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MANAGEMENT JOURNAL



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EDITORIAL

In this edition of *Communiqué* the articles seek to provide the reader with an understanding of both operational and leadership challenges of a modern policing organisation.

Superintendent Maura Lernihán outlines the various core policing functions provided by An Garda Síochána and discusses which of these core policing functions will survive the challenging policing environment of the future. The article explores the transformations taking place in policing worldwide and how the policing role is being redefined and diversified. The article concludes that a review and analysis of core and non core policing functions is required, along with informed public debate and public decisions through the legislature so as to ensure An Garda Síochána provides the policing service which the public require into the future.

Garda Olivia Markham and Garda Eleanor O'Halloran provide an insight into their experience of being selected to take part in the McCabe Fellowship Foundation Programme. Studying and representing An Garda Síochána at the John Jay College of Criminal Justice in New York. The article outlines how the McCabe Fellowship was established to memorialise the career and brave service of Detective Garda Jerry McCabe and provides an insight from a student's perspective of pursuing a Master of Arts Degree at John Jay College of Criminal Justice. The article concludes with details explaining the criteria for eligibility to partake in the McCabe Fellowship which will be of interest to future applicants.

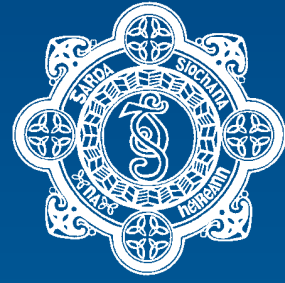
Superintendent Mark Curran examines the relevance of leadership in modern organisations and the importance of leadership styles for An Garda Síochána as it faces the rapid pace of change of the 21st Century. The article provides definitions of leadership, examines the many theories of leadership which have been presented by academia and traces the development of these theories within An Garda Síochána. In conclusion the article examines how the concept of leadership development has been embraced by An Garda Síochána and illustrates how our policing service is better equipped to meet the challenges of change as a result.

Garda Tara King examines the subject of child prostitution. The article sets out the context of what exactly child prostitution is, where it exists and who is involved. The article outlines the definitions and supporting academic theories which provide the necessary evidence that child prostitution is an international problem with devastating effects on the children involved. The article details the national legislation which aims to protect children and discusses how co-operation between international police services is the best way to tackle the problem of child prostitution.

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GARDA TARA KING is a native of Wicklow and joined An Garda Síochána in 1997. She has previously served at Dun Laoghaire in the DMR (East) and Garda National Immigration Bureau. She joined the Organisation Development Unit in 2003. Garda King holds an NCEA Diploma in Policing Studies, a BA in French and History from University College Dublin and a Higher Diploma in Public Management from the Institute of Public Administration. In 2006, she successfully completed an MA in Public Management (Criminal Justice) at the Institute of Public Administration, Dublin and is currently studying for a Diploma in Business Analysis & Consultancy from the National College of Ireland.

What core policing services will survive the challenging policing environment of the future?



Superintendent
Maura Lernihán

Superintendent Maura Lernihán

INTRODUCTION

Policing – more particularly crime, security and road safety – has been close to the top of the political agenda in Ireland in recent times with intensive media attention. In the midst of public demands for a response to increasing gun and gang crime, drug abuse, public disorder and road fatalities together with a requirement for police accountability, the Government response has been to substantially increase resources to the Garda Síochána and establish a new policing framework in the Garda Síochána Act 2005.

Transformations in policing worldwide have led to significant debate on how security of the general public can best be achieved (*Vaughan, 2004, 2006*). The police role is being redefined and policing is being diversified (*Bayley, Shearing 2001*). Policing is being transformed from being authorised and provided for by the state alone, towards a situation whereby policing is being demanded and dispensed by a host of non-governmental groups and methods. A growing fear of crime has increased reliance on private police and security products. The police monopoly on expertise within its own sphere of activity has ended. Policing now belongs to everyone, in activity, responsibility, and in oversight (*Bayley and Shearing 1996*). Pluralising of policing in Ireland may be less evident but private security; civilian support and reserve Garda are growing. Prioritisation of policing core tasks are demanded from different levels and perspectives i.e. micro (individuals – public attitudes surveys), mesa (community – Joint Policing Committees) and macro (national – government, strategic plans).

Shearing and Bayley (2001) say policing is undergoing a historic worldwide restructuring and distinguishing features of the new paradigm are:

- (a) the separation of those who authorise policing from those who do it and the transference of both functions away from government.
- (b) the role of the public police may be changing significantly.

While people now expect high levels of quality, standards and satisfaction when they contact their police, 'It is increasingly difficult to achieve these high standards in all police functions at all times', (Morris 2006, Morris 2007). The future of policing according to Vaughan (2004), Johnson (2000), and Bayley and Shearing (1996) will be significantly different than today with service supply more diversified and 'police' services being delivered by many other suppliers than the police.

In Ireland, the Government, Statute, Joint Policing Committees, Garda strategic goals, annual policing plan priorities, and the priorities of public attitude surveys create core and non-core roles and policing tasks. Ireland's fiscal surplus over the past decade has permitted the Garda Síochána to continuously expand its policing roles and specialisation has expanded, to increase effectiveness.

The demands and expectations of Irish society, (a society in transition which is multicultural, affluent, and requiring a very high level of service from its police force) has implications for future policing roles and functions. A less benign fiscal



environment and increased volatility could substantially change the policing environment during the next decade. Poverty, marginalisation, homelessness, drug use and physical and sexual violence are still obdurate problems. While Garda public attitude surveys ask people to prioritise their policing services each year (*Kennedy, 2007*), Joint Policing Committees could change how Irish communities want their policing organised. Although the impact of these changes is difficult to predict, it may be timely to examine how we do our business.

CORE AND NON-CORE POLICING ROLES

While core and non-core roles are central to the world policing debate, legislation establishing the Garda Síochána in the 1920s was silent on a clear statutory prescription of the functions of the force and did not define what should be within its remit. Over the years attempts have been made to define the role of the organisation and the Garda Síochána Act 2005 has enacted the functions of the Garda Síochána. As stated in Section 7(1) . . . to provide policing and security services for the State with the objective of

- (a) preserving peace and public order,
- (b) protecting life and property,
- (c) vindicating the human rights of each individual,
- (d) protecting the security of the State,
- (e) preventing crime,
- (f) bringing criminals to justice, including by detecting and investigating crime, and
- (g) regulating and controlling road traffic and improving road safety.

Section 7(2) “The Garda Síochána shall co-operate, as appropriate, with other Departments of State, agencies and bodies having, by law, responsibility for any matter relating to any aspect of that objective.” Section 7(3) “In addition to its functions outlined above, the Garda Síochána and its members have such functions as are conferred on them by law including those relating to immigration.” (Garda Síochána Act, 2005).

These functions are clear and provide boundaries and clarity to core role selection. However, as stated in Section 7(2) . . . “responsibility for any matter relating to any aspect of that objective” . . . provides wide latitude for government to bestow additional policing roles to An Garda Síochána. A nationwide footprint in 709 locations, high public satisfaction ratings and an organisation that cannot strike or refuse additional roles makes this tempting. Roles that do not fit squarely with a parent department tend to devolve to An Garda Síochána.

The Act legislates the formal relationship between the Executive, the Minister, the Oireachtas and An Garda Síochána and the Garda relationship with local government. In November 2007 the Justice Minister published the Government policing priorities for 2008, which formed part of the policing plan for 2008. The Act established and set the functions of Joint Policing Committees between local authorities and the Garda Commissioner to serve as a forum for consultation, discussion and recommendations on matters affecting the policing of the local authority’s area.

High-visibility reassurance policing measures in their communities is the underlying preference among the public in yearly public attitude surveys (Kennedy, 2007).

The Garda Síochána Corporate Strategy 2007-2009, (*A Time For Change, An Garda Síochána, 2006*) has six strategic goals, objectives, and imperatives which relate to the provision of policing services in the areas of national and international security, crime prevention and detection, traffic and road safety, community engagement, ethnic and cultural diversity and public order policing.

Garda core and non-core policing tasks have expanded significantly over the past decade, with a very broad task-reach compared to other police services and Garda reform is impacting on the way it conducts itself and serves the community. Scale and scope efficiencies are relevant (although, as yet poorly measured). Information, the lifeblood of policing, is maximised by the current level of multitasking. Increases in quality, standards, and service satisfaction may require a reduction in core and non-core policing roles. The decade ahead may be marked by, first, a slowing of the current increase in the number of non-core roles, followed by a reduction in non-core roles, followed next by a migration of a core role to a separate agency, followed in the fourth place by the migration of several core roles.

SPECIALISATION

In the current policing environment there is more and more a need for specialisation as crime investigation has by necessity become more specialised. Partnership with specialised civilian personnel is the norm in units such as the Criminal Assets Bureau and the Garda National Immigration Bureau. The Irish Government, when outlining its policing priorities for 2008, specifically mentioned specialisation and two new specialised functions have since been announced, a joint Irish/UK anti-human trafficking unit and specialised role for road traffic forensic investigation managers. Specialisation is also expanding at a strategic level, with a Chief Administrative Officer, Executive Director of ICT, a Director of Communications, Director of Human Resources, Legal Advisor, and full time analysts. In this context, while the Garda organisation has developed an increasing number of specialist units, a debate has emerged in other jurisdictions around the need to multiskill all police personnel.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT OF POLICE REFORM IN IRELAND

Within the European arena, the 1980s and 1990s heralded the emergence of a drive for greater efficiency and a new school of thought around better Government, greater access, accountability, transparency and improved service delivery. In Ireland, the government published “Delivering Better Government” (*Government Publications, Dublin 1996*) to apply Strategic Management concepts to all aspects of civil and public service in Ireland, including the police. A steering group was set up to carry out a review of the efficiency and effectiveness of An Garda Síochána. This group published a report in 1997 which established the framework for the implementation of Strategic Management Initiatives in An Garda Síochána and recommended that an implementation strategy be devised which would, among other things, describe the organisations mission, roles and functions. This recommendation qualified

that decisions reached in relation to the transfer of non-core roles to other agencies be reflected in future corporate strategy statements. The Steering Group recommended that the Government clearly define the roles of An Garda Síochána to allow the organisation focus on these core roles and functions and therefore target resources in a more strategic manner. The report recommended that a number of existing roles be eliminated, transferred to other organisations or scaled down. (An Garda Síochána, 1997). While a small number of functions were transferred, the Garda Síochána has, in the last decade, taken on significantly more roles than it shed.

THE EFFECTS OF NON-CORE DEMANDS

6 Rice (2002) explored some of the challenges for An Garda Síochána in moving through the significant change programme recommended by the Steering Group. He contended that “The role and function of An Garda Síochána had become so broad that the organisation was fast becoming a victim of ‘initiative overload’. That the demand for service in terms of volume, technological development and a desire for achieving greater efficiency had caused huge changes in work practices especially in the previous ten years. He described how the people served by An Garda Síochána saw the organisation develop into a technologically advanced service that appeared ‘to rush around in cars’ at the expense of having Gardaí on the beat, using high-tech equipment and communications, and working towards meeting policing plan performance indicators.”

Rice contended that in the midst of the pressure placed on Garda resources to perform non-core functions, the momentum towards achieving improved efficiency and delivering a better service in the core roles, such as crime detection and prevention, would demand that the non-core or service functions performed by the Gardaí, be examined more critically. He cautioned that any expansion in concentration on core roles would only be achieved by the reduction of non-core activity which would require other agencies to take on roles previously performed by the Gardaí.

Contending that the public expect a varied response from the Gardaí, and see the Gardaí as a ‘help agency’ with no boundary to their role, Rice called for decisions to be made as to whether an extremely efficient and effective organisation, dedicated to core functions, at the expense of reduction or even total removal of other current Garda service roles, was what the public required. He was silent as to who or how this decision would be made. An Garda Síochána, is, he stated,

“the only 24-hour emergency service without a detailed specific function remit”

and cautions that if there was a resource requirement to match all the tasks performed by the Gardaí, some stark choices might have to be made regarding the roles that would no longer be in the Garda remit and decisions made as to who would take them over. Again he is silent on who would make these decisions but wondered if co operation in certain sections of the community would wane if the Gardaí were to concentrate exclusively on law enforcement and other coercive functions and what affect this would have on support and criminal intelligence gathering. Rice concluded that An Garda Síochána is traditionally seen as a service organisation and public surveys in recent years would appear to

contradict the general mood for developing a more efficient and effective service by dispensing with non-core services. He based his view on results of eight public attitude surveys giving An Garda Síochána an 85 per cent satisfaction rate average over two decades and the fact that satisfaction rates with An Garda Síochána are significantly higher than in the UK and Northern Ireland and in other European Countries (European Values Study (EVS), 1981, 1991, 2000). He highlighted the need to critically examine non-core tasks before handing them over to other agencies to perform and cautioned against alienating the public by moving away from tasks valued by the public in an effort to become more efficient.

DEVELOPMENTS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

The British Government examined core and non-core police tasks with the Core and Ancillary Review 1993-1995 (Home Office 1995) to examine the service provided and make recommendations about the most cost-effective way of delivering core police services. The Review identified 26 specific areas and 30 activities where changes to working arrangements looked potentially beneficial to the police service in terms of freeing up resources that could be better used in other ways. It recommended further work on the emerging findings of a number of cost effectiveness studies in key areas of policing activity such as managing calls from the public. Any changes, whether involving police withdrawal from a task, re-organisation of work within a police force, were subjected to cost benefit analysis to provide a basis for comparison. However, segmentation of functions to other bodies has proven difficult.

Vaughan (2004) refers to a 'managerial' model of policing, applying business techniques to secure an efficient and effective service, employed in British police since the late 1980s, including outsourcing functions and other changes. Highlighting how the UK police service adapted itself to meet new challenges, Sir Ian Blair, delivering the Dimpleby Lecture 2005, referred to the 1993 Government White Paper on Police Reform which stated, "The main role of the police is to catch criminals" however he stated, in 1997 it had become "to build a safe, just and tolerant society, in which the rights and responsibilities of individuals, families and communities are properly balanced, and the protection and security of the public are maintained" He also asked,

'What kind of police service do we want, who should decide that and how?'

He called for a meaningful public debate, to enable decision-making around whether police were to fight crime or its causes, help build stronger communities or undertake zero tolerance, how these functions should be carried out, what priority each should have and what the police should stop doing. He stated that he passionately believed what was needed was a unified police service, engaged with and accountable to the community and being shaped by the needs of citizens, capable of dealing with every requirement from truancy to terror, from graffiti to gunmen.

'The choice' he said, 'actually must be that there are no more "ors", only "ands": we must do it all'.

He did, however, highlight how expensive it would be to continue to police in the current fashion and asked if there were some other way, “using - as police chiefs are currently suggesting - a different mix of volunteers and different sorts of professionals?”

Reiner (1994) and Mawby (2000) noted widespread acceptance that the British tradition of local community-based policing “needs to be preserved” and “there is far greater support for transferring tasks from police to civilians *within* the police than there is for hiving off tasks from the police service” (2000: 119).

Barrett (2005) proposed that the Garda Síochána go back to basics and develop an organisation model based upon the critical issue of the primary function of the organisation. This model, he suggested, could be achieved by analysis, based on empirically sound research, of the primary function of the organisation and the contribution of the ‘factors of production’ or roles and tasks to the primary function.

THE GARDA SÍOCHÁNA ACT AND NON-CORE TASKS

The Morris Tribunal, a public inquiry into allegations, in the 1990s and early 2000s, in relation to corrupt and dishonest policing in County Donegal, established in March 2002, concluded its public hearings in 2007, completing five reports, and made recommendations which substantially influenced the final form taken by the Garda Síochána Act 2005. The Tribunal was the catalyst for this, the framework for the most far-reaching reform of the Garda Síochána in its history, the Garda Síochána Act 2005.

Section 30(1) of the Garda Síochána Act allows the Commissioner to provide and charge for police services on private property or in areas open to the public subject to certain regulations – for example sports fixtures. The need for a robust assessment process was considered by Jacob (2007) in outsourcing non-core Garda activities.

The potential benefits for outsourcing in Ireland derive primarily from freed-up staff, skills, and capacity. The extent of the resources that could be made available was measured by Moran (1996). He found that by terminating or reducing 12 peripheral non-core or ancillary tasks/activities 1528 full-time Gardaí would become available for reallocation. The non-core tasks (and Gardaí freed) were protection posts, cash escorts, explosives escorts (546 Gardaí), prison escorts (52 Gardaí), ministerial drivers (56 Gardaí), summonses, (141 Gardaí), warrants, (60 Gardaí), BSE¹ Operation (130 Gardaí), Alarm activations (344 Gardaí), policing major events (195 Gardaí), wandering animals (1 Garda), and firearms licencing (60 Gardaí). Partial or full outsourcing of some of these roles has been introduced since 1996, further to recommendations of the SMI review. In 1996 the strength of An Garda Síochána was 10,817. The Strength as at 31/12/2008 was 14,412 or 33.23% more than 1996. Assuming that non-core tasks grew in the same proportion as other tasks between 1996 and now, the number of Gardaí that could be reallocated from non-core duties would have increased from 1,528 to 2,035.

¹Bovine Spongiform Encephalopathy

CORE POLICING TASKS WILL BE REQUIRED IN THE FUTURE

While the literature describes how policing is undergoing historic worldwide restructuring and how delivery of policing in the future will be significantly different than today, it is clear that core and non-core policing roles have been expanding in Ireland over the past decade. The Garda Síochána Corporate Strategy and Policing Plans identify core policing functions for the future as a concentration on crime, drugs and public order, community engagement in the context of crime detection and prevention and enforcement of traffic laws in the context of preservation of life.

While the police believe that the public want them catching criminals and the methods for performing this function have become more complex due to the sophistication of crime, analysis of the literature suggests the public want the police doing more than that. High visibility reassurance policing is still required.

A recurring theme in the literature is a demand for review and analysis of core and non-core tasks. The recommendation of the SMI Steering group, that the government clearly define the roles and functions of the Garda Síochána to allow the organisation to focus on and target resources in a more strategic manner has been fulfilled, to an extent, in the Garda Síochána Act 2005. This clarity of function provided by the legislation is useful but the Act also provides the government with wide latitude to bestow additional policing roles on the Garda Síochána and allows for ‘function creep’.

It is evident that in order to concentrate on core functions, like crime, drugs and public order, prevention and detection, it will be necessary to reduce non-core activity. These non-core functions will still require attention and the public, perceiving the Garda Síochána as a helping agency, will continue to expect action. Other agencies must take on roles previously performed by the Garda Síochána and it would seem that decision and direction is required as to which functions and what agency. Public engagement is required and a debate around the performance of core and non-core policing functions. The critical question emerging is who and what will inform that debate and where is the vehicle for such debate?

While there is the view that we should not shed any role that brings us into contact with the public, senior management within the organisation, conscious of the increasing demands for police services, is aware of the need to slow or reverse the trend towards increasing the number of non-core roles being performed by the Garda Síochána. Civilianisation is welcomed as a means of shedding some outer core roles and freeing resources to concentrate on core functions. This attitude conforms with results in the staff attitude survey 2007 with 75% in favour of increased civilianisation and conclusions from the literature that in other jurisdictions there is more public acceptance of a transfer of core policing roles to civilians within the police service as opposed to outsourcing to another agency.

Joint Policing Committees, informed by analysis and results of Public Attitude surveys, could be used as vehicles to debate policing priorities at local level and

inform the debate at national level around core and non-core policing functions, priorities, the consequences of this prioritisation and the possibilities and benefits of outsourcing certain functions. Results and recommendations could be included in their mandated annual report to the Government.

What is required, as recommended in the literature, is review and analysis of core and non-core policing functions, informed public debate and decisions made by the public through the legislature as to what kind of police service is required in this century.

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The McCabe Fellowship Foundation Programme

Garda Olivia Markham & Garda Eleanor O'Halloran



Garda Olivia Markham



Garda Eleanor O'Halloran

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"He had died for his country, so that the rest of us could live in peace".¹

INTRODUCTION

Detective Garda Jerry McCabe had been a member of An Garda Síochána for 32 years when he was murdered during an attempted armed robbery of a post office cash delivery truck in Adare, Co. Limerick on the morning of Friday, 7th June 1996. His colleague, Detective Garda Ben O'Sullivan, was severely injured during the attack.

To memorialise his career and brave service, the then U.S. Ambassador to Ireland, Mrs. Jean Kennedy-Smith proposed that an exchange Fellowship Programme be established in Detective Garda Jerry McCabe's name. The programme was announced during a ceremony at the residence of the U.S. Ambassador on 17th July, 1996.

The McCabe Fellowship Foundation Programme was established to commemorate the career and memory of Detective Garda Jerry McCabe and to serve as a continuing inspiration for improvements in policing crime prevention and peace-keeping in An Garda Síochána. Since 1997, 11 members of An Garda Síochána have completed a Master of Arts programme at the John Jay College of Criminal Justice in New York under the McCabe Fellowship Foundation Programme.

Being able to complete a Master of Arts programme is an incredible opportunity for anyone to experience let alone to study and to live abroad for a twelve month period in 'the city that never sleeps'. It provides an opening for self-development and life-long learning, thus enhancing ones career in An Garda Síochána and ultimately benefiting the organisation itself. "Continuous professional development (CPD) and lifelong learning are vital to individual and organisational success" (Browell 2000).

The importance of self development was acknowledged as far back as the 1800's when Oscar Wilde said "the aim of life is self development."² The McCabe scholarship programme places great importance on mobility and furthering career prospects through learning. It is very similar in nature to the 'Erasmus model'³ of lifelong learning. The idea of studying abroad was researched by the European Commission on Education and Training. The conclusions of this study outline that a "period spent abroad not only enriches students lives in the academic field but also in the acquisition of intercultural skills and self-reliance. Staff exchanges have similar benefits both for the home and host institutions."⁴ This programme is used by 90% of European Universities and 1.9 million students have participated since it commenced in 1987.

¹Judge Joseph Mangan addressing Limerick District Court (1996) following the death of Detective Garda Jerry McCabe.

²Oscar Wilde (1854 -1900) Irish playwright and poet.

³Erasmus is the EU's flagship education and training programme, enabling two hundred thousand students to study and work abroad each year, as well as supporting co-operation actions between higher education institutions across Europe.

⁴European Commission, 2008.



JOHN JAY COLLEGE

John Jay College of Criminal Justice is part of The City University of New York and is located at two buildings on 10th Avenue and 59th Street in northwest midtown Manhattan at the edge of Central Park. It was founded in 1964 and was originally called the College of Police Science (COPS). Initially classes were held at the Police Academy on East 20th Street but eventually the school was expanded to incorporate many liberal arts disciplines and was renamed John Jay College of Criminal Justice.

The college was named after John Jay (1745-1829) who was the first Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court and one of the founding fathers of the United States. He was a native of New York City, and a New York State Governor.

A major focus of John Jay College of Criminal Justice, both in its teaching and research, is on the needs of criminal justice and public service agencies. John Jay College offers a wide range of masters' degree programmes including: criminal justice, public administration, forensic mental health counselling, forensic psychology, forensic science, protection management and forensic computing. It is dedicated to fostering an academic environment, promoting scholarship and encouraging research, especially in areas related to criminal justice.

STUDENT BODY

John Jay College is a liberal arts college dedicated to education, research and service in the fields of criminal justice, fire science and related areas of public safety and public service. The breadth and diversity of scholarship at the college reflects its commitment to innovative analyses, interdisciplinary approaches and global perspectives. It is the only liberal arts college with a criminal justice focus in the United States. The student body comprises of almost 14,000, nearly 2,000 of these being graduate students. Graduate students at John Jay are made up of people from various backgrounds including: the public sector, private sector, not for profit organisations, recent undergraduate students, law firms' employees, and serving and retired police officers and fire-fighters. The inclusion of police professionals is not surprising as it is also a major training facility for local, state, and federal law enforcement personnel.

CULTURAL DIVERSITY

The wide range of student backgrounds provides an excellent opportunity for learning aside from the academic curriculum. Due to the multicultural nature of New York City, the racial/ethnic composition of students at John Jay is quite diverse with 65% of the student body made up of Hispanics, 19% African-American, with only 8% Caucasian and 3% Asian. This again provides a very interesting and hugely beneficial classroom environment. With nearly 100 different nationalities represented in the student body, it is normal to have classes and complete group projects and presentation with students from around the world including all parts of the United States, Dominican Republic, Columbia, Albania, Israel, Jamaica, Nigeria, Libya, Canada, Ecuador, and Barbados.⁵

JOHN JAY COLLEGE FACULTY

The faculty for the criminal justice programme in John Jay College is comprised

⁵John Jay College, 2008.

of members of police organisations who have completed further studies in their specialised fields, lawyers and academics. This variety of backgrounds gives the students the benefit of different views and means of thinking. Many of the lectures are co-presented by two lecturers of varying backgrounds and can be the foundation for very interesting and often animated debates.

John Jay/Bramshill Exchange Programme is a two way exchange to allow professors from both colleges to teach and carry out research in both countries. Bramshill is the British Police Staff College in Hampshire. As part of the John Jay/Bramshill Exchange Programme, Chief Superintendent Timothy Shilston of the Northumbria Police in the United Kingdom was a visiting Professor at John Jay College for a semester, which provided an opportunity to educate students on U.K. policing and policing issues. The John Jay/Bramshill Exchange facilitates a police expert from the United Kingdom to lecture a course in comparative police administration at John Jay each semester. This presents an invaluable opportunity for a member of An Garda Síochána to learn different policing approaches and apply them on their return to Ireland.

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Garda Eleanor O’Halloran, Gurranabraher Garda Station and Garda Olivia Markham, Henry Street Garda Station were selected to participate in the McCabe Fellowship Exchange Programme in 2007. Garda O’Halloran was selected to complete a Master of Public Administration – Inspector General, and Garda Markham was selected to complete a Master of Arts in Criminal Justice

MASTER OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION – INSPECTOR GENERAL

A traditional Master of Public Administration prepares students for a career in public sector agencies as managers, analysts and policy specialists. The Public Administration – Inspector General Track prepares students to apply the core disciplines and perspectives of public administration from an oversight perspective. The Inspector General curriculum, while sharing many of the traditional programme courses, puts greater emphasis on auditing and accounting in its core curriculum, and has concentrations related to inspection and oversight. It prepares students for careers involving the assessment of performance of public agencies, and as managers in public and not-for-profit organisations with auditing, oversight and investigative responsibilities.

COURSES

REQUIRED COURSES	ELECTIVE COURSES
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Public Administration 2. Human Resource Management 3. Organisation Theory & Management Analysis 4. Public Sector Inspection & Oversight 5. Public Sector Accounting & Auditing 6. Ethics, Integrity & Accountability 7. MPA Capstone Seminar 8. Research Methods in Public Administration 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Programme Development & Evaluation 2. Techniques in Policy Development 3. Cases & Techniques in Quantitative Policy

This master's programme offers four specialisations:

- *Fiscal Policy Analysis & Oversight*
This prepares students for professional careers investigating financial-related crimes.
- *Organisational Assessment & Monitoring*
This prepares students to assess, evaluate and monitor the performance of public and not-for-profit agencies in particular careers in performance auditing and regulation.
- *International Inspection & Oversight*
This examines how inspection and oversight are conducted in international and multi-national contexts.
- *Investigation & Operational Inspection.*
This prepares students for responsibilities involving the investigation and inspection of individual and organisational conduct and performance in public agencies, with emphasis on fraud, waste and abuse.

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The subjects covered in this master's programme are very relevant to persons working within the public service in Ireland, in particular An Garda Síochána, especially within specialised units where it is necessary to carry out research and review Garda policies and procedures. This course provides the necessary skills to evaluate programmes, conduct policy analysis and educates students on various administrative and management responsibilities within a public agency. The course also provides an invaluable opportunity to learn how the government and public sector is run in the United States. Being educated by individuals who are recognised and respected as leaders in their chosen fields is a once in a lifetime opportunity, an opportunity McCabe students embrace with great enthusiasm.

MASTER OF ARTS IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE

The Criminal Justice Programme is designed for those employed in the criminal justice system, who wish to acquire job-related knowledge, broaden their perspectives or for those who wish to obtain qualifications for entry into the criminal justice profession. This Master's Programme covers a broad area of the criminal justice field including research methods, causes of crime, analysis of law enforcement, courts and the correctional system. Subjects offered in this programme include criminal law, crime mapping, cyber crime, information security and technology as well as drug abuse and terrorism.

Students enrolled in the Master of Arts in Criminal Justice programme at John Jay College must complete five core (required) subjects. Each student must pick a specialisation for their studies. This will depend on the personal interests of the individual and the career which they wish to pursue on completion of their studies. The majority of ones subjects will then be taken from their specialisation.

COURSES

REQUIRED COURSES	SPECIALISATION OPTIONS
1. Issues in Criminal Justice : Theories of Crime	1. Criminology and Deviance
2. Issues in Criminal Justice 11: Policing and Corrections	2. Criminal Law and Procedure
3. Policy analysis	3. Police Administration
4. Research design and methods	4. Investigation Techniques
5. Using computers in social research	5. Correction Administration
	6. Computer Applications in Criminal Justice
	7. Study of Drug and Alcohol Abuse
	8. Juvenile Justice

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Students in the criminal justice course must either complete a thesis track or a comprehensive examination track. As McCabe scholars complete the Masters programme in 12 months the comprehensive examination route is the recommended option. This entails two examinations of three hour duration based on all five of the required subjects and takes place at the end of the Spring semester.

The subjects covered in the criminal justice programme are extremely relevant to policing and give new insight into operational procedures in Ireland. Due to the fact that lecturers have both policing and legal backgrounds the students are afforded the value of a broader scope of experiences and a new way of thinking which is very beneficial to their career ahead. A large number of the criminal justice subjects are directly linked to policing for example the above mentioned 'violent crime investigation'. This gives police officers, such as the McCabe scholars, an opportunity to learn from high ranking American police officers and to return to Ireland with a new wealth of knowledge from a foreign police perspective. Additionally subjects such as research methods aid the McCabe scholars on their return in becoming more efficient in the compilation of plans for new initiatives recommending change to the organisation.

CRITERIA

The programme is advertised on an annual basis by way of Headquarters Directive. Applicants to the McCabe Fellowship Programme must undertake to be allocated to a Garda Headquarters unit on the successful completion of the programme. Most recently, successful applicants have been transferred to the Organisation Development Unit and the Garda Professional Standards Unit. Garda Markham and Garda O'Halloran on successful completion of the programme have been attached to the Organisation Development Unit at Garda Headquarters on their return.

EXTRA CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

An integral part of the McCabe exchange is representing An Garda Síochána on an international stage. The St Patrick's Festival is a particularly busy time for the McCabe students. In March 2008 the McCabe Scholars were invited to represent An Garda Síochána at a celebration hosted by the Irish Consulate General. The event was attended by the then Minister for Education, Mary Hanafin and Mrs

Mary Robinson, former President of Ireland. The McCabe scholars are expected to attend functions and other events for which they receive invitations as representatives of An Garda Síochána in New York City.

The McCabe Breakfast is an annual event held on behalf of the McCabe Fellowship Foundation. It is organised by John Jay College and is held during the St. Patrick's festival celebrations. It is attended by the Garda Commissioner or another senior Garda Officer, a Government representative, Mrs. Anne McCabe, the College President, senior College staff, representatives from the Irish community in New York and the McCabe students.

CONCLUSION

The McCabe Fellowship is a very exciting and challenging personal and academic opportunity. The applicant pursues further education in new surroundings with different cultures and nationalities and embarks on a learning experience from a new perspective.

Living and studying in New York for a twelve month period is a character building experience that will stand to the McCabe scholar throughout their career in An Garda Síochána. The exchange programme not only benefits the member partaking in this study opportunity abroad but An Garda Síochána also reaps the benefit. The wealth of knowledge obtained by the scholars at John Jay College is brought back with them into the organisation.

Since their return to An Garda Síochána in August, Garda O'Halloran and Garda Markham have been involved in a number of projects, utilising both research and analytical skills developed while completing the Masters programme. Some of the major projects that they have been tasked with include such diverse projects as; the Garda Training and Development Review; preparation of the Policing Plan 2009; the evaluation of the Regional Support Unit in the Southern Region; research on knife crime; evaluations of 2007 policing plan and quarterly evaluations of 2008 policing plans; and analysing statistics and crime figures. The analytical skills developed and honed at John Jay College have proved invaluable to the members on their return.

The skills that they have developed while completing this Masters programme has allowed both members to analyse information in a strategic manner, analyse Garda policy and evaluate programmes within An Garda Síochána.

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Superintendent
Mark Curran

The Importance of Leadership in a Modern Police Service

Superintendent Mark Curran

The importance of leadership in modern organisations has never been greater. The value of good leadership is driven in large measures by the challenges faced by organisations in all sectors, in environments that are constantly changing. Environmental forces, those forces which organisations have no control over, impact greatly on those responsible with guiding an organisation past unforeseen challenges. The pace of technological change, globalisation, rising expectations of citizens and consumers, increased social diversity and economic/fiscal pressures are but a small fraction of challenging environmental forces. Organisations, both private and public, face all these challenges and An Garda Síochána is no different. Leadership by members of a police service in challenging situations is often the leadership behaviour that is critical to the public's perception and their confidence in their police service. The public look to police officers for leadership and police officers must deliver.

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This article focuses on leadership and the different types of leadership within An Garda Síochána. The article provides definitions of leadership, examines the many theories of leadership which have been presented by academia and traces the development of these theories within An Garda Síochána. In conclusion the article examines how the concept of leadership development has been embraced by An Garda Síochána and illustrates how our policing service is better equipped to meet the challenges of change as a result.

DEFINITIONS OF LEADERSHIP

Leadership skills were often perceived to be a character trait and that individuals were “born” leaders. However contemporary perspectives on the subject have advanced to the point where the contrary view also holds true. Leaders can indeed be made, and the awareness of their behaviour on their followers taken to empower both leader and follower. The relationship between leaders and their followers can impact enormously on the way an organisation operates. Positive leadership can boost an organisations output while simultaneously increasing satisfaction and morale. The perception of a traditional functional organisation and associated culture is changing as a new wave of thinking and action which puts people before process, brings organisations to a new level of awareness and success.

Definitions of leadership abound in the world of academia. Bennis and Nanus (2005: 4) state that “academic analysis has resulted in more than 850 definitions of leadership after decades of research”. Their comment “Never have so many laboured so long to say so little” conveys the complexity facing researchers. However some definitions that particularly impress the author are set out herein.

Yukl (1998:5) affirms that any definition of leadership is ‘arbitrary and very subjective’ and goes on to define leadership as:

“The process wherein an individual member of a group or organisation influences the interpretation of events, the choice of objectives and strategies, the organisation of work activities, the motivation of people to achieve the objectives, the maintenance of cooperative relationships, the development of skills and confidence by members, and the enlistment of support and cooperation from people outside the group or organisation”.

“Leadership is defined by results, not attributes” (Peter F. Drucker 2008).

"Leadership revolves around vision, ideas, direction, and has more to do with inspiring people as to direction and goals than with day-to-day implementation. A leader must be capable of inspiring other people to do things without actually sitting on top of them with a checklist" (Bennis, 1989:139).

“Leadership is the art of mobilising others to want to struggle for shared aspirations” (Kouzes & Posner, 1995:30).

TRAIT THEORIES

Early researchers sought to identify the unique set of qualities or individual characteristics that leaders possessed. The focus of studies in the first few decades of the 20th century was exclusively on the leader. The concept was driven by the belief that notable leaders had exceptional characteristics. These early theories became known as *'trait theories'*. The earliest theories in this area can be traced back to the Ancient Greeks who believed that leaders were great men, and leadership was thought of primarily as a male quality, especially in terms of military leadership. The belief was leadership capacity was inherent being “born and not made”.

Stogdill (1948) contended that some individuals were higher in some traits than followers e.g. intelligence, social ability etc. In a major review in 1948, Stogdill suggested that no consistent set of traits differentiated leaders from non-leaders across a variety of situations. An individual with leadership traits who was a leader in one situation might not be a leader in another situation. Personal factors related to leadership continued to be important, but researchers contended that these factors needed to be considered as relative to the requirements of the situation. Stogdill analysed and synthesised more than 124 trait studies that were conducted between 1904 and 1947. His survey identified a group of important leadership traits that were related to how individuals in various groups become leaders. His results showed that the average individual in the leadership role is different from the average group members in the following ways: (a) intelligence, (b) alertness, (c) insight, (d) responsibility, (e) initiative (f) persistence, (g) self-confidence, and (h) sociality.

The findings of Stogdill’s survey also indicated that an individual does not become a leader solely because he or she possesses certain traits. Rather, the traits that leaders possess must be relevant to situations in which the leader is functioning. The strength of this theory diminished mostly due to the fact that there was a conceptual shift towards leaders “can be made and are not born” contrary to the basis for this theory.

As the trait theories lost credibility, academics began to focus on what leaders did - how they behaved (especially towards followers). Different patterns of behaviour were grouped together and labelled as styles. This became a very popular activity within management training – perhaps the best known is Blake and Mouton’s Managerial Grid (1964; 1978).

Various schemes appeared, designed to diagnose and develop people's style of working. Despite different names, the basic ideas were very similar. Research conducted by the Ohio State University studies (Stogdill and Coons 1957) and University of Michigan (Likert 1961) reduced leadership behaviour to two categories namely Initiating Structure Style and Initiating Consideration Style, and the employee oriented and production oriented styles respectively.

The four main styles that appear in the Behaviour theory literature are:

- **Concern for task**
- **Concern for people**
- **Directive leadership**
- **Participative leadership**

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X AND Y THEORY

This theory was popularized by Douglas McGregor in the 1950's and is based on a manager's two contrasting assumptions about human nature. This theory proposes that there are two management styles namely the X and Y styles. Theory X contends that people are inherently lazy, must be told what to do and will work only when pressured. This style resorts to the use of the "stick" or "hard X" approach where workers are threatened or punished. A "soft X" style implies reward for compliance.

Theory Y contrasts with X as it contends that people are willing to work as they are self-motivated when performing work that brings them satisfaction. By providing a positive environment employees enjoy success, acquire new knowledge, are responsible and can be creative in their pursuits to further the organisations goals.

It can therefore be seen that a leader holding Theory X assumptions would prefer an autocratic style, whereas one holding Theory Y assumptions would prefer a more participative style.

BLAKE AND MOUYON MANAGERIAL GRID

The Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid (now marketed as the leadership grid) is considered to be an extension and progression of the behavioural studies at Ohio and Michigan Universities. The grid was designed to show that leadership behaviour by leaders in pursuing organisational goals can be determined by two factors namely, concern for people and concern for production.

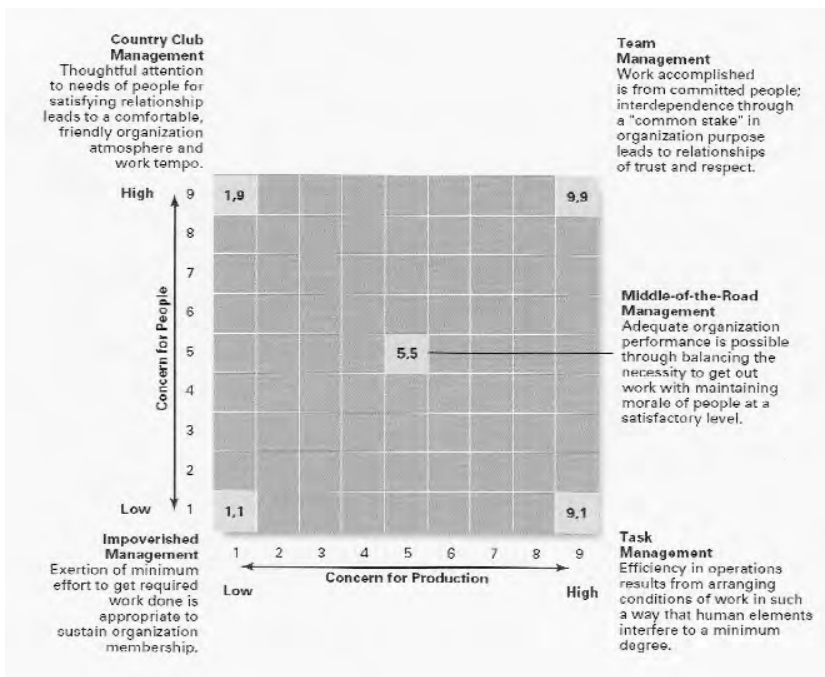
Concern for people refers to when a leader deals with the individuals and groups in an organisation in their pursuit of organisational goals. It can relate to matters around getting the job done, working conditions, salary structure, job security etc. Depending on the level of concern, people may respond in positive or negative ways.

Concern for production refers to when a leader is concerned with accomplishing organisational tasks. It is concern for "production, results, bottom line or profits" (Blake Mouton 1978:9). It can also include attention to policy decisions, new

product development or when work is physical, may take the form of efficiency measurements of workload, times etc, alongside a number of other things.

The interactions of these concerns were mapped by Blake and Mouton onto the Management Grid where the horizontal axis represents concern for production and the vertical axes represents concern for people. These dimensions are measured according to nine (9) point scales with a score of one (1) being the minimum score and of nine (9) being the maximum. The point at which a manager connects these two concerns defines his use of power.

FIGURE 1



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According to Blake and Mouton (1964) the five main leadership styles are described as follows:

Style 1-1: Management is impoverished management – low concern for people and low concern for production. This style is sometimes called Laissez-Faire management, because the leader abdicates his or her leadership styles.

Style 9-1: Management is task or authoritarian management – Low concern for people but High concern for production.

Style 1-9: Management is country club management – High concern for people but Low concern for production.

Style 5-5: Management is middle of the road management – an intermediate amount of concern for both production and people satisfaction.

Style 9-9: Management is team or democratic management – high concern for both production and people morale and satisfaction.

Blake and Mouton argue strongly that the 9–9 management style (Team management) is the most effective type of leadership behaviour. According to them, this style results in improved performance, low absenteeism, low staff turnover, and high people satisfaction.

CONTINGENCY THEORIES

Contingency theories advocate that there is no single style of leadership suitable to all situations. Contingency theory demonstrates that there is no ideal personality, nor one best style for a leader. The theory also provides a basis for developing people as leaders. By making people aware of the factors affecting the choice of leadership style and providing a basis for increased self-awareness, the theory gives a useful starting point for leadership training.

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PATH GOAL THEORY

This theory has its origins in expectancy theory, which is itself founded on the concept that “motivation depends on how much we want something and how likely we are to get it”. (Moorhead and Griffin 2004:351). This theory advocates that subordinates are motivated by leadership behaviour – clarifying paths, if they believe that their efforts will result in a certain outcome, that they have the capacity to perform the work and if they believe that the rewards (goals) are worthwhile.

The theory assumes that leaders can change their behaviours and adapt any of the leadership styles as follows:-

(i) Directive (ii) Supportive (iii) Participative (iv) Achievement oriented issues of particular relevance in this theory are the “personal characteristics of the subordinates and the characteristics of the environment” (Moorehead and Griffin 2004:352) Personal characteristics include perceived ability and the locus of control. Research has indicated that a participative style is preferred by those who can attribute the outcome to their own behaviour, whereas a directive style may be preferred when external factors are more influential in outcomes. Environmental characteristics such as task structure may impact as when it is high, a less directive style is required.

SITUATIONAL THEORIES

In the 1950’s academic attention turned to the interaction between leaders and work situation variables, which had an impact on their effectiveness. Particular focus was placed on the situational variables that affected leadership roles, skills and their follower’s performance and satisfaction. The theories that emerged were concerned about the behaviour of the leader, the follower and the various situational variables. These researchers brought the idea that the required leadership style changed with the situation. The leaders who could adapt their style to different situations and work in different ways would attract a premium. Adair (2005:45) states that the situational approach to leadership emphasises the importance of knowledge.

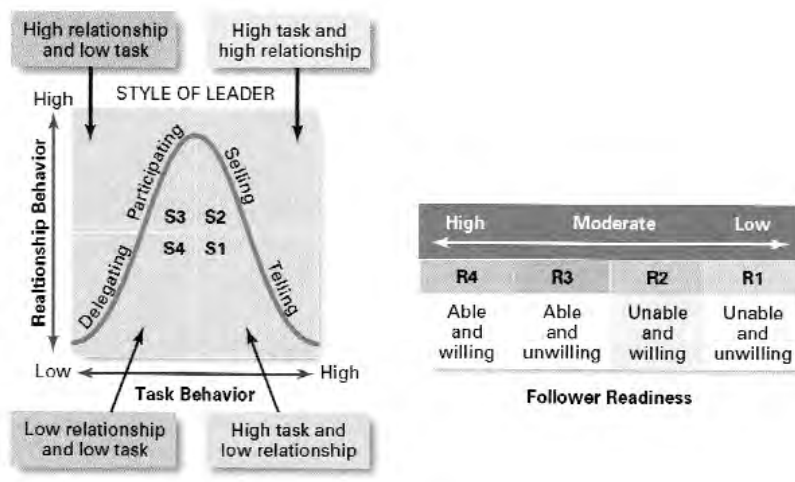
One of the leading proponents of this concept of managerial leadership was the influential academic Mary Parker Follett, who expressed her belief that the

solution was “the depersonalising of orders and obeying the law of the situation.” She contended that one person should not “give orders to another person, but both should agree to take orders from the situation.”(Mullins 2005:294) The author will outline the Hersey and Blanchard’s Situational Leadership model.

HERSEY AND BLANCHARD MODEL

This theory states that effective leadership is determined by the relationship between a leader’s style and the readiness of his followers. It suggests that a follower’s readiness is likely to increase over the life cycle of the relationship and therefore involve a change in a leader’s style as the relationship progresses.

FIGURE 2



In the model task behaviour refers to the behaviour of a leader when outlining a follower’s group activities and responsibilities through organising and setting goals. It also involves directing and controlling and the task context. Whereas relationship behaviour is concerned with the interaction between leader and follower as the leader listens, encourages and offers support to followers.

Readiness is not a personal characteristic; it is not an evaluation of a person’s traits, values, age, and so on. Readiness is preparing a person to perform a particular task (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988).

Four leadership styles emerge in this model namely:

- (i) Telling: high task, and low relationship. The leader guides, directs, establishes guidelines, Provides specific instructions, and closely supervises performance. A dysfunctional telling-style leader dictates without really considering the employees at all. Sometime an autocratic approach is appropriate and indeed desired by followers who may give a better response.
- (ii) Selling: high task and high relationship, the leader explains decisions, clarifies them and persuades employee to follow them as necessary. Too intense selling, however, can result in badgering employees with too much structure and consideration.

- (iii) Participating: low task and high relationship. The leader shifts significant responsibility to the followers, encourages employees to participate in decision-making, and facilitates collaboration and commitment. In extreme cases, the leader can bend too far to accommodate the will of the employees, rather than correctly judging the appropriate amount of participation.
- (iv) Delegating: low task and low relationship. The leader only observes and monitors employee's performance after giving them responsibility for decisions and implementation. Improper application of this style can result in the leader disengaging too much from the decision making process.

In the case where the subordinate readiness is in the low category a “telling” or directing style will be appropriate. This directive behaviour is similar to Fielder’s task-oriented behaviour.

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When readiness is low to moderate a leader should use a selling style (involving the explanation of decisions and clarification of same), when moderate to high readiness a participating style can be employed which allows followers to get involved in decision making – and is similar to Fielder’s relationship-oriented behaviour. In the circumstances where there is a high level of readiness, a delegating style where there is no supervision is appropriate. “To bring out the best in others, leadership must match the development level of the person being led” (Blanchard 2007:88).

“People must willingly accept direction.....essence of what leadership is all about” Bennis and Nanus (2003:58). The situational leadership model rests on two concepts: one, that leader effectiveness results from using a behavioural style that is appropriate to the demands of the environment; and two, that leader effectiveness depends on learning to diagnose that environment.

The main advantage of this model is that it highlights the importance of flexibility and the context of the situation in determining the behaviour of leaders.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE DERIVED LEADERSHIP

Goleman (2000) in association with the Hay Mc Brer Group studied the responses of nearly 4,000 executives and identified six various leadership styles. These styles are rooted in emotional intelligence and are particularly relevant for the effect that they have on the organisational climate. The results indicate that effective leaders do not rely on one individual style but change styles seamlessly in the course of time and employ styles according to the needs of situations. Goleman argues that four (4) of these styles result in a positive impact on the organisation climate and consequently achieve more positive work outcomes. He contends that no style should be relied upon exclusively but all have at least some short-term uses. Using a golfing analogy he states that successful leaders must use their styles like a golf professional uses a golf club – the right club (style) at the right time.

TRANSACTIONAL / TRANSFORMATIONAL THEORIES

A number of academics in recent years including Burns have supported the concept of two basic leadership types namely transactional and transformational.

Transactional leadership relies on the authority implied by bureaucratic structure and is based on a relationship of mutual dependence. This form of interest appeals to the self-interest of followers. It suggests that there is no commitment to a higher purpose. Adair (2005:76) states that there is some value in this theory and from a human transaction perspective it is often incorrectly contrasted to transformational leadership, and then offers his view that “transactional is the foundation on which the house rests” due to the importance of the concept of reciprocity. Vera and Crossan (2004:6) quote Shamir (1995) when stating that consistent delivery of transactional agreements build on trust, respect and dependability towards Chief Executive Officers (CEO) which is typical of transformational leadership behaviour. From the author’s perspective and personal experience this behaviour is frequently displayed towards some operational leaders in An Garda Síochána.

However Bass (Tiernan 2001:251) suggest that transactional theory is “a prescription for mediocrity”. This type of leader is typically characterised as a “micro manager” and manages organisations through management by exception to the rule.

Burns (1978) defined transformational leadership as a process where leaders and followers engage in a mutual process of raising one another to higher levels of morality and motivation over and above self-interests. The transformational school emphasized vision and overarching organisational change.

Burns (Leadership 1978) described four theories of management:

- (i) Management by Command – subordinates have little input and are meant to do what they are told
- (ii) Management by Objectives – Subordinates are given goals and then decide how to achieve them.
- (iii) Management by Communication – complex organisations where skilled subordinates define their own goals based on the needs of the organisation.
- (iv) Management by Vision – Management is about inspiring people to achieve what they know they can achieve.

Bennis and Nanus state that transformational leaders can empower employees and their needs, provide visions reflecting key values of the employees, and can “move followers to higher levels of conscientiousness, such as liberty, justice and self-actualisation” (2003:203). Self-actualisation in this context can be taken from Maslow’s Model representing an individual’s highest need implying intrinsic motivations.

Hayes (2007:169) states that transformational leaders have an aptitude at identifying those that might support or sabotage an initiative. Mullins (2005:304) concludes that this type of leadership is necessary and it will gain even more importance due to the need to lead rather than react to change. Finally he states that transactional and transformational behaviour can be practiced by one leader. Whereas Transformational Leadership has more of a 'selling' style,

Transactional Leadership, once the contract is in place, takes a 'telling' style. Research has shown that Transformational Leadership behaviours are valued by police officers (British Home Office 2004:25).

LEADERSHIP WITHIN AN GARDA SÍOCHÁNA

An Garda Síochána has embarked on a journey of major change as a result of various reports from the Garda Inspectorate, Morris Tribunal, the Hayes Review Group and the Garda Síochána Act 2005. The Irish demographic has been changing in terms of its composition and expectations. There is now greater diversity within the service with increasing gender balance, recruitment of foreign nationals in order to respond to societal needs, and a major civilianisation programme currently underway. It is in the context of the recommendations of the aforementioned bodies and the acceptance of some of their findings that the change process has begun. Media scrutiny and public criticism focused on the competence of Garda management and its failure to 'move with the times' and address the apparent deep-seated negative and damaging culture of the organisation and its members. In recent times particular modifications to the service's management structure have taken place in order to position the organisation to embrace change.

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Major structural changes include the addition of a new post at rank of Deputy Commissioner with responsibility for change management, and the recruitment of a Chief Administrative Officer at a position equivalent to the rank of Deputy Commissioner. The role and autonomy of regional Assistant Commissioners is to be developed significantly.

The current strategic response of An Garda Síochána is the Garda Síochána Corporate Strategy 2007 – 2009. One of the six (6) Strategic Imperatives that underpin this strategy is Strategic Imperative no. 5 “To ensure the Garda Síochána is well led and managed.”

Future Leadership capacity in the police context will likely be tested against the idea as proposed by Kenny (2005) that leadership is an activity and not a position. This will test the role of appointed leaders in the organisation and may require a different approach to styles of managerial leadership prevalent in the Garda organisation. The implication is that irrespective of rank or position within the organisation, various leadership styles and behaviours are required across each level. This is also driven by the reality that collaboration is now required with individuals over whom leaders have no direct control. This will lead to new possibilities and help shape the organisation in achieving its goal to be “a world class organisation through change and modernisation” (GS Corporate Strategy 2007-9).

Blanchard (2007:253) states that as a result of studies, two leadership types exist; namely strategic and operational leadership - frequently described as the corporate and business levels - are to be found in organisations. For an effective organisation effective leadership capacity must be at both levels. Strategic leadership is about the creation of vision and direction and developing a culture where the values align with the vision, in addition to setting out a set of

imperatives required to enable successful realisation of the vision. In An Garda Síochána this level is occupied by all of the Commissioner ranks and a small number of civilians.

Operational leadership is the ‘how’ for the organisation. It involves the implementation and application of procedures, policies and systems and the cascading of leadership behaviours from senior management down to frontline employees. This type of leadership will typically be found in those members of Chief Superintendent rank and lower. However regional Assistant Commissioners also play an important operational role in the organisation. Blanchard argues that the key to organisational vitality is operational leadership and assuming that the strategic direction is good this is where most of the action exists. This is where most human activity such as teamwork and contact with customers occurs.

The Garda Síochána Act 2005 which was passed into law in July 2005 made provision for the Garda Síochána Inspectorate. In respect of the Inspectorate the Minister for Justice Equality and Law Reform appointed a former Boston Police Commissioner Kathleen O’Toole as Chief Inspector to lead this agency on 17th May, 2006. The objective of The Garda Síochána Inspectorate is as set out in the Act:

‘To ensure that the resources available to the Garda Síochána are used so as to achieve and maintain the highest levels of efficiency and effectiveness in its operation and administration, as measured by reference to the best standards of comparable police services’ (S.117 of the Garda Síochána Act 2005).

The Inspectorate in its report published in August 2007 makes a number of recommendations about the structure and function of various levels within the service. Significant change is advocated in order to achieve the vision as set out in Garda Síochána Corporate Strategies.

The Act also introduced *Joint Policing Committees* in order to tackle crime and public order with the goal of having Local Authorities and Local Representatives involved in tackling these issues. The committees report their findings through channels to the Minister for Justice, Equality and Law Reform. Community Fora function under the authority of Joint Policing Committees and have a more focused remit.

LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT WITHIN AN GARDA SÍOCHÁNA

A Leader development model consisting of three pillars where leaders grow from learning, experience, and personal study is the basis for leadership development in An Garda Síochána.

All Gardaí receive on the job training in respect of leadership. This commences on their first encounters with policing incidents where they are required to use their initiative and resolve conflicts or interacting with private individuals or groups. Formal leadership development becomes more focused for Superintendent level and above.

The final report of the “Advisory Group on Garda Management and Leadership Development” (Hayes *et al* 2007) addressed the issue of future leaders by suggesting that young members from the various backgrounds and ethnic minorities that display promise, be selected to work alongside senior officers to gain experience and observe first hand the work of police leaders. This recommendation is driven by the concept of leadership development and continuity.

Leadership will be seen at every level within An Garda Síochána however the formal responsibility for leadership rests with members appointed to rank positions. The leadership development of these members is varied according to rank. In the main leadership development is an on the job experience complimented by training on promotion development courses. Since 2004 a mentoring aspect has been introduced to each course level. Mentoring input exists throughout a number of modules over the duration of the developments course, which can be over a six-month period.

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An Executive Leadership course, which has third level status, is now provided for Chief Superintendents and higher ranks. This is conducted over an academic year. The Garda Inspectorate in its August 2007 report recommends that this course is made available to Superintendents with the view to optimising the long term benefits of training.

A HETAC (Higher Education and Training Awards Council) approved a Bachelor of Arts (Police Management) Degree for An Garda Síochána. This course is specifically designed to develop management practices within the Garda organisation, with particular emphasis on strategic management. It is available to Garda Inspectors and Superintendents or higher ranks within the organisation.

Retired Deputy Commissioner Peter Fitzgerald (June 2004) in the Garda Communiqué magazine stated that “Knowledge-based strategy formulation should start with the primary intangible resource: the knowledge, skills, know-how and competence of people.” This view indicates awareness and intention amongst senior managers that has now been translated into reality and displayed in the formulation of strategy, through extensive consultation with all members of the organisation in the process of designing policing plans.

The top down management structure has been changing and a higher degree of bottom up input is now transmitted through the Performance and Accountability (P&A) framework and other mechanisms. In terms of the softer side of Human Resource Management (HRM) strategy a noticeable development in recent years appears to be a shift in the hierarchical decision-making associated with a top down structure. Divisional and District Officers enjoy greater autonomy now than ever before. Increasing contact with senior ranks and a shift towards a participative and receptive perspective of leadership is more evident.

Due to the special leadership requirements of policing, specific policing core competencies are needed. Core competences in a competency framework were

profiled and adopted for competitive promotion interviews for Assistant Commissioner by An Garda Síochána in 2001 and now are included for all ranks. In addition the bulk of the competencies have direct relevance to leader behaviour e.g. the practical application of knowledge and experience, creativity and innovation. Most of the competencies identified are generic leadership competencies which would apply to leaders in any organisation. The existence and application of such working competencies serves as a form of leadership and common identity and key value framework within the organisation.

CONCLUSION

Police leadership is essentially about maximising the potential of those human and other resources available to An Garda Síochána in the pursuit of policing goals. Leadership is a critical factor in achieving high morale, and a climate which is accepting of organisational change. Leaders must adapt a positive leadership style in order to achieve this transformational leadership behaviour. Effective leadership brings with it more confident and productive teamwork, and apart from HRM advantages and health benefits, it is more likely to be the best tool to carve out the future direction for An Garda Síochána. A key element of our future must be to know which leadership behaviours work.

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"Children of the Night" - An Analysis of Child Prostitution

Garda Tara King



Garda Tara King

The non-profit American organisation Children of the Night (2008) describes child prostitution *"as an immense and devastating problem that nobody wants to recognize, nobody wants to talk about, and everyone wants to cover up. Child prostitutes are not only abandoned by their parents, but by the social services system as well"*.

Although present in society for a long time it is only in recent years that the subject of child prostitution has received public acknowledgement and has arrived into the public arena for discussion. This article proposes to look at the subject of child prostitution in Ireland in the context of what it is, where it exists and who is involved. *"UNICEF estimates that One Million children under 18 are entering the prostitution trade each year, this is not the total but the new arrivals"*, (Long 27/8/96). This is the international situation of which Ireland is a part.

The full extent of child prostitution in Ireland is very difficult to assess due to the covert nature of the problem.

It is a previously proven fact that young people who commit crime or find themselves homeless hail from all aspects of society and all spheres of the social scale. Children are the future of any country and have the right to be protected. In order to do this, the problems children face or the risks they take must be identified. The reasons why child prostitution exists are numerous and complex.

DEFINITIONS

Definitions may differ depending on the source however they are fundamentally the same and identify child prostitution as a form of child sexual exploitation.

Child Prostitution has been defined by the World Congress Against the Commercial and Sexual Exploitation of Children, as the *"exploitation for sexual purposes and for financial or in kind profit, of children"* (defined in the Convention on the Rights of the Child as a person under the age of 18 years or as otherwise defined by an individual country). Each individual country has legislated for a minimum age of consent. In simpler terms the Mid-Western Health Board (1998) has offered the following explanation; *"Prostitution comprises of groups of individuals who offer or are forced or pressurised to offer sex in return for money, material goods, a spin around town in an expensive car, attention or affection"*. Many others, such as Barnardos (1996), have defined the exploitation of children as *"child sexual abuse"*. It is necessary to remember that child prostitution does not affect just females but also the male population. As is evident in the definition offered by the Mid-Western Health Board, prostitution is not just carried out for the purpose of payment. In the case of children no payment may be received.

WHY CHILD PROSTITUTION?

A number of reasons have been interpreted as to why children become involved in prostitution. The term *'at risk'* has been used in many studies to describe those children who find themselves caught up in prostitution.

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Bracey (1979) identified that charm, flattery, the promise of money, protection, companionship and emotional closeness entice young girls into prostitution. Martyn (1998) found that child prostitution was '*sex for survival*' and used by young people to secure accommodation, food, alcohol, cigarettes, drugs, clothes or money.

Barnardos have identified the following as the pathways into child prostitution:

- A means of survival on the streets, homelessness
- To buy clothes or other goods
- To feed a drug habit/other addiction
- Victim of emotional/sexual abuse
- Groomed by paedophiles
- Sexual confusion/orientation problems
- To feed addiction of another.

Barnardos have identified a process whereby children can become involved in prostitution. This process has been defined as follows:

- Stage 1: Ensnaring
- Stage 2: Creating Dependency
- Stage 3: Taking control
- Stage 4: Total dominance.

Barnardos state "*when it happens at home it is child sexual abuse. When it happens on the street and there is payment it is prostitution*". Child prostitution is another form of child sexual abuse and the children are the victims rather than criminals.

RESEARCH ON CHILD PROSTITUTION IN IRELAND

Research into the subject of child prostitution has improved in recent years. In Ireland research has been very scarce. In the late 1990's a number of reports were published by the following organisations:

Europap and Women's Health Project	- 1996
Gay Men's Health Project	- 1997
The Eastern Health Board	- 1997
The Mid-Western Health Board	- 1998
North Eastern Health Board	- 1998

The Eastern Health Board, in its report of the Working Party on Children in Prostitution identified a total of 57 children working as prostitutes mainly in Dublin City. Of these 57, 25 were male and 32 were female, indicating that this is as much a male problem as a female problem. 47 of the prostitutes were under 18 years.

In February 1998 the Mid-Western Health Board released its figure of 20 young people operating as prostitutes in the Limerick area. No indication is given as to how many were male or female.

In October 1995 child prostitution was identified in Dundalk, when the Youth Initiative in Partnership, identified 12 young people. The findings of which were published in 1998. A study was also carried out in 1996/97 by the North Eastern Health Board and they identified 9 young people as being involved while in care.

The Gay Men's Health Project (1997) found that most of the men surveyed had engaged in paid sex between 13 and 18 years. The findings of this report indicate that apart from sexuality, the reasons for involvement in prostitution are similar to those experienced by females involved in prostitution.

Articles have appeared in the national newspapers in recent years claiming that child prostitution is occurring in Ireland:

15-year-old escapes 'sex trap' house. This article relates to a Burundian girl who alleged she was trafficked into Ireland for the purpose of sexual exploitation. (Sunday Independent, 11/09/2005).

Exploitation of minor does not surprise experts. (The Irish Times, 14/5/2004).

Funds to fight child prostitution cut. (The Irish Times, 31/12/2003).

Boy (14) on solicitation charge broke out of home. (The Irish Times, 16/5/2002).

Prostitution of children reported. This relates to the prostitution of children in Athlone. (The Irish Times, 30/7/1999).

The trafficking of children for sexual exploitation internationally has grown immensely over the years. Akullo (2005) reports that UNICEF have estimated that between 1 and 2 million children are trafficked worldwide for sexual exploitation, domestic servitude and benefit fraud across the world. The United Nations (2000) outlines that "*trafficking in persons shall mean the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery.*"

LEGAL ASPECTS OF CHILD PROSTITUTION

Roby (2005) identifies that laws are only as effective as their enforcement. In Ireland the legislation exists to deal with the problem of child prostitution. The Department of Justice (1996) stated that to decriminalise public soliciting for persons under 17 years would be a recognition of what it really is, where the child is the victim.

In Irish Law, under Section 6 of the Criminal Law (Sexual Offences) Act 1993 a person commits an offence if they solicit or importune another person. A number of other sections in the same Act refer to prostitution also. Section 9 relates to the organisation of prostitution. It is under this section that a pimp may

be prosecuted for his or her involvement in prostitution. Section 11 relates to the keeping of brothels. This Section carries a 5 year prison sentence for those who are tried on indictment and who are convicted. This is also the case with Section 9. This Act, in Section 19, provides An Garda Síochána with the power to search premises in cases where there is suspected brothel keeping.

With reference to the clients of child prostitutes, they too are committing offences under the Criminal Law (Sexual Offences) Act 2006. Under Section 2 of the same Act, a person who engages in a sexual act with a child under the age of 15 years is guilty of an offence, and under Section 3 a person who engages in a sexual act with a child under the age of 17 years is guilty of an offence. These laws stand even if consent is given by the young person. Both of the above sections apply to females and males.

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The Children Act 2001 amended many of the sections of the Children's Act of 1908 and created new offences. Section 249 states that a person is guilty of an offence "*if, having the custody, charge or care of a child, he or she causes or encourages unlawful sexual intercourse or buggery with the child or causes or encourages the seduction or prostitution of, or a sexual assault on, the child*". This offence carries a sentence of 10 years or a substantial fine. This Act also creates an offence of allowing a child to reside or frequent a brothel. This section may be applied to parents of young children especially women who are prostituting themselves and allow their children to be present on the premises. The most difficult proof, in a case such as this, would be to provide evidence that the premises was in use as a brothel.

The Sexual Offences (Jurisdiction) Act, 1996 allows for the prosecution of Irish citizens who commit offences of a sexual nature against children in another State. This legislation was designed to prevent people from travelling to other countries and using the services of child prostitutes who are more prevalent in these countries. The legislation also applies to persons who aid and abet the commission of an offence or incite another to commit an offence. Sections 3 and 4 of the Act create offences of arranging transport for a person knowingly for the purpose of enabling that person to commit an offence or publishing information which promote, advocates or incites another to commit an offence. The Act also allows for the issue of a search warrant by a Judge of the District Court to members of An Garda Síochána. For this legislation to be effective, co-operation is required between International Police Services.

The Criminal Law (Human Trafficking) Act, 2008 deals with the trafficking of children for the purpose of sexual exploitation. For the purpose of this Act a child is anyone under the age of 18 years. Section 3 states "*a person who trafficks a child for the purposes of the sexual exploitation of the child shall be guilty of an offence and shall be liable on conviction on indictment to imprisonment for life*". The sexual exploitation of children has been legislated for and the Irish Government has provided lengthy sentences as a deterrent. The trafficking of children for sexual purposes requires an international response. Trafficking is a difficult offence to prosecute as evidence is difficult to gather.

Along with the legislation available, the Irish Government must also abide by Article 34 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child. The Department of Foreign Affairs have indicated that this Protocol was signed by Ireland in September 2000 however to date it has not been ratified.

The National Juvenile Liaison Office receives referrals on juveniles arrested for prostitution offences. The Garda Síochána Annual Reports 2000-2006 outline the referrals for child prostitution offences for the period 2000 to 2006. The Annual Report of the Committee appointed by the Minister to Monitor the Effectiveness of the Diversion Programme outlines the referrals for 2007.

YEAR	JUVENILE REFERRALS
2000	0
2001	4
2002	1
2003	0
2004	0
2005	2
2006	0
2007	0

CONCLUSION

In 2000 the Minister of State, Mary Hanafin stated that the Government’s Action Programme for the Millennium identified services to address the problem of child homelessness and child prostitution and that since the Government had come into power they had allocated 76 million for childcare to help children at risk. She also stated in 2000 that *“child prostitution is a small but serious problem which the Government is fully committed to addressing”*. In addition to the implementation and enforcement of new legislation, a preventative approach would help to reduce the extent of these problems in the future. It is imperative for everyone to appreciate that *“children are the seeds of our future”* and need to be protected (Long, 27/8/96).

The covert nature of child prostitution has prevented the real extent of the problem from being identified. The available statistics are proof enough that child prostitution exists in Ireland.

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