.10.04
Date

ENDORSEMENT



Signature of Supervisor/s

24.10.04
Date

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Although this dissertation is submitted under an individual's name, in truth it represents the development of the author's thinking fostered through the collegial and constructive support of a number of people. In particular, Associate Professor Glen Postle from the University of Southern Queensland and Professor Margaret McMillan from the University of Newcastle are acknowledged for their respective and complementary contributions to the work.

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As a critical friend and mentor, Margaret has provided the "healthy dose of pragmatism" required to progress me through the lapses of commitment to completion. She has continually encouraged and challenged me to extend my thinking and in doing so assisted me to clarify the purpose, intent and scope of the study.

In addition to Glen and Margaret, I would like to acknowledge Associate Professor Penny Little who, along with Margaret, has fostered my professional development

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It is usual practice to briefly acknowledge one's family when submitting a thesis. Such acknowledgement can never fully capture what it is like for a family to live through the candidature so, to my husband Casey, and our five children, Daniel, Clare, Dominic, Emily and Isaac: Thank you for your acceptance of all that this has brought to our lives.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Significant changes in views of illicit drug use over recent decades have resulted in health and welfare proponents offering alternative perspectives to the previously dominant criminal justice and law enforcement approach used to respond to alcohol and other drug problems (Edwards, 2001, p.4). Since 1985, government policy in response to illicit drug use in Australia has been shaped by a commitment to minimisation of problems that occur as a result of illicit drug use (Alcohol and Illicit Drugs in Australia, 2003). As part of this, Federal and State government policy regarding response to illicit drug use, in addition to reducing the uptake of illicit substance use, is now explicitly directed toward improving the health outcomes of illicit drug users.

Police have been identified as one of a group of professionals who most often encounter illicit drug problems at the ‘frontline’ (Allsop et al, 1998; Hill, 2001). Frontline police engage directly with the community who use police services and are therefore one of the workforces most affected by any change in policy in response to illicit drug use and its associated problems. However, despite almost twenty years of inclusion in policy direction, the operationalisation of harm minimisation principles in police practice remains challenging. Harm minimisation in response to illicit drug use continues to be seen as an innovative and highly

contentious strategy to respond to illicit drug use particularly in situations in which law enforcement agencies are involved (Fowler, Allsop, Melville, & Wilkinson, 2000; Single, 2002) as it stems from a desire to prevent public health and individual health harms and questions the use and effectiveness of the criminal justice system's response to illicit drug use. The consultancy that is evaluated in this study was intended to develop an education and training strategy for frontline police that was consistent with a harm minimisation approach to responding to illicit drug use.

In order to enact harm minimisation principles in response to illicit drug problems, frontline police have consistently been identified as a group who require education and training programs to enhance their response to illicit drug problems (Fowler et al 2000; Fry, O'Riardon, & Geneallos, 2002) as they often encounter the consequences of illicit drug use.

The development of education and training programs has long been seen as a mechanism for enabling change in practice. According to Guba and Stufflebeam (1970, p.29) "Education is highly valued as a means for meeting the social, economic, technological and scientific needs of society as well as the intellectual needs of its citizens". As part of the National Illicit Drug Strategy in Australia, \$291 million has been directed to harm reduction programs that include treatment of illicit drug users, prevention of illicit drug use, research monitoring and evaluation and, the delivery of education and training to frontline workers who encounter illicit drug users or at risk groups (Alcohol and Illicit Drugs in Australia, 2003). In 2000, a Training Frontline Workers' Initiative was established under the National Illicit Drug Strategy. This initiative was managed by the Department of Health and Aged

Care (now the Department of Health and Ageing). A sum of three million dollars was allocated for the education and training of frontline professionals about response to illicit drugs over three years (National Illicit Drug Strategy, 2004). The consultancy that is the focus of this study was funded from that pool of money. The consultancy brief was to develop a national framework for police education and training to enhance police response to illicit drug problems.

The consultancy, which commenced in October 2000, was conducted by a team of three people. The team consisted of the Director of a university based centre that specialised in problem based learning as an approach to teaching and learning; a consultant from that centre (i.e. the researcher); and, the Director of a centre funded by police commissioners that aims to establish educational standards for police education and training.¹ The brief presented to the consultancy team was to develop a national framework for education and training of frontline police to enhance response to illicit drug problems. Underpinning the consultancy was a requirement that improved frontline response would be consistent with harm minimisation approaches to illicit drug use. Using Guba and Stufflebeam's (1970) approach to evaluation, this dissertation describes and critically evaluates the conduct of the consultancy. Although the researcher was part of the consultancy team it was not originally intended that the consultancy be evaluated as a doctoral study. The different roles of the researcher during the consultancy and during the research are described in chapter three of this dissertation.

¹ Although the identities of the agencies that were successful in securing the consultancy is a matter of public record, for the purposes of this dissertation, these have been obscured.

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The study aims to:

- explore the capacity for education and training activity to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug problems;
- generate knowledge to inform sponsors and practitioners about the capacity of externally funded consultancy projects to effect change in police education and training and therefore, frontline policing practice; and,
- inform others who provide consultancy services in public sector organisations about the challenges inherent in undertaking consultancy activity intended to bring about a change in frontline practice through education and training.

Guba and Stufflebeam's (1970) Context, Input, Process, Product (CIPP) model was selected as the organising framework for the dissertation in order to achieve these aims. This model was considered useful as it facilitates an integrated and critical review of the planning, conduct and outcomes of the consultancy. The study has a single, superordinate objective - to gain an increased understanding of the issues affecting change in public sector organisations. The mechanism for achieving this was through a single case study of the consultancy to develop an education and training program for police in response to illicit drug problems.

Three enabling objectives were used to facilitate meeting this superordinate objective. These enabling objectives were to:

1. Identify and discuss factors that impact on the conduct of a national project to enhance frontline police response to illicit drugs through education and training;
2. Critically evaluate the design, project management and delivery of the consultancy; and
3. Examine the products of the consultancy and comment on their congruence with the desired outcomes of the consultancy as defined in the Request for Tender (RFT) for consultancy services.

This dissertation reports on the conduct of the study; presents data to inform the generation of findings in the study; identifies strengths and limitations in the conduct of the study; and, explores the implications of the findings of the study. The primary sources of data for the study were documents and records generated during the consultancy. The consultancy generated documentation included records of responses from frontline police and representatives from police education and policy sectors at a series of workshops and transcripts of interviews with jurisdictional commissioners of police. In addition to this, other documentation generated during the consultancy such as reports to the sponsor and the reflections of the researcher as participant-observer during the consultancy were used to inform the study.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Ensuring that police education and training in response to illicit drug use is both underpinned by principles of harm minimisation and congruent across jurisdictions in Australia reflects a significant change in social policy. According to Stufflebeam,

evaluative case studies seek to “delineate and illuminate” (Stufflebeam, 2001, p.34) and provide “stakeholders... with an authoritative, in-depth, well-documented explication of the program” (Stufflebeam, 2001, p.34). Taking the view that the activity within the consultancy to develop a national framework for education and training to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug use constitutes a program, this study applies the 1970 framework for evaluation developed by Guba and Stufflebeam in order to examine the conception and implementation of that consultancy. The recommendation that police education and training in response to illicit drugs be both underpinned by principles of harm minimisation and congruent across jurisdictions is an example of what Guba and Stufflebeam (1970) describe as a situation that requires neomobilistic educational decision-making. According to Guba and Stufflebeam (1970, p.43), neomobilistic decision-making

denotes innovative activity for inventing, testing and diffusing new solutions to significant problems. Such change is supported by little theory or extant knowledge, yet the change is large often because of great opportunities such as those being produced by the knowledge explosion...

Unless there are ways of disseminating knowledge about attempts to undertake innovative activity such as the development of a national framework for education and training to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug problems, it is likely that there will continue to be ‘little theory or extant knowledge’ and minimal improvement in the processes of inventing, testing and diffusing new solutions to the significant problems associated with responding to illicit drug abuse. Guba and Stufflebeam also argue that evaluation is focussed on providing information that is illuminating and enlightening in order to improve decision-making, and is not about proving whether something is right or wrong *per se*. Therefore, Guba and

Stufflebeam recommend that neomobilistic change be evaluated using exploratory and heuristic approaches. The approaches used in this study are consistent with this.

The study is significant because it applies the CIPP framework retrospectively to both examine the conduct of the consultancy and organise the dissertation. While the principles of CIPP are applied in the present study, it is recognised that CIPP was not originally developed to frame a post hoc analysis of attempts to implement policy through education and training. However, the usefulness of the framework for post hoc evaluation of consultancy activity is demonstrated in this dissertation.

This is a different application of CIPP to the original 1966 approach developed by Stufflebeam and subsequently incorporated into the work of Guba and Stufflebeam published in 1970. The 1966 conceptualisation of CIPP was that it would be used to inform future decision-making and planning of educational program requirements and implementation. Stufflebeam (1983, p.122), in describing the evolution of CIPP, states that the basic framework of CIPP was:

context evaluation to inform planning decisions, input evaluation to serve structuring decisions, process evaluation to guide implementing decisions, and product evaluation to serve recycling decisions.

In 1970, in a paper that reviewed the determinants of an effective evaluation, Guba and Stufflebeam elaborated on the 1966 CIPP approach to evaluation to include a discussion of the interrelationships among change, decision-making and evaluation (Guba & Stufflebeam, 1970). It is the relationship between these three elements that are examined in this dissertation.

Evaluation of the consultancy provides opportunity to explore a number of issues in police policy, education, training, and practice about illicit drug use. There is also a need to evaluate the conduct of the consultancy for the purposes of review and informing others who may undertake similar projects. Although the focus of this dissertation is the capacity of consultancy activity to bring about change in education and training programs, issues about the contribution education and training can make to achieving change in practice within organisations are raised. In particular, the study raises questions about factors that inform decision-making which leads to the allocation of significant public resources to consultants to develop education and training programs. A number of consultancy projects are funded by government agencies, each has separate reports submitted to the relevant sponsor department, however, there are comparatively few examples of comprehensive evaluation of the conduct of such projects readily available. Therefore, this study contributes to the questioning of government sponsored initiatives that is becoming increasingly common as “quality, efficiency and effectiveness are challenged by stakeholders and funding resources” (Ochs, 2001, p.3). Where evaluations of government sponsored consultancies have been conducted, they are often conducted “in- house” and influenced by political imperatives and other vested interests. These types of evaluation often focus on outputs and frequently fail to examine the delivery of a consultancy as a whole. Stake (1998, p.203-204) suggests that formal evaluations are frequently conducted in order to create perceptions of accountability, to validate actions or to promote individuals, groups or institutions.

This study is significant as it provides a chronicle of the conduct of a national consultancy; explores the capacity of externally funded and delivered consultancy activity to bring about change in education and training in an organisation; and, examines issues related to the extent to which education and training per se can effect change in frontline police response to illicit drug problems. The study also demonstrates that, in addition to its application for the purposes of planning the development and delivery of educational programs, the CIPP framework can also be used as a tool to facilitate post facto examination of the conduct of consultancy activity.

Perhaps most significantly, the study identifies issues related to change in public sector agencies. The study raises questions about the congruence between policy direction, selection of change strategies, and the criteria for determining the effectiveness of those change strategies to conclude that unless there is alignment among these, there is no sense of efficacy for stakeholders.

DELIMITATIONS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study is limited to a critique of the conduct of a single consultancy project. While the study discusses a range of issues to emerge during the consultancy in relation to police practice, policy, education and training, it is not possible to measure the impact of the consultancy project on police practice, policy or education and training. The study presents a 'snap shot in time' in an era in which enhanced police response to illicit drug problems is seen as necessary and desirable by the Department of Health and Ageing. The period examined in the dissertation is

from the time of the initial Request for Tender (RFT) (October 2000) to November 2003.

The RFT for the “*Development of a National Framework to Enhance Frontline Police Response to Illicit Drug Problems*” (2000) was based on an assumption that improving education and training of frontline police translates into enhanced responses to illicit drug problems. As the Final Report from the consultancy has yet to be endorsed by the Department of Health and Ageing, the present study is unable to determine the extent to which this has occurred. Nevertheless, this dissertation does make reference to the challenges in demonstrating changes in practice as a result of consultancy activity aimed at the development of education and training programs.

The study draws extensively on consultancy data. It is assumed that the recorded data from the consultancy is representative of participants’ thoughts, behaviours and attitudes, and was provided without coercion. As Black and Champion (1976, p.418-419) point out, the investigator has limited control over a ready made body of information that has been collected and classified for other purposes. However, they argue that if the subjective nature of data is acknowledged, complements other material, is representative and used to “corroborate and augment evidence” (Yin, 1984, p.80) it is invaluable.

Comments about the nature of education and training of police in Australia are based on the experience of conducting the single consultancy and therefore may not be generalisable to all police education and training situations. In addition to this,

the potential for bias representation in the selection of those who participated in the consultancy is acknowledged as a potential influence on the study. However, as the study aimed to identify strengths and limitations of the consultancy approach, the examination of consultancy data as the primary data source was essential.

ORGANISATION OF THE DISSERTATION

The present chapter has identified the purposes, significance and scope of the study. The second chapter of the dissertation presents a review of literature pertinent to the study. The literature review identifies the motives for seeking to enhance police response to illicit drug problems; reviews the delivery of police education and training; and, discusses the potential for evaluation research to inform policy.

The third chapter of the dissertation discusses the methodology and methods of the study. In that chapter, the conceptual framework is described in detail and the rationale for its use in this study is elaborated upon. The study design is described and the strengths and limitations of the study methods are identified. The data collection and analysis process is described and the challenges inherent in the post-facto nature of this study are explored.

The study findings are presented in Chapter IV of the dissertation. The domains of context, input, process and product are used to enable the presentation and discussion of the findings. The findings presented in Chapter IV resulted in identification of a number of factors that impact on the implementation of police education and training programs generally as well as specific to education and training programs intended to improve police response to illicit drug problems. The

outcomes of the consultancy to the point in time of the study are identified in this chapter. The study findings demonstrated that factors related to project management and quality improvement impacted on the conduct and management of the consultancy. The chapter concludes that the crucial and dominant moderator in the capacity for either consultancy activity or education and training programs to effect change is the context in which change is attempted.

Chapter V of the dissertation presents a discussion of the findings of the study. The discussion in this chapter explores the extent to which the type of consultancy activity described in the study can achieve significant change in police education, training and practice, particularly when consultancy is seen as the mechanism through which to implement utopian, theory-led social policy. This, the final chapter of the dissertation, suggests that the tensions this study has highlighted between health and police about response to illicit drug use are indicative of the differing ideologies of health and police agencies. It is argued that this lack of congruence is masked by apparent compliance by police, implicit coercion by health, and continued unquestioning investment in consultancy activity by those who enact policy.

This chapter has presented an overview of the aims, objectives, scope and structure of the dissertation. The chapter has indicated that while the study examines a consultancy that sought to develop a national framework for police education and training in response to illicit drug problems, the focus of the study is the capacity for consultancy activity to effect change in education and training approaches and in turn, for education and training programs to effect change in

police practice. Therefore, the second chapter of the dissertation explores literature related to change and the use of education and training as a change strategy, as well as examining literature that focuses on illicit drug policy and police education, training and practice.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The previous chapter presented an overview of the study. This chapter reviews literature relevant to the dissertation and consists of four discrete but interrelated sections. Through this review of literature, the catalysts for change in policy and the desire for enhanced frontline response to illicit drug related problems are identified.

The first section of the chapter discusses the stimulus for change in police practice in response to illicit drug problems. This identifies the factors that have led to a questioning of the effectiveness of law enforcement approaches to illicit drug use and resulted in the proposal that police should be educated about alternative responses to illicit drug problems. In this section of the literature review, an overview of societal attitudes to illicit drug use is presented and the impact of illicit drug use on the contemporary Australian community is discussed. The section presents an overview of the history of policy approaches to illicit drug use and identifies two ways of thinking about responding to illicit drug use in the community: zero tolerance and harm minimisation. Major debates about illicit drug use are explored in order to identify that traditional law enforcement responses, based on a zero tolerance approach to illicit drug problems, are considered ineffective. This has resulted in the emergence of harm minimisation approaches to illicit drug problems.

The second section of the literature review explores police response to illicit drug use. This section of the literature review examines the implications of perceived tensions between zero tolerance and harm minimisation policy approaches for frontline police and identifies how police have attempted to respond to a change in thinking about illicit drug problems endorsed in Commonwealth and State government policy in Australia. Exploration of this is essential to the study as it highlights the changes police have made in their practice and identifies potential challenges for police in further enhancing their response to illicit drug use in ways that are consistent with harm minimisation principles.

As education and training was the mechanism through which it was proposed that frontline police response to illicit drug problems would be enhanced, the third section of the chapter reviews approaches to education and training. An overview of different approaches to education and training is presented. Specifically, attention is drawn to those education and training approaches used in police organisations. There is also a review of published literature about police education and training programs that are intended to present content related to illicit drug problems. Concepts related to individual and organisational learning are discussed in this section of the literature review as contemporary thinking about implementing change suggests that transferring knowledge acquisition into practice is dependent upon organisational as well as individual learning.

The fourth section of the chapter embeds the conduct of evaluation within approaches to change, particularly social policy development, in order to highlight the extent to which studies such as this can contribute to the facilitation of change.

The interrelationship between evaluation studies and future decision-making about policy intended to achieve a change in frontline practice is emphasised.

THE STIMULUS FOR CHANGE: ATTITUDES TO AND IMPACTS OF ILLICIT DRUG USE

The impact of illicit drug use on the Australian community is highly publicised. An examination of the literature related to drug use suggests “there is wisdom in the claim of sociologists that social problems, including the drug problem, are socially constructed” (Cheung, 2000, p.1697). Thus, how we define illicit drugs and community attitudes to those who use drugs shapes the nature of the response to, and impacts of, illicit drug use. This section of the literature review presents an overview of societal attitudes toward illicit drug use and highlights the major change in policy direction in response to illicit drug problems.

Cheung (2000, p.1697) defines a drug as “any substance that produces a psychoactive, chemical or medicinal effect on an individual.” Illicit drugs are those drugs that it is illegal to use, produce or supply. Thus, the law is used as a mechanism of controlling the distribution and use of certain substances. Murji (1998) points out that control of drugs is mainly a product of the twentieth century. Lang (1998) observes that while drug use has a long history, the problematic use of substances other than alcohol prior to the opium epidemics of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries has not been recorded. He suggests that this is probably because there was no threat to the existing social order associated with the recreational use of such substances. Citing historical examples of the victimisation of the Chinese, the stigmatisation of black people in the United States, a need to

protect the vulnerable, and the effective use of the media to create a perception of widespread use of drugs, Lang argues that “xenophobia, class and economic and political interests are behind attempts to control the perceived social harms of drug use” (Lang, 1998, p.2). In a similar vein, Makkai (2000, p.63) asserts that “The cultural specificity of what is defined as criminal or deviant is most clearly shown in relation to drug users” and argues that the criminalisation of one group of drugs over others is embedded in political and social history. Thus, political and social context shapes the contemporary view of drug use. The current Australian political and social context is embroiled in debate over how drug use should be viewed. This debate has led to a change in thinking at policy level about how to respond to illicit drug use. A synopsis of the debate and the associated change in policy is presented below. This is followed by a brief discussion of the impact of illicit drug use on the community.

The debates about illicit drug use

Social policy approaches to illicit drug use are entwined with sociological views of drug use and, consequently, of drug users. Historically, drug users have been portrayed as depraved, deviant, or immoral hedonists and drug use has been viewed as an inability to cope with social circumstances such as poverty and unemployment. Dependent on the grand theory in use, drug users have been typified as inferior - intellectually, socially, morally, financially, physically and/or genetically (Kellehear & Cvetovski, 1998). For a long time, law generation and enforcement was considered to be the only way to control the deviance associated with those who use illicit substances and to deal with the undesirable effects of substance use and abuse. This singular view of drug use provided a unity to policy

and congruence in behaviour among health and police agencies that firmly established illicit drug use as delinquent from both a social and legal perspective (Gomart, 2002).

Zero tolerance policies, readily translated into legalised sanctions and punishments for those who use and supply illicit substances, were seen to be a way to prevent illicit drug use and its sequelae. There remains considerable debate about the intent and efficacy of zero tolerance policy in response to drug use. Many proponents of zero tolerance policing of illicit drug use base their arguments on the 'broken-window' metaphor proposed by Wilson and Kelling (1982, cited in Burke, 1998 and Dixon & Coffin, 1999). Wilson and Kelling argued that if all the windows in a building are intact there is less likelihood of broken windows occurring through vandalism than if one window is broken. One broken window then results in others being broken and leads to increased vandalism and social decay. Those who support this belief system claim that zero tolerance of illicit drug use prevents the undesirable consequences of illicit drug use and maintains social integrity and cohesion and thus prevents crime related to drug use (Dixon & Coffin, 1999). However, while it is possible that drug law enforcement reduces demand and supply and therefore makes a contribution to reduced uptake of illicit drugs (primary harm reduction), it is clear that "gao and punishment are unlikely to be effective treatments" (McConnell, 1998, p.296) for those who are using drugs.

Zero tolerance policies emerged from a history of moralistic and medically dominated debates about drug use. In these debates, prohibitionists have argued that people who use drugs are either 'bad' or 'sick' and require protection from their

weaknesses. There is ongoing debate about the nature and consequences of illicit drug use as belief systems about drug use impact on policy and treatment strategies. Those who argue against the 'diseased' view of the drug-using individual argue that the discourse has been dominated by perceptions of chronically, dependent 'addicts', when in fact "most drug use is occasional or recreational with no apparent negative effects" (Hamilton & Rumbold, 1998, p.131). There are also those who argue against the disease model of drug use because it is seen to place power and control over the use of substances with the powerful medical profession (Lang, 1998).

More philosophical arguments against zero tolerance approaches to drug use are on moral grounds. It has been argued that drug use is an example of a social issue that is dominated by conflict between individual rights and State control. Individual rights and civil liberty proponents claim that the law has been used as a mechanism for dictating a moralistic position and removing personal choice from users. It is argued that the use of law to protect individuals from themselves is paternalistic and removes individual autonomy (Husak, 1992). Moreover, enforcement is seen as a means of maintaining existing social structures as it stigmatises and oppresses the young, the poor, and racial minorities (Murji, 1998) while white, middle class drug users are rarely charged.

The failure of the historically dominant zero tolerance approach to illicit substance abuse to significantly reduce substance use has resulted in a paradigm shift in response to illicit drug use over the past two decades in some countries (Cheung, 2000; Hamilton & Rumbold, 1998). Harm minimisation/reduction has emerged as a

means to address the polarised views of those who favour zero tolerance and those who favour the legalisation of all substances (Bonomo & Bowes, 2001). Hamilton and Rumbold (1998, p.135) state that a harm minimisation approach accepts that:

- psychoactive substances are and will continue to be part of our society;
- their eradication is impossible; and,
- the continuation of attempts to eradicate them may result in maximising the net harms for society.

Increasingly, the concept of harm minimisation/reduction underpins drug responses in many countries including Australia, New Zealand, France, Germany and Canada (O'Malley, 1999; Single, 1996). There is an extensive body of literature related to the concept of harm minimisation for both licit and illicit drug use in Australia and overseas. The adoption of harm minimisation as the basic philosophy of Australia's approach to both licit and illicit drug problems has been considered comparatively successful (Jesser, 2000; Roche, Evans, & Stanton, 1997) and Australia has played a prominent role in international drug debates (Kutin, 1998).

Despite increasing reference to the 'war on drugs' and zero tolerance emerging in the current Australian political scene (McArthur, 1999), since 1985 Australia has recognised at policy development level that drug use cannot be eliminated and the goal of the National Drug Strategy should be to focus on minimising harm through pragmatic, humane and non-moralistic strategies (Morrison & Burdon, 1999). Harm minimisation has been the central guiding principle of national drug policy since 1993 when responsibility for national drug strategic planning was vested in the Federal Department of Health rather than the Federal Attorney-General's Department (Kutin, 1998).

According to Hamilton and Rumbold (1998, p.136),

The objectives of the harm minimisation model are: the identification of the harmful consequences for individuals, those around them and the community overall and the implementation of strategies to minimise this harm.

Strategies include demand reduction (prevention through information provision and education); supply reduction (regulation and law enforcement); and, environmental responses to encourage users to use drugs in the safest possible way (Hamilton & Rumbold, 1998).

It is claimed that focusing on harms eliminates pressure on drug users to conform to moral or social expectations that are embedded in prohibitionist approaches to illicit drug use (Roche, Evans & Stanton, 1997; Wellbourne-Wood, 1998). However, despite the claims that harm minimisation is a non moralistic response to drug use, as Rickard (n.d) notes, while harm can broadly be classified as harm to the individual or harm to third parties or society, the very notion of harm is itself value laden. Moreover, authors such as Mendes (2001) and Miller (2001) argue that a limitation of the current harm minimisation debate is its attempt to disengage from moral and ideological terms observing that the emphasis on health disengages the political passion in response to illicit drug use that other political forces thrive on. Mendes argues that the harm minimisation agenda is based on economic rationalism as well as humanitarian grounds. Arguing that drug use and associated harms are about the inequities in social structures as they are inextricably linked to broader social issues such as poverty, limited access to education, poor housing, Mendes supports the view that harm minimisation is a form of social control that continues to promote conformity with the dominant capitalist economy. Perhaps most

disturbingly, it is possible that the use of a harm minimisation approach may negate societal responses to those who are impoverished and disadvantaged by supporting the claim that as individuals, they are free to choose how they address these issues and the State has neither a right nor a responsibility to respond. In a discussion of neo-liberalist approaches to the management of illicit drug problems, Bunton (2001, p.222) asserts "Responsibility for risk and "social" forms of security are being moved from national government responsibility to being managed privately." In other words, if you use drugs to deal with poverty, it is your choice to respond to poverty in this way, not the government's to prevent the poverty in the first place. From this perspective, harm reduction is an example of the 'advanced liberalism' argued by Rose (1993) to have resulted in three distinct changes in drug policy. According to Rose (1993), these are the abandonment of the addict - problem focus, the broadening of intervention strategies, and the reconfiguration of expertise.

It can be seen through the review of literature presented that there is wide ranging debate about the nature of illicit drug use and appropriate responses to illicit drug problems. Many of these debates are representative of particular ideologies and theories. While the theoretical debate about how to respond to illicit drug use occurs in policy and legal arenas, frontline police continue to be required to respond to illicit drug use in communities in which there are similar diversity and range of views. The debates about how best to respond to illicit drug use can be accepted or rejected on the basis of philosophical underpinnings, however the fact that current responses to illicit drug use present a significant social cost must be acknowledged.

As this study examines an attempt to implement an education and training framework for police based on the harm minimisation approach to responding to illicit drug use, a review of the social cost of drug use is presented in the next section of this chapter.

The impact of illicit drug use

Managing or responding to drug use is seen as a significant part of the daily practice of a number of ‘frontline workers’ including medical practitioners, nurses, ambulance officers, indigenous health workers, social and welfare workers, magistrates and judges, correctional services workers, school counsellors and teachers and police (Allsop et al, 1998).

Although developing a standardised framework to measure the social costs of illicit drug misuse is problematic (Single, Robson, Xie, & Rehm, 1998), the impact of illicit drug use on communities has been recognised as a global problem (Trewin, 2001). The diversity of the untoward impact of drug use on the community has been identified in numerous studies worldwide. In Australia, it has been determined that 70% of inmates in prisons were under the influence of alcohol or other drugs at the time of their most serious offence and that 80% of prisoners are drug dependent (Kelly, 1996). More recent data indicates that illicit drug use is associated with 2 % of the total burden of disease (Fitzgerald & Sowards, 2002). The impact of drug use on third parties is recognised in data relating to victims of crime, property damage, domestic violence, youth suicide and child mortality.

Despite licit (ie tobacco and alcohol) use and harms far exceeding the use and resultant harms of illicit drugs (Darke, Ross, Hando, Hall, & Degenhardt, 2000; Makkai & McAllister, 1998), illicit drug use is portrayed as a significant social problem in Australia (McArthur, 1999). Collecting data about the use of illicit substances can be problematic due to risk to respondents as a result of disclosure (Trewin, 2001). However, it has been estimated that over 45% of Australian adults have used an illicit drug at some time in their lives (Topple, 2001). According to a 1997 National Drug Strategy Household Survey, while cannabis is the illicit substance most widely by adults (39.3%), 8.7% of Australian adults have used amphetamines and hallucinogens (Makkai & McAllister, 1998). The use of ecstasy and cocaine is 4.7 and 4.3% respectively and 2.2% of adult Australians have used heroin. Only a very small percentage of adults continue to use heroin. For example in the National Drug Strategy Household Survey referred to above, only 0.7% of the Australian population were current users of heroin (Makkai & McAllister, 1998).

The impact of illicit drug use on the community is considerable. Despite limited data that explores the personal impact of illicit drug use on family and community members, a number of other data sets illustrate the impact of illicit drug use in Australia (Trewin, 2001). In financial terms, it has been calculated that tangible costs from abuse of illicit drugs rose from \$1.2 billion in 1988 to \$1.7 billion in 1992 - an increase of 23.3% at constant 1988 prices (Collins & Lapsley, 1996) and continue to rise (Fitzgerald & Sowards, 2002). Social costs are well publicised and include marginalisation and stigmatisation of individuals as well as poverty and associated phenomena such as criminal activity. Health harms to the individual associated with illicit drug use include death, blood borne and sexually transmitted

diseases, and acute and chronic psychological disorders (Darke et al, 2000). Furthermore, the harms to others as a result of drug affected states and/or drug dependence increases the additional social cost of illicit substance use. For example, a study by Dobinson and Ward (1984), although dated, indicated that 50% of regular heroin users incarcerated for property crime identified that heroin use increased the amount of crime they committed. Increasing heroin use was seen to positively correlate with increases in armed robbery and break, enter and steal offences. There is considerable evidence that more long term impacts of illicit drug use will need to be addressed as it has been identified that babies born to mothers who are dependent on illicit substances are at risk of congenital, developmental and neurological abnormality (Michaux, 2001) and children in the care of those with illicit substance dependence are at risk of maltreatment and exposure to criminal activity and drug-using networks (Bays, 1990; Wasserman & Leventhal, 1994).

While many of the social costs of illicit substance use are not able to be quantified, Collins and Lapsley (1996) identified that the tangible costs to the Australian community of illicit drug abuse in 1992 was almost \$1.25 billion. Of this, \$450.6 million was spent on drug related law enforcement activity of several groups. This included the Australian Federal Police (\$43.6 million); the National Crime Authority (\$19.9 million); the Australian Customs Service (\$9.0 million); prisons (\$230.5 million), courts (\$64.1 million); and, State Police (\$83.5 million). The considerable expenditure on law enforcement activity coupled with the treatment costs for health related harms demonstrates that the community is investing heavily in responding to illicit drug problems. Irrespective of the theoretical basis for a change in response to illicit drug use, there is clearly significant financial

expenditure on maintaining a criminal justice approach to illicit drug use. It may well be that it is primarily these social costs that have led to policy change in response to illicit drug use rather than a fundamental change in how those who use illicit substances are viewed by the broader community. While the theoretical debates have informed thinking about illicit drug problems and offered alternative ways to view those who use illicit substances, these debates have been around for a long time. The capacity to quantify the social costs of illicit drug use and to determine the resultant expenditure on maintaining current approaches to responding to illicit drug use has been an influential factor in initiating and sustaining a change in policy direction to support a harm minimisation approach to the problem.

As has been identified by the review of the literature, the primary debate is about the extent to which the zero tolerance of illicit drug use that is endorsed in legislation is perceived at odds with the harm minimisation approaches made explicit in the National Illicit Drug Strategy. This impacts on a number of frontline workers but presents particular challenges to police, the frontline workers most associated with law enforcement activity. The next section of the literature review presents an overview of how police have responded to illicit drug use.

THE FOCUS OF CHANGE: POLICE RESPONSE TO ILLICIT DRUG USE

Edwards (1999, p.292) claims that society as a whole is ambivalent about drug use and “police do have a serious problem in trying to enforce the law when significant sections of the population feel the law with regard to drugs is foolish or inadequate.” Moreover there is considerable confusion about the relationships between harm minimisation, zero tolerance, decriminalisation and the legalisation of drugs. Other authors acknowledge the concept of harm minimisation (and harm reduction) is comparatively well understood at a theoretical level but poorly demonstrated in operational policing (Fowler et al, 2000).

There is some sense that despite maintaining the commitment to a harm minimisation approach to illicit drug use that has been espoused since 1985, the conservative Howard Government is moving toward more rigid policy approaches through its “Tough on Drugs” campaign (Lawrence, Bammer, & Chapman, 2000; Wellbourne-Wood, 1999). Despite claims that the Australian approach to drug policy is consultative and therefore avoids electoral politics (Fitzgerald & Sowards, 2002), Davis (1993, p.18) argues that the Australian political system is more closed than US policy formulation and therefore more at risk of control by particular lobby groups. This, it is claimed, results in an increasing capacity for organised interests to get issues directly on political agenda through the media (McArthur, 1999). Fitzgerald and Sowards (2002, p.27) quote Broome (2000) who argues that a consequence of the inclusive and consultative approach taken to policy making related to drug use in Australia is that policy making has become reactive to public opinion rather than leading it and is therefore at risk of populist politics driving drug

policy. These authors go on to provide examples of where there has been a change in drug policy that seems to have been in response to populist agenda. The examples they give are the demarcation between licit and illicit drug strategies and the increase in emphasis on law enforcement strategies in the 1997- 1998 to 2002-2003 in Australian drug policy.

Changes in policy position result in “mixed messages” to those engaged in responding to illicit drugs (McKey, 1998) particularly the police whose responses to illicit drug problems are loudly and frequently criticised in the national media.

As a public utility, perhaps no other organisation exemplifies mechanisms of formal social control than police (Bittner, 1990; Bryett, Harrison, & Shaw, 1998; Skolnick & Fyfe, 1993). In the past, police have responded to the use of illicit drugs through law enforcement based on zero tolerance rather than harm minimisation strategies. Dixon and Coffin (1999) argue that this approach implied that “reducing drug use and sales should take precedence over reducing death, disease, addiction or crime regardless of costs” (p.477). Thus, the emerging paradigm shift from zero tolerance of illicit substance use to a harm minimisation approach has the potential to impact considerably on the practice of policing. Despite evidence that illicit drug use in Australia is currently deemed a medical problem rather than one of criminal deviance and should thus be dealt with by health departments (Palmer, 1999), by necessity police are extensively involved in responding to illicit drug use. However, there is apparent tension between health and police sectors in providing an integrated response to illicit drug use that has the goal of harm minimisation, a tension that has been seen to result in “unwarranted and pernicious demarcation of

effort between groups, particularly between law enforcement and health sectors” (Allsop, 2001). This occurs because some sectors of the police service view health care workers as complicit in illegal drug use while health staff argue that there is little evidence of positive impact from law enforcement practice on drug related harms.

The extent to which response to alcohol and other drugs impacts on police is considerable. Murji (1998, p.11) cites Dorn and South (1991) to highlight the extent to which drug issues impact upon police practice claiming: “Drugs (therefore) stand second only to terrorism as a major stimulus to developments in law enforcement”. It has been reported that operational police in Australia spend 70% of their time responding to drug related incidents. Of these 80% are alcohol related and 20% are related to the use of other drugs (Nicholas, 1994). Despite recognition that harm minimisation is health oriented, illicit drug use necessitates police engagement as "criminal and drug using careers seem to develop in parallel" (Edmunds, May, Hearnden, & Hough, 1998, p.iv).

Moreover, it appears that treatment and drug law enforcement approaches to the management of illicit drug use depend on each other for their benefits. Weatherburn and Lind (1999, p.1) have observed that "policy makers should concentrate on determining the optimal mix of drug law enforcement and treatment and the most appropriate policies for minimising public health risks created by drug law enforcement". However other than a general view that there is clearly a role for police beyond law enforcement within a harm minimisation framework, the role of

operational police in response to illicit drug use within a harm minimisation framework is not clear.

There is recognition that police services have responded to addressing drug related harm through strategies other than law enforcement (Newburn & Elliot, 1998). In addition to the well publicised role of police in supply reduction, police have actively participated in demand reduction strategies. According to Dietze (1998) the three main demand reduction strategies are:

- providing information
- changing moral values and improving life skills,
- resistance training.

Police involvement in school and community education programs and activity designed to foster police-community relationships are examples of demand reduction strategies and, according to police, exemplify harm minimisation principles in action.

Pearson, 1992 (cited in Forrell & Price, 1997) suggests that police responses to illicit drug use guided by harm minimisation principles falls into four broad categories. These are

1. The containment of new users
2. The encouragement of existing users to enter treatment programs and retire from drug use
3. The minimisation of counter-productive aspects of enforcement strategies

4. The minimisation of harm to the wider community through reduction of crime committed by users.

It is widely noted that there is a lack of evidence that drug law enforcement alone deters drug use (Kleiman, 1992 cited in Kutin, 1998). However, Weatherburn and Lind (1999) caution against concluding that enforcement is of little benefit. Although they refer to primarily to heroin use, Weatherburn and Lind (1999, p.3) state that “quite small deterrent effects (through drug law enforcement) may produce large public health benefits, a fact easily obscured when most of the visible harm associated with heroin is induced harm”.

These authors differentiate between direct harms (those which result from the use of drugs) and induced harms (those which result from the consequences of drug use) to argue that there is some evidence that the desire to avoid the harms that result from the consequences of law enforcement (such as poverty, threat of imprisonment, guilt and stigma) may motivate some individuals to enter treatment and lead to improved health care for those who use drugs.

Paradoxically, it is argued that it is the desire to avoid poverty, guilt and stigma, and imprisonment that result in the induced harms (such as associated crime, amplified drug costs, corruption and behaviours that increase health risk) associated with illicit drug use. Thus, direct harm minimisation (through drug law enforcement) seems to have an associated increase in induced harm. Reduction in induced harm (through, for example, partially legalising illicit drugs) may result in increased direct health harm such as is found as a consequence of the ready availability of

tobacco and alcohol (Weatherburn & Lind, 1999). In other words, if a substance is freely available such as tobacco, health harms are directly related to the 'toxic' nature of the drug itself and many people experience these harms. If supply of a drug is restricted, fewer people may experience the direct harm but the health harms are compounded because they result from the consequences of the circumstances surrounding procurement of the substance as well as the consequences of the drug used.

In addition to questioning the role of law enforcement in relation to drug use, the adoption of harm minimisation as a guiding principle for responding to illicit drug use has resulted in a reconsideration of what constitutes harmful drug use. As a concept, harmful drug use has been extended from emphasis on the biochemical properties of drugs to explore "conditions whereby drugs are obtained, how and where they are administered and experienced." (O'Malley, 1999, p.2). This has broadened the scope of police response to drug problems. James and Sutton (1998) assert that the broadened scope of police response to illicit drug use is nested within the commitment of police agencies to community problem-solving and that "Drug harm minimisation is therefore a germane component of this proactive policing mandate" (James & Sutton, 1998, p.221).

Effective police responses to illicit drug use within a harm minimisation approach requires the establishment of goals which are congruent with policing practice. Hellawell (1995) argues that police strategies must attempt to reduce the frequency of use, the quantity and toxicity of drugs used, and limit more general harms to drug users and the broader community. Within the context of a harm minimisation

approach, the nature of police action that best supports the concept of harm minimisation needs to be clearly identified. For example, Edmunds et al (1998) identified three arrest referral approaches used by police that are categorised as harm minimisation policing:

- the information model - where police give information about relevant services to those they have arrested on a take it or leave it basis;
- the proactive model - where drug workers work closely with police and have early access to prisoners in custody; and,
- the incentive model - where the law as a coercive force is used to provide the offender with an opportunity to seek help.

At a more specific operational level, there are numerous policy and procedure manuals to guide police in the minimisation of harm to both themselves and individuals who are under the influence of substances. For example in a report titled *“The safe handling of alcohol or other drug affected persons by police: Best practice procedures”* Potas (1994, p.11) writes:

Policy: If members decide that it is appropriate to apprehend (or arrest) and detain an alcohol or other drug affected person, they must ensure that whilst in their custody, all reasonable steps are taken to minimise the harm, or risk of harm occasioned to that person.

This statement is then followed by a list of procedural guidelines to ensure due care is taken to prevent harm, or aggravation of existing harm, to the person subjected to detention (see Potas, 1994, p.11-14).

The prominence of the harm minimisation philosophy is demonstrated in the Australasian Police Ministers' Council's strategic statement for policing in Australia "*Directions in Australasian Policing*" (1996, p. 4-5) thus:

Perhaps the most invasive influence of globalisation is the international trade in illicit drugs. In addition to the key historical police role of reducing the availability of drugs, police will be required to support a continuing government focus on education and demand reduction strategies aimed at reducing the aggregate harm to the community resulting from the misuse of illicit drugs. Police will need access to a variety of alternative responses to arrest, including diversionary programs. The police response may also need to embrace non-traditional criminal justice, legal, medical and community options and alternative drug treatment programs.

Police policy and activity now explicitly acknowledge harm minimisation approaches and police have identified strategies that they feel are consistent with policing work and harm minimisation. Strategies such as targeting those who supply illicit drugs rather than users, diversion, referral of users of illicit drugs to other agencies, non-attendance at drug overdose and the non-policing of areas in which drug users access health services (eg needle and syringe exchange sites, methadone clinics) are frequently cited as examples of police responding to new policy directions that place emphasis on harm reduction. Nevertheless, there are criticisms of the effectiveness of Australian police response to illicit drug problems. Jesser (2000, p.2-3) examines the literature related to policing responses to harm minimisation to conclude that factors that impact on the effectiveness of police response include: the failure of police to recognise harm minimisation as relevant and legitimate to their work; an attitude which regards drug use as deviant; community pressure that expects police to enforce the law coupled with public disagreement about the nature of laws to respond to illicit drug use; and, frustration with the lack of supporting services and facilities for those police responses that are directed toward harm minimisation. In addition to this, heightened scrutiny of

police in response to Royal Commissions that exposed substantial police corruption has made police cautious about using discretion in response to illicit drugs (Forrell & Price, 1997; Hall, 1997).

The change in paradigm from viewing illicit drug use as a problem that can be eradicated through law enforcement approaches to one in which harms associated with illicit drug use are to be minimised by necessity impacts on all levels of policing. Education and training is seen as essential to continuing to bringing about change in police practice and providing frontline policing responses to illicit drug problems that are aligned with policy. The following section of this chapter reviews literature pertinent to police education and training strategies as the consultancy that is evaluated was intended to develop a national framework for police education and training in order to bring about change in frontline practice.

THE MECHANISM FOR CHANGE: POLICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN RESPONSE TO ILLICIT DRUG PROBLEMS.

Irrespective of the change framework used, change involves creating and realising new behaviours, symbols and activities (Cannon & Lonsdale, 1987; Deal & Kennedy, 1982). Thus, education and training programs are frequently initiated by governments and policy makers in order to facilitate change in publicly funded institutions such as the police (Zideman, 1996) and “is now accepted as fundamental to achieving social, cultural, technological and structural change” (Caldwell, 1996, p.752). In Australia significant expenditure is invested in education and training programs. It has been reported that \$3.5 billion is spent

annually in Australia by governments on the delivery of vocational education and training alone (Dumbrell, 2000).

There is abundant literature related to both the theory and practice of education and training. Literature in the discipline of education traditionally emphasises the capacity for education and training programs to bring about change in an individual's knowledge, skills or attitude. This section of the chapter reviews literature related to police education and training with a particular emphasis on police education and training in relation to illicit drug problems. There is also increasing discussion of education and training as mechanisms for achieving organisational change within the fields of human resource management and organisational development. Organisational change and development literature indicates that the capacity of the organisation to respond to issues in the external and internal environment are dependent upon the culture of the organisation and its capacity to 'learn' and adapt. Therefore, this section of the literature review concludes with a discussion of concepts related to organisational learning in police services. The adoption of an approach that is more clearly aligned to a harm minimisation approach to illicit drug use is inevitably about more than changing the knowledge, skills and attitudes of individual police officers. It requires that police organisations develop a culture that is accepting of harm minimisation principles and demonstrates commitment to this through systems and processes that are congruent with those principles. Engaging in the process of change required to do this is influenced by the extent to which police organisations in Australia are capable of organisational learning and development.

Police education and training

Education and training is seen as a mechanism for achieving organisational change. According to Rusaw (2000, p.294) it is frequently assumed that “giving employees skills and insights for identifying and defining organisational problems, individuals will have greater capacity to change unproductive and unsatisfying organisational structures and processes”.

Education and training is a mechanism for both creating awareness of policy change and communicating expectations about the implications of policy change. There are some who argue that there are significant differences between the terms ‘education’ and ‘training’ primarily on the basis that training is skill based and vocationally oriented (Paczuska, 1999). This distinction is often emphasised by those who seek to professionalise work and has long been of particular interest to police as they seek to enhance their professional status through requiring university based training as the minimum entry level education for policing (Lewis, 1992; Rushbrook et al, 2001). However distinctions between the terms education and training are not clear or simplistic. Gill, Dar, and Fluitman (1999) conducted an analysis of 19 countries to examine the impact of changing labour markets on government’s role in providing vocational education and training. They assert that the pressure on limited higher education places has resulted in governments rationing places in colleges and universities. It seems this is what has led to the distinction among levels of higher education providers, rather than differences in conceptions of education and training. Moreover, de Moura Castro and de Oliveira (1996) argue that the consideration of education and training as polar opposites is increasingly obsolete due to developments in labour organisations. They claim there is now a belief that

“the two fields of occupational training and conceptual development help each other in the process of learning” and “it is doubtful whether the usual way of distinguishing between the two is worth retaining” as “practical knowledge and abstract concepts get intertwined in multiple ways” (de Moura Castro & de Oliveira 1996, p.18). Therefore, the discussion of police education and training in this review of the literature treats education and training as one term.

According to Hall and Hord (2001, p.7), one of the seeming paradoxes of organisational change is that:

Although everyone wants to talk about such broad concepts as policy, systems, and organisational factors, successful change starts and ends at the individual level. The entire organisation does not change until each member has changed.

In contrast to authors who suggest that innovation is an interpersonal or organisational process such as advocated by diffusion or complex organisational change models, Kozma (1985, p.312) asserts that innovation is, in its dominant form, an internal process of individual development. Birzer (1999, p.16) supports this and, when writing specifically about police, asserts “What new officers learn from the police academy curriculum serves as the foundation and building blocks for effective change in policing”.

There is substantial literature related to the education and training of new recruits in police services but literature about education and training specific to how police are taught about responding to illicit drug problems is sparse. Trends in contemporary general education as well as education specific to police education and training and the field of drug and alcohol education all suggest that education and training should be relevant to practice, evidence based and encourage skills such as critical

thinking and problem solving (Interim Police Education and Training Advisory Council, 1986; Knapper, 2001; Mathias, 1988; Roche, 2001; Sherman, 1978).

Literature related to teaching and learning generally indicates that there is increasing emphasis on learning as the construction of knowledge rather than the transmission of information (Brookfield, 1987; Knuth & Cunningham, 1993; Williamson, 1998) and a recognition that learners draw on past and authentic learning experience (Jarvis, 1997; 1993; Williamson, 1998). There has been unprecedented emphasis placed on acknowledgement that learning occurs when knowledge is constructed within the cognitive structure of every individual, so that it is fundamentally personal, while being dependent on experiences in the environment and on social interactions (Bostock, 1998). Bostock notes that constructivism is frequently contrasted with objectivism which is “the traditional view that knowledge is an external entity with an absolute value which can therefore be transferred from teacher to learner” (Bostock, 1998, p.225). A key element of constructivist approaches to teaching and learning is the capacity for the learner to reflect on experience, or simulations of experience to identify both his/her learning needs and learning process (Brookfield 1987; Schon, 1983).

It has been suggested that the quality of education and training underpins professional policing performance (Bittner, 1990; Bradley, 1992; Centre for Training Assessment and Development, 1999; Melville & Pointing, 1999) and that frontline police response to illicit drug problems will be enhanced through education and training about harm minimisation principles (Fowler et al, 2000; Roche, 1998). Brookfield (1987) argues that reflective practice underpins

professional development and Vygotsky (in Moll, 1990) asserts that individuals use a range of frameworks to inform their decision-making. It is also widely recognised that learning is impacted on by affective as well as cognitive and psychomotor domains (Williamson, 1998). Despite all of this, police education and training internationally remains embedded in its militaristic history and generally relies extensively on an 'expert as information giver' model of teaching and learning (Marion, 1998; Ramirez, 1996) with a view of the role of the 'officer-as-enforcer' being the dominant representation of effective policing (Pitman & Barrow, 1995). Pitman and Barrow (1995, p.16), in referring to police education in Australia, assert that despite an espoused valuing of the integration of a blend of classroom theory and the reality of practice,

the reality of police reform is that the historical, cultural, structural and political nature of policing develop educational and training systems which reflect senior police management, including unions (but excluding police reformers), street officers, traditional practices and only the rhetoric of educational approaches.

In general education and training literature it is widely acknowledged that there is a move from content-based learning dominated by experts as teachers to a "more proactive approach that embraces process-based learning" (Vogel & Klassen, 2001, p.104) when preparing learners to respond to authentic, complex, real world situations in context (Laurillard 1993; van Merriënboer, Kirschner, & Kester, 2003). Birzer (2003) suggests that there has been some movement in police education and training away from traditional, teacher-centred behaviourist approaches. Birzer claims that this has emerged not only as a response to general trends in educational approaches, but also because police roles are becoming more community focused. It has been argued that there is also greater diversity in police

curriculum content as a result of the need for police to be aware of community issues, develop more effective problem solving skills and demonstrate increased cultural sensitivity (Birzer & Tannehill, 2001). However, the published literature about police education and training is dominated by theoretical discussion of the need for different approaches to education and training rather than examples of the implementation and evaluation of programs that embrace alternative approaches to education and training. There have been very few published examples of attempts to progress police education and training toward more contemporary approaches to education and training in Australia (see Melville & Cartner, 1994; Melville & Pointing, 1999; Wilkinson, Fogarty, & Melville, 1996).

It has been argued that the continued use of restrictive education and training approaches seek to further what De Lint (1998, p.278) identifies as the depiction of “front-line police as de-individualized technicians and neutral functionaries” who, when programmed with the correct content, will respond mechanistically in context. According to Birzer (1999, p.19) “Police education and training approaches emphasise mastery and obedience and foster an environment where the focus becomes the chain of command, rules, regulations, and policy and procedures”.

These approaches are at odds with the development of reflective and autonomous practice and, although they provide mechanisms by which to undertake a simplistic yet inferred measurement of the performance of those who educate and train police through assessment of content knowledge, do not align with contemporary views of police services as adaptive organisations (Marlow & Beagle, 1996).

In Australia, police have recently contributed to the development of a set of functional, task focused competency standards (see Public Safety ITAB Police Sector Specific Competency Standards, 2000). While some argue this is progressive in that it provides specific statements of competence that have high face validity, others contend this approach to determining competence lacks grounding in empirical research (Elliot, 1996) and is prescriptive and reductionist in the extreme (Bowden & Masters, 1992; Conway, Chen, & Jeffries, 1999). Dumbrell (2000, p.8) identifies the perceived efficiencies in measuring outputs gained through competency based programs in the vocational and educational training sector in Australia. He does however acknowledge that the debate about approaches to competency based education “has been on the attainment of assessable competencies, who defines these competencies, and in what context they should be assessed”. Guile and Hayton (1999, p.119) suggest that the competency approach has given way to the learning outcomes approach and cite Eccleston (1999) to assert that “Modified forms of this approach, which use the broader concept of ‘learning outcomes’ rather than the notion of competence, and which aim to increase autonomy and flexibility, are now integral to most (recent) learning programmes.” The learning outcomes approach to education and training is inclusive of a more broad interpretation of competency than the task mastery orientation of the Public Safety ITAB Police Sector Specific Competency Standards (2000).

The international literature related specifically to police education and training indicates that there is long standing and unresolved debate about the educational needs of police personnel, the extent to which police education should be provided by providers others than police services themselves (Lafferty & Fleming, 2000);

and, issues related to control of education and training through accreditation processes (De Lint, 1998; Marion, 1998; Sherman, 1978). Review of the literature related to police education reflects how closely debate about education and training for police is enmeshed with the discussions about professionalisation of policing (Centre for Training Assessment and Development, 1999; Sims, 1981); attempts to link performance with education and training (Lonsway, Welch, & Fitzgerald, 2001); and the level of accreditation and certification of police education and training programs (Kakar, 1998; Longbottom & Kernbeek, 1999; Marion, 1998).

The debate seems to have peaked among stakeholders in police education in Australia during the late 1980s-mid 1990s. Cioccarelli (1989) suggests this was because of the changing role of police in society and a public demand for increased accountability in police services following several public inquiries into policing. For example, Lewis (1992) reports that in the aftermath of the Fitzgerald Report (1989) into police corruption and misconduct in Queensland there was increased commentary about the nature of police education. Fitzgerald concluded that the standard of police education was grossly inadequate, argued police needed more education to support them in an increasingly complex social role and recommended that police be encouraged to engage in higher education in the tertiary education sector (Lewis, 1992). Fitzgerald also recommended that external providers replace police trainers in order to avoid transmission of negative aspects of police culture to new recruits (Lafferty & Fleming, 2000). Similarly, the earlier 1981 Lusher Report in New South Wales was highly critical of police training at recruit and managerial levels (Bradley & Cioccarelli, 1989) and the more recent Wood Royal Commission conducted in 1997 made several broad recommendations pertaining to the content

and delivery of police training programs (Rushbrook et al, 2001). Despite these recommendations for improvements in police education and training, police have a long standing suspicion of higher education and value their craft occupation and its associated model of education and training (Chan, 1997; De Lint, 1998; Pitman & Barrow, 1995) which is characterised by a 'realist informalism' (Shearing & Ericson, 1991 cited in De Lint, 1998, p.280). It has been reported that there is consistent resistance to changes in police education and training by rank and file police and their representatives (Lafferty & Fleming, 2000). Nevertheless, there are a few documented examples of reform in police education and training programs in Australia that reflect a movement away from pedagogical to androgogical approaches to teaching (Jesser, 2000; Wilkinson, Fogarty, & Melville, 1996) in which there is differentiation between information giving about policy and knowledge generation about policing in action.

Each of these examples of reform in the pedagogy of policing remains jurisdiction-specific. It must be noted that, other than an espoused commitment to working toward a set of outcomes indicated in the Public Safety ITAB Police Sector Specific Competency Standards (2000), there is no national approach to the design and delivery of police education and training in Australia. Seddon (2001) asserts that the trend in Australian education and training is to endorse standardised outcomes and fund agencies to meet these outcomes without engaging in the challenges inherent in establishing national curricula as curriculum development is a powerful social and political tool. She argues that proposals to develop national curricula in Australia are characterised by their emphasis on diversity and difference rather than an emphasis on commonality and cohesion. This, Seddon claims, is nested in the

history of Australia, which has resulted in Australia being seen not as a nation but as a collection of States and Territories. She states that “Curriculum contributes both to the establishment of individual and organisational centres of power, and to constraints on the exercise of that power.” (Seddon, 2001, p.310). Although Seddon writes about Australian education in general, the issues she highlights about State/Territory and Commonwealth division occur irrespective of the sector in which a national approach to education and training is proposed as curriculum governs teaching and learning approaches; determines resource allocation and distribution; carries within it representations of organisational support and social culture; and, is embedded in “patterns of power and inequality, and its dynamics of conservation and renewal” (Seddon, 2001, p.310). Any move toward a national approach to police education and training, such as a national framework for education and training in response to illicit drug problems will be perceived as encroaching upon the autonomy, power, and resource allocation of State and Territory police services.

The general issues and debate about police education and training discussed above shape police education and training irrespective of the content of the education and training program. It can be seen that, despite longstanding calls for reform in approaches to police education and training, police education remains attached to an expert as information provider model of teaching. In addition to this, police education and training remains jurisdiction-specific and there are few examples of innovative approaches education and training that are consistent with contemporary, constructivist views of teaching and learning. Moreover, police education and training is logistically challenging given the frequently short time frames for

implementing policy and the large numbers of personnel that require training. For example, in reporting about the relative success of Project Beacon, a Victorian program to deliver operational safety and tactics training for those in operational duties required to carry a firearm as a result of a spate of fatal shootings by Victorian police between 1988 and 1994, Comrie (1999, p.215) concluded that “Training industry experts regard the development of a best practice training program, and delivery of revisions to this program to over 8500 persons every six months as a monumental feat.”

However, the consultancy that is evaluated in this study was directed toward improving police response in a specific area of practice, responding to illicit drug problems. The following section of the literature review presents an overview of police education and training in response to illicit drugs and provides insight into the precursors to the consultancy that was the focus of this study.

Police education and training in response to illicit drugs

In an address to the NSW Drug and Alcohol Training Forum, Roche (2001, p.4) asserted “Evidence indicates that well trained practitioners can identify problems at an earlier stage and intervene more effectively in the area of illicit drug use.”

It has been argued by a number of writers that the adoption of harm minimisation strategies in response to illicit drug problems requires a change in police response to those who use illicit substances (James & Sutton, 1998). Such a response requires that police firstly recognise the role they have in supporting harm minimisation

principles and then act in ways that are congruent with that. Education and training programs are considered essential in enhancing the knowledge base and performance of frontline police in this area.

However, while the education and training of frontline professionals is a key element of the National Illicit Drug Strategy, there is little evidence of a systematic approach to education and training about drugs in all human service fields including health (Pols, Cape, Ashenden, & Bush; 1993; Roche, 1998). As harm minimisation is a relatively recent policy direction in police agencies in a number of countries, it is not surprising that there is a paucity of literature about the inclusion of harm minimisation as a concept in police education and training programs. Australia and Canada are the two countries at the forefront of introducing nationally directed policy that makes harm minimisation an explicit policy direction (Lennings, 2000; Webb, 1999) and encourage police education and training to target harm minimisation principles. While there are numerous examples of content about harm minimisation policy and principles in police education and training programs in each jurisdiction in Australia (Fowler et al, 2000, pp 132-135) these are not clearly aligned with a conceptual framework of police practice. There have been some attempts made to address this deficit. For example, the *“Final report of the constable working party on the domains of police constable practice”* (Bradley, 1995) provides a framework for both the process and content of police education in response to illicit drug problems. This framework potentially integrates key domains of practice (Exercising ethical judgements; Knowing and understanding cases; Identifying and solving problems; Making authoritative interventions; Using systems and equipment; Undertaking personal and professional development) with

content related drug education. Each of the following content areas- pharmacology; dependence/addiction and patterns of drug use; public health issues; diversion; intelligence-led policing; and evidence-based strategies; were recommended inclusions. Furthermore, while all jurisdictions in Australia provide some education and training program content about harm minimisation principles, this has been identified as inconsistent across jurisdictions and focused primarily at new recruits and personnel with junior rank (Fowler et al, 2000; Jesser, 2000). This does little to enhance a change in response to illicit drug use as senior officers and supervisors' actions may contradict the implementation of harm minimisation principles taught to junior personnel.

A methodologically problematic international review of police drug training activities, involving Brazil, Canada, United States of America, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, the Netherlands and the Russian Federation (Denney, Nee, Loveday, & Betts, 2001) found a reliance on traditional, didactic teaching methods and a national focus that was directed to law enforcement in all countries but Canada. Significantly, the study also found that, of the 29 training courses identified by participants, summative evaluation had been attempted in only three of these. This is consistent with other studies that indicate evaluation is the most poorly implemented element of the education and training process (Barnard, Veldhuis & Van Rooij, 2001; Lewis & Thornhill, 1994; Stufflebeam, 2001).

There have also been some reviews of Australian initiatives in police education and training that have focused on harm minimisation in response to illicit drug problems. These do not appear to have had a broad target audience and have

focused mainly on specialist roles within police services. The development of programs for police related to illicit drug use is also hampered by a lack of consensus and evidence about what constitutes sound education and training in response to illicit drug problems and a lack of well designed and consistently applied evaluation tools and methods (Fowler et al 2000). There is a focus in policing education on program inputs and process rather than impact and outcomes.

For example Russell (1998) evaluated an education program for 173 officers who work as Community Based Drug Education Officers (CDEOs) in New South Wales. The primary function of this group of police is to provide drug education for a wide range of community groups. The evaluation method was pre and post survey of participants in the two week course. Russell found that at the end of the course most participants listed fewer illicit drugs as causing harm in their patrol than had done prior to training; the number of participants who identified health consequences as harms resulting from illicit drug use rose from 11% to 23.3%; and the number who identified the term harm minimisation in response to a question that asked “What do you think is the most effective way for police to deal with these issues?” rose from 3.4% to 17.3% (Russell, 1998, pp.35-42). While the evaluation revealed that an increase in police awareness of the principles of harm minimisation was achieved through education and training, Russell’s report indicates that the behaviours exhibited by police as a result of the training remained one of telling people about harm minimisation rather than changed frontline response to illicit drug use. Perhaps this was because the role of CDEO is one of education of others. It may also be that the instruction focused on increasing recall of knowledge and attitudinal learning without emphasising or providing strategies for responding in frontline

practice. Nevertheless, participants in Russell's evaluation identified a lack of support and commitment from management as a major barrier in both receiving education and training about illicit drug problems and transferring principles of harm minimisation to frontline practice (Russell, 1998, p.3).

An Australia-wide project to examine drug harm minimisation education for police was undertaken in 1998-1999 by a consortium from the National Centre for Education and Training on Addiction (NCETA) at Flinders University, Edith Cowan University, and the Queensland Police Service. The project aim was to "develop a national strategic approach to education and training programs for police in order to promote best practice in the reduction of alcohol and other drug related harm" (Fowler et al, 2000, p.ix). The project report identified that "the provision of drug harm minimisation education and training to police in Australia is distinguished by its variety rather than its consistency" (p.xi). This variety was in both those who received training and the way the training was structured. There was evidence that despite concerted efforts in some jurisdictions to develop "education and training that is explicit and specific to drug harm minimisation" (p.xi), other jurisdictions had education and training material that was either not explicit to harm minimisation or sustained beyond 'one-off' training sessions.

The report also indicated that there was a need for increased alignment between learning outcomes, assessment and competence, with some of those consulted suggesting that competency standards for police specific to drug harm minimisation would be appropriate (Fowler et al, 2000, p.xii). However, it is unclear whether the competency standards that were anticipated to be developed were to be nested in

task oriented or professional practice frameworks of competence. In addition to this, a preference for a strategic national approach to the education and training of frontline police in response to illicit drug problems was expressed by the authors of the report (Fowler et al, 2000, p.xiii).

The report by Fowler et al (2000) was a precursor to the consultancy that is the focus of this dissertation. The recommendations of the report align with the deliverables of the RFT for the consultancy that was reviewed in this study. Significantly, the report makes recommendations about police at all levels needing education and training to support the implementation of a harm minimisation approach to frontline response to illicit drugs; identifies a range of indicators of effective educational frameworks; recommends the need for an evaluation strategy that is outcomes oriented; provides an audit of existing training in police education with regard to drug harm minimisation; and, identifies the barriers and facilitators of a national approach to education and training in police agencies with regard to drug harm minimisation education and training (see Fowler et al, 2000).

Summary of literature related to police education and training

The preceding section of the literature review has explored a range of issues in relation to police education and training as this was the proposed mechanism for achieving a change in frontline response to illicit drug problems. This review has indicated that there is interest among police educators and trainers about developing education and training that will enhance frontline police response to illicit drug problems. The review of literature has also demonstrated that, irrespective of curriculum content, the didactic, teacher-centred approaches used in police

education are reflective of the hierarchical and paramilitary history of policing. The discussion in the literature has also identified the extent to which the practice of education and training in police services is embroiled in debates about the role of police in contemporary society, educational requirements for professional practice and professional identity, and competency based learning.

It has been acknowledged that changes in social policy directly impacts on the activity of policing (Duncan, Mouly, & Nilakant, 2001). This review of literature related to police education and training has indicated that, as a consequence of this, the content of police education and training programs has to some extent been directed by a commitment to policy that encourages the use of a harm minimisation approach when responding to illicit drug use. However, the development of educational content is not the sole strategy for achieving change through education and training. The use of education and training as a change strategy inevitably involves examination of approaches to teaching and learning within an organisation and some determination of the extent to which any education of individuals will be fostered and supported within the organisation. Contemporary literature about change, education and training has identified that 'organisational learning' is a key element in innovating and sustaining change (Rogers, 1995; Senge, 1990a). Therefore, the following part of the literature review examines concepts related to organisational learning.

ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE AND LEARNING

While learning has historically been targeted toward individual learners and their needs, increasing reference is made in the literature to the concept of organisational

learning. This proliferation has been reported by Easterby-Smith (1997, p.1805) who cites a 1996 bibliographic review by Crossan and Guatto that demonstrated “that as many academic papers on the subject were published in 1993 as in the whole decade of the 1980s.”

Organisational learning is seen as the key to organisational survival (De Gues, 1988; Greives, 2000; Senge, 1990a; Tan & Heracleous, 2001). The organisational change literature often refers to the strategies to achieve change under the term of business process engineering. Lai, Koon and Aw (1999) link the redesign of business processes to improvements in service delivery and include supporting the response of personnel to change as a significant element of this. For example, it has been argued that policing is becomingly increasingly community oriented as part of its ‘redesign of business process’ in order to be seen as responsive and adapting to stakeholder needs (Goldstein, 1990; Jobes, 2002). The renaming of police agencies to police services rather than forces in a number of States is seen as an external indicator of the extent to which police seek to deliver service to the community. The commitment to serving the rather than solely enforcing the law as the ‘business of policing’ is a distinction that has required refocusing of the processes within policing organisations (Brown & Sutton, 1997; Kelling & Moore, 1988 cited in James & Sutton, 1998). If the business of policing in response to illicit drug problems is to minimise harms, then the change from enforcing the law to minimising harm will require redesign of ‘business practices’ in response to illicit drugs within police organisations (Drummond, Ensor, Laing, & Richardson, 2000).

Organisational learning is seen as a useful framework in which to nest a number of changed approaches to practice and recognises the coexistence of both the mechanistic and functional elements of organisational change as well as the 'softer', humanistic elements of systemic reform (McAdam & Leonard, 1999). It is seen as consisting of two interrelated elements: individual learning and development, and the dissemination of and elaboration of that learning through conscious interaction with others (Hodgkinson, 2000, p.157). As can be seen from the review of literature related to police education and training presented earlier in this chapter, police organisations have focused on individual learning and development as the key strategy for achieving change. There has been little discussion of the relevance of organisational learning in literature related to change in police practice.

Organisational learning has been characterised as a strategy through which an organisation is able to improve performance and reduce and correct error through the development of insights (Fiol & Lyles, 1985). Related to, but distinct from organisational learning, the concept of the learning organisation (LO) has become increasingly popular in literature related to organisational change (Easterby-Smith, 1997; Sun & Scott, 2003). Learning organisations, according to Slater and Narver (1994 cited in Ellinger, Watkins, & Bostrom, 1999, p.105) are "generally described as those that continuously acquire, process, and disseminate knowledge about markets, products, technologies and business processes."

The learning organisation is one in which the learning of all its members is encouraged in order for the organisation to transform itself (Pedler, Boydell, & Burgogyne, 1989). Tan and Heracleous argue that the significance of distinctions

between characteristics of organisational learning and the learning organisation is the interaction between the nature of change and the nature of required learning. Referring to the differentiation between what Argyris (1977 cited in Tan & Heracleous, 2000) has described as single and double loop learning and Senge (1990b) has called generative and adaptive learning, Tan and Heracleous (2000, p.363) argue that “the significance of this distinction lies in the fact that to achieve single –loop learning, incremental change in an organisation may be sufficient. To achieve double-loop learning, however, a transformational change is required.”

Double-loop learning involves questioning the assumptions and value-laden views of practitioners that underpin practice behaviours (Argyris & Schön, 1974; Robinson, 1993) and is therefore dialogic and transformational.

An examination of literature about police culture and learning organisations was undertaken by Shanahan (2000). He identified that there are a number of elements in police culture that are potential impediments to police agencies in Australia becoming learning organisations. Shanahan cited Reiner’s (1992) work to argue that police culture is characterised by

- suspicion of others and their motives;
- a sense of isolation from others that leads to solidarity among police as they frequently see themselves and their practice as under siege from outsiders; and,
- a generally conservative workforce dominated by machismo, racial prejudice and pragmatism that sees the use of coercion as the mark of its legitimacy.

In addition to this, Bittner (1990) has reported that education is consistently devalued within policing culture and perpetuates “an idea that is all too prevalent in our society that if one does not want to take the trouble of becoming something worthwhile, he can always become a cop.” (p.168).

Bradley (1992) has suggested that, as police are predominantly from working class backgrounds, they may suffer from low self esteem about their ability to engage in intellectual activity. This, Shanahan argues, manifests as derision of learning that is not ‘on-the-job’ and distrust of intellectuals and change. Within this culture, there is a lack of modelling of the elements (such as a shared vision, team learning and the ability to create new mental models through dialogic learning) that guide practice that characterise leadership in learning organisations (Shanahan, 2000).

It has been noted that “Facilitating the diffusion of learning from the individual to the organisational level is a vital precondition for creating an (sic) LO” (Tan & Heracleous, 2001, p.363). The concept of workforce development has emerged in relation to organisational learning and the creation of learning organisations (Potter, 2001). Workforce development is seen as a key element in enacting the policy directions within the National Drug Strategy in Australia (Roche, 2001; Workforce Development, 2004) and as such ongoing government funding has been provided to NCETA to progress the transfer of individual learning to models of workplace development for frontline workers (National Illicit Drug Strategy, 2004).

One of the aims of the present study was to generate knowledge related to the ability of externally funded consultancy projects to effect change in police

education and training and therefore, frontline policing practice. The degree to which management practices are supportive of learning processes is a key factor in determining the nature and extent of change that results from the consultancy. It is important to note that workforce development recognises the need to have supportive workplace structures to maximise the effects of education and training strategies (Kennedy & Moore, 2001). Thus, the learning organisation explicitly engages in processes of self-review to determine the extent to which its management structures are aligned with the goals of education and training provided to individual workers.

Writing about the lack of progress in implementation of health workforce development, Lichtveldt, Cioffi, Baker, Bailey, and Gebbie (2001) have identified that there remain a number of barriers to implementing workforce development. These are applicable to other large organisations such as the police. The barriers include a lack of meaningful data about the nature of the workforce; a lack of standards for delivery of education and training; limited frameworks for certification/credentialing; and, no coherent approach to financing development (Lichtveldt et al, 2001, p.1). In addition to these factors, a number of elements of workplace culture have been identified in the literature as facilitators and barriers to organisational change and learning. These include the artefacts, values and underlying assumptions of an organisation (Schein, 1992) and “the broad policies and ideological principles that underlie a group’s actions towards their stakeholders” (Ouchi, 1981 cited in Wilkinson, Fogarty & Melville 1996, p.72). Despite there being some evidence in the literature of interest in achieving organisational reform through the application of organisational learning strategies in

police services (Bellingham, 2000; Chan, 1997; Vickers, 2000), police services have not been readily identified as having characteristics that are consistent with those of learning organisations (Chan, 1997; King, 2000; Ramirez, 1996). This lack of a supportive organisational learning environment has often been linked with the hierarchical and paramilitary management structures that pervade police organisations (Shanahan, 2000).

The previous sections of the literature review have identified the factors that have led to a change in thinking about response to illicit drug problems and indicated that there are examples of policy and practice change in police response to illicit drug problems. The literature review has also identified that there is a perception that police could do more to enhance response to illicit drug problems within a harm minimisation framework. It has been noted that this perception led to recommendations that there be education and training to improve frontline police response to illicit drug use and resulted in the consultancy that is the focus of this study. This section of the literature review has discussed concepts pertinent to organisational change and learning and highlighted that a number of elements of workplace and organisational culture are thought to influence the capacity of a group of people to respond to proposed change that is instigated through education and training programs. In addition to discussing the theoretical, social and political factors that led to the consultancy, the review of the literature has identified that the dominant model of police education and training programs is one which is didactic and focused on information giving as an approach to teaching and learning. There is also some evidence to suggest that the content of formal education and training does not provide frontline workers with strategies for responding in practice to the

complex situations they encounter. The literature review has indicated that police education and training is embedded in a model of remediation for individuals as a strategy to improve organisational performance and that the culture of police agencies has not been seen as congruent with the notion of organisational learning as a strategy for achieving change. Having examined concepts of education and training from an individual and organisational perspective it can be seen from the literature review that both individual and organisational learning are required to facilitate change. The final section of this chapter discusses the potential for evaluation research to contribute to change through informing policy development and implementation.

A FACILITATOR OF CHANGE: EVALUATION RESEARCH

Thus far, the literature review has described the stimuli for change in police response to illicit drug use and the current state of play in police education, training and practice. It has been identified that the consultancy to develop a national framework for police education and training to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug problems in Australia was considered innovative because it was aimed at enhancing frontline practice through the application of harm minimisation principles and sought to establish a national approach to police education and training in an environment in which there is no national curriculum.

Hays and Glick (1997) describe agenda setting as the precursor to implementing policy. An overview of the history of community attitudes and responses to illicit drug use has been presented in order to highlight the extent to which the

consultancy was a result of agenda setting by proponents of the harm minimisation approach to illicit drug use. However, the intent of this dissertation is not to provide a comprehensive critique of harm minimisation, not to critique any education program that might emerge from the consultancy. It is to provide some critique of the conduct of the consultancy itself in order to determine how useful it has been as an attempt to implement policy that emerged from a set agenda, more pragmatic demands for evaluation studies have been expressed within the principle of 'new public management'. It is argued that the new public management movement, which places renewed emphasis on accountability and transparency in public agencies (Hughes, 1998; Strathern, 2000), has been prompted by the dissatisfaction of citizens with the lack of transparency and accountability in public sector decision-making coupled with reduced public spending (Moll & Hoque, 2000). This necessitates that all attempts at reform are evaluated in order to be consistent with a culture of performance, increased accountability, effectiveness and efficiency in the public sector (Hoque & Moll, 2001). Similarly, Rosen (1993) quotes Fosler (1980, p.283) to argue "If government provides (such) critical services...then how well it performs those functions and how efficiently it uses resources is a matter of prime concern." As considerable amounts of public funding continue to be invested in instituting a change in frontline response to illicit drug problems through the development of education and training programs, the consultancy that is the focus of this study should be evaluated in order to demonstrate accountability at the very least.

Sandberg, Stensaker, and Aamodt (2002) state that evaluation should be closely linked to decision-making about policy reform and echo the views of Naeve (1998)

who asserts there is a need to link evaluation that is conducted for system maintenance to evaluation for strategic change.

This section of the literature review identifies key concepts in evaluation research and explores the interrelationship between evaluation research and decision-making with a focus on evaluation research as informing policy development. Stufflebeam (2000, p.110) asserts “evaluation means *a study designed and conducted to assist some audience to assess an object’s merit and worth.*”(italics in original). Leviton (2003) suggests there is potential for evaluation research to contribute to decision-making at individual, interpersonal and collective levels. The consultancy to develop a national framework for police education and training in response to illicit drug problems in Australia is an example of an attempt to implement social policy and agenda. Therefore this study has the potential to inform a range of audiences about the decisions that were made during the consultancy and factors that may impact on the intended goals of the consultancy being achieved. The first part of this section of the chapter explores evaluation research as a mechanism to provide information about a program (in this case the consultancy). It is argued that, since the consultancy emerged from a desire to implement policy, and policy should be informed by evaluation, it is necessary to appreciate some of the challenges in using evaluation to inform decision-making about policy. Therefore, the second part of this section of the literature review discusses some of the issues in using evaluation research to inform policy development and implementation.

Defining evaluation research

The term *evaluation* is used differently by different agencies and authors. Evaluation can be both a formative and a summative activity. Scriven (1967 cited in Scriven, 1991) introduced the notion of differentiating between formative and summative evaluation processes. Although it refers to the formative evaluation undertaken during the consultancy in the form of the process evaluation, this dissertation is essentially summative in that it seeks to report findings after the completion of the consultancy project.

It is important to differentiate between formative and summative evaluation in order to confirm the intent of this dissertation. Formative evaluation occurred throughout the consultancy in order to respond to issues that were occurring contemporaneously to the conduct of the consultancy, or those issues that emerged during the consultancy that required an immediate response from the consultancy team. This dissertation presents a retrospective, summative evaluation which critically reviews the consultancy in its entirety. In order to do this, it draws and comments upon the formative evaluation undertaken throughout the conduct of the consultancy.

Clarke and Dawson (1999, p.8) present a table adapted from Herman (1987) that is useful in distinguishing between the two activities of formative and summative evaluation. The table is reproduced overleaf, however, in this dissertation, the assumption that summative evaluation primarily uses quantitative methods is challenged.

Table 1: Formative and summative evaluation: A comparison (from Clarke & Dawson, 1998, p.8)

| | Formative | Summative |
|------------------------------|--|---|
| Target Audience | Programme managers/practitioners | Policy makers, funders, the public |
| Focus of data collection | Clarification of goals, nature of implementation, identifying outcomes | Implementation issues, outcome measures |
| Role of evaluator | Interactive | Independent |
| Methodology | Quantitative and qualitative | Emphasis on quantitative |
| Frequency of data collection | Continuous monitoring | Limited |
| Reporting procedures | Informal via discussion groups and meetings | Formal reports |
| Frequency of reporting | Throughout the period of observation | On completion of evaluation |

Patton (1986, p.14) claims evaluation is intended to “reduce uncertainties, improve effectiveness, and make decisions with regard to what (those) programs are doing and affecting”. While the discipline boundaries of education and management literature seem to have created an artificial distinction between individual and organisational development and negate the broader social context in which change is implemented (Johns, 2001), multiple definitions of evaluation research suggest it is an applied form of social science research (Leviton, 2003). Furthermore, evaluation contributes to social improvement through the generation of findings that can be used to inform policy deliberation and bureaucratic action (Mark, Henry, & Julnes, 2000).

Evaluation research should be differentiated from the audit and monitoring functions of determining successful policy implementation. Chelimsky (1985) argues that evaluation encompasses three levels of questions: descriptive,

normative, and cause and effect. The evaluator seeks to describe the nature of the program, determine the extent to which the program is operating as originally intended and determine the extent to which the program has resulted in change. Chelimsky argues that in contrast to evaluation research, audit focuses on normative questions and never attempts to examine cause and effect.

Other authors distinguish between

monitoring activities, which are conducted during project or program implementation to assess the efficiency and effectiveness with which inputs are used to achieve intended outputs, and *evaluation* activities, which assess the extent to which projects or programs have achieved their intended objectives and have produced their intended changes and benefits in the target populations. In other cases the term *evaluation* is used more broadly to cover both of these functions (Bamberger, 2000, p. 96). (italics in original)

Evaluation is inherently a political activity (Rossi & Freeman, 1993). Clarke and Dawson (1999) write “By virtue of its practical orientation and policy focus, evaluation has not only political effects, but is also influenced by political forces” (p.3). As Mackay, (1999, p.21) observes:

First, evaluation findings can be an important input to government resource allocation (planning, decision-making, and prioritization), particularly in the budget process.

Second, evaluation assists government managers by revealing the performance of ongoing activities at the sector, program, or project levels—it is therefore a management tool that leads to learning and improvement in the future (results-based management).

Third, evaluation findings are an input to accountability mechanisms— so that managers can be held accountable for the performance of the activities which they manage, and so that governments can be held accountable for performance . . .

A fourth use of evaluation findings is in demonstrating the extent to which development activities have been successful.

While this study does not seek to establish cause and effect, the use of Guba and Stufflebeam's (1970) CIPP framework enables rich description of the consultancy from inception to completion and may enhance appreciation of the extent to which certain factors impacted on outcomes. Through exploration and illumination of these factors, alternative strategies for achieving change in police education and training may be adopted by policy makers. The following part of the literature review examines some of the literature about evaluation utilisation and the potential for evaluation to inform decision-making about policy development and implementation.

The potential for evaluation research to inform policy development and implementation

Colebatch (1993, p.32) identifies three aspects to policy: policy as decision-making, policy as structuring of commitment and policy as interpretation of action. It has been argued that evaluation informs decision-making and is "intended not to prove but to improve" (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 1985, p.151). Evaluation can influence policy through informing decision-making through reflections on policy as action. Therefore, evaluation research can itself be directed toward change and capacity development within social policy (Haskins, 1991; Stockdill, Baizerman, & Compton, 2001).

Picciotto (1998, quoted in Stockdill, Baizerman & Compton, 2002, p.15) suggests that "the ability of public institutions to manage information, assess program performance, and respond flexibly to new demands" is enhanced through

meaningful evaluative activity. In a similar vein, McClintock and Lowe (2001) suggest that if nothing else, the dissemination of evaluation research sensitises policy makers to the issues surrounding policy implementation. Segerholm (2003, p. 353) writes

Evaluation has long been a part of the way that modern societies plan and establish social change... Evaluation has, now more than ever before, become an integral part of how policies, decisions, reforms, programs, and projects are undertaken to try to achieve credibility and trust.

However, despite assertions such as this, there is potential for the routine conduct of evaluation of policy generation and implementation to focus on parameters that reinforce limited views of program effectiveness as results oriented and seek to determine effectiveness on the basis of the degree of congruence between achieved outcomes and intended outcomes (Di Francesco, 2000, 2001; Segerholm, 2003). Many evaluations often do not acknowledge contextual and process factors that impact on program implementation and negate the extent to which social reforms are immersed in social, political, historical and cultural contexts (Leviton, 2003; Schwandt, 2001; Segerholm, 2003).

Stufflebeam (2001, p.15) claims these types of studies are pseudoevaluations. He identifies two dominant types of pseudoevaluation studies: Public Relations Inspired and Politically Controlled and writes:

Pseudoevaluations often are motivated by political objectives. For example, persons holding or seeking authority may present unwarranted claims about their achievements and/or the faults of their opponents or hide potentially damaging information. These objectionable approaches are presented because they deceive through evaluation and can be used by those in power to mislead constituents or to gain and maintain an unfair advantage over others, especially persons with little power. If evaluators acquiesce to and support pseudoevaluations, they help promote and support injustice, mislead

decision-making, lower confidence in evaluation services, and discredit the evaluation profession.

Evaluation studies such as the present one provide a mechanism by which to examine the decision to attempt to introduce an educational innovation in police education and training within a broader social policy framework and thus contribute to enhancement of what Di Francesco (2001) has termed 'social policy coherence' through providing stimulus to critically examine the congruence between expenditure of public funds and outcomes. Such evaluation research must be disseminated to an audience that is willing and able to use the evaluation findings meaningfully (Christie & Alkin, 1999; Stufflebeam, 1999). Unfortunately, as Blomberg and Waldo (2002) observe those who

determine policy action often seek a succinct, understandable, or conventional causal order that clearly identifies a problem, proposes a solution and provides anticipated results. If the proposed causal order of problem, solution, or result is not particularly controversial but rather resonates with conventional wisdom, the chances for positive (legislative) response are substantially increased. (p.349).

This dissertation does not focus on policy making and legislation, however, it does seek to inform those who direct frontline training initiatives about the extent to which complex elements in the political, ideological, cultural and social domains may enhance or inhibit change in education and practice. Nutley (2003, p.19) quotes David Blunkett, Minister for Education in the United Kingdom (2000), to assert that "social science research is central to the development of policy". However, as Nutley observes, policy researchers often fail to account for the "dual follies of assuming, firstly that research can provide objective answers to policy questions and, secondly, that policy making can become a more rational process" (Nutley, 2003, p.19). Nevertheless, there is increasing consensus that evaluation

research can inform a range of audiences and “by its very nature, is designed to question both the effectiveness and relevance of government activities” (Di Francesco, 2000, p.36).

As Corbett (1991,p.14) observes, in writing of the need for more evaluation to inform policy makers in Australia, the availability of comprehensive evaluation enhances but does not negate the decision-making responsibility of personnel. He argues that

one is asking for evaluations which are analytical and judgmental, which are both qualitative and quantitative, and use data both hard and soft because the outcomes as seen by different stakeholders are so diverse. Identifying who the stakeholders are and estimating the extent of their stake is a threshold problem, and solving it is an art. The outcomes of such evaluations will still leave a political judgement to be made by elected authorities: they will decide what to do next.

While it is desirable that the information presented in this dissertation is considered when decisions are made to progress other frontline training initiatives in response to illicit drugs, the author acknowledges that it is unlikely the study will influence short term decision-making about frontline worker training programs.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

The first chapter of the dissertation presented an overview of the study and articulated the aims and objectives. It was identified that the study is about the extent to which a policy-driven change funded by one government agency (health), can direct the education and training of another agency (police), through sponsoring a consultancy to develop a national framework for education and training, in this case specifically in response to illicit drug problems. The development of a national framework for police education and training in response to illicit drug problems was

seen by the then Commonwealth Department of Health and Aged Care as a key mechanism for achieving the goal of effecting change in frontline practice as it has been observed that:

Many of those with drug related problems may never come into contact with drug specialist services (as a matter of choice or a result of limited accessibility) but will encounter more general services and be amenable to interventions from these sources (Allsop et al, 1998, p.8).

This chapter has reviewed literature related to the perceived need for a change in police response to illicit drug which was motivated by recognition that police are frontline personnel whom drug users frequently come into contact.

The review of the literature has revealed that frontline policing in Australia and other countries has historically focused on supply reduction strategies as the focus of law enforcement when responding to the use of illicit drugs (Cheung & Ch'ien, 1997; Fowler et al, 2000; Lough, 1998; Midford, Acres, Lenton, Loxley, & Boots, 2002; Murji, 1998; Sutton & James, 1998; Timberlake, Lock, & Rasinski, 2003). It is widely argued that there has been a paradigm shift in public policy from zero tolerance of illicit substance use to a harm minimisation approach. As a result of this paradigm shift, a different set of policing strategies are required to respond to illicit drug problems. This necessitates change. However, the review of literature has identified that, although the intent of the sponsor was that police education and training in response to illicit drug use would be underpinned by the principles of harm minimisation, there is ongoing debate about both the conceptualisation and operationalisation of harm minimisation approaches to illicit drug use.

Inherently, education and training is intended to bring about change. Education is seen as one of the fundamental tenets of achieving change in individuals and organisations (Houle, 1980; Salt, Cervero, & Herod, 2000). Irrespective of the theoretical underpinning of change, it is recognised that change in organisations is affected by various factors including the centrality of the change to the organisation's activity, the impetus for the change, the organisational culture and the potential impact on organisational structure and resources (Razik & Swanson, 2001, p.99-100). The need to explore the context in which change occurs has been widely recognised (Hall & Hord, 2001; Wise, 2002) as has a need to critically evaluate the education and training programs and other processes used to effect change (Fazey, 2003; Kezar & Eckel, 2002; Ogborne & Birchmore-Timney, 1999; Pawson & Tilley, 1997; Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 1985).

The review of the literature has included a review of the factors McClintock (2003, p.95) has identified as essential to the scholarly practice of evaluation – it has identified “cultural, policy, and organisational contexts as well as the theory and research” regarding police education in response to illicit drug problems. This chapter has provided an overview of the broad social and political context in which the consultancy to “*Develop a National Framework for police education and training to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug problems*” was conceived and funded by the Commonwealth Department of Health and Aged Care under the National Illicit Drug strategy. It has been established that the change in policy direction from penalising those who use drugs to focusing on the harm from the misuse of drugs has impacted significantly on police policy and practice globally.

The chapter has also presented an analysis of contemporary police education and training. While it was not intended to fully explore the debate about the different concepts of education and training in this dissertation, there is evidence that there has been prolonged discussion in police education and training literature about the role of the police, the associated purpose of police education and issues of professionalisation of policing. It has been identified that at the present time police education is seeking to determine a model for education that moves beyond the 'closed shop' craft oriented approach to training, yet does not result in a purely liberal arts orientation to education that bears little relationship to police practice.

In addition to this, the chapter identified that while education and training have long been associated with change in an individual's knowledge, attitude and behaviour, the concepts of organisational learning and workforce development are important in achieving enhanced frontline police response to illicit drugs. Furthermore, the chapter has reviewed literature related to evaluation to argue that evaluation itself is as a mechanism for review and refinement of the implementation of social policy.

The following chapter presents the methodology of the study, justifies the selection of Guba and Stufflebeam's (1970) work as the theoretical and organising framework for the study, and explores the use of case study in evaluation research.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

This dissertation presents a post hoc evaluation of the conduct and outcomes of a consultancy sponsored by the Australian Government. The previous chapters provided an overview of the study, outlined its aims and objectives and reviewed the relevant literature. This chapter explores issues in evaluation research, outlines the design of the study, explains the approach taken in the study and details data collection and analysis procedures.

There is widespread debate in evaluation literature about issues such as methodology, design, bias and values. House (1993, p.3) captures this when he reviews the history of evaluation to assert that:

Methodologically, evaluation moved from a primary emphasis on quantitative methods...to a more permissive atmosphere in which qualitative research methods were acceptable. Mixed data collection methods are advocated routinely now in a spirit of methodological ecumenicalism.

This chapter examines some of the different schools of thought about evaluation and presents the rationale for the design and methods used in the study. An overview of some of the different views about whether evaluation constitutes research is presented in order to demonstrate that illuminative evaluation studies fall within the category of enlightenment research.

Guba and Stufflebeam's (1970) CIPP framework is described and the rationale for selection of this framework in preference to other evaluation frameworks is

presented. The congruence between CIPP as an holistic framework for evaluation and the use of case study design is demonstrated. The perceived strengths and limitations of case study design are discussed. The chapter also includes a description of the data collection and analysis strategies used in the study. The challenges in conducting post hoc research about a consultancy in which the researcher was a participant observer are identified, particularly the ethical implications in undertaking the study from this perspective.

EVALUATION AS RESEARCH

“Program evaluation is a technological subdivision of educational research” (Stake, 1998, p.203). Recurring themes in the debate about the extent to which the conduct of evaluation constitutes research relate to the perceived tensions between the scientific values of external validity, reliability and objectivity, and generalisability and the practical utility focus of evaluation that values relevance, significance, credibility, timeliness and pervasive dissemination (Guba & Stufflebeam, 1970; King, 1998; Patton, 1997). The perceived dichotomy between positivism and constructivism as research approaches is also seen to impact upon the perception that evaluation is not research activity (Cupchick, 2001). Similarly, Borman (2002) reports that there are those who question the place and contribution of educational research within the broader scientific community.

In addition to being immersed in debates about ontology and epistemology; and appropriateness, purity and integrity within research methodologies; the debate about whether evaluation activity is research is fuelled by proponents of evaluation practice who argue that evaluation is a professional field distinct from any other

including research (see Shadish, 1998; Stufflebeam, 2000). This stems from a view that researchers who conduct evaluation are “largely to blame for the confusion and ineptness which persist in the field of evaluation” and perceptions that researchers “foist bad advice on unsuspecting and unsophisticated practitioners” resulting in evaluations that “are usually useless, and practitioners that are largely justified in the jaundiced view they typically have taken about evaluation and its utility.” (Guba & Stufflebeam, 1970, p.28). Such views are nested in archaic and elitist views that claim research is focused on scientific abstraction while evaluation is pragmatic and focused on utility.

Meta-analyses of evaluation activity have led to attempts to categorise approaches to evaluation. Each has its own theories, methodologies and design. Trochim (2000) has categorised evaluation approaches as follows:

- *Scientific-experimental models*-which include educational objectives-based research; theory-driven evaluation approaches and cost- benefit analyses against financial indicators of return on investment;
- *Management-oriented systems models*- these emphasise comprehensiveness in evaluation and locate evaluation within a larger framework of organisational activities;
- *Qualitative/anthropological models*- these approaches can be linked to phenomenological research approaches and value observation and subjective human interpretation in the evaluation process;
- *Participant-oriented models*-in which participants’ input into decisions about the design, conduct and use of evaluation is of central importance.

The CIPP approach to evaluation falls within the category of management-oriented systems models as it provides a framework to examine a range of activity about program development, design and implementation in order to inform decision-making and improve future implementation. Such a management-oriented approach to evaluation is relevant to the present study. This comprehensive exploration of the conduct of the consultancy to develop a national framework for police education and training to enhance frontline response to illicit drug problems examines the extent to which both consultancy activity and education and training programs can bring about change within the larger frameworks of police agencies and government policy making.

The view taken in this dissertation is that evaluation is legitimate research activity. Drawing on the work of Weiss (1986), who has reviewed literature to derive the seven different models of research depicted in Table 2, the present evaluation constitutes enlightenment research.

Table 2: Models of Research (summary of Weiss 1986, pp 31 - 40)

| Model | Characteristics |
|--|--|
| Knowledge- driven | Basic research precedes applied research |
| Problem-solving | Assumes that research can guide response to a specific problem |
| Interactive | Research process seen as only one contributor to complex process of policy development |
| Political | Research used to support a particular, predetermined position |
| Tactical | Research used in bureaucratic tactics to enhance agency status through association with research process or create sense of examination of issue while in fact used to delay decision-making |
| Enlightenment | Research generated theoretical perspectives which will diffuse through policy process |
| Research as intellectual enterprise of society | Sets research in broader intellectual context of society |

Using the criteria identified by Weiss, this evaluation of the consultancy to develop a national framework to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug problems in Australia can be described as enlightenment research as it seeks to

- explore the capacity for education and training activity to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug problems;
- generate knowledge related to the ability of externally funded consultancy projects to effect change in police education and training and therefore, frontline policing practice; and,
- inform others who undertake consultancy activity about the challenges inherent in undertaking consultancy activity intended to bring about a change in frontline practice through education and training in order to draw conclusions about the nature of change and evaluation of change strategies in the public sector.

The use of the 1970 work of Guba and Stufflebeam as the conceptual framework for the study and its congruence with enlightenment research is discussed in the next section of the chapter. This is then followed by an overview of the principles of case study design. In that section, the synergy between case study approaches to evaluation and the use of CIPP as a framework for the study is highlighted.

SELECTION OF THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY

Educational evaluation has a long history and as a result numerous frameworks for evaluation research exist. There is debate among those who have examined the theory and history of evaluation about the extent to which elements of evaluation can be termed theories of evaluation. For example, Scriven, (1991, p 156) claims that some models of evaluation “are often simply metaphors for, or conceptualizations of, procedural paradigms for evaluation”.

The critical review of a consultancy presented in this dissertation explores constructs related to change management, diffusion of innovation and organisational development. There are numerous theories related to each of these constructs. However, it was felt that individually none of these provided an adequate framework for the holistic evaluation of the consultancy. A comprehensive framework of evaluation was required to explore the totality of the conceptualisation and implementation of the consultancy for, as has been noted

evaluation involves the evaluator coming to grips with a number of abstract concepts such as value, merit, worth, growth, criteria, standards, objectives, needs, norms, client, audience, validity, reliability, objectivity, practical significance, accountability, improvement, process, product, formative, summative, costs, impact, information, credibility and- of course-with the term evaluation itself. (Madaus, Scriven & Stufflebeam, 1983, p.xi)

In addition to this Segerholm (2003, p.356) argues that, with the exception of meta-evaluations of programs, evaluation studies “generally focus on different parts of what could be labelled the ‘evaluation cycle’, that is initiation, implementation, results and utilization of evaluation” without enabling an appreciation of the political and organisational context in which a program is nested. It has been argued that CIPP provides a framework in which to evaluate context, input, process and product independent of each other (Stufflebeam, 1983). However, Guba and Stufflebeam’s (1970) CIPP model of evaluation was selected as the organising framework for this study primarily because it enables exploration of the synergistic interaction of context, input, and process on product.

The CIPP approach emerged in response to the dominance of the reductionist, Tylerian Evaluation Rationale that dominated educational evaluation prior to the mid 1960s. At that time, authors such as Stufflebeam, Stake, and Scriven suggested that there was a need to reconceptualise educational evaluation beyond being oriented toward objectives, testing and experimental design (Stufflebeam, 1983). Weiss (1987) has described this as a shift from ‘knowledge-driven’ to ‘use-led’ approaches to evaluation. Newburn (2001, p.6) has observed that the result of this paradigm change in evaluation was that “while experimental methods remained important, they were gradually superseded by evaluations that were tailored more to informing or influencing decision-making processes.” The Tylerian Evaluation Rationale focused on determining whether objectives had been achieved, this provided little opportunity for enhanced decision-making (Stufflebeam, 1983). A major advantage of CIPP over other models of evaluation is the underpinning

philosophy of CIPP which is that evaluation is intended to improve through the use of description and analysis to inform judgements rather than solely prove whether outcomes have been met (Guba & Stufflebeam, 1970).

There have been many models of evaluation put forward since the recognition of the potential for program evaluation to be enhanced through a more holistic approach to evaluating an innovation from conception to outcomes. Several of these have developed from the CIPP framework first proposed by Stufflebeam in 1966. Table 3 presents examples of these in order to demonstrate the longevity and universality of the four elements of context, input, process and product in evaluation frameworks.

Table 3: Comparison of some models of program evaluation 1966- 2000

| Stufflebeam (1966) | Guba and Lincoln (1986) | Chambers, Wedel & Rodwell (1992) | Pawson and Tilley (1997) | Robson (2000) |
|--------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|
| Context | | Needs | Context | Need |
| Input | Structure | Cost effectiveness and cost benefits | Mechanism | Process |
| Process | Content | Implementation studies | | |
| Product | Outcomes | Outcomes | Outcome | Outcomes and Efficiency |

There are a number of approaches to program evaluation that focus on the design and delivery of an education and training program. However, these were not considered useful in the present study because they tend to focus on the use of education and training to achieve relatively small-scale change in learners'

knowledge, skills and behaviours. The consultancy to develop a national framework to enhance police response to illicit drug problems is essentially an example of an attempt to achieve significant change, or 'systemic reform', in police practice through education and training. Frechtling (2000) highlights the popularity of the term 'systemic reform', yet suggests that it is poorly defined. Citing the work of Smith and O'Day (1991), Frechtling (2000, p.25) examines the tenets that underpin systemic reform. She argues

Systemic change is based on a set of standards, that includes high expectations...involves aligning all of the component of an educational system ... with these standards...requires new relationships among people and institutions, with collective dialogue and decision-making rather than hierarchical arrangements...(and occurs at) a hierarchy of levels of impact.

The degree of reform desired by the Department of Health and Ageing in police response to illicit drug problems can be inferred from a review of the RFT to undertake the consultancy to develop a national framework for police education and training to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug problems in Australia. The anticipated outcomes of the consultancy defined by the RFT document (Department of Health and Aged Care, 2000, p.13) were:

- a review of the existing competency standards for police to identify those that have relevance for harm minimisation
- a review of those post secondary and tertiary institutions nationally that conduct police specific courses, to determine the potential for the development and uptake of a module on harm minimisation for their police students
- recommendations concerning the identification of a range of competencies that police should have in responding to drug problems
- a report that can be utilised by all jurisdictions as the basic framework for the development of comprehensive education and training programs to address the learning needs of police in this area
- proposed national guidelines for incorporating concepts and practices of drug harm minimisation into the broader police education and training curriculum
- identification of the learning needs of those who would deliver education and training programs for police and develop guidelines concerning the content of programs that would meet those needs

- guidelines concerning the content of education and training programs for police supervisors, workplace trainers and assessors, regarding their role in promoting best practice in responding to drug problems
- a mechanism to seek out collate and nationally disseminate good practice in police responding to drug problems
- a framework for the evaluation of education and training programs for police.

Therefore, a conceptual framework that offered the scope to explore issues of change, diffusion, and individual and organisational learning from different stakeholder perspectives was sought. As the consultancy was about the development of a framework for education and training, an education-oriented framework was considered most appropriate to enhance congruence between the study and the discipline of education. Moreover, consistent with the requirements of applied field of study described by Hurley (1999), the study sought to present a critical evaluation of the consultancy to develop a national framework for police education and training to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug use in a way that enabled description and interpretation and was understandable to sponsors and participants in the consultancy as potential consumers of this research.

Stufflebeam's (1966) Context, Input, Process and Product (CIPP) Model was selected as a mechanism to describe the conduct of the consultancy as effective evaluation requires clear explication of the context, assumptions, beliefs, and values associated with a program as well as determination of whether the objectives of programs have been met (Matthews & Hudson, 2001). However, when seeking to determine if there had been significant developments of the model since its conception in 1966, the researcher became aware of the work of Guba and Stufflebeam (1970) which adds to Stufflebeam's 1966 work through exploration of the interrelationship between the nature of change and decision-making.

It is important to reiterate that this study differs significantly from the proposed and usual applications of the original CIPP framework in that it does not seek to evaluate the implementation of an educational intervention at the teacher-student interface. Rather, the study seeks to examine the use of education and training as a change strategy and this necessitates exploration of the interrelationship between education program development and change. As can be seen through the description of Guba and Stufflebeam's (1970) framework presented in the following section of the chapter, the work clearly identifies the interrelationship between education and change. This framework was selected as it enables both a description of the conduct of the consultancy and an analysis of the capacity for the consultancy to effect change.

Description of the CIPP Model

The 1966 CIPP model consists of four parameters for evaluation. Each of these is described below.

Context evaluation focuses on the environment in which change is to occur, requires determination of discrepancies between desired and achievable goals, and assists in judgements about the problems to be addressed (Guba and Stufflebeam, 1970) Significantly it also is designed to determine the extent to which goals of a program are aligned to the needs of the population to be served (Stufflebeam, 1983). **Input** evaluation is used to determine how to use resources to best meet program goals and essentially "provides information about whether outside assistance should be sought for meeting goals and objectives" (Guba &

Stufflebeam, 1970, p.48). Input evaluation also determines the design and procedures for implementing a strategy. **Process** evaluation is used to determine points of failure in a process, serve as a continuous quality improvement process in the conduct of a project and provide information to inform interpretation of a project's relative success or failure. **Product** evaluation is designed to "measure and interpret attainments" (Guba & Stufflebeam, 1970, p.41).

Guba and Stufflebeam's (1970) work clearly integrates concepts of educational evaluation and understanding of change in a way that few other authors make explicit. A search of published research and dissertations that use CIPP suggests that most researchers focus on context, input, process and product evaluations which have been well described by Stufflebeam in his seminal 1966 work. There is little evidence (including in Stufflebeam's post 1970 writing) that the value added element of Guba and Stufflebeam's 1970 work, that is its commentary on the need to examine the nature and scope of planned change in determining the nature of evaluation, has been well recognised or applied. The following section of the chapter describes the 1970 work and its usefulness to this study in detail.

Insightful action - the crux of Guba and Stufflebeam (1970)

Applying the CIPP framework to simply describe a project does little to enhance critical evaluation of that project or facilitate decision-making about the type of evaluation to be undertaken. Evaluative activity informs decision-making and necessitates analysis and judgement (Stufflebeam, 1983). Thus, applied, evaluative research requires a capacity to describe, interpret and theorise (Burke Johnson, 1997). Burke Johnson (1997) suggests that theorising involves attempting to establish how a phenomenon operates and why it operates as it does (Burke Johnson, 1997). The elaboration of the 1966 CIPP model to articulate types of decisions and decision-making settings in the work of Guba & Stufflebeam (1970) enables description, interpretation and theorising about the interrelationships between the nature of change and the context in which change occurs. The monograph, *Evaluation: The process of stimulating, aiding and abetting insightful action* (Guba & Stufflebeam, 1970) provides a comprehensive discussion of the need for improved evaluation of educational programs and identifies six ongoing problems in educational evaluation. The six problem areas are the definition and nature of educational evaluation, and the design, structure, information requirements and criteria for judging evaluations (p.30). Several of these problem areas have been discussed at length in a range of literature that explores the complexity of program evaluation. A review of published studies that apply the CIPP model to educational evaluation suggests that while authors of studies consistently identify the problem areas related to educational evaluation, there is limited recognition of the extent to which the 1970 modifications to the 1966 CIPP model embeds evaluation within a framework for change and enables exploration of

the relationships between change, decision-making settings and mechanisms, and evaluation processes.

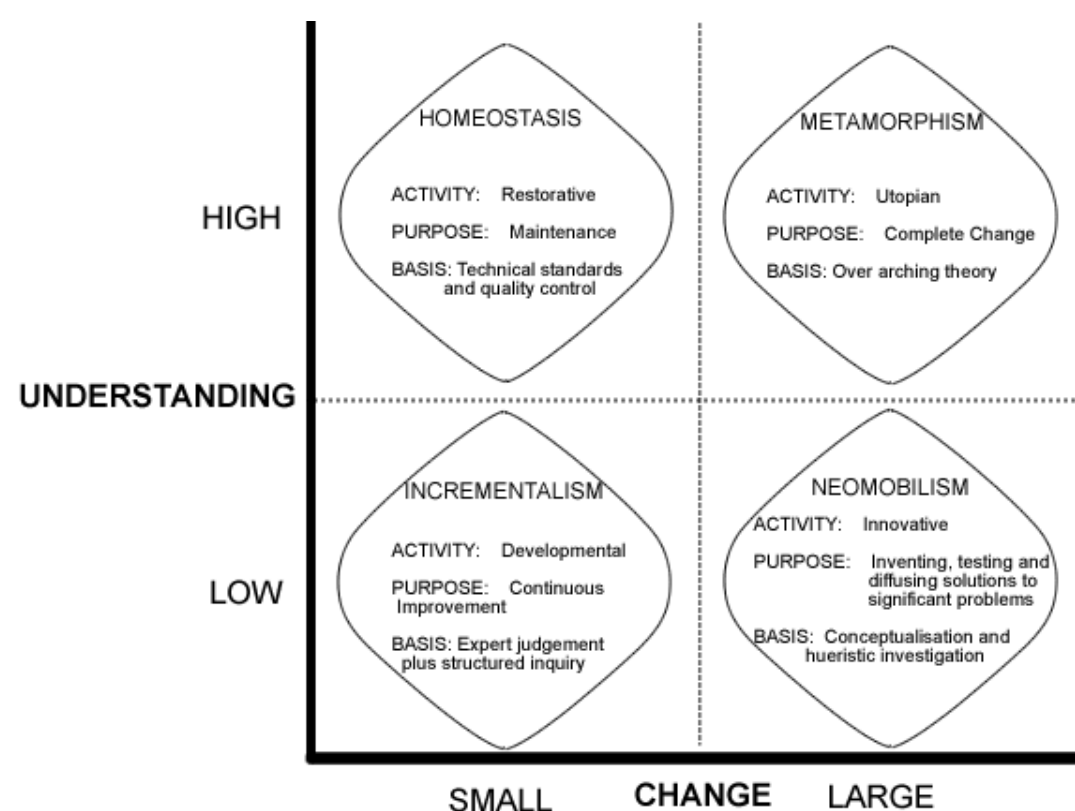
Guba and Stufflebeam differentiate between small and large change on the basis of its potential impact on society and pace of introduction of change. They argue that small change is incremental and has limited impact on society. On the other hand, large change involves “major restructuring within education and potentially can have significant impact on variables considered important by society” (Guba & Stufflebeam, 1970, p.41). The desire to enhance frontline police response to drug use within a health harm minimisation framework is an example of large scale, multifaceted change.

Guba and Stufflebeam draw from the considerable public policy experience of Baybrooke and Lindblom (1963, cited in Guba & Stufflebeam, 1970, p.41) to conclude that the degree of understanding evaluators have about a situation has significant impact on the evaluation process as the “design of evaluation should be grounded in knowledge about the amount and importance of change to be effected and the quality of understanding which is important to make that change.” (p.42).

Based on the parameters of degree of change against degree of understanding Guba and Stufflebeam have developed a framework for determining what they label the “decision-making setting”. They argue that two elements of change - the amount of change and the degree of understanding of the change – determine the decision-making setting and consideration of these should be used to determine appropriate strategies for evaluation. Figure 1 demonstrates how the interrelationships between

the degree of change and degree of understanding of change determine the decision-making setting.

Figure 1 – Decision- Making Settings (from Guba & Stufflebeam, 1970, p.40)



From this, it can be seen that if the nature of change is perceived as large scale innovative neomobilistic change, then appropriate evaluation strategies are those which are exploratory and heuristic. In contrast to this, where the nature of the desired change is well understood, and relatively small, the purpose of evaluation is one that focuses on technical standards and quality control as the intent of the program is one of maintaining existing standards. Where small change is seen to be required, and understanding of the change is low, Guba and Stufflebeam suggest that a continuous improvement approach which is dependent upon structured inquiry and expert judgement against predetermined criteria is the appropriate

evaluation strategy. The fourth quadrant of the diagram depicting the decision-making setting refers to metamorphic change that occurs when there is a high degree of understanding of large scale change. When referring to the type of evaluation that occurs in metamorphic decision-making settings, Guba and Stufflebeam (1970, p.42) indicate that while theory informs change

many assume that adequate theory and information are available for effecting whatever utopian changes might be desired and that decision-makers can obtain, understand and use this information appropriately.

The review of the literature presented in the second chapter of this dissertation indicates that there has been a significant shift in thinking about how to respond to illicit drug use. While the purpose of this evaluation is not to evaluate the theory of harm minimisation, the extent to which the concept of harm minimisation and its application to policing is understood is vital to determining the most appropriate way of evaluating the consultancy. There is little previous evidence about how to educate and train police to respond to illicit drug problems within a harm minimisation framework and the potential impact on society is considerable as it impacts on how police and society conceptualise police roles and functions in response the use of illicit drugs. Additionally, there is limited understanding of the practical application of a harm minimisation approach to police practice and education and policy makers and evaluators have low understanding of the impact of this on policing. Therefore, the case under examination, the conduct of a consultancy to develop a national framework for police education and training to enhance response to illicit drugs, is an example of change that requires neomobilistic decision-making. Guba and Stufflebeam indicate that neomobilistic decision-making is best served by heuristic investigation and thus, the use of

exploratory case study design to enable exploration of the conduct of the consultancy is consistent with the heuristic approach recommended by Guba and Stufflebeam.

Arguing that “Knowledge of the four decision-making settings is a necessary but not sufficient condition for formulating and evaluation capable of serving decision-making” (p.43), Guba and Stufflebeam (1970) suggest a taxonomy of decisions “whose categories are exhaustive of all possible educational decisions while also being mutually exclusive” (p.43). This is reproduced in Figure 2. This depicts decisions as related to either ends or means and examines a second dimension which examines whether the decision is related to intention and actuality.

Figure 2: Types of decisions (from Guba & Stufflebeam, 1970, p.44)

| | INTENDED | ACTUAL |
|-------|--|--|
| ENDS | PLANNING DECISIONS to determine objectives | RECYCLING DECISIONS to judge and react to attainments |
| MEANS | STRUCTURING DECISIONS to design procedures | IMPLEMENTING DECISIONS to utilize, control and refine procedures |

Guba and Stufflebeam (1970, p.47) assert that recycling decisions have tangible consequences and can inform major policy change. This case study evaluation is essentially an example of a recycling decision undertaken in a neomobilistic decision-making setting as it examines ‘actual ends’ and is intended to inform decision-makers about the effectiveness and outcomes of the consultancy to develop

a national framework for police education and training. According to Guba and Stufflebeam, recycling decisions “are those used in determining the relations of attainments to objectives and in determining whether to continue, terminate, evolve, or drastically modify an activity” (1970, p.47). A number of questions related to the extent to which it is possible for the development and delivery of externally driven education and training programs to result in systematic reform in an organisation are examined in this dissertation. However, in determining the ‘actual ends’ or attainments of the consultancy it is also necessary to examine the factors that impacted upon the goals (intended ends), the procedural plan, (intended means) and actual means (procedures in use) of the consultancy.

In summary, the 1970 work of Guba and Stufflebeam offers a means to describe program planning and implementation phases using the concepts of context, inputs, processes and product; provides a typology in which to consider the nature of the judgement to be made; and, suggests the research methodologies that are most applicable to particular types of decisions in given decision settings. In effect, this highlights the integrity of the CIPP model itself. If one can determine the context in which decisions are to be made, the basis of the nature of the decisions and the decision-making setting, it is possible to suggest the most appropriate processes for informing effective decision-making (ie the ultimate outcome of any evaluation). It is also possible to identify factors which may result in dissonance in the expectations of evaluation findings.

The four interrelated parameters of context, input, process and product provide a framework for examination of the whole rather than the parts of a phenomenon.

Therefore, CIPP and case study research design are compatible. An overview of case study evaluation and a discussion of the congruence between the CIPP model and case study approaches to investigation is presented below.

OVERVIEW OF CASE STUDY METHODOLOGY

Case study is widely accepted as a form of qualitative research (Simons, 1996) and is increasingly common in evaluation research (Saez & Carreteri, 1996; Yin, 1994).

According to Yin (1984, p.23) a case study is an empirical inquiry that:

1. investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context, when
2. the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident and in which
3. multiple sources of evidence are used.

Given that this study is drawn from a real life situation (ie the conduct of a consultancy project) as opposed to a theoretical exploration of a phenomenon; that the consultancy project is a phenomenon that has been significantly impacted upon by contextual factors; and that a range of sources of data will be used; the study is consistent with Yin's description of case study design. Furthermore, the use of case study design enhances the capacity of post hoc data collection and analysis to provide insight into events that occurred through the use of multiple sources of data.

Ragin (1999, p.1137) differentiates between case and variable oriented research to observe that "the case-oriented strategy is centrally concerned with making sense of a relatively small number of cases, usually between one and 50, selected because they are substantively or theoretically significant in some way." The consultancy was significant in that it was the first project to establish a national framework for police education and training in Australia. This case study is significant as it

reviews the conduct of that consultancy in order to examine issues related to the capacity of consultancy activity to influence large scale change in which there is a low level of understanding of the change.

Case studies can examine a single unit, as is undertaken in this research, or extend to designs that involve “multiple cases, multiple units of analysis and multiple methods” (Vallis & Tierney, 1999, p.19). Although case studies are among the most frequently used research designs, defining the parameters of case study research is challenging as it is a flexible and adaptable design that fits in to a set of principles rather than prescriptive constraints. Definitions of case study invariably acknowledge that a case study approach is useful when the:

- research questions do not require control over events (Robson,1993)
- the research seeks to explain dynamic interaction and establish relationships among patterns of data (Gall, Borg, and Gall, 1996)
- the research seeks to explore the context in which events occur and the impact the context has on events (Yin,1994)
- the research includes a range of data sources (Vallis & Tierney,1999)
- the research is intended to focus on a particular phenomenon, situation or program; results in rich description; and is heuristic in that it enhances the reader’s understanding of the phenomenon and confirms or extends the reader’s experience resulting in new insights and ways of thinking about the phenomenon under investigation (Merriam,1998).

Case studies are prevalent in educational research (Merriam, 1998). Case study is seen as a valuable means to concentrate attention on the way particular groups confront a situation and provide an holistic view of a situation (Cohen & Manion,

1980; Saez & Carreteri, 1996; Shaw, 1978). Case study is also seen as an increasingly legitimate form of evaluation in policy making arenas (Simons, 1980; 1996).

Similarly, when writing about evaluation, Frechtling (2000) asserts that evaluation focuses on the interplay among factors and does not simply seek to establish cause and effect relationships. She argues that

...evaluation must get deeply inside the process and provide an understanding of what is occurring that addresses the need of a variety of stakeholders who speak with different voices and have a different mix of priorities. (p.25)

Simons (1996) suggests that evaluation is inherently a political activity and that case study is a useful strategy to gain evaluative data as it encompasses participants' perceptions, provides a verified and engaging account of events, and enables policy makers to increase their understanding of program implementation in order to inform the judgements that they need to make.

The use of case study in educational research and program evaluation is more recent than in disciplines such as anthropology, sociology and organisational behaviour (Horton, 1998; Kenny & Grotelueschen, 1984). Merriam (1998) has also suggested that, quite logically, the application of a case study approach to research is usually congruent with the discipline base and the scope of influence of the field. For example, she argues that health professionals often use case studies to assess the effectiveness of interventions at the individual level; that political science, business and economics use it to influence policy; and, that education and sociology use case study to identify specific issues, illuminate problems and evaluate programs.

Hameyer (1982) emphasises the need for evaluative case studies about attempts to translate policy into practice when he writes:

We should continue writing case studies on educational change and intensify comparative research on innovative processes. Such comparative work might ameliorate innovation theory and point out practical implications for future planning (Hameyer, 1982, p. 365)

More recently, Sofear (1999, p. 1103) has also affirmed the need to “document the perspectives and interactions among multiple stakeholders” which is “of great value in studies of policy making, of policy implementation, and even of policy consequences” (Sofear, 1999, p.1103).

Stufflebeam (2001) notes the need to determine the audience for whom the evaluative case study is intended. Stufflebeam (1980, p.90), in summarising the work conducted by the United States Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation asserts that evaluations

have four features. These are *utility*, *feasibility*, *proprietary*, and *accuracy*. It is interesting that the Joint Committee decided on that particular order. Their rationale is that an evaluation should not be done at all if there is no prospect for it being useful to some audience.

The intended audiences for this case study are those who:

- have funded the project and are in positions to fund similar projects directed at eliciting change in frontline practice through the development of education and training;
- seek to develop national educational programs with police in Australia; and
- will work with other frontline workers to develop education and training initiatives

The preceding discussion has identified the characteristics of case studies and reiterated the alignment between case study research and holistic approaches to evaluation. There are, however, a number of challenges in using case study design to undertake evaluation research. These are outlined below.

Strengths and limitations of case study research

There is abundant literature that reviews the strengths and limitations of case study research. While a discussion of the philosophical underpinnings of case study is beyond the scope of this dissertation, perceived strengths of case study research generally relate to its ability to describe phenomena in a way that is considered to be illuminative and holistic, while limitations associated with case study include issues of reliability, validity, generalisability and subjectivity.

Criticisms of case study research are also embedded in the debate about the relative advantages and disadvantages of qualitative and quantitative research paradigms. However, contemporary authors are increasingly acknowledging a need to move beyond the adversarial approaches taken in academic discourse that presents a dichotomous view of approaches to research (Hurley, 1999; Kenny & Grotelueschen, 1984; Sofear, 1999) and suggest a need to overcome what Patton (1997) has termed the ‘politics of the paradigm’ in order to produce meaningful evaluations. Nevertheless, concerns about the subjective and limited nature of case studies (Stufflebeam, 2001), the potential for a lack of rigour as well as limited data collection and analysis strategies have been widely reported. The need for rigour in case study is evident. Key concepts related to rigour are reliability and validity. According to LoBiondo-Wood and Haber (1994) scientific rigour in qualitative

studies such as the present one relies on credibility, auditability, fittingness and confirmability. Roberts and Taylor (1998) assert that reliability and validity in the analysis of qualitative data can be determined through the credibility, fittingness, auditability and confirmability of the interpretation of the data. These authors differentiate among these criteria thus:

Credibility means the extent to which participants and readers of the research recognise the lived experiences described in the research as being similar to their own...

Fittingness means the extent to which a project's findings fit into other contexts outside the study setting ...

Auditability is the production of a decision trail which can be scrutinised by other researchers to determine the extent to which the project has achieved consistency in its methods and processes...

Confirmability of a project is achieved when credibility, auditability and fittingness can be demonstrated. This relies on confirmation of participants, whose subjectivity is valued as instructive in determining the extent to which the project achieves neutrality from the researcher's stated biases. (Roberts & Taylor, 1998, p.174).

In this study, the use of multiple sources of data to verify findings and the production of an audit trail were critical in ensuring rigour. The criteria of fittingness and confirmability were not established in this study. The sensitivity around the consultancy precluded participant confirmation of the interpretation undertaken. It is anticipated that fittingness will be determined when similar evaluations of the other programs in the frontline training initiative funded under the National Illicit Drug Strategy are undertaken.

In addition to well documented concerns about reliability and validity, potential for researcher bias, and tensions created by the particularistic nature of case study, more fundamental issues arise because of the epistemological stance taken by the researcher and the audience perception of the intent of the case study. The use of

CIPP as an holistic framework for this evaluative study and the application of case study methodology are consistent with a constructivist paradigm. As the intent of this study

is not to “transform” so much as it is to “reconstruct”, to make it possible for all concerned to develop more informed and sophisticated constructions than anyone, including the investigators, held prior to the inquiry (Guba, 1990, p.90).

case study research and the CIPP framework are complementary.

THE CONGRUENCE BETWEEN CIPP AND CASE STUDY RESEARCH

Guba and Stufflebeam (1970) define evaluation as “the process of obtaining and providing useful information for making educational decisions” (p.36). There have been attempts to assert that value-free evaluation is possible but

Evaluators are not simply social researchers with methodological expertise and political acumen, but are obliged by the very nature of their work to make claims about the value of the programs, policies and projects they examine. (Schwandt, 1997, p. 9).

What constitutes useful information must be grounded in some sense of sociocultural values (House, 1993; Schwandt, 1997). However as Shadish (1998) observes most evaluation theories fail to inform evaluators about how to make choices based on the contingencies of a given situation. Guba and Stufflebeam (1970) argue that the capacity to make effective, well informed decisions requires a methodology that is appropriate to the decision-making setting, considers the degree of change to be achieved, and the nature of the decision to be made.

Yin (1994, p.106) states that there are two broad analytic strategies for case studies, one relies on theoretical propositions; the other, which has been used in this study, is the use of a descriptive approach to the case study. The use of Guba and

Stufflebeam's CIPP model as a framework facilitates description but does not exclude discussion of findings informed by a range of theories. Shaw (1978, p.123) has argued that descriptive evaluation is a valid form of case study as "plain non-polemic accounts, however atheoretical, are needed (as they) build up a view of common practice, acceptable/novel/apparently successful practice, best practice." However, Stake (cited in Nisbet, Megarry & Nisbet, 1985) has noted that case study also provides an opportunity for naturalistic observation and interpretation of higher order interrelationships within the observations. Similarly, Yin (1994) asserts that case studies can be exploratory, descriptive and explanatory. McMillan (1992, p.72) has observed "any attempt to portray (curriculum) development and implementation requires the use of *both* description and analysis."

Through its integration of the key elements of context, input, process and product, CIPP is an holistic framework that enables both description and analysis to occur and therefore is applicable to this case study which both describes the conduct of a consultancy and provides a critical review of the conduct and outcomes of that consultancy. Perhaps more significantly, qualitative case study evaluation is heuristic – it enhances the reader's understanding of the phenomenon under investigation through the emergence of previously unknown relationships (Merriam, 1998) and promoting new insights into how things 'get to be the way they are' (Stake, 1981).

It has been argued that selection of case study design and the application of CIPP as a framework are complementary in this study. The case study approach is considered highly appropriate in program evaluation (Levine, 2002; Stufflebeam,

2001). For the purposes of this study, the consultancy project was considered a program for educational change. According to Stufflebeam, evaluative case studies seek to “delineate and illuminate” (Stufflebeam, 2001, p.34) and provide “stakeholders... with an authoritative, in-depth, well-documented explication of the program” (Stufflebeam, 2001, p.34).

Perhaps ironically, Yin, the author most frequently referred to in literature related to case study research defends the “positivist orientation of case study” to argue that “knowledge is gained through scientific and experimental research and is objective and measurable” (Winegardner, 1999). However, this does not result in quantitative research but serves to emphasise the need for rigorous study design in order to produce verification of conclusions through a range of evidence, develop clear and concise research questions, suggest and test theoretical propositions, define and operate within the unit of analysis and avoid bias (Vallis & Tierney, 1994; Yin, 1994). The capacity of a researcher to achieve the latter requirements of case study referred to above is dependent on study data collection and analysis methods.

A discussion of the processes of data collection and analysis used in this study is presented below. In particular, the discussion highlights the potential for researcher bias in this case study and explores the ethical implications related to the study.

STUDY DATA COLLECTION METHODS

According to Sofear (1999), case study research methods are similar to those of naturalistic inquiry, except that data collection is typically more structured.

Stufflebeam (2001, p.49) identifies a range of data collection strategies that are of use in case study evaluation. These include analysis of archives, collection of artifacts, participant observation, key informants, focus groups, questionnaires, critical incidents, expert critics and in depth descriptions. Meier and Pugh (1986, p.96) note that even though case study is frequently associated with qualitative data collection methods, the use of quantitative data is not precluded. In the present mixed method study, both qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis was undertaken.

Simplistic views of the relationship between paradigms of inquiry and data collection strategies have led to a perception that the paradigm of inquiry determines the data collection strategies used in a study. However, it is argued “Mixed-method studies are not mixtures of paradigms of inquiry per se, but rather paradigms of inquiry are reflected in what techniques researchers choose to combine, and how and why they desire to combine them” (Sandelowski, 2000, pp. 246-247). Thus, it is possible to apply a conceptual framework post hoc to guide analysis of data created during the consultancy in order to generate research findings. In the present study, Guba and Stufflebeam’s 1970 work was used to frame the analysis of the consultancy that is reviewed in the study.

The use of multiple data collection methods enhances rigour through adding to completeness in the data analysis process (Brink, 1991; Knafl & Breitmayer, 1991) as it enables triangulation of data sets using both qualitative and quantitative analysis (Jick, 1979). The approach also claims to reduce the likelihood of

participant-researcher bias as confirmatory evidence of researcher observations can be found in other artifacts (Denzin, 1970).

The consultancy to develop a national framework for police education and training in response to illicit drugs produced substantial data from frontline police, representatives of education and policy sectors, and jurisdictional commissioners of police related to (a) harm minimisation in response to illicit drugs and policing work and (b) current education and training in response to illicit drugs. This dissertation uses the data collected during the consultancy project to inform a comprehensive critique of the consultancy. Merriam (1998) reports that documents have been underused in qualitative research and cites Glaser and Strauss (1967, cited in Merriam, 1998, p.124) who hypothesise this is because researchers distrust their competence to use documentary material, perceive document review as historical research, and have a need to engage with informants in person. Merriam writes: “In judging the value of a data source, a researcher can ask whether it contains information or insights into the research question and whether it can be obtained in a reasonably practical yet systematic manner.” (1998, p.124).

The present study is based on the review of consultancy data in order to provide support for conclusions drawn about the extent to which a consultancy can contribute to change in education, training and practice. The use of data generated during the consultancy provided an opportunity to obtain data in a practical and systematic manner. The use of consultancy data for this study resulted in a reliance on secondary sources of data which as Black and Champion (1976, p.405) state is data from a secondary source, “any information originally collected for a purpose

other than its present scientific one.” Clearly, the use of data from secondary sources can be problematic as data collected for different purposes has different structure and intent (Bailey, 1978) and can be edited by the original authors. However, Yin, (1984, p.80) says examination of a range of secondary sources can “corroborate and augment evidence from other sources”. Best (cited in Cohen & Manion, 1989, p.55) asserts that secondary sources of data are of limited value because of errors that are passed on from one person to another. However, in this case, as the researcher was a participant-observer in the consultancy project, the likelihood of non-detection of error in transcripts and other project documents was less than may have occurred had the researcher not been present at the time of data consultancy generation. In contrast to Black and Champion, Cohen and Manion (1989) would classify review of project documents as a primary source of information as according to them, “secondary sources are those that do not bear a direct physical relationship to the event ...are made up of data that cannot be described as original...and the person describing the situation was not actually present...” (p.55). In this study, the researcher and another member of the consultancy team were present as most consultancy data were created. Indeed in some cases, this may have impacted on the data collection processes and stifled critique of the consultancy design as the presence of the researcher and the other consultant may have resulted in what Robson (2000) has described as ‘reactivity’: that is the presence of key personnel may have impacted on the “workings of the program” (Robson, 2000, p.67). The extent to which data collected during consultancy activity at which the researcher was not present (e.g. some of the jurisdictional workshops) was consistent with the data collected during the activity

in which the researcher was present indicates that the degree of reactivity was low and there was high validity within the data used in the study.

Sources of data

Data from the consultancy examined in this study included:

- documentation related to the securing of the consultancy (Request for Tender, project brief, tender application, contracts)
- transcribed interviews with Commissioners in each jurisdiction (n=8);
- data from the conduct of three workshops with educators, trainers and policy makers who formed a National Reference Group (NRG)
- data from workshops with frontline police in each of 8 jurisdictions (number of participants in each workshop were not recorded)
- questionnaires about police officers' experiences of education and training;
- evaluative information about the conduct of the workshops;
- a questionnaire distributed to members of the NRG prior to preparation of the final report of the consultancy ;
- records of communication among the consultants and between the consultants and the project manager in the Department of Health and Ageing
- field notes from the researcher as a participant in the consultancy ;
- records of data analyses conducted throughout the consultancy .

Appendix 1 presents a timeline of the consultancy and defines the events that are examined in order to establish the boundaries of this study.

DISCUSSION OF DATA ANALYSIS PROCESSES

Illuminative evaluation such as that undertaken in this study is by necessity a complex undertaking and data analysis can be a challenging and time consuming activity. As Schwandt (1993) observes, case studies are not conducted in a theoretical vacuum. Analysis follows a complex process of induction and deduction based on conceptual models and schema. Moreover, as Merriam points out, capturing each point of the data analysis process can be problematic. She writes:

There is little doubt that the process is highly intuitive; a researcher cannot always explain where an insight (that may later be a finding) came from or how relationships among data were detected. (Merriam, 1998, p.156)

Sapsford and Abbot (1992, p119) observe that while much qualitative analysis is descriptive, beyond this it “consists essentially of the processes of sorting, comparing/contrasting and consolidating.” Issues related to data analysis in case study research include not only the role and stance of the researcher in the process but also the need to draw a boundary around the subject matter (Diesing, 1972); recognise that case studies occur in constantly changing, complex and diverse social phenomena (McMillan, 1992); and minimise oversimplification or exaggeration of a situation (Guba & Lincoln, 1981).

Guba and Stufflebeam’s CIPP framework guided the analysis of documents to determine recurring issues and themes that impacted on the planning and conduct of the consultancy. The use of CIPP as an organising framework for the presentation of findings makes it possible to demonstrate the relationships among the study objectives and data generated by the consultancy. Some of the sources of data that would have been useful in this evaluation were either unavailable or not accessible

to the researcher. Table 4 presents the interrelationship between the organising framework of the study, the study objectives, the data sources and approach to data analysis and identifies sources that were not available or accessible. This clarifies the scope of the study.

Table 4: **The CIPP framework, study objectives, relevant data sources and type of data analysis.**

| Elements of Organising Framework | Boundaries of element as defined by Guba & Stufflebeam (1970,pp 47-49) | Study objective | Data Source (Type of analysis) |
|----------------------------------|--|--|--|
| Context | Define the environment in which change is to occur, depict unmet needs, identify problems that result in needs not being met | Identify and discuss the factors that impact on the conduct of a national project to enhance police response to illicit drugs through education and training | Discussion papers prepared throughout consultancy (qualitative) Interviews with Commissioners (qualitative) Researcher diary entries/notes from observations made during workshops (qualitative) Participant responses to post-workshop questionnaires (quantitative/qualitative) Content analysis of scenarios collected in workshops (qualitative) Response to questionnaire re their experience of education and training (qualitative) Post-consultancy questionnaire to national reference group (quantitative/qualitative) |
| Input | Identify and assess relevant capabilities of the proposing agency, in order to present a cost –benefit analysis of alternative program designs | Critically evaluate the design, project management and delivery of the consultancy | Decision-making of sponsor re selection of consultants (not available) Sponsor records of meetings between project team and sponsor (not accessible) Consultant presentation to project steering committee (qualitative) Request for Tender and contract (qualitative) |

| | | | |
|---------|--|---|--|
| Process | Evaluation during program implementation to detect or predict potential sources of failure in the project and enhance continuous quality improvement | | <p>Participant responses to post-workshop evaluation questionnaires (quantitative/qualitative)</p> <p>Project team debrief and planning process meeting notes (qualitative)</p> <p>Communication among project team (qualitative)</p> <p>Feedback from steering committee (qualitative)</p> <p>Notes from reflective diary of researcher (qualitative)</p> <p>Review of budget and staffing plans (not available)</p> <p>Project team presentation to Project Steering Committee (qualitative)</p> <p>Records of staffing allocation (not available)</p> <p>Records of budget and budget tracking processes (not accessible)</p> |
| Product | Evaluation at the end of and during the project cycle in order to measure and interpret attainments | <p>Examine the products of the consultancy and comment on their congruence with the desired outcomes of the consultancy as defined in the request for tender</p> <p>Determine the extent to which the consultancy enables a change in police education, training and practice</p> | <p>Interim and final reports to sponsor (qualitative)</p> <p>The national framework including</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Guidelines for implementation of the framework ○ Instructor's guide and CD ROM (qualitative) <p>Post-consultancy questionnaire to members of the NRG (quantitative/qualitative)</p> <p>Feedback from sponsor about project (qualitative)</p> |

Document analysis was conducted through the development of a number of framing questions related to the CIPP framework in order to assist in the examination of data sources. The questions and their relationship to the elements of CIPP are described below:

Context related questions examine the context in which a program is conceived and are intended to identify the potential benefits of a program through exploring the environment in which it is to be implemented and identifying any consequences that may result from not implementing the program. Essentially, context evaluation attempts to identify the need for a program and the consequences of program implementation (or non-implementation) within a given context. In this study, data were examined to address the following questions:

What is the data source revealing about the context in which the consultancy was conducted?

What does it reveal about the context of police education, training and practice?

Input related questions explore the resources (human and otherwise) required to implement a program and inform decision-making about selection of an agency and/or approach and its capacity to deliver a program. Input related questions relate to project management issues such as choosing a consultant and determining feasibility of proposed approaches against criteria related to strategy and budget. In this study, input related questions were:

- What were the project inputs?
- What influenced the securing and allocation of inputs?
- How have these inputs been managed?

Process related questions enable identification of modifications made to original planning throughout program implementation. These relate to quality control and improvement activities. In this study, the questions:

- How appropriate were the consultancy processes for the intended outcomes of the consultancy?
- How consistent with the planned consultancy process was the actual process of the consultancy?
- Was a process evaluation undertaken during the consultancy?
- If so, did this result in any changes to the consultancy plan?

were asked when analysing data.

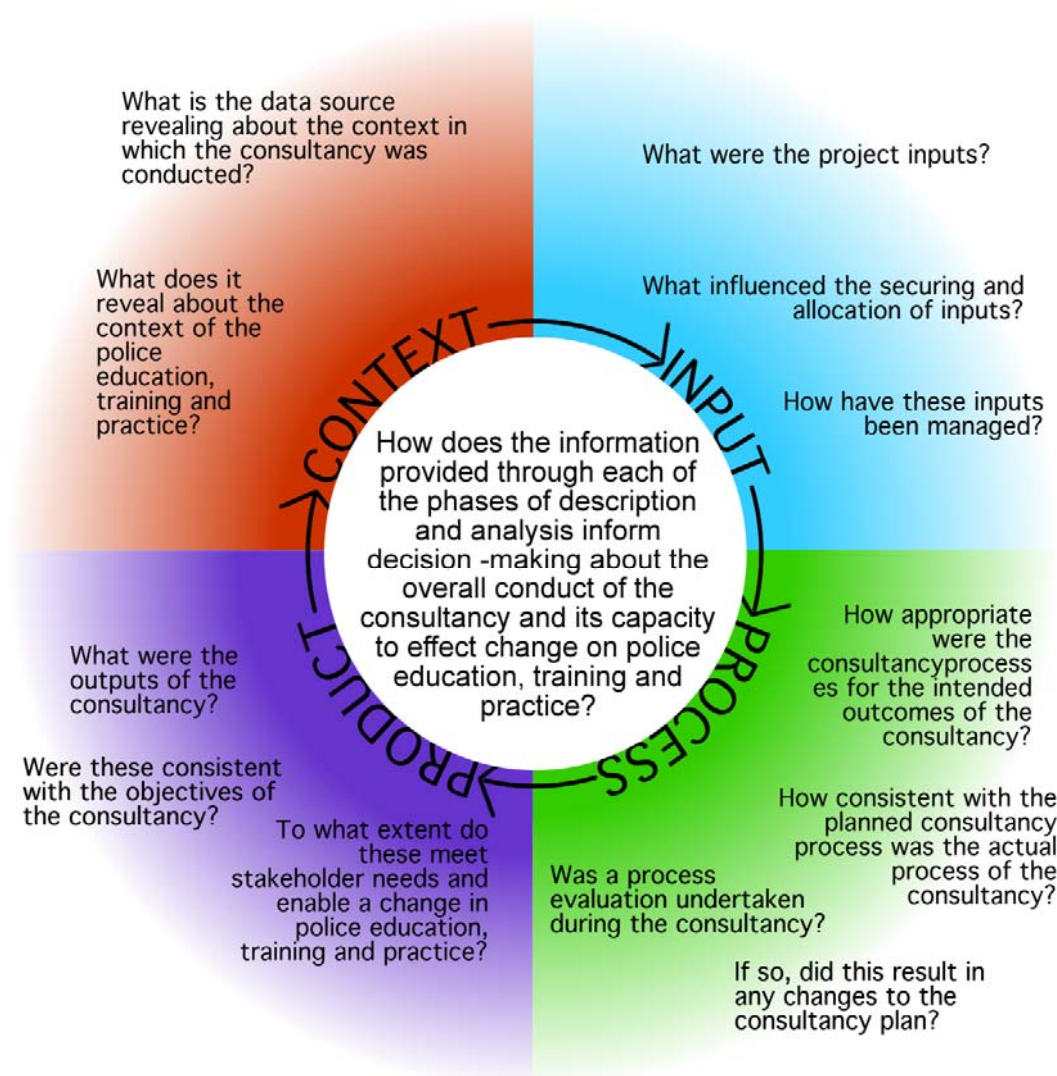
Product questions seek to determine the outcomes of a program and its effectiveness in meeting its objectives. In this study, review of data sources sought to determine answers to the following questions:

- What were the outputs of the consultancy?
- Were these consistent with the objectives of the consultancy?
- To what extent do these meet stakeholder needs and enable a change in police education, training and practice?

These framing questions are consistent with both CIPP and a structural approach to analysing case study data (Gall, Borg & Gall, 1996). Figure 3 depicts the iterative process of examining data sources from description and analysis to synthesis and integration in order to determine the implications of the findings in each of the domains of CIPP for the superordinate research question –

How does the information provided through each of the phases of description and analysis inform decision-making about the overall conduct of the consultancy and its capacity to effect change on police education, training and practice?

Figure 3 - The iterative data analysis process



The large volume of data in the study required a systematic approach to data reduction in order to facilitate analysis. This was undertaken by the researcher as follows:

1. All data sources were examined and summary notes of key points in the data source were taken
2. The data source was then coded for whether the key points revealed information about context, input, process or product related factors.
3. The individual key points were then clustered around the headings of context, input, process and product elements of the consultancy.
4. Emergent themes and subsets within the clusters of data were identified.
5. Data were repeatedly examined to determine the validity of the interpretation that had been made using a process similar to that described by Keeves and Sowden (1997, pp 302-303).

In particular, scrutiny of data was undertaken to avoid the three common sources of error in reaching conclusions identified by Miles and Huberman (cited in Keeves & Sowden, 1997, p.303). These are

- (a) the holistic fallacy which occurs as a result of ignoring or minimising outlier cases and different strands in order to create a greater sense of congruence among the data than actually exists
- (b) elite bias in which greater credence is given to a source on the basis of the status of a respondent or the capacity of a respondent to articulate their ideas.

(c) “going native” which involves accepting of the views of participants without adequate scholarly inquiry within the work.

According to Keeves & Sowden (1997), interview data reduction is a systematic process of summarising and checking for consistency and inconsistency in order to ensure the researcher has acknowledged and integrated the sources of data “and, in the process of assimilation has not, in an unwarranted way, distorted the evidence” (p. 300). The same principles were applied in this study.

As the data used in this study was reliant on consultancy data, the presence of the researcher as a participant in the consultancy and the recording of field notes to some extent overcame the potential for the consultancy data to contain elite bias within the workshop activity that was an integral part of the consultancy. However, it must be recognised that the internal dynamics of the groups involved in the consultancy could not be controlled and may have influenced the data.

Data analysis technique

In this case study, the individual data sets collected during the consultancy were organised in chronological order. Each was then examined for content. The units of data were then more closely scrutinised using the framework of questions identified above. Key words and phrases were clearly evident but in some instances whole memos within the data set centred on or reinforced an emergent issue that could be categorised and clustered under the domains within the CIPP framework. The clustering of issues enabled identification of emergent themes that were considered to have significant implications for the conduct of the consultancy and/or the

capacity of a national framework for police education and training to result in enhanced frontline police response to illicit drug problems.

In many cases, a singular source of evidence provided information pertinent to more than one element in the CIPP framework. While a single source can be limited with respect to reliability and meaningfulness, multiple sources enhance the confirmability and face validity of study findings. For example, a post project questionnaire was distributed to members of the NRG. While the data set is valuable and meaningful to the population that participated in the NRG (24 questionnaires were distributed, 11 were completed and returned), it is important to recognise the limitations of results from a single survey to a subset of police educators and practitioners when seeking to draw conclusions. Hence conclusions drawn from the analysis of the questionnaire have been validated through other data sources. This use of multiple sources to inform data analysis enhances the likelihood of confirmability of the findings of the study.

CHALLENGES RELATED TO DATA COLLECTION IN THE STUDY

Critics of case study research, in particular the use of case study as an evaluation strategy, argue that the ambiguities inherent in case study design, definitions of evaluation and qualitative approaches to research, results in unquestioned assumptions which have the potential to result in evaluation being used to present particular ideologies in order to persuade users of evaluation toward a particular set of ill informed conclusions (Foster, Gomm, & Hammersely, 2000; Smith, 1980). The history of case study research is marked by periods of intense use and periods of disuse (Tellis, 1997) and seems to be linked to some extent to the dominant

research paradigm of the period. Guba and Lincoln (1994, p.105) define a research paradigm as a "basic belief system of world view that guides the investigator, not only in choices of method but in ontologically and epistemologically fundamental ways". Some views of research would require that the researcher is independent and external to the consultancy project in order to enhance the objectivity of the study.

As Shaw (1978) notes, a multiplicity of perspectives exist from which to examine complex phenomena. There is considerable debate about the extent to which any research, in particular evaluation research, can be value free. As Clarke and Dawson (2001, p.5) note: "Program evaluation is both theory focused and value laden."

In this case study, the role of the researcher as a consultancy team member must be acknowledged as potentially impacting on the interpretation of data. Despite an espoused valuing of objectivity in research study design, Newman (1990, p.233) contends that "What we comprehend probably depends on our own levels of reality" regardless of the study design. The roles of the researcher as both participant in the consultancy project and an evaluator of the project had potential to contaminate data. In addition to recognising the potentially intrusive role of the researcher as a participant-observer in the consultancy, it must be acknowledged that the researcher's personal value system could impact on data presentation and interpretation and that the researcher's view of the world will inevitably influence interpretation of data. Ely, Vinz, Downing, and Anzul (1997, p.32) differentiate between the researcher's stance and the theoretical framework of the study to assert that while researchers are often keen to explain their theoretical framework, they are less able to articulate how their own philosophical, ideological, and especially

political or moral positions influence the ways in which they analyse and present data. Hypervigilance about possible data contamination and bias is required in order to avoid these. In the present study, the period of delay between data collection for the consultancy and the review of the data for the evaluation provided an opportunity for the researcher to generate distance between the interactions that occurred in the consultancy and the raw data.

The following part of the chapter clarifies the researcher's roles as participant in the consultancy and researcher and discusses ethical issues related to the researcher's roles and the use of consultancy data for the purpose of this study.

The researcher's role in the consultancy

In evaluation research perhaps more than in any other type of research, the fundamental distinction between the roles of internal and external evaluator must be recognised and articulated (Clarke & Dawson, 1999; Weiss, 1972).

It is possible to distinguish between two interrelated periods in the timeframe being examined in this dissertation and my roles during each of those periods.

My role in the consultancy team was to:

1. contribute to the development of the project methodology
2. facilitate workshops
3. contribute to the collation and analysis of information collected during the consultancy
4. prepare draft reports for the consultancy sponsor

These activities were undertaken in the period during which the consultancy was conducted (October 2000-October 2001).

In contrast to this, as a researcher and evaluator undertaking an evaluation study of the consultancy, my role was to engage in a process of critical reflection and review. These activities are consistent with summative evaluation practice and enable judgements to be made about the consultancy in a broader framework of evaluation than that which is directed toward the efficient conduct of the

consultancy. The time during which this was undertaken is the period November 2000- November 2003.

My role as an “insider” attempting to conduct an objective, critical, evaluative review of the context in which the consultancy was situated and of the consultancy inputs and actual processes and products, presented a number of methodological challenges and raised questions about the degree of objectivity possible or desirable in evaluation research. While some authors argue that the potential for bias is increased in evaluation studies in which researchers have intimate knowledge of the program being evaluated, others argue that in evaluating evolving curriculum processes (such as the consultancy project), participation can foster knowledge construction through observation, reflection and participatory inquiry (Levine, 2002; Preskill & Preskill, 1997).

Weiss (1972, p.20) states “some of the factors to be considered are administrative confidence, objectivity, understanding of the program, potential for utilization, and autonomy.” She argues that while debate about insider-outsider evaluation has generated much discussion, the general conclusion is that each has its advantages and disadvantages. Shaw (1978, p.128) observes that “How to dredge up, post facto, the unspoken comments, the suppressed criticisms, how to show that obstacles masquerading as prudence were effectively resistance, is by no means easy”. Therefore, in addition to the range of records examined in this study, the consultancy notes taken by the researcher provides additional insights and enhances the validity of the study. While it is acknowledged that at that point in time these notes were taken for the purpose of the consultancy rather than this research per se,

it is believed that the role of the researcher as participant-observer in the consultancy project enhanced the quality of the case study through reflection on the 'unspoken comments' and 'suppressed criticisms,' rather than detracted from it.

Pole (1993, quoted in Robson, 2000, p.67) suggests that in evaluation research in which the researcher has been closely involved with program implementation "Contamination does inevitably occur, but the evaluator must seek to make it positive contamination". Consciousness of the potential for contamination of data collection and bias during analysis is an essential attribute of an evaluator. This consciousness can be enhanced through awareness of the different roles that researchers assume. Cantley (1992, p.33) presents an overview of typologies of research roles such as Silverman's (1985, cited in Cantley, 1992) 'Scholar, Partisan and State Counsellor' and Finch's (1986, cited in Cantley, 1992) 'Advocate role'. The Scholar pursues knowledge for knowledge's sake and control of the research design lies with the researcher. The Partisan role is one in which the researcher clearly has a value committed stance. The State Counsellor role is one in which the researcher is seen to be under bureaucratic control and engaged in the implementation of research that is largely directed by the State as sponsor. The role of Advocate implies that researchers actively seek to represent the perspectives of the participants in the program. Cantley goes on to argue that "In practice, the distinction between these various roles is not as clear cut as the (above) typology suggests" (Cantley, 1992, p.34) and the emphasis on particular research roles in evaluation depends on the intended use of the research.

In this research, I saw myself as engaging in enlightenment research through undertaking a scholarly review of the consultancy. Nevertheless, as Stake (2004, p.104), observes

Each of us is more than an evaluator. We are complex human beings...We have political, spiritual, aesthetic, and other advocacies...Perceptions and values form any part of our lives may influence the interpretations we make.

Therefore I acknowledge that I have a partisan interest in engaging in a critical questioning of social policy direction that advocates expenditure of public funds to target education and training processes as a mechanism for organisational and social change.

The primary limitation of such a partisan role is that the research is dominated by the researcher's values to the point that evidence that is inconsistent with those values is excluded from the research (Cantley, 1992) and the research is biased. I remained conscious of the potential for this, hence criteria for research auditability needed to be established. Given the need to demonstrate auditability in qualitative research such as the present study, it is imperative that the researcher provides an adequate audit trail.

Polit and Hungler (1997, p.307) suggest that the classes of records that are of special interest in creating an adequate audit trail are:

- the raw data
- data reduction and analysis products
- process notes
- materials relating to intention and disposition
- instrument development formulation
- data reconstruction products.

The adequacy of the audit trail was tested in September 2003 when the researcher asked a person unfamiliar with the data analysis process to locate sources of information within the documents examined for the research. A member of the university secretarial staff was approached by the researcher and requested to review the data collection process. This was managed by the independent person with considerable ease and validated the interpretation of the data made by the researcher.

In addition to the need to justify the study design from an theoretical perspective, demonstrating that the data collection strategies used in the conduct of the study are appropriate and robust and acknowledging the potential for researcher bias to influence interpretation of results, are elements of ethical practice in the conduct of research. There were a number of other ethical considerations in this study. These are identified and discussed below.

Ethical considerations in the study

The extent to which traditional approaches to ethics are congruent with constructivist approaches to evaluation has been questioned. For example, Lincoln (1990, p.279) refers to the earlier work of Lincoln and Guba (1985) to note that

...it must be remembered that laws and regulations regarding confidentiality, privacy, and anonymity for research respondents were framed under epistemologies and ontologies (i.e. logical positivism and post positivism) that are now believed inadequate and indeed misleading for human inquiry.

Nevertheless, Sproul (1988) highlights the need to ground research in principles of ethics and notes the need for an appropriate research methodology to maximise benefits from the study and minimise risks. The proposed benefits of this study are

the collection and analysis of information about the conduct of a national consultancy project to inform a number of intended audiences. A number of ethical considerations were identified related to the data collection strategies used within the consultancy including the lack of informed consent and possible coercion to participate in the consultancy.

In this dissertation, a significant ethical question arises in terms of the use of data collected for one purpose (ie completion of a consultancy project) being used for another, albeit related, purpose (ie critique of the conduct of that project). Permission to access all materials used in and created during the project was provided by the Department of Health and Aged Care and ethics approval for the study was obtained through the University of Southern Queensland. The decision to use existing data was taken as the data were accessible and available. The use of existing data was seen as an effective use of fiscal and human resources and it was considered unlikely that additional data collection would add significantly to the study findings.

In this study, the primary risk to humans is that to third parties. In this instance, third parties such as police personnel, the police services in each jurisdiction, other professionals engaged in response to illicit drug use and those who have used illicit drugs, have been protected through the deleting of specific identifying data in the presentation of findings with the exception of comments from Police Commissioners.

Lincoln argues that there are times when participants in research studies may be willing to “give up strict privacy and anonymity rights for the larger right to act with agency in participating in the research efforts as full, cooperating agents in their own destinies” (Lincoln, 1990, p.280). Certainly several of the stakeholders in this study had much to gain professionally through participation in a high profile, government sponsored project. Nevertheless, Soltis (1990, p.247) states that “ethics is ubiquitous. It permeates all aspects of our lives” and that ethics has personal, professional and public dimensions. Given this, it is anticipated that readers of this dissertation would themselves exercise reciprocal ethical judgement and separate the issues raised in the study from the performance of any individual.

While no individual has been identified by name in this case study, the limited number of ‘characters’ in position of influence in the study will mean they may be identified (sometimes incorrectly as anonymity could result in false conclusions about an individual’s behaviour). Those who may be at risk of harm to reputation as a result of this dissertation are those involved in the conception, approval, implementation and review of the consultancy project. This includes the members of the consultancy team, staff of the Department of Health and Aged Care, and the members of the NRG.

While Commissioner’s comments have been identified as comments by a Commissioner and numbered in order to reflect the scope of comments, the specific jurisdiction of the Commissioner has not been identified. There is no correlation between the numbering of commissioner interviews and the order in which interviews were conducted during the consultancy. Where jurisdictional workshop

data are referred to these have not been numbered as the review of data indicated that views expressed by participants were common across jurisdictions. The NRG data has been numbered in sequential order of the conduct of the workshops with the group as the views of participants in that group changed over time.

Many of the conclusions of the dissertation are not new to these stakeholders. Indeed they are drawn from direct observation of the interaction among stakeholders during the consultancy. However, the formal documentation and interpretation of these interactions and the publication of the study's conclusions in a public arena may be confronting to some. Nevertheless, it is believed that the risks to individuals in the study are minimal and are outweighed by the potential utility of the outcomes that arise from the evaluation. Indeed scrutiny of the consultancy project beyond the closed world of those who participated in the consultancy may facilitate change in policy development and implementation and support change in police practice, education and training.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has described the methodology and methods of the study. The view that evaluation is research activity has been expressed. The usefulness of CIPP as a framework for evaluation has been identified. It has been demonstrated that the collaborative work of Guba and Stufflebeam (1970) provides a mechanism through which to examine relationships between change agenda and the context, inputs, processes and products of policy programs as exemplified by the consultancy. The chapter has also discussed issues related to the use of case study design in evaluation research, specified the sources of data used in the study and examined

the strengths and limitations of the data collection and analysis approaches. The potential for researcher bias to compromise the study was acknowledged, and the ways in which the use of multiple sources of data served to limit this have been highlighted.

Consistent with the CIPP framework that underpins the organisation of the study, the presentation of findings in the next chapter is structured around the four elements of context, inputs, processes and products. The data have been de-identified to the extent that is possible without detracting from the findings. For example, although the researcher was often aware of the position of an individual in NRGs and jurisdictional workshops (eg educator, union representative, drug squad member, policy coordinator) these have not been identified in reporting the data and the term 'participant' is used for all responses. It is recognised that knowledge of the participant role in the organisation may provide additional insight into the comment reported, but the decision has been made to preserve the anonymity of respondents because of potential repercussions on individuals who had not clearly consented to their views being reported in this dissertation.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

The previous chapters have presented an overview of the study and established that the consultancy examined in the study was a strategy to achieve a change in frontline police practice. Contemporary thinking about responding to illicit drug use has been described and police response to illicit drug problems in the domains of education and training, policy and practice has been identified.

The study methodology and methods were discussed in Chapter III of the dissertation. The use of Guba and Stufflebeam's (1970) monograph "*Evaluation: The process of stimulating, aiding and abetting insightful action*" has been justified as applicable to this study as it explores the interrelationship between evaluation of programs and change. A case study approach has been demonstrated to be consistent with the use of Guba and Stufflebeam's (1970) work as the conceptual organiser for the dissertation.

Miles and Huberman (1994, p.262) have observed "most qualitative researchers work alone in the field. Each is a one-person research machine: defining the problem, doing the sampling, designing the instruments, collecting the information, reducing the information, analysing it, interpreting it, writing it up." They argue there is a need for greater explication of the processes of data analysis as well as requirement to focus on the findings of a given study.

In this study, data were analysed using the iterative process described in Chapter III of this dissertation.

Key words and phrases in the data sources were identified using the process described in Chapter III in order to relate them to the CIPP framework. Data within each of these elements of the CIPP framework were then clustered in order to reveal categories and emergent themes within the domains of the CIPP framework. The following section of the chapter presents the findings from the analysis of data that illuminates the contextual factors surrounding the consultancy. The emergent themes related to each of the categories are described and data is presented to support the determination of the themes.

The presentation of data is organised using the concepts of context, input, process and product. The findings indicate that the capacity of the particular consultancy that is the focus of this evaluation in police practice was limited. Indeed, the findings suggest that in general, education and training programs for police are not viewed as a means of facilitating change in practice, rather they are seen as a way of ensuring practitioner compliance with rules and regulations.

This chapter presents the rich, descriptive data necessary to generate study findings in qualitative research. Given the volume of data generated in the consultancy, examples that highlight issues raised by the data analysis process are presented. These pertain to those issues most frequently evidenced during data analysis and typify the emergent findings from the data. Where there were alternative views to

those indicated in the majority of data sources, these have been presented and commented upon as atypical.

Consistent with ‘between-methods triangulation’ (Denzin, 1989) data in this study have been drawn from multiple sources, analysed to confirm and augment the interpretation of information, and grouped according to categories within the domains of either context, input, process, or product factors. The organisation of the data around the elements of CIPP framework facilitates communication of the study findings. The following sections of the chapter present data that is relevant to each of the domains of CIPP framework and a brief discussion of findings related to those domains as separate entities. A discussion of the implications of an integrated view of the study findings is presented in the fifth chapter of the dissertation.

CONTEXT EVALUATION

Analysis of data sets generated during the consultancy identified numerous contextual factors that impact on the development and implementation of a national framework for police education and training to enhance response to illicit drugs. Four categories of context related information were identified through analysis of data. The categories of data pertinent to the context in which the consultancy occurred were determined to be:

- (a) being seen to respond to the broad political context,
- (b) managing within the police context,
- (c) confusion in the frontline, and
- (d) the nature of education and training in police services.

Context Category A – Being seen to respond to the broad political context:

Holistic analysis of the rich description provided in the consultancy data suggested to the researcher that police viewed responding to the broad political context as ‘playing the game’. Analysis of individual data sets collected during the consultancy (see Table 4 in Chapter III) supported this and enabled themes of ‘We know how to play the game’, ‘We will set the rules’, ‘What is the point of the game?’ ‘Can we ever win?’ and ‘C’mon - let’s get back to the game’ to be identified and reported as pertinent to the macro-political context. Findings that support the analogy to playing the game as a response to the broad political context are presented below.

A.1 We know how to play the game

The literature review in Chapter II has identified the cost of illicit drug use to the community and presented an historical overview of the shift in government policy toward the adoption of a harm minimisation approach in response to illicit drug problems. Activity conducted during the consultancy generated data that indicated that a number of factors in the external political environment continue to influence and impact upon police management and practice in relation to illicit drug problems. Examination of the data indicated that there was espoused broad organisational support for and commitment to the consultancy from within police agencies. Findings related to this have been categorised under the theme ‘We know how to play the game’ as the key drivers for commitment were seen to be political imperatives.

While each of the data sets examined provided some evidence of awareness of the implications of the national political and policy environment on the development of a national framework for police education and training in response to illicit drug problems, not surprisingly those who commented most strongly on this were the Commissioners. In part, this was due to the direct questioning about this in the interviews with each Commissioner. It is likely that the Commissioners are in the best position to provide comment about the contemporary political environment.

All eight commissioners expressed the view that directions of Federal, State and local government policies and the attitudes of various lobby groups exert considerable influence on drug law enforcement practices. Content analysis of police commissioner responses to interview questions was conducted by a data analyst independent to the consultancy team. Her report, prepared in January 2001, revealed that all eight commissioners:

Recognised that drug abuse is a health problem
Recognised that early intervention is the key to breaking the cycle of drug use and concurred with strategies to prevent the uptake of drugs
Desired minimisation of the aggregate damage to society created by licit and illicit drug taking, trafficking and the enforcement effort
Stated that enforcement by itself is of limited value
Supported the use of definitions referred to in the National Drug Strategy to differentiate between supply, demand and harm reduction

Commissioners were understandably keen to verbalise commitment to the strategic direction of Governments and repeatedly reference was made to the extent to which Commissioners have agreed to cooperate to achieve strategic goals. The following comment exemplifies this:

There is consensus and very little disagreement between jurisdictions in these matters (Commissioner, Interview 3).

However, despite there being the rhetoric of commitment to national policy directions in relation to response to illicit drugs and associated police education and training programs, there was evidence that the implications of that agreement presented considerable challenges to the police in terms of both their role and autonomy. Responses related to the challenges presented to police and their response to these challenges have been categorised under the theme of ‘We set the rules’.

A.2. We set the rules

The review of literature in Chapter II of this dissertation highlighted the tensions between law enforcement approaches to illicit drug use and harm minimisation. It was also identified that police culture emphasises solidarity and there is a need among police to validate policing as a legitimate and unique activity.

There was consistent and strong evidence during the consultancy that police feel they should be autonomous from other agencies. This sentiment was expressed in all data sets but was most forcefully articulated by the Commissioners thus:

A national direction in this regard is already agreed with other Commissioners. I would have difficulty being oversighted by an external body however, as suggested by Pennington in his most recent report (Commissioner, Interview 2).

and

We are willing to support the implementation of a national framework. Provided they are only guidelines. There is no authority for national direction as such (Commissioner, Interview 3).

Other police also hinted that there were ways and means to suggest compliance while engaging in resistance:

There is a big gap between “signing off” and full implementation
(Participant issue recorded on ‘post it’ note, Jurisdictional Workshop).

While there is political acceptance of this policy, it will not be translated to practice. Expedience is the key to all of this (Comment on Jurisdictional Workshop evaluation form).

There was also questioning of the capacity of the consultancy to enhance police response to illicit drug problems in meaningful ways. This was raised by Commissioners and others who stated the need for benefits of harm minimisation to be aligned with police thinking:

A big failure of past activity has been to identify ideas that distract from the real issues. These attract debate and energies that should really be directed at the causes rather than the symptoms. There needs to be better opportunities for seeking out common grounds for allowing this. We don’t need more provocative issues to be unnecessarily raised (Commissioner, Interview 3).

Do not expect too much regarding outcomes. There are many other priorities for police and this is someone else’s priority (ie political and health agenda) (Commissioner, Interview 4).

This is about marketing of recommendations and the concept of harm minimisation. There will not be stark acceptance of harm minimisation. The benefits need to be outlined (Participant issue recorded on post it note, Jurisdictional Workshop).

During the consultancy, there was a strong desire to ensure that the police role in law enforcement was recognised and maintained. Comments such as the following demonstrate this:

We support a national framework addressing the previous points in the context of differentiation between taking and supplying. It must be a balanced approach and address the police dilemma between diversion and enforcement (Commissioner, Interview 1).

and

People argue this is just the same as breath testing for alcohol in that we are minimising harm. The point is that illicit substance use is illegal in the first place (Participant, Jurisdictional Workshop).

Related to this need for clarity about the police role, a third emergent theme in the data that pertained to the broad political context was identified. This is described under the theme ‘What is the point of the game?’

A.3. What is the point of the game?

There was questioning of the intent of the harm minimisation principles that underpinned the development of a national framework for police education and training to enhance police response to illicit drug problems as it was felt that:

The challenge lies in reduction of harm without normalising drug use (Commissioner, Interview 5).

Concerns about the possibility of a ‘hidden agenda’ underpinning the development of a national framework were articulated by police at the NRG and jurisdictional workshops. These concerns focused on the need to ensure that harm minimisation was not seen as police going ‘soft on drugs’. There was concern that the consultancy and its intended outcomes were aimed at

Taking away police resources from the victim to assist the abuse concerns of the offender (Participant issue recorded on post it note, Jurisdictional Workshop).

and were potentially

...just another project so as to be seen to be doing the right thing for people who continue to do the wrong thing (Participant issue recorded on post it note, Jurisdictional Workshop).

Participants in the consultancy sought reassurance about the intent of the development of a national framework to enhance police response to illicit drug problems. For example, one participant raised the following:

Where do you (the consultancy team) get this emphasis on harm minimisation from? Why isn't the concept of harm minimisation in the project title if it's so important? Isn't this just law reform by stealth? (Participant, National Reference GroupWorkshop1).

While another commented:

The Department of Health will interpret the issues and dictate the way police will train and operate (Participant, Jurisdictional Workshop).

Others sought clarification about the definition and scope of the project:

Is this project about the use of illicit drugs, or licit substances used illicitly? (Participant, National Reference GroupWorkshop1).

Are we talking about harm minimisation or problem prevention? (Participant, Jurisdictional Workshop).

Further to this, police were concerned at the artificial separation of drug problems into those involving illicit and licit drug use. In one jurisdiction, the Commissioner and jurisdictional workshop participants commented that the illicit use of substances in activity such as petrol and glue sniffing was more problematic than the use of substances deemed illegal such as cannabis and heroin. Despite this, the Commissioner acknowledged that the jurisdiction was a major source of supply and distributions to other jurisdictions. One participant in the workshop in the same jurisdiction wrote on a 'post it' note:

I know the perception is we don't have a major problem with illicit drug use such as heroin, but I sense it is on the rise (Participant issue recorded on post it note, Jurisdictional Workshop).

Further exploration of data about a perceived lack of clarity about the intent and purpose of the consultancy resulted in identification of a fourth theme within the macro-political context- 'Can we ever win?'

A.4. Can we ever win?

There were expressions of a sense that police were being scapegoated through activity such as the development of a national framework for education and training:

We are told this (illicit drug use) is a social problem but police are being targeted for education and training and told to change their practice. It is saying you have failed in your efforts to respond to drug problems. It is really simplistic and insulting- to say just re-train police to think a certain way and things will be better (Participant, Jurisdictional Workshop).

What is health doing to fix its own backyard? (Participant, Jurisdictional Workshop).

and a perception that harm minimisation was a way of saying police had failed in their role as law enforcers:

On one hand I agree with all of this harm minimisation. On the other, I am worried about what it says about the service. We have been trying so hard to stop drug use and now we are saying that the best we can do is prevent harm. It leaves me with some sense of failing in what we set out to do. I know there are others who feel the same. (Participant, Jurisdictional Workshop-conversation with the researcher)

Participants in jurisdictional workshops also expressed awareness that in supporting harm minimisation strategies, the police service itself could encounter harm as police could be perceived to be corrupt if they do not enforce the law. Such concerns have been recognised by several authors (Forell & Price, 1997; Hall, 1997) and highlight the complexity of the social context in which police are asked to respond to illicit drug use.

A recurring theme in interviews with Commissioners and comments from participants at national and jurisdictional workshops was the need to balance a

strong expectation from the community that they should not have to suffer the consequences of offensive behaviour resulting from intoxication with illicit drugs with the goals of the National Illicit Drug Strategy and improved health outcomes, in particular, the health outcomes of users of illicit drugs.

A fifth theme that was specific to the National Reference Group workshops was identified in data. This was “C’mon-let’s get back to the game”.

A.5. C’mon let’s get back to the game

Throughout the conduct of the consultancy, there was a change in the nature of comments about the commissioning of the project.

Initially there was widespread comment from police about issues to do with the commissioning and sponsoring of the project from within the Department of Health and Aged Care; what was perceived as the inappropriate demarcation between licit and illicit drug problems; and, the differences between health and police engagement with illicit drug users. Reservations about the extent to which the development of a national framework would be possible were expressed. There were also examples of cynicism among police about the ownership of the National Illicit Drug Strategy. This is perhaps best exemplified by the following comment from a police officer in a jurisdictional workshop in direct reference to the Department of Health and Aged Care:

Let’s be honest here. We all know what happened in 1985- we had a Prime Minister whose daughter had a drug problem. You can’t be a Prime Minister with a criminal for a daughter so suddenly we end up with health, not police ministers running the show (Participant, Jurisdictional Workshop).

Police were also clearly very reluctant to identify that members of police services may themselves use illicit substances. The following was recorded in the researcher's notes:

One member of the National Reference Group was observed to suggest that education and training about harm minimisation and illicit substance use should include recognition that some police themselves used illicit substances. The person referred explicitly to the use of cannabis and anabolic steroids. No other member of the National Reference group supported this, indeed several members commented that to include content related to police use of illicit substances would result in additional undermining of police morale and public confidence (Researcher notes National Reference Group, Workshop 1).

However, as the consultancy progressed and the project team reported back to the NRG on these comments, the theme 'C'mon, let's get back to the game' emerged. This was particularly obvious in the third NRG workshop. Members of the NRG seemed to be increasingly keen that the police services they represented were seen to be enthusiastic participants in the development of the national framework and that any tensions between the perceived agenda of the Department of Health and Aged Care and police views be minimised in the final report of the consultancy team to the Department. An entry in the researcher's diary entry, during the third NRG Workshop reads:

They want to look good; have had their say, no rocking the boat now...

One participant who was particularly keen that things be presented as police complying with the 'main game' suggested to the consultancy team that:

The Commissioners had been very clever in their ability to secure Health funds to provide police education and training support and that is the way it should have been presented to participants in jurisdictional workshops rather than suggesting that Health was telling police what to do (Participant, National Reference Group Workshop 3).

Whether this renewed enthusiasm was a true representation of police attitudes or a recognition that it was unwise not to espouse commitment to the development of the national framework is unable to be determined from the available evidence.

In addition to the issues in the broad political environment shaping police response to the consultancy and its intended outcomes, factors in the police management and policy context that determined the extent to which any national framework would effect a change in practice were revealed in the study. These were clustered under the category 'Managing within the police context'.

Context Category B: Managing within the police context:

In contrast to the cynicism evident in police response to the broad political context, analysis of data related to police policy and management revealed a different attitude to achieving an enhanced police response to illicit drug problems. The themes 'We are trying the best we can', and 'Even if we wanted to play better, we can't' emerged.

B.1 We are trying the best we can

The perceived tensions between the police role as a law enforcer and enhanced response to illicit drug problems are well recognised and have been explored in the literature review in Chapter II of this dissertation. Both Police Commissioners and police members of the NRG (who were nominees of the Commissioners) were keen to report the progress that has been made in change in police thinking about response to illicit drug problems. Typical comments included:

[The jurisdiction] has two distinct policies, which emphasises our directions:

1. *To minimise the concentration of police activity around needle exchange facilities, and*
2. *Directions to exercise discretion when required to attend drug overdoses* (Commissioner, Interview 3).

We have specific policies of not attending overdoses. The Communications Section simply does not send a car. There is a growing incidence of overdoses in private homes and attendance by police in those circumstances is thought to discourage users from seeking “formal” medical assistance (Commissioner, Interview 4).

We have introduced strategies such as dance party protocols, no police attendance at drug overdoses, no patrolling in areas around needle and syringe exchange programs (Commissioner, Interview 6).

The Commissioner commented that he does not see that drug harm minimisation approaches will address the problem of illicit drugs as viewed from a law enforcement perspective. Acknowledged that it might if viewed from a health perspective (Consultancy team member notes of Commissioner Interview 5).

Interviews with Commissioners indicated police have developed a range of strategies that they believe facilitate the implementation of harm minimisation principles in situations to which police respond. A report produced from the independent content analyst employed during the consultancy indicates that the eight police Commissioners’ responses to the interview question about the operational response to harm minimisation indicated strategies included:

- pre-court diversionary programs (referral to other facilities, treatment programs) that reduce drug use by users (4 respondents identified this)
- supply reduction strategies (including working closely with other agencies) (5 respondents)
- target those drug dealers who impact most on the aggregate damage to the community through their illicit drug dealing and related activities
- reduce the impact of visible illicit drug markets
- reduce the influence of organised crime

- aligning policy and training (2 respondents). eg video showing police as managers of things additional to law enforcement & emphasising harm reduction as a part of policing practice
- having overt top down support for the implementation strategy; committed and active in providing leadership (2 respondents)
- referral of intoxicated individuals to shelters and other health centres and using lock-up only as a last resort (2 respondents)
- responding to personal drug use mostly at an individual level, depending on the circumstances of each case (2 respondents)
- engaging in demand reduction strategies (2 respondents)

There was evidence of change in police policy and attempts to align policy and education and training, throughout the project to develop a national framework for education and training. The theme of ‘Even if we wanted to play better, we can’t’ emerged as participants expressed concern at the implications of implementing further changes in police practice.

B.2 Even if we wanted to play better – we can’t

The tension between law enforcement and public health roles within policing was highlighted frequently by police when they described the circumstances under which they engage (or do not engage) with those who use illicit drugs:

I have major problems with policy not to attend overdoses. I think there needs to be police there to rule out that there was an intended overdose and criminal act. Of course, that is only my personal view (Commissioner, Interview - number not identified in order to maintain privacy).

Or, as recorded in the researcher’s notes as a participant observer at the first National Reference Group Workshop,

Member from police states with heavy sarcasm and much to the amusement of police in the group- “You (project team member) just used the word offenders to describe people who use illicit drugs. Don’t you know they aren’t committing offenses? They are victims”.

Moreover, the harm minimisation approaches that were seen by the funding agency to provide a mechanism to enhance police response to illicit drug problems were sometimes not supported through police management practice. Police were themselves well aware of these inconsistencies and commented upon them. Frontline police were particularly keen to point out these inconsistencies. There was evidence that despite a rhetoric of commitment to harm minimisation, organisational processes still do not support this. For example, the use of numbers of arrests as a key performance indicator for policing and therefore evidence of effective allocation of resources is at odds with harm minimisation approaches.

In all jurisdictions, comments similar to the one below were made by frontline police:

We all know what is measured. Our commander will come in and say, “Arrests are down this week”, so we go out and arrest the druggies to get arrests up. All that really matters is the numbers and they (drug users) are easy to target (Participant, Jurisdictional Workshop).

In jurisdictional workshops, several frontline police (number not recorded) also voiced their awareness of the impact of local area command management practice had on neighbouring commands and the capacity of local areas to move illicit drug problems on. At each jurisdictional workshop, police made statements similar to the following:

When we put lights in at (railway station named) the junkies moved away. Of course, they only went a few ks away but (shrugged shoulders) that is in the next area command so it really isn’t our problem anymore (Participant, Jurisdictional Workshop).

When these types of statements were made there was indication that others in the group concurred with the sentiment as they nodded or gave a similar example and no disagreement was observed.

In addition to awareness of the extent to which police response to illicit drug problems has undergone change and some of the limitations in approaches, police provided evidence that the competing demands and priorities in frontline policing detracted from the likelihood of organisational commitment to develop a national framework for education and training in response to illicit drug problems.

There was evidence that significant structural factors impacted significantly on the communication processes between those who develop policy and those who implement education and training. In at least two jurisdictions, participation in the NRG was the first interaction police educators responsible for implementing training had with drug policy coordinators in the jurisdiction.

There was also a sense of frustration that police were seeking to, and had, responded to illicit drug problems in practical and constructive ways but were seeking ideas about what more could be done :

What more can be done?
We educate police in harm minimisation already. They know the policy. All of policing is about minimising harm anyway. It is fundamental to the job
(Participant, National Reference Group, Workshop 2, Conversation with researcher).

Although police have responded to national policy through implementing harm minimisation policy and enacting a number of harm minimisation strategies, there

remain tensions between law enforcement agencies and health agencies about the extent to which police should and could commit to further strategies, the compatability between the law enforcement roles of police (particularly their commitment to reduction of supply of illicit drugs), and the application of harm minimisation approaches. A number of issues in police management and policy have been identified in the literature as impacting upon an enhanced frontline police response to illicit drugs. These include demarcation between health and police policy makers and service providers; a lack of resources for police to refer users of illicit substances to for treatment; the potential for role confusion among police; and, a lack of clarity about how to prioritise harm. Each of these was identified by participants in the consultancy.

What has been less readily identified in the literature is the extent to which jurisdictional differences and the industrial implications of education and training programs impact on the development of a national framework for education and training of police. The following exemplars highlight this:

It has all been tried before but each jurisdiction is different to the others. We have different policies and legislation that affects what we do. We are all different and separate entities (Participant, National Reference Group, Workshop1).

The commissioner stated that he would not be “threatened” by any national strategy for training and suggested that to be useful it would need to provide a wide range of options and strategies for operationalising the principles so that each jurisdiction could select and modify to suit their political context and policy frameworks (Consultant team members’ notes, Commissioner Interview 7).

I do not endorse mandatory adoption by jurisdictions of a 'national curriculum' based on competency-based standards involving the need to establish and implement accredited workplace assessment (Commissioner, Interview 2).

It was also clear that police perceived that any education and training associated with harm minimisation may require them to undertake an extended role rather than enhancing their existing role and they were resistive to this. Indication of how broadening the role of the police impacts on policing systems related to this were evidenced in comments such as:

We will not mandate that any new course is compulsory in [jurisdiction] because if that is the case, it is linked to promotion (Participant, National Reference Group, Workshop2).

Any additional compulsory education and training will need to be looked at closely by the union (Participant, Jurisdictional Workshop).

If we have to do this training, how does it link with our conditions (of employment)? (Participant, Jurisdictional Workshop).

Factors identified in both the political and management context clearly impact on how frontline police perceive and respond to illicit drug problems. However, review of the practice stories provided by frontline police illuminates the challenge presented by the frontline context itself.

Context Category C: Confusion in the frontline

Examination of data related to the frontline context resulted in identification of one overarching theme: ‘What are the rules today?’ This theme, which captures the complexity, fluidity and lack of certainty inherent in frontline practice, is elaborated upon next.

C.1.What are the rules today?

The complexity of the context of frontline policing was illuminated through review of the 128 stories recalled by frontline police in jurisdictional workshops and documented on the proforma in Appendix 2. An example of a situation recorded by frontline police is presented in Appendix 3.

Analysis of the entire 128 situations indicated that police most frequently encounter illicit drug use in situations in which other offenses are being committed. No single situation recalled indicated that the sole reason for police involvement was the use of an illicit substance. In a number of cases, the result of illicit substance use was other behaviours that were illegal. While it is an acknowledged limitation of situation recall that participants will self select situations in which they are shown in a positive light there was no evidence in data collected during the consultancy project that frontline police activity targets illicit drug use without an associated offense.

The situations described by police indicated that frontline policing is fraught with a need to make effective decisions where there are often multiple, competing demands. A large number of the situations recalled by police required them to use discretion in decision-making about the appropriate response in context. The appropriate use of discretion was seen as a key element of effective policing among all levels of police. This was endorsed by the Commissioners. For example, one Commissioner stated at interview:

A degree of discretion in enforcement is appropriate when differentiating between users and traffickers.

another commented:

Police officers have and do exercise a large degree of discretion in operationalising harm minimisation procedures.

while yet another said:

It is imperative that police officers at all levels retain their discretion as a fundamental tenet of office and there is an expectation that staff will use discretion in drug law enforcement.

The use of discretion that resulted in successful outcomes was reported with pride, a sense of individual autonomy and satisfaction by frontline officers. For example, one police officer reported:

We got called to a house where the perp was violent and abusive. We subdued him and got him in the wagon. He settled down but I didn't think things were right. I told my colleague we should check him out at the hospital. He wanted to take him to the cells but I insisted we go to the hospital. By the time we got to the hospital and checked him in the van, he was really quiet. We took him to Cas and it ended up he had a head injury. We saved his life (Participant, Jurisdictional Workshop).

However, when the outcomes of the application of discretion were undesirable, the complexity of frontline decision-making became obvious:

I was out on patrol and called to a group of noisy teenagers who were larking about. Went up to them and moved them on. Anyhow, on the way home, one of the girls climbed up on a bridge across a stormwater drain and jumped in to the dry drain. She was paralysed. Her family are seeking compensation from the police because if I had brought her home she wouldn't have jumped. I had decided not to notify their parents as they were not a real problem ...besides, most parents don't want to be bothered and the press goes on about cops picking on young kids (Participant, Jurisdictional Workshop).

Some police reported that they choose not to use discretion as indicated by the following comment:

I follow the law and the rules to the letter...not because I necessarily agree with them, but they tell me how to operate and protect me from the consequences of my own discretion. That might seem harsh but that's the way it is... (Participant, Jurisdictional Workshop).

A number of police recalled situations in which their application of discretion has consequences to individuals, the organisation and the community, despite their actions being congruent with their understanding of their role and duties. The following excerpt exemplifies this:

I was called by the principal of the local school as he thought a male student was distributing cannabis in the grounds. The boy was called to his office and I searched him in the presence of the principal. All by the book, I thought. We found a considerable quantity of cannabis in his pockets.

Next thing you know, the parents have contacted the lawyers. The question was “Is a school a public place?” Thousands of dollars of public money and heaps of police time later, it was found the school was not a public place and I shouldn’t have conducted a search without a warrant... Can you believe it? What is the point? (Participant, Jurisdictional Workshop).

Some police commented on the challenges the policing role presented to them as members of the community and the complexity of having their decisions scrutinised by the community. This was particularly pertinent to police who work in small towns and communities:

I don’t care who it is I have to follow the law and that’s sometimes really hard. I’m the only copper in town and I can’t relax and go for a drink at the Pub because people see me as the law (Participant, Jurisdictional Workshop).

... it’s really hard when you know the circumstances of some of the people you have to arrest. I know what goes on and why things happen but I have to do my job. You’re damned if you do and damned if you don’t really. One group says “Lock ’em up”, the other says “Show compassion”... (Participant, Jurisdictional Workshop).

All jurisdictions have endorsed a harm minimisation approach to illicit drug use. Some police in workshops argued that the goal of policing is above all one that aims to minimise harm, however the consultancy data revealed a need to clarify the

concept of harm minimisation through clearly defining for whom police are required to minimise harm.

Review of the police self analysis of frontline practice situations in which they were to identify outcomes and harm in the situation they described indicated that police perceived harm to users of illicit substances, the community and police themselves. A random review of 35 responses to police self analysis of their practice across jurisdictions was conducted by the researcher by reviewing situations collected at workshops. Each situation often had more than one harm identified. It was revealed that users of illicit substances with whom police interacted with were perceived by police to suffer harm arising from poor outcomes from referral and diversion (n=27). Criteria for poor outcomes identified by police who described those situations were users reoffending (n=22) or refusal to participate in referral (n=5). In addition to this, police indicated a lack of adequate access to services for referral contributed to harm to the user of the illicit substance (n=7). Police also acknowledged that their own behaviours contributed to harm to the user. Those behaviours identified by police in the sample of their analyses included stereotyping of users (n=7) and non attendance at overdose (n=1).

In the reviewed sample of 35 self analysed situations police disclosed that they themselves faced risks related to user violence (n=11), occupational health and safety hazards specific to illicit drug use such as needle stick injury when conducting searches (n=2); trauma and stress to them as a result of the situation (n=2); and, feelings of powerlessness when trying to encourage users of illicit substances to seek assistance when they do not wish to access it (n=4).

Some groups of police at jurisdictional workshops also demonstrated they were aware of the potential harm to the community as well as themselves and the illicit drug user. This awareness was demonstrated where situations that were described identified a need to ensure public safety (n=1) and a need to support to family members and prevent further harm to family and friends of the drug user (n=6) within the role of frontline police.

In addition to the complexity of decision-making in frontline practice, and identification that in each situation there were potential instances of harm to a number of stakeholders, the diversity of illicit drug problems across and within jurisdictions was evident. Different areas of each jurisdiction had different illicit drug problems. At one stage during the consultancy, in order to identify 'best practice', the consultancy team began to classify the situations into categories related to police strategy used to respond to illicit drug use (supply reduction, demand reduction or harm reduction), nature of the illicit drug use, age of offenders and so forth. It was quickly realised that this was a complex task and required considerable legal and police expertise. The diversity of issues across jurisdictions has been captured in Appendix 4. Although a crude measure, the data in the table indicate that police response overall is suggestive of the use of strategies that are consistent with a harm minimisation approach to illicit drug use. There was a focus on reducing harm to the user in the 52% of the situations described. This may be reflective of policy directions in each jurisdiction, the nature and effect of the illicit drug used, and the previous encounters police have with people who are affected by an illicit substance. It may also be related to the process of participant recruitment to workshops resulting in sample bias as police who attended jurisdictional

workshops may have been predisposed to use harm minimisation strategies in policing.

The results indicate there is significant difference in emphasis among jurisdictions and limited police participation in demand reduction activity nationally. Nevertheless, 67% of the situations analysed indicated police perceived they had used harm minimisation strategies when responding to problematic use of illicit drugs while there were only 25% of situations in which police had only addressed supply reduction.

The review of data generated in the consultancy project highlighted the complexity of frontline policing, and indicated that police already engage in what they perceive to be harm reduction strategies. The theme ‘What are the rules today?’ has been used to capture the challenges in frontline practice where the frameworks for decision-making and evaluation of practice are uncertain and variable.

Education and training are often identified as mechanisms through which clarification of the requirements of practice can be identified. The following section of the chapter presents a discussion of data that were clustered under the category of the nature of education and training in police services.

Context Category D: The nature of education and training in police services

In addition to considering the political, managerial and practice contexts of policing, any strategy to enhance practice through education and training necessitates an examination of the educational context. Data sources for this section

of the context evaluation included national and jurisdictional workshop comments and the report to the consultancy from the independent data analyst of responses to questions to police participants in the consultancy about their own experience of education and training. This analysis of police experience of education and training is reproduced in Appendix 5 of this dissertation. As the data in this report reported the number of responses but did not clearly indicate the total number of responses, a random sample of 50 police responses to questions about their own education and training was undertaken as part of this study to confirm the data analysis. When categorised, data related to the educational context were also seen to be congruent with the metaphor of a game. Analysis of data indicated that three major themes influenced illicit drug related education practice in policing organisations. These are ‘What is the main game?’, ‘What pieces do we use?’ and ‘Do we belong on the board or are we players?’

D.1 What is the main game?

The theme ‘What is the main game’ was used to cluster two primary categories of data generated through analysis of the consultancy data: those related to a lack of clarity about content and those related to fitting content into the curriculum. These were included in the context evaluation as any educational program that was developed as a result of the consultancy would require those involved in the development of the program to have a clear understanding of the how the concept of harm minimisation can be applied to police practice and be able to determine the relative importance of the concept to police education and training.

In any education and training program, there needs to be clarity of purpose and content. Data analysis indicated that there remains a lack of clarity about how harm minimisation principles are applicable to policing practice. The most frequently raised issues at jurisdictional workshops related to confusion or disagreement around the concept of harm minimisation and included questions about what the concept means for police practice; who the term refers to (users, the community, the police); concern over the breadth and complexity of the issue; and questions about the efficacy of harm minimisation (see Appendix 6).

The conceptual confusion between harm minimisation as inclusive of law enforcement versus harm minimisation that is specifically focused on the health of the illicit drug user compounds the challenges in designing and delivering education and training to police. There were numerous examples that indicated a lack of clarity about the concept under discussion generated through the consultancy.

Questions such as

What is harm minimisation? How does it relate to police work? What is it asking of police? (Participant issue recorded on post it note, Jurisdictional Workshop).

and

Can you clarify what drug harm minimisation means for the police service? (Participant, Jurisdictional Workshop).

were repeatedly asked at the first NRG and all subsequent jurisdictional workshops.

When a copy of a diagram in the National Illicit Drug Strategy which depicts harm minimisation as 3 interrelated circles inclusive of supply and demand reduction of illicit drugs as well as minimising health harms was tabled at workshops, police sought further clarification about the implications of this in terms of the priorities to

be given to different aspects within the National Drug Strategy. They asked questions such as:

Weighting of harm reduction: to community? User? Police?
Weighting of 3 circles/ supply/demand/ harm reduction? (Participant, National Reference Group, Workshop 2).

and wondered if harm minimisation was limited to drug use as some of them perceived the goal of policing and law enforcement was to minimise harm from a range of activity:

A focus solely on drugs will lose the utility of the harm minimisation concept. (Participant, National Reference Group, Workshop1).

There were no answers provided in the workshops to guide the curriculum design issues raised by questions about the relative weighting of content within education and training programs developed as part of the national framework.

Appendix 7 presents an analysis of 50 randomly selected responses to the open ended question “What would I have liked more of/about in my education and training as a police officer?” undertaken by the researcher in order to gain an understanding of how police were educated about illicit drugs at the time of the consultancy. This was consistent with the independent analyst’s report and enhances reliability of the findings.

In both analyses, only a few responses (less than 10 per cent) indicated there was a need for more information about the theory of harm minimisation. Responses to the question asking what police would have liked more of or about in their education and training confirmed indicated a need for post basic training courses. Respondents also made a number of recommendations about the content of any program to

enhance police response to illicit drugs. The most frequently identified content recommendations indicated a need for knowledge about referral agencies and their services, knowledge of trends in drug use, strategies for identifying specific drugs and information about their effect on users and behaviours associated with the use of particular substances. There was also considerable interest in the problems of users, suggesting police do have an interest in responding to user's needs.

The lack of perceived need for more information about harm minimisation may have been a result of limited awareness of the concept. However, in response to the question "What worked well in my education and training as a police officer?" only 17 responses in the independent analysis undertaken during the consultancy indicated police had ineffective or no training related to responding to illicit drugs and of the 50 analysed responses in this study, ten respondents indicated they had no formal training in issues related specifically to illicit drug problems at all. Of the 8 respondents who requested more information on harm minimisation related to policing, only 3 stated they had had no formal education or training about harm minimisation policy. These were predominantly from two jurisdictions and may support the findings reported in the literature review that there is widespread variance across jurisdictions in police education and training in response to illicit drug problems (Fowler et al, 2000). It may also be reflective of the age of the respondents and indicative that they did not receive this in pre-service training. The comments suggest this as they are introduced with "*I never had any formal training when I began*" and "*Things have changed in the last twenty years*". Nevertheless, it is indicative that there are relatively few police who have had no formal training in contemporary policy approaches that guide police response to illicit drug users. The

data in Appendix 5 indicates that there were 31 responses to the question “What worked well” which indicated police had formal learning about responding to illicit drug use however, these did not indicate that formal police education and training provides strategies for responding to illicit drug problems. Similarly, the analysis of the 50 responses randomly selected in this study indicates that police valued being educated about drug identification and legislation and policy (Appendix 8).

Educational literature increasingly acknowledges that in addition to what is taught, the process of teaching should itself be examined when evaluating education and training. A review of literature related to police education and training was presented in the second chapter of this dissertation. This indicated that police have historically focused on didactic approaches to teaching and learning, separated expert knowledge from practice knowledge, and emphasised teacher centred rather than student centred approaches to teaching and learning. During the consultancy, a review of police education and training in response to illicit drugs was attempted as there was a specific requirement in the RFT that this be undertaken. There were challenges in obtaining this. What was generated was a list of program titles and qualifications rather than descriptions of program content and teaching approach. It is unclear to the researcher whether this was because those questions were not asked or whether they were not answered when asked.

In addition to questions about content, a number of issues relating to the practice of education and training emerged during the consultancy. The theme ‘What is the main game?’ was also used to examine the extent to which the consultancy was intended to gain consensus about teaching approaches as well as to determine the

content of education and training programs for police as it is important to distinguish between the acquisition of knowledge about harm minimisation and the capacity to respond to community problems in practice. Police who responded to questions about their own education and training experience indicated overwhelmingly that they learnt about illicit drug use on the job, through mentoring from senior officers and from experience in the field rather than in formal training. Police educators indicated that they currently had very crowded curricula and faced demands that an ever-increasing range of content be included in the education and training programs they develop as one educator said at a National Reference Group workshop:

It is not only a problem of not knowing what is required, it is how to fit it all in. We have to teach policing strategies, gun control, arrest techniques, and procedures as well as pushing a new policy (Participant, National Reference Group, Workshop 2).

Despite a stated commitment to providing learning that was relevant to frontline police by members of the NRG, the suggestion that preferred processes of teaching and learning be documented as part of the educational standards that were a required consultancy deliverable created much debate in the NRG when the draft set of “Guidelines for Instructors” (see Appendix 9) were tabled. Police educators challenged the extent to which a set of guidelines for instruction should focus on the process of teaching and learning rather than simply present minimum content. It was disturbing that the person who wrote the consultancy brief on behalf of the sponsor and who was present at the time was unable to clarify if a set of standards for education should include more than content and had clearly not considered that educational standards may be process as well as content oriented. This became

apparent when debate erupted among participants at the Second National Workshop and the person who had prepared the RFT muttered to the researcher:

I'll have to check up on that. It never occurred to me... We just thought of content (Researcher notes, National Reference Group, Workshop 2).

Nevertheless, as indicated in the review of literature in Chapter II, some police educators are conscious of a need to change the education and training approach used in police education. There seems to be a dissonance between the militaristic, didactic approaches to education and training reported in the literature (and assumed by the consultancy team as underpinning police education and training) and the ways in which police prefer to learn. This dissonance in pedagogy has been captured in this study through the use of the theme 'What pieces do we use?'

D.2 What pieces do we use?

Those members of the NRG who were educators were not asked to disclose their personal teaching strategies during the consultancy. However, the debate about the draft guidelines for instructors developed by the consultants and presented at the second NRG produced interesting comments from those members of the NRG who were educators about the nature of the education and training in policing. The competing views within the education and training context have been clustered around the theme of as "What pieces do we use?". This theme captures issues related to pedagogical approaches such as didactic versus interactive approaches to content delivery and competency based education.

Analysis of data sets related to the education and training of police collected throughout the consultancy indicated frontline police perceived that effective

learning occurred where they had been exposed to learning that was situated in practice. This included sharing of experience with other officers and in-field experience.

The responses to the questions about what works well in police education distributed at the jurisdictional workshops are suggestive that few respondents experienced formal education that was consistent with student centred, interactive learning. The extent to which this is the norm in police education and training was not able to be identified. However, the data confirmed that police were frequently exposed to and valued on-the-job and experiential learning. It also indicates that a significant number of police undertake some self directed learning activity. There was evidence that police learn from interaction with non-police personnel, and those who use (or have used) illicit drugs and their families.

In addition to this, recommendations from participants in jurisdictional workshops about how to improve the conduct of the consultancy provided insight into what police seek from an educational experience. In response to the open-ended question about recommendations police would make to the consultancy team, police again responded in terms of both content and process. There was a perceived need to focus on relevance, interaction and flexibility as indicated by the exemplars below from a range of jurisdictional workshops:

Ensure that what is provided is relevant to police and acknowledges the situations we are in.

Education and training should be interactive and have a combination of on the job training and formal education.

Keep it short and uncomplicated and relevant to police.

Include medical and other health experts in development of content.

Include a police person with practice knowledge to write learning material.

Use the resources in the service: use distance education and district level training officers to do the training.

Stress the need to be mentored and supported when enforcing the law.

We need to be taught by experienced officers, not by each other, not by mistakes, and not by bad experience.

These general responses reflect police practitioners' need to have their voice and perspectives acknowledged, highlighted their valuing of practice and identified that police require regular training and education that is relevant and timely and contains content that is related to contemporary practice.

As well as issues related to content and pedagogy, the consultancy data highlighted the differing roles and expectations of police educators across and within jurisdictions. Data that provides evidence of this has been clustered under the theme of 'Do we belong on the board or are we players?'

D.3 Do we belong on the board or are we players?

That police value practical application and relevance in their learning has been demonstrated in this study and is well supported by a number of other studies. However, the extent to which the reliance on provision of education within police ranks enhances relevance or continues enculturation of police to ensure success at the policing craft and inhibit change in practice has not been resolved. Despite increasing recognition in the literature that educators and trainers are key personnel in bringing about organisational change, examination of consultancy data indicated

that, in addition to the curriculum challenges of adding content that is seen as contentious by some areas of police services to education and training programs, there is some degree of role confusion, isolation and powerlessness among those who would be required to deliver education and training programs within any national framework.

In this study there was evidence of educators and trainers being uncertain or ambivalent about their roles as change agents. For example, one experienced educator, who had previously spoken of the need for learning approaches that fostered critical thinking and situation based decision-making, commented loudly and derisively in the Second National Reference Group:

For God's sake! The last thing we want is thinking police. That will make everyone's life difficult!!

This was met with raucous laughter among those present and was interpreted by the researcher as highlighting the tension between police who educate and train as decision-makers or the followers of rules. The frustrations of some educators could result from the lack of alignment between the educational strategies some educators see as necessary to enhance police response in frontline contexts and the constraints of a practice environment in which the unsuccessful application of discretion frequently has dire consequences.

There was evidence that some police educators in the NRG did not think their practice should be subject to scrutiny, were reluctant to accept accountability, and were of the view that educators are instruments of policy implementation not policy development. This became obvious when educators in the NRG refused to accept

the terminology 'Standards for Educational Practice'. Rather, the group asked reached consensus on the term 'Guidelines for Instructors'. The rationale for this change in terminology was provided succinctly by one educator thus:

If you have standards and indicators, your performance can be measured and you can be accountable. I will not agree to any use of the word standards" (Participant, National Reference Group, Workshop 2).

Other educators agreed with this and concurred when the comment

We just do as we are told. We don't make the policy, we just teach about it

was made by another educator in the group. Only one educator (of senior rank) spoke out against this stating:

We are all in the service together. If we have policy that we or those we teach are not happy with, we should speak up (Participant, National Reference Group, Workshop 2).

During the consultancy, there were glimpses of police having a high level of cynicism and suspicion for those who are not sworn officers. This was hinted at through comments that clearly expressed distrust and suspicion of academics and policy makers such as:

Don't bother about going into the reasons etc of the project. If you get police to start talking about personal experience, they will open up more and more quickly. Police generally do not appreciate the bullshit associated with academics and policies (Recommendation to project team on Proforma 4, Jurisdictional Workshop).

and a conversation the researcher had with an educator participating in the National Reference Group:

You have to understand what is going on here. If you are not a sworn officer, you are not seen as having much to offer the service. As an educator I am seen to be OK only when I follow the direction of an officer and

provide a supporting role in education. Having a uniform makes you so much more credible (Participant, National Reference Group, Workshop1).

The data presented in this section of the chapter has revealed that, in addition to there being a lack of clarity about what the content of education and training programs that focus on the use of harm minimisation approaches in policing should be, there is a lack of consistency in learning experiences in police education. In particular, there is little evidence of police educators feeling motivated or empowered to change curriculum content or processes especially if they are not sworn officers. Police educators do not appear to have clarity and consistency in their role within policing services and this role seems to vary across and within jurisdictions.

A SUMMARY OF THE CONTEXT EVALUATION: POLITICAL, MANAGERIAL, FRONTLINE AND EDUCATIONAL COMPONENTS

At each of the jurisdictional workshops and the first of the NRG meetings, each participant was invited to identify issues of concern and post these to a board anonymously on 'post-it notes'. Table 5 presents an analysis of these when reviewed by the researcher and clustered into categories. Examples of comments used to inform inclusion in particular categories are provided.

Table 5: Analysis of Police “Post it note’ exercise conducted at 1st NRG and each jurisdictional workshop): Identification of context issues

| ISSUES RELATE TO: | Number of analysed responses (n=94) | Exemplar comments |
|---|-------------------------------------|--|
| Broad context | | |
| Interagency cooperation and need to overcome boundaries | 12 | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• The problem is system wide, we respond and the courts let them go to re-offend.• The judicial system not reflecting community attitudes. Resulting in frustration of police efforts. Judicial System lacks consultation with operational police.• Enhanced police responses based on “Harm Minimisation” depends on availability of services from other government agencies and inter-agency co-operation. |
| Conflict with perceived community expectations and attitudes | 4 | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• The wider community should be heard on this, not just the vocal minority. |
| Management of community perception | 7 | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• How do we justify this to the community who do not choose to be victims of criminal activity by drug users?• Who manages the media in all of this? |
| Concern that the project is a waste of energy and time | 4 | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• The project only deals with part of the problem• This is all a waste of time-more academic airy fairy stuff. |
| Questioning the extent to which compliance with any outcomes will be achieved | 5 | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• There is a big gap between “signing off” and full implementation. |
| Total | 32 | |
| Police Context | | |
| Need for culture change in policing | 6 | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• There are a number of attitudinal hurdles in policing to harm minimisation. |
| Perception that there will be confusion in police role as a result of the project | 9 | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Are we police or counsellors?• There is a conflicting message from Federal government and oppositions re. enforcement vs minimisation.• Clearly identify the role of police -Are we health workers or law enforcers? |
| Concern that involvement in the project will be resource intensive to | 7 | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Who develops the resources? |

| | | |
|---|----|---|
| police | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> How much involvement is required from jurisdictions-we already have enough to do, you know. |
| Conflict between performance plan outcomes and harm minimisation | 5 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Drug harm reduction is not a key target area in the jurisdiction OCR (performance plan). |
| Need to recognise that police are doing harm minimisation | 5 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> We are already doing all of this in practice. |
| Support for an education program for police in this area | 2 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Junior frontline officers need education and support in this. |
| Need for evidence of success of policy | 7 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Does any of the policy work? How do we measure evidence of success? |
| Issue re user as victim versus dealer as criminals | 3 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> How do we differentiate between dealers and users and users who deal? |
| Total | 44 | |
| Harm minimisation Policy | | |
| Need for explanation of definition in National Illicit Drug strategy | 0 | |
| Need for explanation of harm minimisation policy applied to consultancy | 2 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Is today about helping us to deal with druggies, or about pushing harm minimisation? |
| Need for explanation of harm minimisation applied to police practice | 8 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Clarify what harm minimisation means for police services. Police see harm minimisation as different to other service providers. Who will the term 'Harm Minimisation' apply to? Drug user? Community? Police? |
| Identification of short versus long term goals of harm minimisation | 2 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> What are the outcomes, who determines them- are they short or long term goals? |
| Legislative boundaries to application of harm minimisation principles | 1 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> What does this mean in terms of the law? |
| Total | 13 | |
| Educational program developed as result of consultancy | | |
| Need for more content knowledge about drug addiction, services available, other agency policy in an education program | 2 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> How do we access other services and agencies? |
| Concern about the nature of drug use and education about particular drugs being relevant to practice | 3 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> As quick as you develop an education program or a policing strategy to respond to drug use, the drug of choice changes- if you target heroin, amphetamine use increases. |
| Total | 5 | |

The majority of issues identified by participants during the consultancy workshops related to the context in which the consultancy was undertaken rather than the content of any educational program that may have been developed as a result of the consultancy or the process for education and training about enhanced response to illicit drug use. Data analysis confirmed that issues that were not related to educational content influenced police response to the consultancy in each data source examined as part of this study. This context evaluation has confirmed that issues in the national political and policy environment effects all levels of police and their response to illicit drug use.

It was noted that despite an espoused commitment to collaboration on the project from police, there were initial expressions of resentment and questioning of the motives behind the consultancy. However the level of antagonism expressed changed as the consultancy progressed. The reason for this change was not identified in the data collected during the consultancy although it is hypothesised that this change may have resulted from a need for police to be seen to concur with the policy direction to use a harm minimisation approach to illicit drug problems.

Data analysis indicated, that while police have made efforts to respond to the national policy that requires a harm minimisation approach to illicit drug problems, some elements of the police practice, policy, management and education contexts are incongruent with a national approach to education and training to illicit drug problems. Factors such as inter-jurisdictional differences in legislation and police practice, a desire to maintain jurisdictional autonomy, and the use of key performance indicators that relate to

enforcement roles rather than harm minimisation roles of police were identified in the data analysis process.

There was substantial evidence that police were aware of, and keen to report their attempts to practise within a harm minimisation framework when responding to illicit drug problems. There was also evidence that the nature of police practice is complex and the question of 'harm to whom' has not been explored adequately to provide clear guidance to police in prioritising responses to potential harm. The complex nature of frontline policing has been exemplified in the data presented. The complexity of the situations police respond to and the ways in which police use (or do not use) discretion in their individual encounters with illicit drug problems has been highlighted.

The context analysis revealed a number of other contextual challenges associated with the proposal to implement a national framework for education and training. The industrial impact of the proposal that police be required to undertake mandatory education and training was hinted at in the review of the data and, although neither this study nor the consultancy explored what these may be in depth, there was indication that the implementation of any national approach to police education and training would require further consultation with unions.

The context analysis also suggests that those who educate police are uncertain about their role as influencers of change in police practice, seek clarification about the priority to be given to education and training about illicit drug use in curricula, and may be operating from a different pedagogical perspective to that which frontline police appear to value. In

addition to this, while participants in the consultancy had a general awareness of the concept of harm minimisation, they had specific questions about its operationalisation within both education programs and police practice.

Having identified the contextual factors related to the consultancy and its intended outcomes, an analysis of the decisions made regarding consultancy inputs was attempted. Input related data about decisions specific to how and why this particular consultancy team was chosen to undertake the consultancy activity is scant. Nevertheless there was some evidence available to the researcher. The input evaluation that was conducted in this study is presented below.

INPUT EVALUATION

Guba and Stufflebeam (1970, p.48) assert that “the major objective of input evaluation is to determine how to utilize resources to meet program goals...The end product of an input evaluation is an analysis of alternative procedural designs in terms of potential costs and benefits”. Clearly then, at one level, an input evaluation of consultancy activity is the sponsor’s responsibility. In order to achieve meaningful input analysis there needs to be a shared understanding of the consultancy between the consultants and the sponsor.

Judgements about decisions made with regard to the consultancy that is under examination required access to decision-making processes prior to the contracting of the consultant. The researcher has been unable to access records related to this as they were the property of the project sponsor. She was also unable to ascertain the exact mechanism for the call to tender

or how many others submitted proposals, as this was perceived by the sponsors as a request for sensitive information that they were reluctant to release. However, an email from the project manager in the then Department of Health and Aged Care dated 14/03/02 confirmed that a select, rather than open competitive tender process had occurred when seeking interest in the project to develop a national framework for education and training to enhance police response to illicit drugs.

While the evidence to determine the basis on which the decision was made by the sponsors to appoint an external consultant and select the University/Police Education team is unknown, knowledge of the networks and alliances among key people suggests that selection of consultants may have been strongly influenced by historical factors and a desire to meet goals other than those made explicit in the tender document.

In a personal communication with the researcher (11th July 2003), the Director of the police agency indicated that irrespective of who won the consultancy, it would be essential to “*join forces with (the police education agency) at some time*”. Indeed, Recommendation 2 of “*Drug harm minimisation education for police in Australia*” states:

It would be appropriate to establish a national strategy...within the context of procedures used by National Police Professionalism Implementation Advisory Committee and The Australasian Police Education Standards Council and supported by national funds (Fowler et al, 2000, p.114).

Kelaher (1991) and Harris (1998) argue that the advantages in competitive tender process are considered to be innovation, flexibility in service delivery, greater focus on outputs and cost saving, however when the outcome is unsuccessful, or seem predetermined and controlled there seems little point in going through the tender process.

Turpin and Ngui (2000) assert that the conventional model of interaction between universities and industry/business has been based on one-way service, often initiated and sustained by personal links. In this case, there is evidence of professional contact between a number of people related to the consultancy prior to the invitation to tender. A personal communication to the researcher (dated 11th July 2003) from the Director of the police agency involved in the consultancy team confirmed a former associate of the Director of the university agency had suggested this consortium. The Director of the university agency had worked with this senior police officer as a consultant to assist in the development of a problem based learning curriculum into the pre-service programs in the jurisdiction in which he worked in 1993. That person was subsequently one of the authors of the report *“Drug harm minimisation education for police in Australia”*. There was also a more recent and ongoing professional relationship between the Director of the policing agency and the same person through committees that had sought to establish education standards for policing. The Director of the university agency was a member of an advisory committee to the police education agency.

It was recognised that the consortium of the two agencies involved in the consultancy partnership had limited direct experience in the field of alcohol and related drugs and thus a consultant with expertise in the alcohol and other drug field was invited to be a consultant to the team. In a meeting in October, 2000 at which all three members of the consultancy team met for the first time, the consultancy leader indicated that one of the authors of the report that was the precursor to the consultancy was nominated by the sponsor as a person interested in providing such expertise to the consultancy team. That individual was

consequently invited by the lead consultant to join the team as an advisor prior to submission of the Consultancy Tender.

This attempt to identify if an input evaluation was undertaken by the project sponsors is admittedly informed by sketchy data. The researcher sought additional information from the sponsor to clarify the decision-making process but this was denied. However, available data suggests that despite a commitment to transparency in government processes, there was, in this case, considerable reliance on past networks and alliances.

The attempt to ascertain information pertinent to decision-making by the sponsors in selecting the consultants and allocating resources has highlighted the challenges in conducting a post hoc evaluation study as data may not be readily available. Moreover, given the purpose of evaluation is to enhance decision-making and decisions about resource allocation have already been made by the time summative evaluation is conducted, it is essential that those who draw on post hoc evaluations such as this recognise that the goal of such evaluations is to provide guidance to future projects. This is essentially different to Guba and Stufflebeam's original application of CIPP in which input evaluation was intended to enhance prospective decision-making about input needs in educational programs.

PROCESS EVALUATION

According to Guba and Stufflebeam (1970, p48) systematic, periodic evaluation is necessary once implementation of the designed project has begun. They write the objective

of process evaluation is to identify limitations in project design or implementation. They present a useful set of indicators for process evaluation against which judgements can be made. The elements examined within a process evaluation consist of “interpersonal relationships...communication channels; logistics; understandings of and agreement with the intent of the program by persons involved in and affected by it; and adequacy of the resources, physical facilities, staff and time schedule.” (Guba & Stufflebeam, 1970, pp.48-49).

There were limited data sets that were suggestive of formal process evaluation being conducted throughout the consultancy. There were two changes that were identified from the original project plan but these were within the overarching commitment to the consultancy approach that was planned. The first of these were minor modifications to the consultancy plan made following the conduct of the first NRG workshop. These focused on re-allocation of tasks within the consultancy reducing time spent in workshops with the NRG. The other of these changes related to the intention to develop a website showcasing best practice in police response to illicit drug problems which was itself an additional product to the deliverables originally proposed in the response to request to tender. This additional deliverable was not adequately resourced and as a result a set of best practice exemplars of police response to illicit drug problems was not delivered. In an email dated 12/09/02 from the lead consultant to the project manager in the Department of Health and Aged Care, the consultant noted that in proposing the website as a deliverable, the consultants “were operating on some assumptions which turned out not to be entirely valid”. In that email, the lead consultant highlighted the difficulties in obtaining consensus about criteria for best practice in response to illicit drug problems. It was indicated that the

lack of agreement about what constituted best practice had resulted, both within and across jurisdictions, in criticisms of the reported practice examples that had been collected as exemplars. In addition to this, there were difficulties in obtaining legal and content advice to ensure that the practice described was reasonable, let alone 'best', practice. The lead consultant wrote

To turn what was essentially a data collection strategy about the experience of frontline officers into best practice examples in the absence of criteria that have been established and agreed upon has the potential to result in 'best practice' being rejected by the very police it wishes to persuade.

The email confirmed there had been a decision taken by the consultancy team to focus on techniques for supporting those who develop educational material in the consultancy at some stage during the consultancy. Thus, a CD ROM and set of resources for instructional designers was developed, not a website of police best practice. It is unclear precisely when this decision was taken or if the decision was communicated effectively to the project sponsor prior to the email to which the lead consultant was responding. In that email, the sponsor sought to justify the non acceptance of the Final Report of the consultancy on the basis that as the website of best practice had not been completed, the Report would not be accepted and the final payment to the consultancy team would not be made.

In addition to confusion about the intent of the consultancy with regard to the desired outcomes among the Steering Committee and consultancy team, there was also evidence of a lack of clarity in communication about the purpose of the consultancy. A number of police, particularly at the first jurisdictional workshop, came to the consultancy workshops under the impression they were on a training day about drugs. Comments from a number of jurisdictional workshops such as

Is today about learning how to catch druggies, or pushing harm minimisation?
(Participant, Jurisdictional Workshop) .

and

I am really pissed off, if you must know. I was sent here by my sergeant and told I would learn about the latest approach to drug problems. I thought we would be learning about drugs. I expected to see examples of the latest drugs (Participant, Jurisdictional Workshop- as he left the workshop after 2 hours).

reflected uncertainty about the purpose of attending jurisdictional workshops and the lack of clarity among police about the intent of the consultancy. Any attempt to improve communication within local area commands was seen (by the consultants) to be outside the sphere of influence of the consultancy team once this was identified as an issue.

The post project questionnaire (see Appendix 10) distributed to NRG members (n=24; completed response rate = 46%) sought summative feedback only. Analysis of the responses indicates that the integrity of the project methodology was maintained throughout. Section 1, Question 1 indicates a positive response to the inclusive/participative approach taken to the consultancy. On a scale of 1-4, the range of mean responses was between 2.50 and 3.23. Questions e, f, and g which centred on opportunity to discuss issues, acknowledgement of jurisdictional perspectives and information flow to the NRG were highly valued (means = 3.23, 3.23 and 3.05 respectively). In contrast to this, respondents indicated that the level and nature of the participation in the project was excessively demanding (mean response =3.00) and that, whilst they recognised opportunity for discussion of issues was provided, they questioned the extent to which discussion of issues was sufficient (mean = 2.27). One can see from the pattern of standard deviations from the mean in the post project questionnaire, that congruence among respondents

became less apparent as questions in the survey moved away from the focus of project process toward project outcomes.

Each jurisdictional workshop was evaluated using the proforma in Appendix 11. Aggregate data sets from returned evaluations were analysed. These indicated that the majority of participants felt included in the process of the workshop but there were some qualitative comments that indicated participants remained uncertain about the intent of the day and whether it was a worthwhile use of their time. No modification was made to the structure of jurisdictional workshops on the basis of feedback received. This may have been because each workshop was independent of the other (and hence the evaluation was summative for a particular encounter), or because there was a perceived need to adhere to the proposed workshop plan in order to maintain the integrity of the consultancy. Alternatively the lack of modification may have been due to a conviction that the workshop processes were of such high quality they did not require modification.

While this feedback suggests that the workshop process was adhered to, it is apparent there were insufficient and inadequate mechanisms to identify issues related to project management and quality control during the consultancy. For example, there was no evidence of a systematic approach to staffing of the consultancy in any of the planning documents reviewed. Although the budget had specified a number of activities that required staff other than the three members of the consultancy team, there was no evidence of a planned strategy to recruit additional personnel. Indeed, observation by the researcher and subsequent review of data sources suggested that there was an ad hoc approach to meeting the consultancy needs for additional staff. This resulted in fragmentation and duplication of

activity and a failure to recognise or be able to respond to the need for consistent administrative support. When seeking data from the consultancy for this study, the researcher found: gaps in information sources, incomplete translation of raw data to files on computers and repetition of activity by a number of people. Some people were called upon by the lead consultant to type data when they were not perceived as busy in their other jobs. At one stage, consultancy data were on five different computers. There was also evidence of duplication of data management as two people had typed up the same data set from the consultancy. That these were consistent adds to the strength of the findings presented above in the context analysis, but this was not an intentional occurrence. Some people who were brought into the consultancy commented directly to the researcher that they perceived the ad hoc approach to staffing resulted in delays and confusion. One commented:

I have been asked to work on a CD but I have no idea of what I need to do, who is the audience, what content needs to go in... It's no good giving me piles of information from workshops and expecting me to make sense of it and anyhow, when I did, it wasn't what was wanted (CD designer, comment entered in researcher diary date undocumented).

While another (who was the primary administrative officer to the project) expressed frustration thus:

I am either responsible for this or not. Giving bits and pieces to everyone makes me feel as if I am not doing a good job. Anyhow, they don't do it properly so I end up redoing it (Comment entered in researcher diary date undocumented).

The preparation of interim reports to the project sponsor had the potential to be a mechanism for communication and clarification. While the reports were prepared, there is minimal evidence of feedback from the sponsor on any of these except for one request for minor clarification in the first interim report and a request for clarification of a statement in

a discussion paper (email 30/1/01, from sponsor project manager). There was no further formal feedback from the sponsor that the researcher is aware of until an email in November 2001 in response to a request from the lead consultant seeking advice about the formatting style in which the sponsor would like the final report prepared. The project manager for the sponsor replied to the consultancy leader, in an email dated 11/10/01, thus:

The project team may wish to consider the following:

- *What were the objectives of the project?*
- *Did these objectives change for any reason?*
- *What did the project achieve?*
- *Is there any aspect of the project that you might have planned differently?*
- *What measurable outcomes can you identify that occurred as a result of the project?*
- *Could you have achieved these outcomes in a more effective way?*

and did not respond to the question regarding formatting style. When the Final Report was first submitted, it was returned with copious comments about the format not being consistent with the preferred government style.

In conclusion, the process evaluation conducted in this study revealed there was a lack of effective communication processes during the consultancy between the consultant team and the sponsors. There was also evidence that there was an ad hoc approach to staffing the consultancy and poor data management processes.

There was no evidence available to indicate there had been questioning of the appropriateness of the consultancy methodology nor was there evidence of capacity for variance in the commitment to the inclusive and participatory approach that was first proposed which is nested within a particular ideology about consultancy activity as an

education process. It seems that the crucial element of process evaluation was not adequately undertaken throughout the consultancy by either the consultancy team or sponsors.

The previous three sections of the chapter have presented data to indicate that the consultancy was undertaken in a complex environment that was impacted upon by a range of contextual factors, that there was little evidence available to the researcher to inform conclusions being drawn about how the decision to select the consultants was made, and that there was only minor variation to the implementation of the proposed consultancy approach. Elements of each of these inevitably impacted on the consultancy outcomes. A discussion of findings from the conduct of the product evaluation undertaken in this study follows.

PRODUCT EVALUATION

Guba and Stufflebeam (1970,p.49) describe product evaluation as providing “information for deciding to continue, terminate, modify, or refocus a change activity”. At the end of the workshops (but prior to the distribution of the CD ROM and Guidelines for Instructors) a post project questionnaire was designed and distributed to members of the NRG. Results of the post project questionnaire to NRG members indicated that although respondents felt the project was worthwhile and clearly related to policing, they were less certain that the project would make a difference to police education and training in response to the illicit drug problem (Question 2, K- mean =2.36) or that the project outcomes were achieved (Question 2, M- mean =1.86).

In response to questions about relationships between practice, policy and education (Question 2, O-Q) respondents were uncertain about the impact of the project on communication between people in education, policy and practice sectors.

Question 3 in Section 1 of the questionnaire specifically sought information about the deliverables of the project. The single most valuable deliverable was identified as learning resources to support education and training (mean =3.27). This was the largest mean throughout the questionnaire responses. However the standard deviation was 1.35 indicating variation within the range of responses that was greater than the standard deviation (sd) in questions about project processes.

There was also a wide range of deviation among means in questions that pertained to: the perceived usefulness of a standardized module on harm minimisation (Question 3, A 2- sd =1.45); the extent to which the report could be used by all jurisdictions as the basic framework (Question 2, A 4 - sd=1.56), and the application of the framework itself (Question 3, A 8- sd =1.56).

The questions (Question 3, A-D) seeking feedback about the National Framework indicated that respondents did not see it as applicable to, or consistent with, their present practice (mean =1.82).

Tangible products that emerged from the consultancy were a series of reports to the consultancy sponsor that included a set of guidelines for the implementation of the National

Framework, and a prototype of a CD for instructors and a web site about the consultancy activity housed on the Australasian Police Educational Standards Council web site. These were seen by the consultancy team to be congruent with the required project deliverables as indicated in Appendix 12.

The draft final report of the consultancy was submitted to the sponsors in December 2001. Feedback was received via telephone on 9th May 2002 which indicated the report had numerous editorial errors. On the 11th July 2002 the sponsor directed the consultancy leader to seek feedback from the external advisor with expertise in delivery of drug and alcohol health services. A rewrite of the report was undertaken and the editorial errors were addressed prior to submission to both the sponsor and external advisor in August 2002.

The external advisor had previously been sent all consultancy reports and been invited to provide feedback to the consultancy team but there is no record of this having been received by the consultancy team. On the 17th September 2002, the external advisor to the consultancy was requested by the consultancy team leader to respond to the rewrite of the report. On that date the external advisor replied that due to restructure in the organisation in which he worked and other large projects he would be unable to review material until November 2002. In an email dated November 8 2002, the external advisor provided the following feedback to the lead consultant:

*Overall, I do feel disappointed with the final outcome...
I feel the report has much in it on the description of the issues and the process that was used, but little on practical, behaviourally described strategies that I could employ as an "end user". What I mean is, if I put myself in the shoes of someone responsible for police practice development, there is little in the report that would use as a guide to developing drug harm reduction strategies...*

*Recommendation 7 does not make me feel confident that it would lead to enhanced content of education and training programs. I would expect the report to include guidelines on content, method of learning and case scenarios...*²

This feedback highlights the expectation that the consultancy would develop strategies for changed police practice in response to illicit drug problems, rather than establish a framework for education and training in which to locate practice strategies. It also suggests that the accompanying CD and booklet for instructors about the standards for police education and implementation of the guidelines were not read.

There is presently a dispute between the consultants and sponsor about the degree to which the project products met the intended outcomes and acceptance of the products by the sponsor had not occurred by February 2004. Thus, the website has been removed from public view and the guidelines for instructors and accompanying CD have not been distributed. Despite numerous attempts to ascertain why the products are unacceptable, feedback about the consultancy products have not been timely.

For example, the most recent letter between the lead consultant and project manager in the Commonwealth Department of Health and Ageing dated October 2003 refers to a telephone conversation between the two on 15th August 2003 reads:

²“*Recommendation 7*. The National Guidelines be adopted by all those engaged in workplace development to enhance response to illicit drug problems. It is further recommended that emphasis be placed on enhancing the ability of police supervisors and workplace trainers and assessors to promote lifelong learning as well as content oriented courses through the use of the Support Materials for Instructors. Minimum content should include:

- Management of drug affected persons;
- Management of occupational health and safety;
- Referral to other agencies; and
- Knowledge of legislation, policy and procedure.

Furthermore, the role of supervisors and workplace trainers and assessors in promoting best practice should be recognised and legitimised through other organisational processes such as adequate staff development and position descriptions that acknowledge this as part of their duties.” Excerpted from Final Consultancy Report submitted to the Sponsor.

The Department has some concerns with the final report and accordingly sought independent advice from a number of recognised experts in the field. This included an independent review of the useability of the training resources by the [one jurisdiction named] Police Education Department and the Drug and Alcohol Strategy Unit

The following feedback has been provided:

- *The CD is difficult to use and therefore not user friendly*
- *The scenario information is useful but difficult to locate*
- *The training materials are essentially scenario/discussion based and as such they are not suitable for recruit training as there is a requirement for recruits to possess previous knowledge and experience to be able to fully participate in the program*

and was accompanied by a request that the consultants undertake further activity in order to complete the project. This request was refused and resolution was sought through legal avenues. The accounts department of the university has advised the researcher that a final payment had been made following threat of legal action by the university, but there has been no further communication about the status of the Final Report or other products to date (April 30th, 2004). There has been no communication with the consultancy team members since October 2003.

Guba and Stufflebeam (1970) identify that outcomes other than those explicitly identified may occur. In this case, the consultancy appears to have provided some benefit to the police education agency involved in the consortium. On 24/01/03, the Director of the police education agency wrote to the researcher:

...I believe that the deliverables can, and will enhance police training and consequently practice... I look forward to final acceptance of the report so I can get on with distributing and promoting the guidelines...

You may be interested to know that Commissioners have recently agreed to the development of 'national training programs' (curricula) which, in conjunction with a review of competencies (to appropriately reflect harm minimisation issues as recommended in our report) and continuing access to best practice information (APPSC databases, regular national training developer and practitioner workshops) will see a much better coordinated and focused than ever before...A whole range of materials presented in an interactive manner will shortly be available on our web.

A significant barrier to progressing the implementation of the products of the consultancy as desired above was the delay in payment that occurred as a result of the dispute about the consultancy as the Director of the police education agency was reliant on the outstanding monies owed by the project sponsor to the consultancy team.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

The degree of challenge inherent in a consultancy to develop a national framework to enhance police education and training in response to illicit drug problems is exemplified in the following comment from a member of the NRG in response to open ended questions on the post project survey:

This was always going to be a complex project. To a large degree this is where 'the rubber hits the road' as far as police and harm minimisation is concerned. There is a range of factors outside of police E & T programs that impacts on the organisational change to be made by police.

This chapter has identified reported from the analysis of data in order to present illuminate a number of issues within the case study. The findings have been organised using the elements of the CIPP framework. Despite assertions that in a case study, "interest is in the process, rather than outcomes, in context rather than a specific variable (and) in discovery rather than confirmation" (Merriam, 1998, p.19), CIPP provided a useful framework for the case study as it offers a means to explore both processes and outcomes of the consultancy

to develop a national framework for education and training to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug problems. CIPP enables identification of factors that facilitated or inhibited the conduct of the consultancy and conclusions can be drawn about the effect of contextual, resource and procedural factors on the outcomes of the consultancy activity.

The findings indicate that a number of elements impacted on the efficiency and effectiveness of the consultancy. The findings of the study reveal that decision-making about instigating and delivering the consultancy could have been improved through more comprehensive context evaluation.

Input evaluation revealed there were limited data available to determine the nature of the decisions made about the selection of the consultant and justification of the allocation of resources. It was possible to trace a history of association among the key participants in this consultancy and others who may have been involved in decision-making about the awarding of the consultancy.

Process evaluation revealed that there was a singular commitment to a participatory and inclusive approach to the consultancy and little variance from the initial consultancy plan. There was also evidence that some systems and processes in the project management could have been improved, particularly data management processes.

It has been stated that the products of the consultancy were not accepted by the sponsor. The study reveals that there was a lack of clarity about the criteria against which judgements about the products of the consultancy were to be made as, despite the

consultancy team believing that all deliverables had been met, the outcomes of the consultancy remains unaccepted by the sponsor.

The study has revealed the extent to which barriers in the capacity of the consultancy to effect change in police education, training and practice were contextual. The interplay of contextual factors within police education and training, frontline policing, police management and policy, and political environments results in a need to consider strategies other than education and training in order to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug problems. The use of education and training as a mechanism to achieve change in police practice is recognised as limited.

As Sherman wrote:

There is no theoretical reason to believe that educated police officers would behave differently if the only aspect of their police department that is different is their own education. If education is only one of the many forces shaping police behaviour, then it makes little sense to expect educated officers to behave differently in otherwise traditional police agencies (Sherman, 1978, p.45).

The findings of this study are that the conduct of an external consultancy to implement change through the development of education and training programs is equally, if not more, limited. There was limited tangible return on the \$320,000 expended on the consultancy and a limited sense of efficacy for all stakeholders in the consultancy.

The next chapter of this dissertation explores the challenges within, and the barriers to, developing a national framework for education and training in response to illicit drug problems. The chapter draws upon the findings presented in this chapter to further highlight

the extent to which contextual and conceptual issues are powerful inhibitors of enhanced frontline police practice in response to illicit drug problems. While it may be argued that the findings of the study reveal that a more effective context evaluation may have led to a change in consultancy approach, or a decision not to undertake the consultancy, it is felt by the researcher that this was unlikely due to factors within the broad political context that are discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER V

IMPLICATIONS OF FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

Increasingly, educational research is informing decision-making about both educational policy and practice. (Keeves, 1997). This study describes, illuminates and informs stakeholders about the design, delivery and outcomes of the consultancy to develop a national framework for education and training to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug problems. The nationalisation of police education and training about illicit drug use that was desired by the consultancy sponsors was intended to bring about a change in frontline police practice to more closely align that practice with harm minimisation approaches to illicit drug problems.

The study aimed to:

- explore the capacity for education and training activity to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug problems;
- generate knowledge to inform sponsors and practitioners about the capacity of externally funded consultancy projects to effect change in police education and training and therefore, frontline policing practice; and,
- inform others who provide consultancy services in public sector organisations about the challenges inherent in undertaking consultancy activity intended to bring about a change in frontline practice through education and training.

In the study, Guba and Stufflebeam's (1970) framework was selected over the 1966 Stufflebeam CIPP model as the conceptual framework as it provides a rationale for the heuristic, exploratory nature of the study through its capacity to frame a discussion of the nature of change and evaluation. It has been identified in this dissertation that Guba and Stufflebeam's 1970 work facilitates an examination of the nature of change through exploration of the two parameters of the levels of understanding of the change and the degree of change required. Analysis of the study findings using these two parameters necessitates an examination of the macro-level context in which the consultancy was undertaken.

It has been argued that the use of CIPP as a framework to describe and analyse the consultancy activity provided a mechanism to meet the primary study objective which was to determine the extent to which the consultancy enables change in police education, training and practice. In order to do this, three enabling objectives were used. The enabling objectives of the study were to:

- Identify factors that impact on the conduct of national project to enhance frontline police response to illicit drugs through education and training
- Critically evaluate the design, project management and delivery of the consultancy
- Examine the products of the consultancy and comment on their congruence with the desired outcomes of the consultancy as defined in the RFT.
- in order to draw some conclusions about using education and training as a mechanism to implement policy-led, cross departmental change in the public sector.

The previous chapter has presented the study findings using the elements of the CIPP framework. The study findings highlighted the extent to which, despite an espoused commitment to both harm minimisation in response to illicit drug problems and the development of a national framework for education and training to enhance frontline response to illicit drug use, there were a number of barriers to progressing a national approach to police education and training. Analysis of information generated through the consultancy to develop a national framework for education and training to enhance frontline police response to illicit drugs was undertaken.

The rich description presented in Chapter IV was organised using the elements of the CIPP framework in order to illuminate the multiple influences on the consultancy. Chief among these are the responses of policing agencies to externally driven change instigated by the Department of Health and Ageing.

Data analysis indicated that participation in the consultancy was analogous to playing a game. The discussion of findings indicated that police had a number of questions about the consultancy, its processes and its intended outcomes. It was identified that there is a lack of clarity about the rules of the game; questions about the approach to be taken in terms of who the players are; uncertainty about the pieces and strategies that are used to engage in the game; and confusion about the desired outcomes of the game.

The findings presented in Chapter IV result in an increased appreciation of the challenges inherent in attempting to bring about change in frontline police practice through a consultancy intended to inform the development of education and training programs. The

findings also indicate that the consultancy did not meet the ambitious goal of determining appropriate mechanisms to achieve sustained change in frontline police practice. In this chapter, a 'meta-view' of the elements described in the previous chapter under the domains of context, input, process and product is taken in order to comment on how the interaction of factors within those domains impacted on the potential of the consultancy and its associated products to achieve the superordinate goal of enhanced frontline police response to illicit drug problems. Therefore, the discussion in this chapter is structured around each of the objectives of the study.

In addition to identifying issues specific to police response to illicit drug problems, the study raises a number of questions about the use of consultancy to bring about change and mechanisms for evaluating attempts to implement change. A summary of the findings of the micro-level review of the consultancy is first presented in order to address each of the enabling objectives. This is followed by an extended discussion of the interplay of the factors that impacted on the conduct of the consultancy; the approach taken in the consultancy; and, the outcomes of the consultancy, in order to address the primary objective of the study which was to determine the extent to which the consultancy enables a change in police education, training and practice. In doing so, the discussion in this chapter extrapolates from the micro-level evaluation findings of Chapter IV to examine the implications of the study from a macro-level perspective pertaining to attempts to implement cross-sectoral public sector change. By necessity, the findings of the previous chapter are revisited in order to illuminate the more general issues raised by the study.

This final chapter focuses on the extent to which an understanding of the degree and complexity of change is essential to guide strategies for effective and meaningful change in public sector organisations. The discussion in the chapter highlights the need to use appropriate evaluation frameworks when implementing change processes and argues that there is a lack of congruence between the nature of the desired change in police education and training in response to illicit drug problems and the expedient, restricted models of evaluation that dominate policy making (Husen, 1997). This chapter concludes that there are issues related to complexity, ownership and congruence of the proposed changes to police practice which were not addressed through the consultancy. Although it is possible that a more effective context analysis would have identified the need to address these factors, it is likely the consultancy would still have been undertaken due to stakeholders having vested interests in the consultancy other than enhancing police response to illicit drug problems. These stakeholder interests are discussed following the exploration of the issues revealed through the holistic review of the findings from Chapter IV presented below.

Summary of the findings related to the enabling objectives in the study:

Enabling objective 1: Factors that impact on the conduct of a national project to enhance frontline police response to illicit drugs through education and training

The context evaluation presented in Chapter IV indicated that there were numerous and wide-ranging contextual factors that impacted on the conduct of the consultancy. The data highlighted issues in the social and political environment, police management approaches and frontline police practice that could have been considered by either the consultancy sponsor or the consultancy team prior to undertaking the consultancy. Analysis of data

related to the context in which the consultancy was conducted revealed that the dominant issues were political and policy matters, not ones related to how education and training was to be designed and delivered within a national framework.

As was evident in Chapter IV, perceived tensions between police roles as law enforcers and the implementation of additional harm minimisation strategies remain. There is also a lack of clarity about whether harm minimisation strategies were inclusive of, additional to, or superordinate to, supply and demand strategies; concern there has been inadequate recognition of the extent to which police have already operationalised the concept of harm minimisation in their practice, and a sense from police that the community and policy makers do not recognise the diversity and complexity of frontline police practice.

Factors such as inconsistency between police performance indicators and enhanced frontline response to illicit drug use, variance between jurisdictions in legislation and policy, and difficulty in managing competing community expectations were confirmed throughout the consultancy as impacting on police response to illicit drug problems. The present study has highlighted that these factors were well known to the project sponsors and police prior to the call to tender for the consultancy.

Internal change often begins with a problem the organisation has identified and that creates discomfort for some members of the group (Hall & Hord, 2001). However, the consultancy to develop a national framework for education and training to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug problems was externally driven change. This study has revealed that the attempt to introduce change external to the police organisations has resulted from, and

in, dysfunctional change processes which are manifested through emphasis on blame, arguments about why change will not work, and disagreement regarding the nature of the problem (Fuqua & Kurpius, 1993). The findings reported in Chapter IV of this study have revealed that, in response to a change in government policy, police at all levels engage in strategies that are consistent with defensive and protective behaviours. These included:

- appearing to comply with the rhetoric of harm minimisation but doing little to address conflict between police management practices and the goals of harm minimisation;
- being highly protective of their role in law enforcement and their jurisdictional autonomy;
- claiming to be scapegoats in order to deflect criticisms and questioning of them as an organisation or individuals;
- questioning the intent of the education and training framework;
- challenging health to provide evidence of the outcomes of their strategies.

It is clear that there is strong and pervasive, yet implicit, resistance to the adoption of harm minimisation to illicit drug users as the dominant approach to enhanced response to illicit drug use among those police who participated in the consultancy. Some of these behaviours could be interpreted as being because police services are dominated by those who believe that illicit drug use is deviant and should be 'punished'. However, the analysis of the context of frontline policing undertaken in this study indicates that police (at all levels) are often placed in unenviable positions when responding to illicit drug use.

Examination of the stories from frontline police highlighted the need for individual officers to use discretion in frontline situations and to make decisions in context-specific situations in which there are often a multitude of offences being committed, not solely illicit drug use. This lends support to the view taken in the consultancy that any education and training about illicit drug use should be grounded in the examination of practice based situations and elicit learning about decision-making in the context of frontline practice. This study has confirmed that policy-led innovation that fails to acknowledge the context of frontline practice perpetuates the policy-practice gap and fosters resistance to change.

The relationship between policy development and political influence is inevitably one that impacts heavily on public organisations such as police and health. This study revealed that although there is the rhetoric of a ‘whole of government’ approach to the National Illicit Drug Strategy and the associated adoption of a harm minimisation approach to illicit drug use, the reality is that there is little understanding among police or other government agencies of the police role in supporting this beyond existing strategies of supply reduction, non attendance at drug overdoses, and referral of those who possess marijuana for personal use to treatment programs rather than presenting to court. Indeed, other than increased compliance with these policies, it is unclear what an enhanced response to illicit drug problems by frontline police would look like. There has been no viable alternative response to current police practice proposed. Additionally, there have been few systematically conducted studies of how the changes police have already implemented have had demonstrable, positive impacts on the work of operational police.

Determining what an improved police response might look like and then evaluating education, training and practice outcomes against indicators of enhanced frontline response requires clarity and consistency in the role of the police in response to illicit drug use as well as in the definition of harm minimisation. The current study revealed police did not believe their role was one of public health worker, rather it was one of maintaining public safety in a framework where safety was limited to short term outcomes. Additionally, while there is previously well documented and recurring tensions between the police role as law enforcers and narrow definitions of harm minimisation as the reduction of health related harms to those who use illicit substances, the study has highlighted how failure to adequately provide direction about how police can continue to operate within legal frameworks yet minimise harms can be used to perpetuate the resistance to change in police practice.

The issues raised through the review of consultancy data indicate that a number of wide ranging contextual factors impacted on the conduct of the consultancy. These factors have been well documented in previous activity undertaken under the sponsorship of the Department of Health and Ageing (see Fowler et al, 2000). This study has demonstrated that these factors have not been resolved, nor do they seem likely to be in the short term. It is apparent that while there has been a change in thinking about drug use among some groups within public health who argue for a harm minimisation approach to illicit drug use (see Cheung, 2000; Hamilton & Rumbold, 1998) there is potential for divergent interpretations of the term harm minimisation among police and health (Gomart, 2002). This study raises questions about the extent to which proponents of the harm minimisation agenda, the sponsors of the consultancy, and the consultants themselves were prepared to

acknowledge and respond to the challenges that accompany nesting frontline police response to illicit drug problems within a harm minimisation approach.

Enabling objective 2: An evaluation of the project management and delivery of the consultancy

Review of the data generated through the input analysis presented in Chapter IV indicates that some tentative conclusions can be drawn about how the sponsor and consultancy team processes could have been improved. The findings presented in Chapter IV, identified that much of the information pertinent to decision-making about the selection of the consultancy team was not available to the researcher. However, there is evidence that the consultancy team was required to submit a consultancy plan and costing and that this was adhered to throughout the consultancy.

A number of project management issues in terms of staff allocation and document management were raised during the input analysis. The small scale incremental change identified in the study as being required to address these issues in project management issues is consistent with quality improvement processes and can be categorised within what Guba and Stufflebeam (1970) would class as implementing decisions. Strategies that may have enhanced project management related to inputs include: improved communication among consultants; establishing a core team of administrative staff who were well briefed in the intent of the project and their role in supporting it; improved data management; and ensuring that staff involved in the support of the project felt this was an important and valid activity for them to be engaged in as part of their work for the university.

More significant issues arose in terms of the management of the consultancy by the sponsor and the capacity of the consultants to modify the approach taken in the consultancy. While the researcher is not privy to the decision-making of the sponsors in selecting the consultancy team, there is indication that there was a lack of transparency about the selection of the consultancy team and that previous affiliations influenced the creation of the consultancy team and its subsequent selection.

The management of the consultancy by the sponsor could have been improved through timely and meaningful feedback to the consultancy team. While a Steering Committee was established to provide oversight of the consultancy, as indicated in Chapter IV, formative feedback was scant and there was considerable delay in feedback from the project sponsor with regard to the Final Report.

The study has also revealed the difficulty some members of the NRGs and participants at jurisdictional workshops had with what they perceived as a nebulous and inefficient means of conducting a consultancy. Data analysis has demonstrated that while the focus on process and participant engagement in the consultancy served to highlight the nature of police practice in response to illicit drug problems and the challenges that confront educators and trainers in attempting to teach people content to assist them in dealing with the complexity of responding to illicit drug problems in frontline practice, the degree to which the approach taken in the consultancy was able to move participants beyond identification of issues to resolution of issues was minimal. The consultative approach taken during the consultancy drew upon the experience of frontline police and was valuable

in terms of collecting evidence that police work was complex but offered no new strategies to police about how to respond effectively in context.

Additionally, criteria for best practice in policing, in particular in response to illicit drug problems, remain ill-defined. There was an initial commitment to collecting best practice exemplars to showcase in educational materials developed as a result of the consultancy, however the development of best practice exemplars proved to be dependent upon a sound knowledge base of police policy and procedure and legislation related to a range of activity. This expertise was not evident in the consultancy team membership nor readily secured from those police to whom identification of best practice was delegated.

This may well have been because police feel that their current practice is best practice as there is insufficient evidence of there being viable alternatives to current practice. That is, other than an ideological argument about the need for police to respond to illicit drug problems differently, and examples where practice could have been improved, there is no collective sense among police that there is a need to radically change their response to illicit drug problems. They do however express a willingness to explore options and alternatives within their existing paradigm of law enforcement. As Kuhn (1970, p. 77) writes about those who are confronted with paradigm shifts, “Though they may begin to loose faith and then to consider alternatives, they do not renounce the paradigm that has led them into crisis. They do not, that is, treat anomalies as counterinstances, though in the vocabulary of philosophy of science that is what they are.” (p.77). Coupled with this, the sponsors (who sought a greater focus on harm minimisation in police response to illicit drug problems) have not provided adequate evidence of the preconditions for a paradigm

shift in response to illicit drug use. Kuhn has argued that amidst the gradual adoption of an alternative paradigm, there is “proliferation of competing articulations, the willingness to try anything, the expression of explicit discontent, the recourse to philosophy and to debate over fundamentals...” (1970, p.91). The evaluation undertaken in this study has demonstrated that there are elements of these preconditions within policy that guides response to illicit drug use. There is not, however, a similar level of engagement by police despite some interest at managerial level in policing in examining alternatives to imprisonment for illicit drug use.

As has been noted in Chapter IV, the products of the consultancy remain unaccepted by the sponsor and there appears to have been no communication with police who participated in the consultancy about the status of the consultancy. It is likely that continued delay in providing feedback to police about the consultancy increases the likelihood of disinterest in the outcomes among the police.

Enabling objective 3: The congruence of the project consultancy with the desired outcomes as defined in the request for tender.

It remains unclear what police expected or desired as an outcome from the project, and delays in disseminating products will perhaps increase the sense of cynicism apparent among police about projects sponsored by the Department of Health and Ageing. A more effective and consultative context evaluation prior to planning the consultancy (by both the sponsor and consultancy team) may have clarified police expectations of the outcomes. Nevertheless, the product evaluation presented in Chapter IV revealed that despite a commitment to practical outcomes by all in the consultancy, there is little evidence of this having been achieved at the point of time that the study was undertaken. What was

perceived by the consultants as useful outputs from the consultancy (i.e. the National Guidelines for Instructors and a CD ROM about the development of practice based learning resources about illicit drug problems) have not been disseminated because of the non-acceptance of the Final Report by the Department of Health and Ageing. In part this may be because of a difference in understanding of what constitutes a useful and desirable product between members of the Department of Health and Ageing and the consultancy team. It is apparent that the consultancy team valued a set of guidelines and resources for police to develop their own learning material as worthwhile and desirable outcomes. Those on the Steering Committee from the Department of Health and Ageing who evaluated the summative report (including the person who was the external content advisor to the consultancy team throughout the consultancy) were more focused on products that recommended specific content related to policing strategies for responding to illicit drug problems. Their preference seemed to be for the development of mandatory education and training programs for frontline police and their supervisors which identifies 'correct' police response in ways that are consistent with harm minimisation to users of illicit substances.

Despite the consultants being able to demonstrate that they had met the deliverables of the consultancy, these differing expectations result in tensions between stakeholders who evaluate the consultancy as each is determining the success of the consultancy from different frameworks. While the consultants were keen to explore the context of policing through the use of participatory processes in the conduct of the consultancy, the sponsors sought different evidence of a return on their investment and questioned the degree to which the consultancy outcomes met their perception of the requirements of the tender.

It appears that from the Department of Health and Ageing's perspective, the intended focus of education and training programs for police in response to illicit drugs is one of increasing knowledge and awareness about harm minimisation as a philosophy. Implicit in this is a belief that increased knowledge about harm minimisation will produce attitudinal change among police towards illicit drug users. Despite recognition that enhanced frontline performance is best achieved when police are given education about strategies to use in complex contemporary practice situations (Lonsway, Welch & Fitzgerald, 2001), the literature and the examples of current education and training of police put forward during the consultancy indicate that formal police education and training in response to illicit drug use continues to focus on the theory and policy related to harm minimisation.

Perhaps even more significantly, the study has revealed that the advocates of health harm minimisation continue to ignore the constraints placed on police response to illicit drug use by the law and that there is frequently concurrent illegal activity being undertaken by illicit drug users.

The issues raised in the discussion of each of the enabling objectives in the study has indicated that, while there were areas of improvement to be made in the project management approaches during the consultancy, these were not primary determinants of the capacity of the consultancy to determine change in police education and practice. Rather, the major factors that impacted on the potential for the consultancy to effect change in police education, training and practice were contextual and conceptual. The following section of the chapter identifies how contextual and contextual factors shaped the extent to

which the consultancy could have influenced a change in police education, training and practice.

A DISCUSSION OF THE EXTENT TO WHICH THE CONSULTANCY ENABLED CHANGE IN POLICE EDUCATION, TRAINING AND PRACTICE

The primary objective of this study was to determine the extent to which the consultancy enables change in police education, training and practice. It has been acknowledged previously that the consultancy validated rather than progressed the earlier work done by Fowler et al (2000) and that the sponsor of the consultancy did not see the consultancy as effective.

However determination of the success or otherwise of the consultancy depends upon the evaluation framework used and there is a need for congruence between evaluation frameworks and the nature of proposed change. In this section of the chapter, Guba and Stufflebeam's (1970) work is revisited in order to highlight the application of the concepts within the framework to the conduct of the consultancy. It is argued that when inappropriate evaluation frameworks are used, there is potential for continued incongruence between policy direction and program implementation because of the ongoing use of evaluation frameworks that do not adequately consider the type of change that is desired.

A meta-analysis of the findings presented in Chapter IV under the domains of context, input, process and product evaluation has enabled identification of three broad concepts that impeded the adoption of a national framework for police education and training to enhance frontline response to illicit drug problems. The complexity of policing practice, the

lack of ownership by police of the proposed change, and the lack of congruence between police and health ideology and practice in relation to illicit drug use are contextual elements that have not been adequately acknowledged nor addressed by those who are keen to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug problems.

Weick (1995) asserts that metaphors are useful tools through which to represent the interrelationships among abstract concepts. He argues that the application of metaphor is particularly useful when used to assist in creating a concrete sense of organisations and the multiple phenomena within them (Weick, 1995). Therefore, each of the contextual elements referred to above and the interrelationships among them is elaborated upon below using the metaphor of a game of chess.

Complexity- It's in the moves of others

Examination of the practice situations collected in the consultancy emphasised the complexity and tension in the lifeworld of frontline police. The data presented in Chapter IV highlighted the complexity of frontline police practice and the numerous and competing agendas of frontline police that influence frontline police responses to illicit drug problems. Based on the findings in that chapter it is concluded that the determinants of frontline police response to illicit drug use are:

- the nature of the frontline situation in which drug use is occurring
- formal and informal educational preparation for response in context
- legislative and policy frameworks within the police service
- support for decision-making within the organisation
- community values and attitudes regarding illicit drug users

- conceptualisations of police practice in response to illicit drug use.

Frontline police progress toward enhanced response to illicit drug use based on these determinants in much the same way as one plays chess. Their response is shaped by the moves of others as well as their own decision. Through analysis of the frontline situations described by police participants during the consultancy, it has been shown that police encounter illicit drug use in situations that are associated with other forms of illegal activity and that there is a lack of congruence between police management strategies and the rhetoric of harm minimisation.

Factors that impacted on frontline police response to illicit drug problems included the nature of the offence being committed, the behaviours being demonstrated by the offender, and officer's personal experience of support for his/her decision-making in the organisation. The lack of systemic support for discretionary decision-making by frontline practitioners was alluded to by participants in the consultancy. They perceived that there was support for discretionary decision-making when the outcomes are positive and desirable. This was in direct contrast to punitive responses within the police organisation (or from outside agencies toward the organisation), to those decisions made by frontline police that do not have favourable outcomes. The complexity of decision-making in a frontline environment that always has competing (and sometimes conflicting), political, social, cultural, legal, and fiscal demands has been demonstrated in this dissertation. The findings presented in chapter IV confirm that police practice requires an ability to make decisions in contexts in which there are numerous considerations to be made and multiple criteria against which frontline decision-making will be judged. For example, there is

apparent tension between creating a learning culture within police practice and the need to make effective decisions in practice.

There is considerable literature published about the need to be supportive of colleagues in decision-making and recognise the complexity of practice as a key element in establishing a learning culture in an organisation. However, the challenge inherent in delineating the need to foster a learning culture and maintaining a culture that has accepted standards for safe practice remains. There is inevitable tension between supporting and fostering the development of practitioners, and being able to provide a public service that is capable of action in complex situations. While the philosophy of the consultancy team was to suggest an educational approach that fostered critical thinking and exploration of situations, the potential for this to result in inaction in context, or a lack of timely action as one waits to see others' moves, needs to be acknowledged.

The lack of success of the attempt to develop the eight sets of situation based learning material intended to demonstrate best practice examples during the consultancy suggests that police themselves may be confused as to the 'correct' action in any given situation. Best practice frontline policing in response to illicit drug use appears to be a set of moves that are highly dependent on the interaction between frontline officers and the other 'pieces' on the board. The complex nature of police interaction with illicit drug users makes determining the 'right move' difficult. As in chess, although the rules of engagement are documented, the choice of strategy is dependent on one's understanding of the game, the relationship between the pieces and the consequences of one's moves. In addition to a focus on education and training as a strategy to achieve change, effective change in practice

requires the active engagement of personnel who have the ability to remove the obstructions created by the rigidity of the rules. This study has highlighted the extent to which the differing and complex behaviour of players other than educators and learners makes attaining the goal of the game (ie enhanced frontline police response to illicit drug problems) difficult.

Moreover, it is apparent that the 'right move' might not always be a 'good move'. The determinants of a 'good move' in frontline situations requiring a response to illicit drug use is dependent on the view of the players who control the moves of the pieces (in this case, police supervisors and policy makers), about the effectiveness of the move. The complexity in what constitutes a 'good move' is compounded when police agencies are struggling to maintain ownership of the chessboard. The concept of ownership and the extent to which it impacts on police education, training and practice is explored below.

Ownership: It's my go first

Coupled with the complexity of frontline police practice, the discussion of findings in Chapter IV highlighted the resentment among police to the Department of Health and Aged Care entering their territory and attempting to dictate how frontline police would respond to situations involving illicit drug use. There was a sense among police that the consultancy was about scapegoating police for having failed in what was their area of expertise and therefore they were being directed by another area of government about how to act in the practice of policing.

Despite police changing their names from force to service or organisation in some jurisdictions, their sense of themselves as enforcers of the law remains strong. Both the police and the community perceive the primary role of police is to fight crime (Drummond et al, 2000; Redshaw, Mawby & Bunt, 1997). Police do not see themselves as public health workers. Although they do see their role broadly as protecting the public and thereby reducing harm, it is through strategies such as supply reduction and their individual application of discretion in situations. When applying this discretion, they are influenced by their knowledge base obtained through formal education and training, but they balance this against the lived experience of policing, their knowledge of the police organisation, and their perceptions of community standards. This shared experience of policing provides the exemplars that determine the rules of the game and the roles and responsibilities of all members of the police agencies. In doing so it creates and defines a unique scope of practice for policing and strengthens and maintains the sense of unity and community within police culture.

In this study, there is evidence that the need for police to ‘protect their patch’ and maintain their autonomy has led to a lack of commitment to a different response to illicit drug use at senior management levels within police services. While there is a rhetoric of compliance with policy changes that are congruent with harm minimisation, there is evidence of simultaneously impeding the implementation of policy change directed by health throughout the organisation. It is clear that despite an espoused commitment from police to enhancing frontline response to illicit drug problems, there is a sense that this will be done on police, and not health, terms. Thus, frontline police are pawns on the chessboard and while the struggle for ownership of policy direction occurs between the main players of

health and police, they remain uncertain of the moves they should make, or if they should move at all.

Although police in the consultancy that was the focus of this study did not disclose they would not comply with a change in policy in response to illicit drug use, there is evidence in other studies of police practice that, irrespective of who 'goes first' or 'owns' policy, frontline police will move independently. For example, Novak, Alarid and Lucas (2003) observed that frontline officers act as street level bureaucrats and decide whether they will comply with or sabotage organisational activity. They found, in a sample of 445 American frontline police officers, that over 50% of respondents felt they were not respected by the community, 60% were uncertain about or agreed that police had reason to distrust citizens, and 78% rejected the notion that supervisors should determine the daily activity of frontline officers. Given this, the challenge in persuading police to engage in proactive ways to respond to illicit drug use is not only to have police accept the direction of another agency in response to illicit drug use at policy level, but to have frontline officers operate within that policy.

It is imperative that there be evidence collected and disseminated that will create a sense of ownership among police about an enhanced response to illicit drug problems. The present emphasis on evidence from a health perspective does little to convince police that they can meaningfully operationalise the concept of harm minimisation and reinforces the view that their practice is directed from another government department. Additional research into the effectiveness of harm minimisation strategies needs to be conducted. However, this must be

from a conceptual framework that is congruent with the police understanding of their role in responding to illicit drug problems and produce benefits in police practice.

It is possible to conclude that education and training that targets frontline police and their immediate supervisors is futile unless that education and training is congruent with the roles and functions of police; cognisant of the history and culture of policing; supported by an evidence base that is consistent with the police world view; and, compatible with the responses to illicit drug problems expected by the community from frontline police. The issue of police role congruence emerged strongly in this dissertation. There needs to be more evidence collected about the public view of illicit drug use and their perception and expectation of police in response to this. While there is a strong body of literature about community attitudes to drug use, and some examples of the community's perceptions of what constitutes harmful drug use, there is limited evidence of what the community expects in response to illicit drug use. Hanusek & Raymond (2001) assert that standards typically present the details of what is expected, create boundaries or domains for attention and provide a mechanism for measurement of performance. It is apparent in this study that the standards for effective police response to illicit drug use remain ill-defined and are highly dependent upon community expectation.

The police role survey (Boni & Packer, 1998) presents a useful discussion of how police and public perceptions differ on a range of police activity. This study examined police activity in general terms such as enforce the law, attend domestic violence, respond to public disturbance, protect the public through crowd control, and enforce traffic law. It did not specify illicit drug use as a factor in some of the behaviours to which police were

required to respond. A repeat of this study approach which was specific to community expectations of police when they respond to illicit drug problems would be useful in the Australian context.

Despite a rhetoric that the main game is to respond in enhanced ways to illicit drug problems, there are clearly struggles to ascertain who sets the rules and who goes first in the game among health and police agencies. In addition to this conflict between health and police about ownership, there is confusion about who are the players in the game. During the consultancy there were differing perceptions about the extent to which police educators do (or could) contribute to change and the extent to which their role is directed by others in the organisation. Data sets in this study have indicated that police educators are not sure whether they are key players or pieces to be moved on the board. Hence there is a lack of clarity about which personnel in police agencies are to take a leadership role in implementing a change in police education and training in order to enhance frontline response to illicit drug use. Moreover, there is a lack of clarity about the direction in which to lead a changed response to police education, training and practice in response to illicit drugs. This has been conceptualised as a lack of congruence.

Congruence: What does the board look like and what are the rules

It has been observed that innovation in public sector has changed from establishment of new services to the processes of “enhancing, rethinking and expanding existing service programs” (Backer, 1988, p.18). There is substantial evidence in the data presented in Chapter IV that there is poor interface between health and police sectors in practice. Despite the assertion that when dealing with persons affected by alcohol and other drugs,

“police can be seen as the gatekeepers of both the health and criminal justice system” (Potas, 1994, p.6), police who participated in the consultancy that was the focus of this study rejected this and sought confirmation of the boundaries of policing. In addition to this, there was some evidence that police felt their job would be easier if there were more health resources to support them rather than investment in education and training in a philosophical approach to illicit drug use with which they were already familiar.

Essential differences exist between the health perspective and police perspective on illicit drug problems. These reflect the dominant paradigms in health and police practice and are rooted in the social responsibilities and expectations of each organisation. The differences are evident in the philosophies underpinning practice, the interpretation of harm minimisation as a concept, and the nature of engagement of the professional with the illicit drug user.

Police agencies have been identified as resistant to change and perceived as an innovation smothering organisations (Longbottom & van Kernbeek, 1999, p.281). While many of the reasons proffered in the literature for the reported resistance to change focus on communication mechanisms, a lack of internal marketing of reform that fosters resistance to change, and large bureaucratic structures, the findings of the present study suggest there are more fundamental factors that result in resistance to a change in police education and training and practice in response to illicit drug problems. These relate to confusing and conflicting debates about the role of policing agencies in society. In this study, there is evidence that police have resisted a national framework for education and training to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug problems, in part because the change was

externally directed and did not acknowledge the complexity of police practice. There is also evidence that the proposed changes are outside police understanding of their roles and responsibilities and are inconsistent with the way in which police define policing.

Ruderman & Grason (2002) write of need to align change with the conceptualisation of work. While health would argue that it has moved from a cure to a care basis in response to illicit drug problems, police are required by law to interact with and exert authority over drug users who commit crime. There was no evidence in the analysis of situations that police were predominantly engaged in activity in which the drug user's only crime was illicit drug use. It must be acknowledged that police who described their practice during the consultancy may have filtered out situations in which they did arrest people solely for possession and/or use of illicit drugs. However, the situations described indicated that illicit drug users were also engaged in criminal activity such as theft, domestic violence and anti social behaviour.

A prime factor in the context in which the consultancy was conducted is the apparent tension between police and health views of appropriate responses to illicit drug use. The review of literature in Chapter II of the dissertation provided an overview of the significant change in thinking, largely among the health-related professions, that has occurred in response to illicit drug problems in the community. The literature review identified that contemporary health policy has embraced the ideology of harm minimisation. However, there remains a lack of consensus about the priority to be given to the reduction of harm to the individual user of illicit substances when this use impacts on the broader community as is often the case when police encounter people with illicit drug problems. A synthesis of the

findings of the present study indicates that there are competing and conflicting world views about responding to illicit drug use and these lead to an incongruence in police and health paradigms about illicit drug use and users. The lack of congruence is related to differences in beliefs about addiction, indicators of success, and the social reconstructions of health as a caring service while policing is portrayed as dominated by hierarchical and authoritarian thinking.

Addiction is often a chronic condition that requires long term treatment and is marked by frequent occurrences of relapse and non-compliant behaviour (McLellan, 2002). There is evidence that suggests that while long term treatment for substance abuse results in reduction of the use of psychoactive substance use, total abstinence from drug use is a relatively infrequent outcome (Des Jarlais & Hubbard, 1999). Health care workers in the field of alcohol and other drugs acknowledge this and incorporate it into their daily practice. Among health care workers who engage with illicit drug users there has been increased acknowledgement of the limitations of the biomedical approach to management of illness. The emphasis on the biomedical approach and its consequent emphasis on cure have been recognised as resulting in a focusing on the pathophysiological and pathopsychological dimensions of the person presenting for treatment and involving episodic intervention rather than continuous care (Baumann, Deber, Silvermann, & Mallette, 1998). In health care service delivery there has been increasing awareness of the need for a team approach to managing complex health problems and a recognition that, unlike cure, care “is continuous, varies in intensity, and consists of a host of interdependent actions” that are rarely mutually exclusive (Baumann et al, 1998, p.1040).

Police, on the other hand, expect quick transition from drug use to abstinence and an associated cessation in criminal activity. While a health care worker may be delighted with a 50 % reduction in overall drug use in a client, police do not see this as meaningful if the person continues to engage in criminal activity (even though there might be less criminal activity by the individual). The sense of difference between police and health is compounded by the perception among police that some illicit drug users engage with health professionals as a means to avoid the consequences of the legal system.

Competing philosophies, life systems and cultures are apparent between police and health agencies. The findings of this study enabled generalisations about these differences to be made by the researcher. These are presented in Table 6.

TABLE 6: Contrast between Health Care Worker and Police World Views and Educational Approaches

| Health care workers | Police |
|--|---|
| Argue they provide a health care service | Are required to enforce the law |
| Respond to individual clients | Focus on meeting community expectations |
| Enhance health outcomes | Reduce/prevent crime |
| Client engages by choice (sometimes to avoid law) | Encounter with drug using individual is always in context of illegal activity |
| Have moved from ‘cure’ to ‘care’ approach | Seek to solve immediate short term problem |
| Claim to have a collaborative partnership with drug using client | Have a power- coercive relationship with drug using client |
| Health workforce education | Police workforce education |
| More familiar with process oriented learning approaches and see teacher as facilitator of learning and organisational change agent | Remains embedded in hierarchical model of teaching, educators teach what they are told to teach, teachers are expert providers of knowledge |

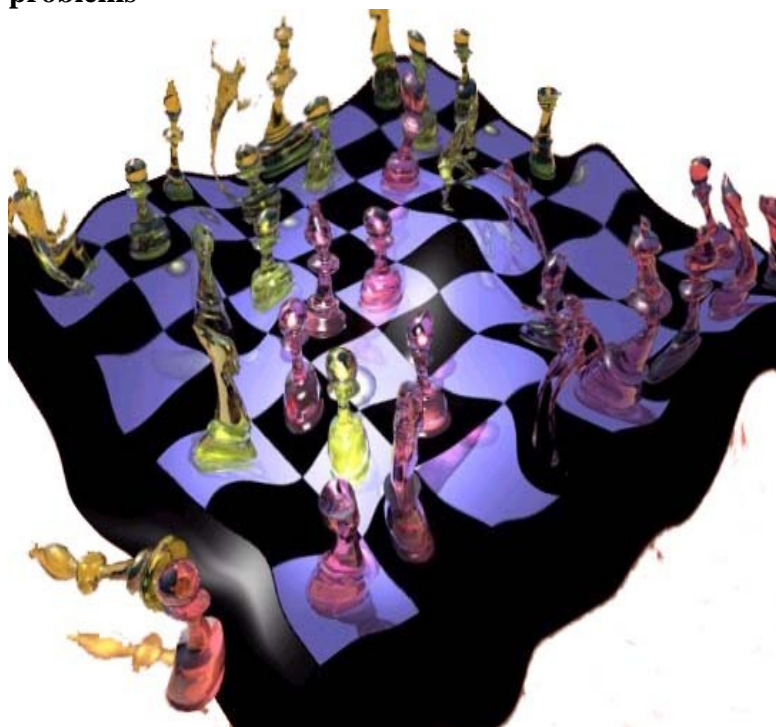
The central thesis of this dissertation is that the ‘game’ of enhanced response to illicit drug problems is taking place on two different boards: one which has rigid parameters, roles and

functions and boundaries of practice and one which is evolving and emerging as thinking about illicit drug problems changes. This can be represented thus:

Figure 4: The historical role of police and health agencies in response to illicit drug use



Figure 5: The current state of play between police and health in relation to illicit drug problems



In each of the diagrams, the two teams of players, health and police can be viewed as having opposing views about concepts such as cure and care; freedom and coercion; reduction and abstinence. The first diagram represents the historical role of police and health agencies. Each has operated within their own rules and squares on the board, with limited interaction and occasional wins and losses. The findings of this study indicate that the likely outcome of the present game is 'checkmate' between health and police response to illicit drugs unless there is a uniform approach to illicit drug problems that accommodates both police and health world views.

The second image depicts the movement from that state of 'agreement to disagree' to the current state of play between police and health in relation to illicit drug use toward that shared direction in a new game. Not only are the pieces in turmoil, but the entire board is changing and, the lines of demarcation are blurred. However, the pieces retain their different colours and their original shape.

Education and training requires the interconnectedness of four key elements: teachers, learners, the learning task and learning environments (Armour & Fernandez-Balboa, 2001, p.105). In funding the consultancy to develop a national framework for police education and training, assumptions were made that through manipulation of set of learning tasks within a national framework for education and training, the other elements would fall into the 'interconnectedness' required to facilitate change in practice through education and training.

The daily working lives of police constitutes the broad learning environment. The context evaluation undertaken in this study has highlighted the extent to which aspects of the lifeworld of police have been shown to be inconsistent with both the creation of a positive learning environment and a different response to illicit drug use. In doing so, the study has highlighted the difference in police and health world views of illicit drug use and demonstrated the enormity of attempting to bring about change in police practice through education and training.

The study has also raised a number of issues related to the use of external consultants, sponsored by an external agency, to bring about change in an organisation. The next section of this chapter revisits Guba and Stufflebeam's 1970 work in order to demonstrate that the lack of shared understanding of the nature and degree of change required in police education, training and practice impacted on the capacity of the consultancy to effect change or to create a sense of efficacy among stakeholders.

This section is followed by a discussion of the context in which the consultancy was undertaken. That discussion demonstrates that, despite this study providing evidence that the decision to use external consultants with no experience in frontline policing of illicit drug problems was unwise; that an effective context evaluation would have revealed that the consultancy was unlikely to achieve the sponsor's intended goals; and, that there is a need for a rethink about the implications of additional use of harm minimisation approaches to police response to illicit drug problems, there are factors in the political environment that make it highly likely that governments will continue to expend funds on consultancy activity such as that which was the focus of this study.

GUBA AND STUFFLEBEAM REVISITED: WHY DID THE CONSULTANCY NOT CREATE A SENSE OF EFFICACY AMONG STAKEHOLDERS?

Few authors in contemporary literature attempt to comment on the implementation of externally directed large scale change that is at dissonance with the core concepts underpinning an organisation. The previous section of this chapter has demonstrated that extent to which recognition of

- the complexity of practice into which change is to be implemented;
- the need for a sense of ownership by and within the organisation that is the focus of change; and,
- the congruence between paradigms of practice

is required to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug problems.

This dissertation has highlighted the degree of large scale change that is required in police education and training to achieve a change in practice. The dissertation has provided evidence that there is resistance to change in police education, training, policy and practice when this is seen as being initiated by sources external to that community of practice. Such resistance is further entrenched when there is limited clarity of the intended outcomes of the change and its implications for police and the community; when the change is seemingly at odds with current legislation as police understand it; when it negates that the reasons police come into contact with illicit drug users is that they are committing other criminal activity; and, when the concept of harm minimisation and its application to policing are poorly articulated. The dissertation has highlighted the progress police are making in attempting to

find ways to respond to illicit drug problems in their communities and the diversity of illicit drug problems across the country and within jurisdictions. In doing so, the study has confirmed the consultancy team's recommendation that a national framework for standardised education programs for police education and training can only be described in terms of a set of principles that need to be operationalised in each jurisdiction as there is a need to recognise the range of situations in which police encounter illicit drug users.

While the consultancy sponsorship was predicated on a belief that police should change their attitude to illicit drug users to attitudes that are more consistent with harm minimisation principles, the consultancy data did not demonstrate that police in general held a negative attitude to illicit drug users. The data did, however, provide evidence that they were cynical about what they perceived as unclear guidelines for response to illicit drug use within a harm minimisation approach and ineffective strategies to respond to illicit drug use.

In addition to highlighting the dissonance between health and police frameworks for responding to illicit drug problems and identifying the challenges in using education and training as a mechanism for change in police practice, this study raised a number of issues about the use of consultancy to bring about change in an organisation and the frameworks against which such consultancy is to be evaluated. The study has clearly indicated that police operate from a different framework to health at the frontline level and indicated that the sponsors of the consultancy, the Department of Health and Ageing, held what Guba and Stufflebeam (1970) would describe as a utopian view of the change that could be achieved through the consultancy process. The study has provided evidence that there was a desire at

national policy level for police practice to become more aligned with health oriented frameworks, yet the mechanisms for achieving this (and the extent to which this is feasible beyond existing strategies) were not well thought out. This is consistent with what Guba and Stufflebeam (1970) have referred to as metamorphic change.

Guba and Stufflebeam (1970, p.42) write that metamorphic decision-making is utopian and “aimed at producing complete changes in an educational system. Its guiding basis is overarching theory.” Metamorphic change is best attempted in decision-making settings where there is both high understanding of change and a large degree of change required. In sponsoring the consultancy to develop a national framework for police education and training to enhance frontline response to illicit drugs, factions within the Department of Health and Ageing have “assumed that adequate theory and information are available for effecting whatever utopian changes might be desired” (Guba & Stufflebeam, 1970, p. 42). What this study has revealed is that there was low understanding of the large scale change required for police to operationalise a harm minimisation response to illicit drugs by the Department of Health and Ageing and others as the decision-makers proposing the implementation of a national framework for police education and training to enhance frontline response to illicit drugs. The success of the early, pragmatic goals of preventing the spread of HIV and Hepatitis C (see Fitzgerald & Sowards, 2002) as the consequences of illicit drug use has led to assumptions that the theory of harm minimisation is transferable across all situations in which harm related to drug use occurs and to a broader set of harms than minimising incidence of blood borne diseases related to drug use. This study has demonstrated that the push to apply the principles of reduction of harm to increasingly

diverse situations without a sound understanding of the implications of such a theory-led change will not succeed.

Proponents of the harm minimisation approach in health agencies would argue that they do understand the nature of the proposed change. However, the findings of this study confirm that there is limited application of the theory of harm minimisation to operational policing and that, were the theory to be more widely applied, there would need to be significant change in police practice and management.

The input evaluation conducted in this study provides clear evidence of a commitment to a participatory, process oriented approach to consultancy by the consultancy team. Evaluation of the strategies used during the consultancy demonstrates there was no attempt to move away from this approach. What is unclear is why a consultancy team that had no content expertise in contemporary policing or experience in education about responding to illicit drug use should have been invited to tender for the project by the Department of Health and Ageing. There is evidence that the approach used in the consultancy enabled confirmation that the decision-making setting in which the consultancy occurred requires the application of heuristic and exploratory processes that are consistent with implementing neomobilistic change. The nature of change was poorly understood and the degree of change was large. The process evaluation in this study revealed that the use of this approach to the consultancy stemmed from an equally utopian commitment to a specific approach to consultancy rather than from a capacity to design or modify the consultancy on the basis of the decision-making setting in which the consultancy was to be undertaken.

In addition to tensions between police and health agencies about policy direction and practice in response to illicit drug use, the context evaluation in this study has also revealed that police education and training continues to be nested in a pseudo-militaristic, hierarchical approach to education and training that is heavily reliant on a teacher centred, police practitioner as expert police educator, model of education and training. This is in direct contrast to the critically reflective approach taken in the consultancy and recommended by the consultancy team as the future direction of police education and training in response to illicit drug problems. This compounds the mismatch in values and beliefs among stakeholders in the consultancy.

The reliance on the ‘expert as information giver’ approach to teaching and learning in police education and training is suggestive of an education and training system that is heavily dependent on adherence to routine and collection of data for what Guba and Stufflebeam describe as homeostatic decisions. Homeostatic decision-making, according to Guba and Stufflebeam (1970, p.42) is aimed at “maintaining the normal balance in an educational system and is guided by technical standards and a routine, cyclical data collection system.” In the case of police education and training in response to illicit drugs, data collection within a homeostatic decision-making framework would place emphasis on throughput (number of people exposed to education and training about illicit drugs), attendance records, achievement data on standardised knowledge tests, and the mechanism for including what is perceived as additional content in an already full curriculum. Despite the limited data related to how police evaluate their education and training programs available in this study, there was evidence of these practices throughout the consultancy.

Guba and Stufflebeam (1970, p.54) claim that where decision-makers are convinced their decision-making is adequate and accurate, such as in the case of homeostatic or metamorphic change, they seek evaluations that are focused on program content and routinely monitor this as the primary indicator of successful program implementation. Given this, it is hardly surprising that those who operate from a framework that values acquisition of program content as an indicator of successful program implementation would have difficulty in accepting the Final Report of a consultancy that actively engaged participants in questioning the application of harm minimisation to police practice. Similarly, a consultancy team that is so committed to an examination of the applicability of harm minimisation to police practice and to exploration of the relationship between police practice and police education and training as was the one in this study, may well overlook valid concerns of sponsors regarding its failure to meet the intended ends of the consultancy, irrespective of how well defined these may or may not have been.

The most effective and transformational consultants often aim to leave the organisation with the capacity to independently respond to its directions through assisting “leaders and members to effectively conceptualise the mission, structure and purpose of their organisation” (Kurpius, Fuqua, & Rozecki 1991, p. 21 cited in Fuqua & Kurpius 1993, p. 608) in order to sustain innovation. While this was the intent of the consultancy team, and does appear to be occurring incrementally as police organisations address issues related to illicit drug problems, the extent to which the consultancy was facilitative of this is unable to be determined. Given that police agencies have been embroiled in discussion about both harm minimisation and education and training for a long time, the consultancy may have served to increase the profile of these issues.

Other authors have identified facilitators of successful change as including elements of shared vision and ownership achieved through incremental, low scale change within an organisation. They suggest that change is unlikely to be successful when it is policy driven and politically motivated. Kezar & Eckel (2002), in an examination of change theories, argue that political models of change have a long history of not achieving realistic solutions in context and note increasing interest among those who explore change in cultural and social cognitive approaches to change. They argue these approaches to change integrate acknowledgement of ambiguity, recognition of context specificity and incorporate the human aspects of change (p. 435). This study has revealed that the context of frontline policing is complex, impacted upon by multivariate factors at all levels of policing, and that there is ambiguity about the concept of harm minimisation applied to police practice.

The need to acknowledge the human aspects of change have been highlighted in this study. Resistance to change by police has been reported. This resistance to change has been explored at length in this study and conclusions have been drawn that indicate the resistance to change stems from a dissonance between health and police frameworks for response to illicit drug use. It has been argued that no amount of investment in education and training will work when the organisation does not feel in control of the change, does not see an alignment between the proposed change and its purpose and when the education and training approach used in the organisation fails to acknowledge the reality and complexity of frontline practice.

Furthermore, this study has provided evidence that there is ambiguity in employing a consultancy team with a commitment to a particular emphasis on exploring the context of policing and rejecting the outcomes of that consultancy process. The consultancy team's commitment to a democratic-participative process may have been at odds with the authoritarian-expert process expected, indeed desired by some stakeholders. Nevertheless, the consultancy process generated a number of issues that suggest the development of a national framework for police education and training to enhance frontline police response to illicit drugs is an example of what Guba and Stufflebeam (1970) determine to be neomobilistic change.

This study has reinforced what numerous other authors have said about implementing change and demonstrated that the simplistic and fragmented views of small scale change in one system will not result in large scale change. This is particularly the case when a comprehensive understanding of the consequences of the change has not been achieved. For example, a change in police education and training is not likely to produce a change in practice unless there are broader system changes in terms of key performance indicators and policy dissemination. Novak, Alarid, and Lucas (2003, p.58), in writing about adoption of community policing say that "Successful implementation of community policing will be compromised if officers do not fully understand community policing, see the policy as void of pragmatic benefits, and do not believe citizens are willing to participate in crime prevention strategies." The same applies for harm minimisation in response to illicit drugs.

The study has highlighted the extent to which response to illicit drug use is "subject to changing, health, crime and social care discourses" (Bunton, 2001, p.221) and unpacked the

complexity and disjuncture in the context in which the consultancy was conducted to identify that not only was utopia unrealised, it was unrealistic.

Cohen and Brand (1993.p.61) have suggested there are important differences between public and private sector organisations. They write that “Public-sector organisations typically operate in fluid, highly politicized environments-intensely scrutinized by the media, forced to adhere to a number of rigid rules and constraints, and are often subjected to the changing views and needs of elected officials.” Thus, there are a number of unique challenges in introducing change in public services. As this evaluation has demonstrated, the debates between health and police agencies are long standing and subject to political forces. The next section of the dissertation explores the extent to which consultancy activity itself is subject to political forces and argues that, in addition to the game between health and police about responding to illicit drug use, each of the three stakeholders in the consultancy had a vested interest in participating in the consultancy game.

GAMES WITHIN A GAME? WHAT WAS THIS REALLY ALL ABOUT?

The study has indicated that many of the issues raised by the consultancy have a long history and are well known. One needs to question the motives of players in engaging in the game of consultancy activity itself (Steane & Walker, 2000). My reflection on the issues suggests there were three games within the consultancy other than the ‘main game’ of enhanced response to illicit drug use. One is what I perceive to be the Department of Health and Ageing’s game and relates, in part, to the issue of ownership of the ‘main game’ of responding to illicit drug use. I have termed this game ‘Right is might’. Another, the game of engaging in consultancy activity, I have termed ‘Can I play too?’. The game of the third

group of stakeholders, the police, relates to the nature of change they are prepared to engage in and I have termed this 'Watch us play games.

Right is might

Analysis of data obtained in the consultancy suggests that police are well aware of the potential harm that is created when users engage with the criminal justice system; that they are irritated by a lack of recognition of their progress in changes in education, training and policy; that they are frustrated at the lack of success in their attempts to enhance their response to illicit drug problems; and that when they do try and enact policy to minimise harm, there is inadequate support for those efforts in real terms. The review of literature indicates that these issues were well known to the Department of Health and Ageing prior to the call for tender to develop a national framework for police education and training to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug problems.

The study has indicated there are differing paradigms shaping police and health response to illicit drug problems and that there has been, at best, a failure to adequately acknowledge this. On the basis of the evidence within the literature and the present study, I would argue that the consultancy was in part generated by the arrogance of some vested interests in the Department of Health and Ageing; from the enthusiasm for recognition of drug and alcohol work as an important part of health care service provision; and from a desire to validate the work of specialist drug and alcohol services in health care and the community. The goal of this 'game within the game' is validation of the policy of harm minimisation and domination of the nature of service delivery by certain sections of the health care workforce for their own political purposes. The literature related to response to illicit drug use in

Australia repeatedly argues a need to acknowledge drug and alcohol work as a specialised area of practice and for increased numbers of specialist drug and alcohol workers in all areas frontline practice in Australia (Roche, 1998; Topple, 2001). While on the one hand, there is a very real need for more services to be provided to people with problems of addiction, on the other there should be a questioning of the degree of specialism and the associated numbers of specialist workers required to address the needs of the drug using population. It is possible that one of the desired outcomes of the consultancy was affirmation of the work of drug and alcohol service providers, in particular those who work within a harm minimisation approach to addiction. Similarities can be found in the literature that explores the history of mental health services.

For example, Godin (2000) writes of a re-emergence of the “carative” discourse in mental health care. This, it is argued is not a response to the care versus cure debate that is frequently found in health care literature. Rather, it reflects a movement away from acknowledging the coercive–control elements of the “dirty and dishonourable” work of interacting with people who have mental illness. Godin asserts that it is this sanitisation of coercive-controlling behaviour which results in the mystique of care and the creation of a set of values that portrays health care workers as “good cops” who purportedly act as client advocates and engage with clients through “persuasive, clean work”. Nevertheless, while health providers sanitise their work, “on the periphery of the rationally ordered procedures of medical and social work lurk exigencies that call for the use of coercion.” (Bittner, 1990, p.127).

The need to differentiate health care from coercive intervention has been particularly important in establishing the credibility of those who work with the mentally ill and drug users. Health workers who engaged with these populations in asylums and other institutions were historically perceived as little more than an extension of the criminal justice system who provided custodial supervision (Berridge, 1999 cited in Yates, 2003).

Godin refers to the work of Etzioni (1975) to conclude that despite a rhetoric of care when working with the disenfranchised in society, the power-coercive relationship continues to dominate health service provision, masked by concepts of holism and advocacy. In a similar vein Gomart (2002) explores the care versus coercion dichotomy in the management of people with drug addiction and argues that some proponents of harm reduction have nested their arguments against legal sanctions for drug users in the user's ethical right to freedom of choice and freedom from coercion. This, it is argued, has resulted in the emergence of specialised health care practice for those who use illicit drugs that is based on a definition of harm reduction that defines what it is not, rather than what it is. Drawing on the work of Valleur (1992, 1998 cited in Gomart, 2002), Gomart asserts that a focus on the dichotomy between freedom and coercion has driven the debate about response to illicit drug use, and that the central tenet of this debate has been that in applying coercive strategies to respond to illicit drug users, legal constraints deny basic human rights.

Following this argument, the polarisation of the health and legal responses to drug use could be seen to be nested in a view that proponents of harm minimisation are inherently more ethical than proponents of legal sanctions to illicit drug use and that 'Right is might'.

If this were to be the dominant view in a clash of theoretical frameworks, it is quite possible that a belief in the 'high moral ground' contributes to the ongoing limited recognition of the context of police work in relation to illicit drug users. I suggest that this results in a continued, sustained and paternalistic effort by health agencies to direct police activity in response to illicit drug use and perpetuates the single minded approach that continues to overlook the contextual issues that have been widely identified in literature; were well documented in the report by Fowler et al to the Department of Health and Aged Care (Fowler et al, 2000); and have been confirmed in this dissertation. It could be argued that health agencies seek to separate their philosophy of practice from one of 'policing' an individual's behaviour, and seek to validate their valuing of choice through providing evidence they are not as coercive as police.

Evaluation of the consultancy to develop a national framework for education and training to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug use has also revealed that there were a multiplicity of networks and allegiances involved in the call for tender for the consultancy. It seems this is common practice in tendering for government funded activity and is discussed below.

Can I play too?

The theme of 'Can I play too?' relates to the context in which consultancy activity for government is undertaken by universities. At the time the consultancy was undertaken, there was considerable uncertainty in higher education in Australia. In recent years, the functions and management of universities have been under increased and continuing

scrutiny and Australian universities have been encouraged to become more entrepreneurial and to seek income from non-government sources (Turpin & Ngui, 2000).

A significant shift has occurred in the mix of funding sources over the last two decades with direct revenue to universities provided by the Commonwealth Government being around 60 per cent of total revenue (Gallagher, 2000; Hoare, 1996). Hoare (1996) reported that this resulted in changes in the nature and role of university activity. Universities have been forced to become more dependent on outside funds to support teaching and research activities. Access to funding for research in universities has become much more competitive than in the past (Nelson, 2002) and increasing proportions of available funds provided by Government agencies for research are being directed for specific purposes such as the consultancy to develop a national framework for education and training to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug problems. Universities compete for health-related research funding from the Health and Ageing portfolio, including the National Drug Law Enforcement Research Fund and the Research into Drug Abuse Program. As well as, or perhaps, because of, this financial imperative to engage in external activity, universities are increasingly philosophically committed to active engagement with industry (Gallagher, 2000; Nelson 2002). Despite this Turpin and Ngui argue that most partnerships between universities have

...remained 'arms length' relationships, with relatively little consequence for the culture, the traditions, the objectives and the practices, of either industry or the universities. They are essentially marginal to the mainstream business of the organisations, and hence can be comfortably organised and managed without threat or change to established beliefs and procedures (2000, p.15).

Within the broad context of upheaval and uncertainty in the higher education sector and policing agencies, the two organisations involved in the consultancy collaboration were each seeking to secure their financial and institutional futures. A high profile, Commonwealth funded project met the needs of both organisations. Despite the findings of this study indicating that a more effective context evaluation may have increased the consultants' awareness of the complexity and challenge in the project and influenced the decision to accept the enterprise, it is probable that the consultancy would still have been undertaken as there was a need for both parties to generate income and each was seeking kudos from the consultancy. Perhaps what neither of the consultant organisations anticipated was the extent to which 'You can keep playing if...' exists in the incestuous world of consultancy despite the rhetoric of transparency in public service tenders. Given that the consultants were invited to tender and advised by key stakeholders to collaborate with each other in order to increase the likelihood of them being successful, they should not have been surprised that there may be consequences to not playing the game in the way the sponsors expected it to be played.

The third set of stakeholders with a vested interest in this consultancy game was the police organisations. Review of the data generated via the inclusive and participatory processes of the consultancy elicited evidence that the type of change police organisations will engage in is related to the perceived need for change and the nature of change with which police services engage. I suggest that police participated in the consultancy game, not simply because it would have been foolhardy not to, but because participation in the consultancy enabled them to give the impression of being willing to participate in change while

validating why they should not change. I have examined this under the title of ‘Watch us play games’.

Watch us play games

There are some examples in the literature that suggest police can be very responsive to community needs through implementing education and education and programs to large numbers of staff in relatively short time frames when they see it as congruent with their role or essential to protect the image of the organisation. For example, Project Beacon (see Comrie, 1999) which emerged as a result of negative publicity in Victoria to fatal police shootings, achieved program development implementation and review with the retraining of greater than 8000 staff within six months. It is argued this was because the program was accepted highly by police for the following reasons:

substantial input into by operational members into the design of the course, and an awareness of the benefits. Ownership of the 'attitudinal change' program was the first step in a long term culture shift... differed from previous police training programs mainly in its integration of, and balance between, the various components of the course (Comrie, 1999, p.210).

Clearly, police organisations have not been this responsive in the development and implementation of education and training programs to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug problems within a harm minimisation framework. Stein (2000) suggests that opportunity to learn is an outcome measure of effective policy change. The relatively slow response to change in police education and training in response to illicit drug problems when harm minimisation has been the guiding principle of drug policy for almost twenty years is suggestive of policy failure. In writing about the push toward community based policing, Zhao, Lovrich, & Robinson (2001) argue that community based policing is seen

as a “way to force police agencies to respond to new social and/or political demand” through fostering civic engagement (p.366) and observe that there are two different approaches to change: contingency and institutional.

Findings in this study suggest that the clash between health and police over response to illicit drug use is not only based on their different roles and functions. The extent to which police cling to their institutional (and institutionalised) perspective of change as opposed to a contingency based perspective of change also dominated the consultancy.

Contingency change is a “cyclical process in which

1. An initial fit exists between an organisation and its environment
2. Environmental change results in disjuncture between structure and strategies in operating conditions
3. Organisation performance worsens, occasioning organisational change in response
4. If performance improves, a new structural and strategic equilibrium is institutionalised by the organisational decision-makers.” (Zhao, Lovrich, & Robinson, 2001, p367).

Contingency change is essentially an adaptive response to new demands on policing from the environment and results in a change in organisational behaviours, structures and priorities. The primary driver of such change is its sensitivity to immediate social problems. While health seems to have an initial fit with the harm minimisation approach in order to reduce health related harm such as HIV and Hepatitis C, this study has validated that police do not have such an initial fit.

In contrast to contingency change, institutional change is seen as heavily dependent on the legitimacy given to an institution by societal expectations of the organisations. These expectations then determine role of the institution, its functioning and its jurisdiction

(Meyer & Scott, 1983 cited in Zhao, Lovrich, & Robinson, 2001, p.368). Institutional change includes developing a range of strategies to harness and maintain public support, build legitimacy and create a sense of organisational stability. To this end, a raft of new programs symbols and rituals are undertaken by the organisation yet the core objectives and functions of the organisation remain the same (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). Zhao et al refer to the claims made by authors such as Bittner (1972) and Klockars, (1998) and Manning (1998) to claim that policing has not adopted a contingency approach to change, nor is it likely to do so, because its singular, distinctive legitimacy from that of other organisations is its authorisation to use coercive force. Perhaps this is why police in this study were so determined to emphasise the role of police as enforcers of drug law being so totally at odds with harm minimisation approaches to illicit drug problems. In doing so, they are seeking to maintain and validate what di Maggio and Powell (1991, p.64) have termed the organisational field which encapsulates the stakeholders, sponsors, regulatory authorities and service in any organisation. di Maggio & Powell (1991) caution against homogeneity in service provision and use the term isomorphism to describe the result of pressure on “one unit in a population to resemble other units that face the same set of environmental conditions” (di Maggio & Powell, 1991, p.66). It is acknowledged that the community may not want over alignment of police and health services to the point of homogeneity. However, the cry of homogeneity in service provision can be used to quite effectively resist change (Hanson, 2001) and thus reinforce the status quo (Aldrich, 2000).

RECOMMENDATIONS TO EMERGE FROM THE STUDY

This dissertation has presented a single case study of the consultancy to develop a national framework for police education and training to enhance frontline response to illicit drug problems. The study provided rich description and analysis of the context, input, processes and products of the consultancy and revealed that the context in which the consultancy was undertaken was replete with dissonance, disjuncture and dysfunction. The dissonance, disjuncture and dysfunction in the consultancy has been demonstrated through the use of Guba and Stufflebeam's CIPP framework to organise the presentation of the study findings. The analogy of a game was used to exemplify response to illicit drug use and identify the main issues in the consultancy which related to the context in which "the game" is occurring; the goals of the game; the strategies of the game; and the mechanisms for determining if those strategies and goals are appropriate.

Although the study is about a single consultancy, there are numerous, interrelated recommendations that emerge from this study. These relate to the adoption of harm minimisation as a preferred response to illicit drug use in Australia; police practice, education and training; and the conduct and evaluation of consultancy activity as a strategy for change. This section of the dissertation explores the issues to arise from the study and is organised around each of the aims of the study. The study aimed to

- explore the capacity for education and training activity to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug problems;

- generate knowledge to inform sponsors and practitioners about the capacity of externally funded consultancy projects to effect change in police education and training and therefore, frontline policing practice; and,
- inform others who provide consultancy services in public sector organisations about the challenges inherent in undertaking consultancy activity intended to bring about a change in frontline practice through education and training.

(a) *The capacity for education and training activity to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug problems*

This evaluation of the consultancy has enabled ‘unpacking’ of the ambiguities inherent in attempting to implement change in police response to illicit drug use. The study has identified that there is

- a lack of evidence that the current response is ineffective within a policing framework;
- a lack of clarity about the concept of harm minimisation and its relationship to other strategies that are used to address illicit drug problems, in particular the law enforcement that accompanies supply reduction; and,
- a lack of clarity about what the community expects from police response to illicit drug problems.

The study has also demonstrated that education and training programs are unlikely to have a significant effect on police practice unless there clarity within the conceptual and operational quagmire that surrounds the term ‘harm minimisation’. The dissonance between

the theory of harm minimisation and operational policing makes it difficult for frontline practitioners to conceptualise alternative strategies to those in use. There is a need for additional research into the extent to which harm minimisation principles are applicable to police practice beyond existing strategies. Without clarity about what is meant by the term harm minimisation in operational policing, there will be no evidence base from which to establish best practice and inform education and training programs. Furthermore, unless there is clear evidence which demonstrates harm minimisation approaches are congruent with frameworks for police practice and offers improved outcomes for police and communities as well as those who use illicit substances, police will continue to resist any externally imposed change.

In order to address this, there needs to be greater recognition of the complexity of frontline practice and examples of strategies to illicit drug problems in frontline practice embedded in police education and training. This requires different instructional and curriculum approaches to those currently taken in most police education and training programs in Australia.

As police move toward more community oriented approaches to policing, there is a need to have greater clarity about what communities expect from police in response to illicit drug problems. There is also a need for increased consistency and clarity in government messages to the public about its approach to illicit drug use so that messages such as those in the “Tough on Drugs” campaign do not appear to contradict harm minimisation principles. Furthermore, this study has revealed that the perceived consequences of innovation in practice that is not compliant with policy make police loathe to engage in

sharing examples of their application of discretion or innovation. There should be additional research exploring police officers' thinking in action and reflection on action in order to elicit exemplars to drive education and training programs in order to create a 'safe haven' for police to test out ideas. There also needs to be an increase in the number and rigour of evaluation studies of innovative strategies. This needs to be accompanied by enhanced dissemination of the findings of these evaluations to police in all jurisdictions.

Barriers to a national curriculum for policing need to be addressed. The study has revealed that there is limited readily available information about police practice and associated education and training in Australia. Police argue that this is necessary in order to protect their operational knowledge from the public domain, however this creates a lack of transparency and potentially limits the extent to which there can be shared expectations of curricula. This then enables rejection of any concept of a national approach to police education and training. There should be additional investigation of police education and training programs in each jurisdiction in order to progress the concept of a national framework for police education and training in all areas of policing, not just responding to illicit drug problems. Consideration should be given to establishing a body to guide the establishment of a set of national standards for police curricula.

One also gets a sense that the 'closed shop' of police education and training perpetuates the hierarchical culture of police. Greater examination of how content is taught in existing police curricula as well as the assessment of the content within those curricula should be undertaken. The use of predominantly sworn officers using an 'expert as information provider' reinforces the existing culture of policing in response to illicit drug use and

potentially inhibits change. Any move toward evidence based policing should result in an associated increase in evidence based curriculum development activity within police education and training programs.

The study findings also indicate that police educators and trainers are uncertain about the contribution they could or should be making to change in police practice. It is recommended that police educators and trainers be supported in developing their roles as change agents in police practice and culture. There must be increased acceptance of the responsibility for organisational leadership inherent in education and training roles.

Police themselves must take responsibility for driving these initiatives in order to ‘own the problems’ related to illicit drug use, share in solutions to overcome those problems and accept their responsibility to stop the sabotage they engage in when others lead the change.

(b) The capacity of externally funded consultancy projects to effect change in police education and training and therefore, frontline policing practice

The complexity of implementing imposed, policy-led change in frontline practice when there is resistance to the change has been evident in this case study. The consequences of attempting to implement change that is not congruent with police officers’ concept of what the organisation’s function have been described.

The study has illuminated the tensions, demarcations and differences between police and health agencies using the metaphor of a game of chess. It has been suggested that health

and police are each struggling to find ways to respond to illicit drug problems, and that, despite an espoused commitment to a collaborative approach to addressing the issue, neither group is able to find common ground due to different conceptual frameworks for practice. The result of this lack of shared approach is disarray and confusion among frontline police who are confronted by illicit drug use.

The approach used in the consultancy sought to explore police practice in context in order to identify the need for change, however no viable alternative to current practice was put forward by the consultants. This may have been because such alternatives do not exist. It was also because the consultancy team members were educators not police or drug and alcohol experts and were not in a position to offer solutions.

An effective consultancy necessitates a process of interaction with constituents in order to enhance human dynamics of change, but it also needs to have content related credibility and continuous monitoring of the progress of the change against the intended outcomes of the change. While the consultancy that was examined in this study was strong in its commitment to inclusive, interactive and participatory process, there is evidence to suggest that the lack of clarity about the goals of the consultancy and the lack of formative evaluation of progress toward those goals by both the consultants and the sponsor compromised the efficacy of the project.

Effective consultancy activity results in capacity building within an organisation and promotes a change in the values and beliefs of those within the organisation in order to promote new understandings and work practice (Beer & Nohria, 2000). There is no

evidence in this study that this was either explicitly desired or demonstrated in this particular consultancy. The use of external consultants to undertake activity such as has been described in this study is a 'double-edged sword'. External consultants can provide alternative ideas for responding to problems; suggest alternative strategies to those that are currently utilised; and, as was the case in this consultancy, create a neutral space for dialogue and add to the illusion of transparency and independence of an activity through "symbolic manipulation" (Jackall, 1988). They are also free to move on and not to deal with any consequences created by the consultancy; remain uninvolved in implementation; increase the sense of distance and irrelevance of the proposed change to practice; and foster a sense of dependence and reliance on external agents. This can lead to stagnation in change processes, especially when this is coupled with widespread resistance to the proposed change.

Weick (1993, 1997) has identified that there is a need to develop the "self-design" capacity of organisations. This requires development of organisational capital (Mohrman, Tensaki, & Mohrman, 2003) through increased networked connections in the organisation in order to enhance the cognitive and attitudinal elements inherent in change (Tenkasi, Mohrman, & Mohrman, 1998). The use of external consultancy will not enable this to occur unless there are strategies in place to promote diffusion of change throughout the organisation (Rogers, 1995); an explicit recognition of social capital development strategies within policing organisations (Adler & Kwon, 2002); and recognition that effective change is a knowledge creating process (Nahapiet & Ghoshal (1988 cited in Mohrman, Tensaki, & Mohrman, 2003). It is therefore essential that, drawing on the stimulus provided by the use of consultants external to the organisation, further collaborative activity be undertaken to

enable skills transfer within police services so that internal consultancy skills develop among staff in police organisations in order to increase the likelihood of changes in police response to illicit drug use being proposed and adopted. This necessitates development and fostering a range of skills and behaviours that may not be currently acknowledged as essential to police practice, management and education and training.

(c) *Inform others who provide consultancy services in public sector organisations about the challenges inherent in undertaking consultancy activity intended to bring about a change in frontline practice through education and training*

The study has revealed that in the case of this consultancy, the Department of Health and Ageing, a major source of consultancy funds appeared to have no mechanisms for providing feedback in a timely and transparent manner to the consultancy team. It is recommended that the espoused commitment to transparency and quality improvement that exists in the literature related to contemporary policy development and implementation in Australia be translated into systems and processes that enhance quality of project management by government agencies. It seems as if many issues and concerns identified by Single and Rohl in a review of the National Drug Strategy in 1997 remain unaddressed. These authors reported on ineffective and inefficient management in terms of “accountability, sustainability, strategic planning leadership and the secretariat of the National Drug Strategy” (Single & Rohl, 1997, p.71).

In addition to this, the study has alluded to the factors that influenced each stakeholder’s participation in the consultancy, indicated that there were multiple levels of ‘game playing’

surrounding the consultancy and suggested that vested interests in participating in the consultancy were each motivated by factors additional to a desire to enhance frontline response to illicit drug use.

Corbett (1992) has noted that while identification of relevant stakeholders is often not a problem, determining the level of importance of elements of policy to different stakeholders depends on "individual perception, experience or point of view" (p.28) and cautions that "Objectives of programs may have been set in vague or confusing terms, partly to satisfy or appear to satisfy stakeholders whose interests differ". The findings of this study have highlighted the extent to which there is potential for both accidental and deliberate difference in interpretations of a list of consultancy deliverables to be used to make judgements about the extent to which a consultancy achieved, or did not achieve, its goals. This evaluation has demonstrated that determining the worth of the consultancy is dependent on the framework used by those who make judgement, the context in which they operate and their own expectations and values. It remains unclear what criteria are used by government decision-makers to determine the value of consultancy projects such as the one that was the focus of this evaluation. However, it has been argued that there is a need for a shift in emphasis from evaluation of project outputs to evaluation of project processes and outcomes when evaluating of public sector projects (Newburn, 2001; Ryan, 1996). While it is acknowledged that outcomes are influenced by social, political economic and other forces (Schick, 1996), in some government departments there is a tendency for those who allocate resources and evaluate government projects to have a checklist mentality that focuses on outputs and expenditure (Schick, 1996; Thynne & Goldring, 1987). In support of this, the study has drawn on the work of Guba and Stufflebeam (1970) to demonstrate

the need for congruence between the extent of change, the understanding of change and the evaluation of change.

The study has noted that some change in police practice in response to illicit drug problems had occurred prior to the consultancy. In the study, questions about what more could or should be done to enhance frontline police response to illicit drug problems in the light of inadequate evidence about community expectations of police when responding to illicit drug use and a lack of clarity about what constitutes harm minimisation beyond the existing strategies police use have been raised. The need for research into the effectiveness of harm minimisation strategies from a policing, rather than health framework, has also been highlighted. The limitations of a focus on education and training programs as a change strategy for enhancing areas of police practice without broader contextual support have been discussed.

The study has revealed that utopian, large scale change is not likely to be achieved when those who initiate the change do not acknowledge that there may be insufficient understanding of the change to make it acceptable to those whom they wish to adopt the change. It has also demonstrated that ignoring what a context evaluation reveals about the level of understanding of change and using a consultancy process that seeks to identify the issues about adopting the change in practice will not result in ready adoption of the change. Rather, the generation of issues about why the change is not needed or will not work needs to be followed up with demonstration of how the issues could be addressed, lest those who resisted the change have their resistance validated. This did not occur in the case of the consultancy that was the focus of this study.

The study has indicated that, while police have been engaged in incremental change in their response to illicit drug problems, the sponsors of the project sought outcomes from the consultancy that was more consistent with discontinuous change. Nadler, Shaw, and Walton (1995) claim that discontinuous change involves a break from the past and major change within the entire organisation. Numerous authors write of the extent to which discontinuous change requires empowerment of individuals and a need for enhanced vertical and horizontal networking within organisations. For example, Limerick, Cunnington, and Crowther (1998, p. 30) present a table that distinguishes among managerial principles, processes and values that support discontinuous change and those that dominate in other management blueprints. Responding effectively to discontinuous change requires a fluidity and responsiveness that is at odds with the classical, hierarchical approach that dominates police management practice. The irony of the approach to consultancy taken in this study is that while the consultants had an expressed commitment to inclusiveness and participation in change, the very nature of external consultancy is one of imposing on others. That is to say, external consultancy itself fits within what Limerick, Cunnington, and Crowther (1998) have described as classical management irrespective of the approach taken during the consultancy. The difference between incremental and discontinuous change is manifested in differences between “driving force, focus, pacing, and approach to management” (Baird-Wilkerson, 2003). It is also manifested in evaluation strategies that are selected. Therefore, those who determine the success or failings of external consultancy activity are likely to use an evaluation framework that is consistent with managerial values of efficiency and productivity rather than an evaluation framework that is holistic and aims to improve and enlighten. This is particularly likely to occur within large bureaucracies that are reliant on government policy to sustain their initiatives and where the government may

change policy at relatively short notice. It is not surprising that pseudoevaluations are frequently undertaken by those in government departments in order to validate their activity and ideologies to successive governments.

According to Nagel (2001), policy evaluation involves examining and evaluating alternative public policies and program evaluation examines particular programs. This study had the dual intent of questioning the relationship between policy direction and the implementation of educational programs for frontline police and informing those who create policy related to the process of calling for and securing the services of consultants. It was not intended that this study present a policy evaluation of responses to drug use in Australia. The evaluation described in this dissertation is a subset of a range of potential evaluations that could be conducted within the program of the Frontline Worker Training Initiative that is nested within the broader policy approach of harm minimisation as a key principle within the National Illicit Drug Strategy. While of itself it does not constitute policy or program evaluation, it has the potential to inform further program and policy evaluations that may be conducted.

The study has demonstrated that Guba and Stufflebeam's model is applicable to the examination of change at public policy level as well as its more commonly reported application as a framework for the evaluation of education and training programs. Although this study did not set out to validate Guba and Stufflebeam's model, it has demonstrated that the elements of the model, particularly its inclusion of levels of understanding and degree of change may inform decision-makers about appropriate strategies for implementing and evaluating change. Other attempts to implement public policy through

workforce education and training could be examined using the CIPP framework to further test the concepts within the framework and the findings of this study.

CONCLUSION

Guba and Stufflebeam (1970, p.36) argue that “Evaluation is the process of obtaining and providing useful information for making educational decisions” and that “the evaluator as obtainer is concerned with... suggesting ways in which the alternative might be improved or further refined or abandoned in favor of some other alternative” (p.38). Essentially, this study has highlighted that:

1. as a result of differing frameworks for thinking about and responding to illicit drug use, and each stakeholder in the consultancy having different evaluation frameworks, the consultancy was inevitably never going to be seen as 'successful' by all involved
2. education and training alone will not bring about change in any large scale change
3. the use of external consultants who had limited knowledge of the context was inappropriate, but given the broader context where consultancy is seen as a panacea (or place to shift responsibility), this consultancy was always going to be undertaken.

This study has demonstrated that while an effective context analysis is the crucial moderator of decision-making about implementing change, there are frequently multiple intertwined and competing agenda within change processes. The distraction caused by responding to the multiple agenda in large scale innovation, renewal or re-energising

processes may detract from achieving the ultimate goals of change. The ultimate goal of the National Illicit Drug Strategy is enhanced treatment for those who use illicit drugs and a resultant reduction in the social costs of illicit drug use. This requires delivery of health care services. Perhaps, rather than spending taxpayers' money on consultancy that reinforces the extent of dissonance between police and health and secures status and funding for universities and other organisations, future funding would be more meaningfully allocated to providing operational support for police and treatment facilities for those they divert from the criminal justice system. Of course, to do this would require that policy making is relatively free of political influence. It is concluded that a change in paradigm, not within policing, but within policy making and evaluation is required. There needs to be a shift in criteria for success of policy implementation from a framework that looks at outputs as the degree of congruence with intended objectives, to one that recognises a diversity of outcomes and is capable of acknowledging that large scale change requires ongoing engagement at a range of levels and is a long term investment. Moreover, there needs to be more direct and transparent expenditure on those with illicit drug problems that openly acknowledges that government is committed to treating illicit drug use as a health, rather than a criminal problem. This is a far greater political risk and less palatable option for politicians than the ability to reassure the community that police and other frontline workers have been 'educated and trained' to enhance their response to illicit drug problems, and that the 3.2 million dollars invested in the raft of education and training programs was money well spent and provides evidence of a Federal Government committed to responding to illicit drug problems.

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Appendix 1 The Boundaries of the Study: A timeline of the consultancy and the events that were examined within the study

| | |
|--|---|
| Response to the Request to Tender | August 2000 |
| Securing of consultancy and signing of contract | October 2000 |
| Interviews with Police Commissioners | December 2000 |
| Submission of first Interim Report | 15 th January 2001 |
| Conduct of the first National Reference Group | 14 th & 15 th February 2001 |
| Conduct of Jurisdictional Workshops | March – April 2001 |
| Submission of second Interim Report | 30 th March 2001 |
| Conduct of the second National Reference Group | 8 th & 9 th May 2001 |
| Submission of third Interim Report | 25 th May 2001 |
| Submission of fourth Interim Report | 7 th September 2001 |
| Conduct of third National Reference Group | 3 rd October 2001 |
| Submission of Draft Final Report | December 2001 |
| Submission of Modified Final Report | August 2002 |
| Submission of Final Report | January 2003 |
| Request by sponsor for further modification of Final Report | August 2003 |
| Legal Advice sought for final payment from University legal advisors | September 2003 |
| Formal request by University to make payment | November 2003 |

Appendix 2: Proforma used to collect 128 stories recalled by frontline police in jurisdictional workshops

JURISDICTIONAL WORKSHOPS

PROFORMA 1 (A) - INDIVIDUAL SITUATION

Jurisdiction: _____

POLICING SITUATION

Context:

Action:

Outcome:

Appendix 3: Example of a situation recorded by frontline police

Context: Rave party, 0300 hours Sunday, 14 year female, drug overdose, drug taken unknown

Action: female taken unknown drug whilst on other medication. Administered first aid and attempted to find supplier in order to identify substance
Unable to locate parents or social worker
Girl taken to hospital
No follow up for rehab after hospital administration
Drug warrant taken out on organiser of party and prosecution for minor illicit drugs

Outcome:

Research undertaken by team into rave parties and found connection between drug use and rave parties world wide and identified types of drugs used and distributed at rave parties

Organised working party with local youth and council groups

Made contacts with staff in other agencies for after hours contact
Distributed health department guidelines re harm minimisation at parties

Appendix 4: Diversity of issues requiring a response to illicit drug use across jurisdictions

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---|-----|-----|----|----|----|----|----|-------|------|
| Jurisdiction Number | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Total | % |
| No of situations analysed | 19 | 8 | 22 | 20 | 16 | 9 | 28 | 122 | |
| Police strategy: | | | | | | | | | |
| Reduce Supply only | 4 | | 4 | 8 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 31 | 25 |
| Reduce harm to user | 11 | 8 | 11 | 7 | 9 | 2 | 16 | 64 | 52 |
| Reduce supply and harm | 2 | | 5 | 3 | 2 | | 4 | 16 | 13 |
| Reduce demand only | | | 1 | | | | | 1 | 0.8 |
| Reduce Demand and harm | 2 | | | 1 | | | | 3 | 2.4 |
| Total harm reduction identified in jurisdiction as a % of no of situations from jurisdictions | 100 | 100 | 95 | 95 | 93 | 77 | 92 | | 93.2 |
| Offender identified as juvenile (16 or under or described by police as juvenile) | 6 | 3 | 4 | 2 | 4 | 3 | 6 | 28 | 23 |
| Drug used | | | | | | | | | |
| Heroin only | 3 | | 10 | 5 | 7 | | 9 | 34 | 28 |
| Amphetamine | 2 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 15 | 12 |
| Cannabis | 5 | 1 | 2 | 6 | 1 | 6 | | 21 | 17 |
| Poly drug use | 3 | 1 | | 2 | | | 4 | 10 | 8.1 |
| PositiveOutcomes | | | | | | | | | |
| For user | 5 | 4 | 4 | 2 | 5 | 2 | 9 | 31 | 25 |
| For community | 7 | 4 | 12 | 2 | 4 | 1 | 5 | 35 | 28 |

Appendix 5: Independent data analyst report to consultancy team about police experience of education and training

Summary

Question 1. What worked well?
(Number of comments classified under each category in brackets)

Training (113)
Internal short courses (39)
Detective/undercover (13)
Drug awareness (8)
Crime seminars (4)
Laboratory courses (3)
Specific drug investigation workshops (3)
Self-education and private reading (12)
Expert presenters (11)
Practical / scenarios (10)
(Ex) drug users (9)
Academy legislation training (8)
Multi-media (7)
Regular Updates (6)
Workshop / discussion (6)
Formal education (5)
On the job experience / exposure (42)
Knowledge / Course content (39)
Drugs and effects (22)
Information from other agencies (4)
Legislation (4)
Safety (3)
Mentoring by experienced officers / Informal training (31)
Techniques for responding to illicit drugs / harm minimisation (31)
Communication and networking within the field (9)
Community education (5)
Research & conferences (5)
Supply reduction strategies (5)
None / ineffective training or techniques (17)

Question 2. What would I have liked more of/about?
In-depth education and information (120) re:
Illicit drugs and drug culture (44)
Identification of drug users & drug effects (19)
Services available from other agencies (16)
Psychology of drug use (12)
Drugs and health (8)

Alternatives/diversions (6)
Harm minimisation (6)
Safety (5)
 Search and seizure techniques (4)
 Other topics (6)
Styles of training (35)
 Interactive Learning (8)
 Outside/expert contributions (11)
 Other Methods (16)
Drug strategy (15)
Time / resources (7)
On the job experience (5)
Attitude change (2)
 Question 3. Which approaches to education and training assisted me to learn?

On the job training/ experience (36)
Working with experienced officers (16)
Networking in the field (13)

Practical / scenarios (28)
Expert presenters (19)
Group discussions (15)
Self-education (12)
Formal internal courses (11)
Communicating with (ex) drug users (10)
Visual aids (5)
External/inter-state courses (4)
Other Media / Types of presentation (20)

Types of course content (18)

Question 4. What recommendations about training would I make to the project team?

More of it! (6)
How often/ how much (10)
 Regular and ongoing (8)
Who should attend (18)
 Compulsory for all police (6)
 Junior police / recruits (9)
Invite external input (18)
Keep it realistic and practical (15)
Include mentoring and on-the-job experience (7)
Keep it simple (6)
Include wider police network (6)
Involve and give feedback to members (5)
Suggestions for content (50)

- Drug identification (up-to-date) (12)
- Drug use and effects (10)
- Harm minimisation (6)
- Legislation (5)
- Safety and search techniques (5)
- No irrelevant / unnecessary information (6)
- Training Methods / Aids (30)**
 - Presenters (8)
 - Computer-based training (5)
 - Face-to-face (4)
- Flexible delivery (4)
- Hand-outs (2)
- Suggestions re other strategies (not related to police training) (11)

Appendix 6: Police concerns about the consultancy identified by independent data analyst during the consultancy

Jurisdictional Workshops: Issues/Concerns

Summary

The four issues that were most commonly raised were:

confusion or disagreement around the concept of 'harm minimisation'

- questions of what the concept means for the police service
- who the term refers to (e.g., users, community, police)
- concern over the breadth and complexity of the issue
- questions regarding the efficacy of harm minimisation.

➤ **internal barriers (within police force) to harm minimisation**

- perceived lack of operational police skill, knowledge and information to contribute to harm minimisation strategies
- conflict between harm minimisation strategies and police performance criteria, procedures and accountabilities
- traditional police attitudes towards drugs and drug users
- perceived broadening (and confusion) of police role without compensation
- differences in views between management and members.

➤ **cooperation and support from other agencies and structures**

- concern for the implementation of harm minimisation strategies by other government agencies
- inter-agency cooperation and support services (e.g., health and rehabilitation)
- consultation with and support from judicial system
- health professionals and members of judiciary to take part in process (e.g., attend workshops)
- need for clear government direction.

➤ **implementation, method and content of training packages.**

- Questions surrounding the process and timeframes for implementing recommendations
- need to include experience of senior officers
- suggestions for content (e.g., principles of HM to target attitude change, education about drugs and drug culture, addiction and rehabilitation, skills, practical exercises)
- how to measure the effectiveness of the programs and HM strategies.

Other significant concerns that were raised include:

- **Tension between the different needs of areas, jurisdictions and states, and the need for national conformity**
- **Community expectations of police and attitudes towards drugs**
- **Scepticism regarding adoption of outcomes by police service and desire for more feedback**
- **Resources**
- **Marketing of harm minimisation to assist acceptance by police, public, political leaders**

- **strategies of harm minimisation**, including:
 - Demand reduction
 - Supply reduction
 - Discretion used in relation to drug offences (and problems separating health and police issues)
 - Education for authorities, parents, schools, police and general public
 - Diversion.

**First National Reference Group Workshop – Issues/Concerns
Sydney 14 - 15 February 2001**

Issues/Concerns/Questions

NB italics indicates project team response to these on 15th February

GENERAL PROJECT ISSUES

- Flexibility for jurisdictional differences and to accommodate longer term changes e.g. Policy

Recognised as essential to project and need to ensure that learning material that is principle based and relevant to jurisdiction

- Who will own the training materials developed as a consequence of this project?

National resource: all jurisdictions through APESC - Commonwealth owns

- Workshop objectives re projects - clarify

Products include clarification of definition of harm minimisation; identification of issues related to project; clarifying major stakeholders and their level of involvement in project; acknowledge challenges in aligning policy, education and the reality practice;

*Differentiate between framework; guideline and standards
Identify challenges in implementing a national framework*

- Scope of project? It is to develop tools to assess training needs/outcomes?
- Evaluation of the project - who drives this? Who measures the impact on police? Sustainability of the project?
- What are the criteria for exemplars?

To some extent depend on educational standards established

- In principle support capitalising on what exists; but uncertain of process for achievement

- Health/police dichotomy - representation on National Reference Group from health
- Who will be health reps?
- Time demands in terms of existing roles

See phase plan

Consideration of this by groups; suggested strategy for jurisdictional workshops to include reps from health reps at jurisdictional level

- Political activity will impact on the project

Imperative to recognise this

- Identification of learning needs of those who deliver training - generic and/or for individuals?

Generic

- Attitudinal change of operational police to be addressed between jurisdictional workshops and development of training material

It is anticipated that the process of developing material through situation analysis in jurisdictional workshops may facilitate attitudinal change

CONCEPTUAL/DEFINITIONAL ISSUES

- Term, harm minimisation. How will it be used?

Group reported National Drug Strategy definition signed off by Commissioners and should guide the project

- Government nervousness about “terms” - terms or concepts/principles

Recognised that preferred terminology may be dependent upon government preferred language. Suggest that focus be on principles. Recognised that police have been applying principles of harm minimisation in a range of areas for some time.

- Incongruence between the title of the project and harm minimisation - hidden agenda?
How broad is it?

Focus is on a national framework, standards and guidelines for education and training relating to harm minimisation and frontline police in relation to illicit drug problems.

- In some jurisdictions harm reduction is a Government policy, which has determined the police position.

Noted

- Ensure “supply reduction” is recognised as harm minimisation.

Recognised as a conceptual position and will be validated through analysis of practice and developing learning resources

- How is definition going to be applied to policy/training?

Through establishing a framework, policy and guidelines

RELATIONSHIP TO OTHER STAKEHOLDER GROUPS

- Review health industry standards in this area
- Impact on community policing role and national enforcement side, other specialist areas
- Acceptance of police proposals by other stakeholders

CONTENT CONSIDERATIONS

- Discretionary powers - relationship to other policy and procedure - how do you teach the appropriate use of discretion?
- Is harm minimisation “law reform by stealth?” Does it undermine consistency between law and its enforcement?
- Project seems to focus on police reactions to the community’s needs. Consider police as users/abusers.
- Recognise “poly drug use” - illicit/licit - substance (eg alcohol)

Issues re competencies

- Some questioning of relevance of competency based methodology

Note: all commissioners have agreed that the current police competencies represent police functions in operations, supervision, management and specialist areas

- Competencies review and relationship to Project phases 2 and 5

Determined that project team and not jurisdictional workshop participants should conduct analysis of situation against current police competencies

- Impact of competencies on police practice, education and training
- Definition phase 5 contains inconsistency

Appendix 7: Analysis of 50 responses to what participants at jurisdictional workshops would have liked more of/about (undertaken by researcher)

| Process | Number of responses |
|---|---------------------|
| Formal courses after basic training | 11 |
| Group interaction in formal learning | 5 |
| Concrete examples | 7 |
| Feedback on field performance | 3 |
| Financial and other recognition for learning (eg time allocated) | 6 |
| Education earlier in my career | 1 |
| Content | |
| Information about referral agencies | 23 |
| Information about studies undertaken in the area of drug use and policing | 4 |
| Effects of drug on user | 18 |
| Relationship between crime and drug use | 6 |
| Information about policy in other jurisdictions | 2 |
| Users problems/social health | 14 |
| Current trends in drug use | 20 |
| Drug culture | 15 |
| Information about policy in the jurisdiction related to drug use | 3 |
| Harm minimisation applied to policing | 3 |
| Search technique | 2 |
| Drug identification techniques | 12 |

Appendix 8: Analysis of what worked well assisted participants to learn in 50 responses (undertaken by the researcher)

| Theme | Number of responses indicating |
|--|--------------------------------|
| Process of learning | |
| On the job exposure /street knowledge | 40 |
| Discussion of experiences with workmates | 24 |
| Specialist courses once working as police officer (in service) | 12 |
| Networking with other agencies/presentation by those agencies to police | 8 |
| Education by senior officers experienced in the area while on the job | 10 |
| Independent learning by officer (research, internet , reference books etc) | 30 |
| Lectures/ questions and answer sessions with by professional people in drug field/squads | 5 |
| Told to attend course | 1 |
| Participating in other specialist squads | 4 |
| Teaching others | 2 |
| Academy training | 3 |
| Theory presented applied to practice of policing | 7 |
| Formal assessment of knowledge through examination | 1 |
| Conference attendance | 2 |
| Interaction with drug users and their families | 8 |
| Group work in formal training | 4 |
| Content | |
| Role of other agencies | 3 |
| Latest drug use trends and production strategies | 6 |
| Training in drug identification (seeing latest drugs) | 4 |
| Characteristics of drug users and their culture | 2 |
| Effects of drugs and users and consequent behaviour | 6 |
| Court procedures following arrest | 2 |
| Knowledge of legislation | 5 |
| Personal safety for police especially search techniques | 5 |

Appendix 9: Draft set of Guidelines for Instructors tabled at the 2nd National Reference Group Workshop

Introduction

Background to the guidelines:

These guidelines are based on trends in contemporary general, policing, and drug and alcohol education that recognises a need for education to be relevant to practice, evidence based and encourage skills such as critical thinking and problem solving. (Knapper, 2001; Matthias, 1988; Roche, 2001; Sherman, 1982)

The development of these guidelines has also been informed by analysis of data from jurisdictional workshops in two ways. Recurring issues and themes in the situations collected at jurisdictional workshops have been used to provide suggested content about harm minimisation and responses to questions specifically about education and training experiences of workshop participants have been used to inform thinking about more generic elements of education and training.

Issues in developing the guidelines

The tender brief required that standards for education and training of frontline police to enhance response to illicit drugs. Although it could be suggested that this only requires a list of core content to be delivered, the project team is of the view that standards for education should be inclusive both of the process of teaching and learning and the content of any program.

In this case, that content relates to police response to illicit drugs. At the focus group held to discuss the development of standards and guidelines for education, the majority of the National Reference Group members expressed discomfort at the use of the terms standards in any documentation about education and training in response to illicit drugs. The reason given for this was that the use of the term standards implied that all courses would have to meet these and there was reluctance to “sign off” on these from a number of jurisdictions. All jurisdictions except one, indicated support for alternative terminology to standards, suggesting that guidelines for implementation, indicator and descriptor may be preferable terms.

The presented guidelines have suggested indicators for evaluation included within them. These focus only on what can be reasonably achieved through education and training, for it is clear that the goal of enhancing police response to illicit drug use is not simply a matter of providing education and training to frontline officers.

It has been argued by some in workshops conducted as part of this project that police education should aim to address the attitudes of personnel toward those who use illicit drugs and that by implication, a change of attitude would result in improved police response to illicit drug problems. It is the project team’s view that the attitudes of individual learners toward individuals with whom they engage cannot readily be changed

through formal education and training (see Bowen, 1977 in Sherman, 1978, p.43) and that professional performance expectations are a preferred focus for education and training, rather than attitudinal change of individuals. The existing Public Health Safety Package competency standards have been reviewed by the project team and found to align with the issues that emerge from analysis of the police practice situations described at jurisdictional workshops.

Based on feedback from the first draft tabled at the 2nd meeting of the National Reference Group, the following Guidelines for Implementation have been developed for consideration and review by the National Reference Group. The guidelines have been formatted around a series of propositional statements about education and training in response to illicit drugs. Each of these propositions is elaborated on through principles and a set of suggested indicators related to these principles is included.

National Reference group members, or their nominees, are asked to provide response to this 2nd draft. **Responses to these will be required via email by 17th September,2001.**

| | |
|--|--|
| 1. Proposition: Education and training underpins professional policing performance (Bradley, 1992; Centre for Training Assessment and Development,1999; Melville,1999) | |
| Elaboration | Suggested Indicator for evaluation |
| Lifelong learning is modeled by police employees as professionals | There is recognition in position descriptions that all police service employees have a role in educating self and others Professional development opportunities are provided for educators and students |
| Post training support promotes transfer of content into practice (Allsop et al, 1998) | The continuation of learning independent of the formal training situation is recognised and valued Post training support is provided to facilitate transfer of concepts across learning and policing contexts |
| Lifelong learners engage in reflective practice (Brookfield, 1987) and use a range of frameworks to inform their decision making (Vygotsky in Moll, 1990) | Strategies such as situation analysis and reflective practice are explicit in the learning experience Learning from work experiences and colleagues are explicitly encouraged |

| | |
|---|---|
| 2. Proposition: Frontline police response to illicit drug problems could be enhanced through education and training about harm minimisation principles (Fowler et al, 2000; Allsop et al, 1998) | |
| Elaboration | Suggested indicator for evaluation |
| Frontline police have a significant role in harm minimisation in relation to illicit drug use (Fowler et al, 2000) | <p>Concept of harm minimisation is presented from police perspective and articulates harm minimisation as integration of supply, demand, harm reduction</p> <p>Core content related to harm reduction includes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Occupational health and safety ➤ Management of the drug affected person ➤ Referral and interagency support ➤ Alternative approaches to incarceration for drug related offences |
| Police response to illicit drug problems should be consistent with that of other agencies and policies | <p>Education and training for police is consistent with and reflective of other standards for education and training in the area of illicit drugs (eg Diversion training modules should “at a minimum</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • provide a clear explanation of the roles and responsibilities of law enforcement and health sectors under the COAG initiative, including the linkages between these sectors; • provide a description of the relationship of the diversion initiative to the criminal justice alternative • address cross border diversion arrangements • provide information , as appropriate , about how to manage the distinct needs of particular groups of illicit drug users, such as those from cross cultural backgrounds and those with dual diagnosis; and • provide a clear explanation of specific responsibilities and procedures to be followed by frontline workers to implement their jurisdiction’s diversion schemes “(Illicit Drug Diversion Initiative, 2000) <p>A balance of views is presented</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • evidence based principles are applied • perspectives of different stakeholders are included (asks harm to whom?) • harm minimisation strategies in the police responses are examined critically |

| 3. Proposition: Learning environments impact on learning | |
|--|---|
| Elaboration | Suggested indicator for evaluation |
| <p>Educators and managers have a role in ensuring that a range of environments that provide opportunity for learning are identified, created and maintained (Bunyard, 1978)</p> <p>Accredited learning can act as a motivator and provide credibility for the learner</p> <p>Small group dialogue promotes learning (Williamson, 1998)</p> | <p>Learning materials are accessible to all relevant practitioners Multiple delivery formats are developed (e.g. self paced, workbook, CD Rom etc)</p> <p>The experience of work as a learning opportunity is recognised and valued and work situations are used as an opportunity to maximise learning as appropriate</p> <p>Formal training provides opportunity for accreditation where possible</p> <p>Opportunities for police officers to engage in collaborative learning are provided</p> |

| 4. Proposition: Learner engagement and support fosters learning (Hughes,1998) | |
|--|--|
| Elaboration | Suggested indicators |
| Activities can be designed to engage learners | Content, language/terminology and nature of task is at the level of the learner Instructional approaches provide different ways of involving learners in exploring key concepts |
| Learners bring past experience to the learning situation (Jarvis,1997; Williamson, 1998) | Learner experience is identified and used to inform training needs Learners are encouraged to express and justify their thinking |
| Knowledge is constructed by the learner (Biggs, 1996) and is inclusive of affective as well as cognitive response (Williamson, 1998) | Exploration of professional and personal values in response to illicit drug problems is actively encouraged |

| 5. Proposition: The provision of quality learning resources facilitates learning (Allsop et al,1998) | |
|---|--|
| Elaboration | Suggested indicator for evaluation |
| Content that is delivered is relevant, accurate and comprehensive (Allsop et al, 1998; supported by recommendations from jurisdictional workshop data) | <p>Course material articulates harm minimisation consistent with the National Drug Strategy - as the integration of supply, demand, harm reduction</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is practice based • Seeks to determine appropriate police response • Explores relevant policy in relation to harm minimisation concept • Includes police situations reflective of supply, demand and harm reduction • Examines the application and impact of the 3 reductions in each training situation <p>Course content related to harm minimisation is:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Current Relevant to jurisdictional context Focuses on the activity of frontline police • A valid representation of complexity of police practice including the relationship of illicit drug use and other offences <p>Presenters who are both expert & credible are used in delivery of formal training</p> <p>Resources are peer reviewed yearly for currency and relevance of information</p> <p>Resources support exploration of police response to illicit drugs from jurisdictional specific, national and global agendas</p> |

| 6. Proposition: Learning results in both process and content outcomes | |
|---|---|
| Elaboration | Suggested indicator for evaluation |
| Assessment aligns with learning outcomes and instructional activity (Biggs, 1996) | Assessment tools are made available to learner prior to assessment task. |
| Assessment is used both to guide and provide evidence of learning (Biggs, 1996) | Outcomes of learning are defined in terms of process of learning as well as content of harm minimisation in response to illicit drugs |
| | Constructive feedback on learning is provided |
| | Formative and summative assessment activity is included in learning |
| | Assessment of performance in context requires decision making and the integration of Knowledge/Skills/Behaviours |

Appendix 10: Results from the post project questionnaire distributed to NRG members

| QUESTION | Average Answer Mean (SD) | Interpretation |
|--|--|--------------------|
| <i>Section 1: Project Conduct</i> | | |
| Q1. Conduct of project | <i>Scale is 1-4, 0 indicated no answer given</i> | |
| a) The three workshops for the National Reference Group assisted in clarifying the project goals | 2.50 (0.92) | Generally Agree |
| b) The National Reference Group workshops were an effective strategy to meet the project goals | 2.55 (1.04) | Generally Agree |
| c) Information collected from frontline police in jurisdictions contributed to the project goals | 2.91 (1.04) | Generally Agree |
| d) The project activities increased my awareness of issues in operationalising harm minimisation in response to illicit drugs through education and training | 2.55 (0.82) | Generally Agree |
| e) The Project Consultants provided an opportunity to discuss issues | 3.23 (0.41) | Generally Agree |
| f) The Project Consultants engaged with jurisdictional perspectives | 3.23 (0.41) | Generally Agree |
| g) The Project Consultants kept the National Reference Group adequately informed throughout the project | 3.05 (0.15) | Generally Agree |
| h) The participation required by the project from the jurisdictions was excessively demanding | 3.00 (0.45) | Agree |
| | | |
| Q2: The project outcomes | <i>Scale is 1-4, 0 indicated no answer given</i> | |
| i) This project was clearly about policing | 2.68 (0.96) | Generally Agree |
| j) This project was worthwhile | 2.77 (0.61) | Generally Agree |
| k) This project will make a difference to police education and training in response to illicit drug problems | 2.36 (1.29) | Generally Agree |
| l) There was insufficient discussion of issues | 2.27 (1.19) | Generally Agree |
| m) The project outcomes were achieved | 1.86 (1.27) | Generally Disagree |
| n) This project will enhance police response to illicit drug problems | 2.27 (1.25) | Generally Agree |
| o) This project will promote communication between education and policy sectors in policing about response to illicit drugs | 2.18 (1.17) | Generally Agree |
| p) This project will promote communication between | 2.00 (1.07) | Disagree |

| | | |
|---|-------------|--------------------|
| practice and policy sectors in policing about response to illicit drugs | | |
| q) This project will promote communication between education and practice sectors in policing about response to illicit drugs | 1.91 (1.02) | Generally Disagree |
| r) The National Reference groups workshops were an effective strategy to achieve consensus about the National Framework for education and training in response to illicit drugs | 2.18 (1.17) | Generally Agree |

| QUESTION | Average Answer Mean (SD) | Interpretation |
|--|---|---|
| Q3. Deliverables | | |
| A) How useful will the project's deliverables be for police education and training for your jurisdiction? | <i>Scale is 1-5, 0 indicated no answer given</i> | |
| 1) A review of the existing competency public safety standards for police to identify those that have relevance for harm minimisation | 2.55 (1.13) | Generally Useful |
| 2) A review of those post secondary and tertiary institutions nationally that conduct police specific courses to determine the potential for the development and uptake of a module on harm minimisation for their police students | 2.68 (1.45) | Generally Useful |
| 3) Recommendations concerning the identification of a range of competencies that police should have in responding to drug problems | 2.91 (1.22) | Generally Useful |
| 4) A report that can be utilised by all jurisdictions as the basic framework for the development of comprehensive education and training programs to address the learning needs of police in this area | 2.95 (1.56) | Generally Useful |
| 5) Proposed national guidelines for incorporating concepts and practices of drug harm minimisation into the broader police education and training curriculum | 2.73 (1.19) | Generally Useful |
| 6) Identification of the learning needs of those who would deliver education and training programs for police and develop guidelines concerning the content of programs that would meet those needs | 2.86 (1.23) | Generally Useful |
| 7) Learning resources to support education and training in response to illicit drugs | 3.27 (1.35) | Generally Useful |
| 8) A framework for the evaluation of education and training for the police. | 2.73 (1.56) | Generally Useful |
| Section 2 : Questionnaire Respondent Details | | |
| 1. Did you contribute to this project as a sworn member of the police service? | N/A | N/A |
| 2. As a member of the National Reference Group, which sector did you represent? | N/A | N/A |
| 3. The number of National Reference Group workshops I attended was | 2.55 (0.82) <i>Scale is 1-3, 0 indicated no answer given</i> | Most people attended from 2-3 workshops |
| Section 3: Police Personnel only | | |
| A) 1)In this jurisdiction, adequate emphasis is placed on | <i>Scale is 1-4, 0 indicated no answer given, 5 indicated do not know</i> | |

| | | |
|---|-------------|--------------------|
| a) harm minimisation strategies in frontline policing activity | 1.64 (1.29) | Generally Disagree |
| b) education and training about harm minimisation for police | 1.64 (1.29) | Generally Disagree |
| c) harm minimisation within police policy | 2.14 (1.48) | Generally Agree |
| d) harm minimisation principles in response to illicit drugs to overall police practice | 1.82 (1.33) | Generally Disagree |

Appendix 11: Jurisdictional workshop evaluations

A: Workshop Evaluation Form

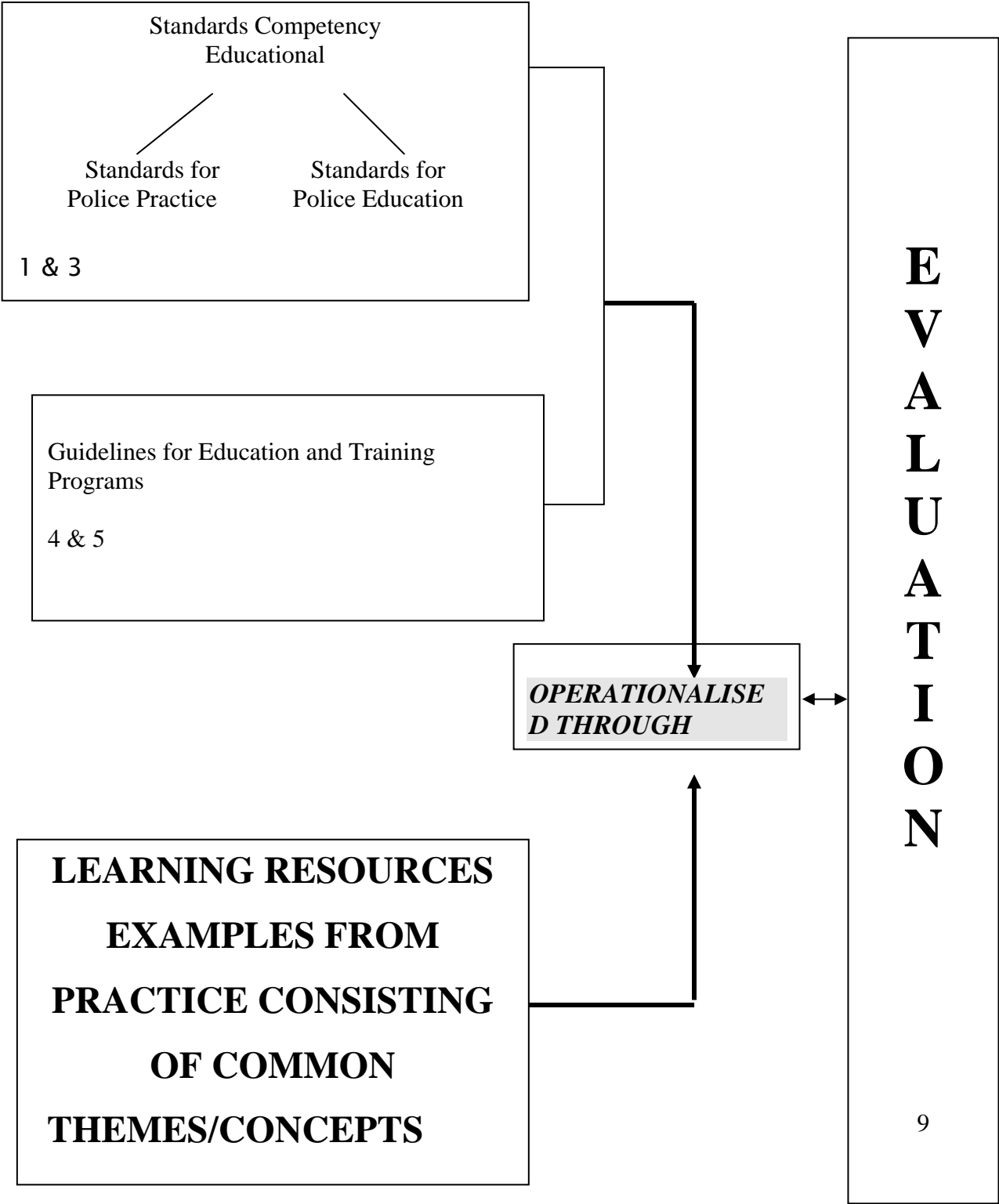
| | | Agree | | | | Disagree |
|---|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|----------|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | |
| | The Workshop: | | | | | |
| 1 | was well structured | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| 2 | achieved the stated objectives | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| 3 | met my expectations | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| 4 | clarified the project | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| 5 | clarified the commitment required by the jurisdictions | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| 6 | covered the range of issues | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| 7 | allowed me to raise my issues | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| 8 | contributed to the outcomes of project | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| | Questions I still have about the project are | | | | | |
| | Other Comments | | | | | |

B. RESULTS

| Questions: | Agree (1) | (2) | (3) | Disagree (4) |
|---|--------------|-----|-----|-----------------|
| Workshop was well constructed | 36 | 56 | 19 | 1 |
| Workshop achieved the stated objectives | 21 | 69 | 18 | 1 |
| Workshop met my expectations | 16 | 49 | 40 | 6 |
| Workshop clarified the project | 29 | 51 | 27 | 5 |
| Workshop clarified the commitment required by the jurisdictions | 26 | 36 | 28 | 4 |
| Workshop covered the range of issues | 34 | 60 | 14 | 3 |
| Workshop allowed me to raise my issues | 69 | 38 | 3 | 2 |
| Workshop contributed to the outcomes of project | 29 | 68 | 12 | 0 |
| | | | | |

NB: Raw Data only, not all respondents answered every question

Appendix 12: Consultancy team perception of congruence between project deliverables and the National Framework (Numbers indicate element of consultancy deliverable)



Legend of consultancy deliverables indicated by numbers within National Framework

1. a review of the existing competency standards for police to identify those that have relevance for harm minimisation
2. a review of those post secondary and tertiary institutions nationally that conduct police specific courses, to determine the potential for the development and uptake of a module on harm minimisation for their police students
3. recommendations concerning the identification of a range of competencies that police should have in responding to drug problems
4. a report that can be utilised by all jurisdictions as the basic framework for the development of comprehensive education and training programs to address the learning needs of police in this area
5. proposed national guidelines for incorporating concepts and practices of drug harm minimisation into the broader police education and training curriculum
6. identification of the learning needs of those who would deliver education and training programs for police and develop guidelines concerning the content of programs that would meet those needs
7. guidelines concerning the content of education and training programs for police supervisors, workplace trainers and assessors, regarding their role in promoting best practice in responding to drug problems
8. a mechanism to seek out collate and nationally disseminate good practice in police responding to drug problems
9. a framework for the evaluation of education and training programs for police.