

# **The Deep End Guide**

**An introduction to Community Safety  
and the Organisations involved**

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**Thames Valley Partnership  
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**Thames Valley  
Partnership**  
Working for safer communities



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# Foreword

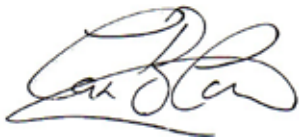
This guide was suggested to us by our colleagues in the Thames Valley Police, Local Policing Team - Lindsey Finch and Geoff Robinson. The original text was written by John Hedge with comments from Gillian Stimpson, Wycombe District Council, Jackie Wilderspin, Oxfordshire PCT, and Gerry Marshall, Chief Executive of Thames Valley Probation.

A number of people have helped with the editing, particularly Penny Butler. Andrea Hewes has designed the layout, and Debbie Coles has provided valuable administrative support throughout.

The recently elected Coalition Government has already made a number of significant changes in public policy, and many more have been signalled. Whilst efforts have been made to incorporate these developments, the pace of change in current public policy is so fast that any Guide will quickly become out of date. For this reason, we have provided space throughout the text for the reader to make notes. We do intend to update and review the content and, as with all guides, the contributions, suggestions and 'top tips' of the people using it are vital, so please send any comments to [admin@thamesvalleypartnership.org.uk](mailto:admin@thamesvalleypartnership.org.uk)

Whilst many people helped put this guide together, any mistakes are the responsibility of the Thames Valley Partnership alone.

We hope you find this guide helpful and that it will prove to be a very practical tool for your day-to-day work.



*Lord Ian Blair of Boughton*

Chair of Thames Valley Partnership Board of Trustees

# Introduction

If you have worked in community safety for a while, you are likely to remember the complexity and confusion of your early meetings: an array of names, agencies and issues, with complex discussions full of acronyms and references to government guidance. As a representative of your agency, you feel that you should know about all this, but may have received very little preparation.

This guide is designed to help agency representatives, elected representatives and interested citizens understand some of the basic issues about local authorities, and public services, as well as the way they fit together to form the partnerships responsible for community safety, and substance misuse. It also explains how funding works, and how the various local strategies fit together.

The guide only covers England, as different structures, nationally and locally, apply in the rest of the United Kingdom. The information is basic, but if you want to know more, this will at least provide a reliable starting point.

**Section I** provides information about how community safety began, and how it has developed since, with a summary of the main laws and policies.

**Section II** covers the organisations that are the key partners in the Community Safety Partnership. If you imagine yourself at a Community Safety meeting this section covers the main agencies involved. They may not sometimes be there in practice - poor attendance or 'buy in' from some organisations has been a real problem for Community Safety Partnerships since the original legislation. Best perhaps to think of the guide, then, as 'going round the table' on a particularly well attended day!

**Section III** covers other organisations who may be involved in Community Safety work, and they are frequently represented at meetings, or sub-groups.

**Section IV** looks at the key national drivers and structures. It aims to explain how these relate to local strategy, and where Community Safety fits within the wider remit of the Local Authority and its other partnerships.

Finally, there is an appendix giving a guide to the acronyms used in this report. Space is provided for you to make notes, and there are similar note pages throughout the guide. Much of the material in the guide is taken from official websites, but wherever possible an attempt has been made to link the content to show its relevance to community safety.

The organisation of our local government and public services is complex, and expectations of partnership working have generated additional structures. An agency representative needs to know not only about the community safety structures, but also the basic shape and responsibilities of all the other agencies involved. After all, failure to understand other people's priorities does seem to lie behind most of the frustrations professionals experience in trying to plan, coordinate and evaluate partnership work.

Community Safety has achieved a huge amount since its inception, but we have a long way to go still in getting our agenda better understood by communities. We hope that this guide will help you in those tasks.





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The chief stages in the development of community safety were as follows:

- Home Office Circular 8/1984 laid down the principle that prevention of crime should be a significant and integral goal of local and national public policy.
- The Conservative government launched the Safer Cities scheme in priority areas, with local steering committees which brought together agencies and local business. These groups worked to develop local plans and initiatives and pioneered problem solving approaches. The scheme was extended in 1992.
- The Morgan Report in 1991 on Safer Communities introduced the concept of 'Community Safety'. It noted that a holistic approach was needed but that for many agencies crime prevention was a peripheral activity - therefore a multi-agency partnership approach was needed. Morgan identified six key principles. These were: - structure, leadership, information, identity, durability and resources.
- The Crime and Disorder Act of 1998 was passed by the Labour government and applied the experience of Safer Cities and the recommendations of the Morgan Report nationwide. Dis-

trict and unitary councils were required to set up Crime and Disorder Reduction Partnerships (CDRPs), which were renamed Community Safety Partnerships (CSPs) in April 2010 - and this terminology is used for the rest of the Guide. These consisted of the local authority and police as statutory partners alongside the health authorities, but probation, fire and other agencies were all to participate as well. Each has to develop a three-year strategy and undertake an annual audit. The same legislation introduced Drug Action Teams (DATs, which gradually changed to Drug and Alcohol Action Teams (DAATs) and reformed Youth Justice with the establishment of Youth Offending Teams (YOTs) at county and unitary local authority levels. The YOTs were answerable to a new national body, the Youth Justice Board (YJB).

- An outstanding anomaly in community safety legislation has been the continuing position of probation as a co-operating body rather than a statutory partner in CSPs. This has now been put right by amendment to the 1998 Act and comes into effect in 2010.
- A key feature of the 1998 Act was its overall permission to exchange information between partners if

this could be justified in terms of community safety. This was a new and significant information sharing capacity.

## **1 Police Reform Act 2002**

After an extensive review process, a number of changes to the system were introduced in 2001/2002 by means of the Police Reform Act 2002, as follows:

- The statutory partners were extended to bring in police authorities, fire authorities and primary care trusts from the Health Service.
- CSPs were required to include substance misuse in their work, so they were allowed to merge with DAATs. This has happened most easily in unitary authority areas.
- Changes in policing included the power to appoint Police Community Support Officers (PCSOs) for the first time.

Other changes resulting from the review were that the annual audit was abolished and replaced by a rolling local assessment; in areas of two-tier local government (see Councils below) the county councils were given a strategic responsibility for the district CSPs within their area, and the role of local councillors was more explicitly recognised by

the requirement to establish scrutiny committees to oversee community safety work.

## 2 Anti-social Behaviour Act 2003

The development of community safety was accompanied by much greater emphasis on behaviour which might not necessarily be criminal, but which seriously affected people's lives by way of noise, drunken or threatening behaviour, and so on, called anti-social behaviour (ASB). British Crime Survey statistics showed that this range of behaviour was very common, and failure to deal with it was a main cause of fear about crime more generally. A number of theories suggested that failure to deal with these problems also made other crime more likely to happen. For example, the famous 'broken windows theory, showed that in areas of high criminal damage, failure to repair damage such as broken windows led to higher crime levels.

The Anti-social Behaviour Act of 2003 included the following measures:

- Greater use of fixed penalty notices.
- A strengthening of Anti-Social Behaviour Orders (ASBOs), which had been first introduced in the 1998 Act. The 2003 law

introduced formal 'naming and shaming' as well as allowing ASBOs to be attached to a Criminal Court sentence. Up to then ASBOs had only been available as Civil Court Orders.

- Police powers to close 'crack houses'. This emerged from concern about crack cocaine, the power related to any identified drug dealing premises. It was expected that local protocols would be developed in order to ensure follow-up treatment and rehabilitation.

Increased use of packages, that is combinations of measures by YOTs, schools and local authorities to supervise young people at risk, together with sanctions against parents.

- Police powers to disperse groups of people behaving in an anti-social manner.

## 3 Social Landlords (Housing Associations and Local Authority Housing Departments)

In 2004, Housing providers (Social landlords) were given responsibilities to implement a Code of Practice about dealing with ASB.

## 4 The Licensing Act 2003

This Act reformed almost all aspects of alcohol and public entertainment licensing. The traditional respon-

sibility of magistrates for granting permanent and occasional licenses was ended, and all licensing responsibilities handed over to local authorities, that is, district and unitary authorities.

The Act also recognised the importance of alcohol issues in community safety, police and councils were given new powers about license enforcement and planning controls were also included where an area was seen to have too high a concentration of licensed premises.

The Coalition Government has indicated that it plans to review the Licensing legislation in due course

## 5 The Children's Act 2004

The Green Paper, 'Every Child Matters', published in September 2003 suggested a new framework of services to cover children and young people from birth to age nineteen. The resulting Act implemented these changes. The new legislation was accompanied by the launch of a major strategy document for English authorities, 'Every Child Matters: Change for Children', which made clear the main areas of concern and the direction of change.

The Children's Act 2004 places a duty on services to ensure that every child, whatever their background or circumstances, has the support they need to:

- be healthy
- stay safe
- enjoy and achieve through learning
- make a positive contribution to society
- achieve economic well-being

In practice, this meant that each county or unitary authority had to integrate its education and children and families provision under the auspices of a Children’s Trust. The trust was responsible for developing a Children’s Plan.

## 6 Clean Neighbourhood and Environment Act 2005

This Act requires CSPs and DAATs to consider anti-social behaviour and the local environment within their audits and strategies. The Act strengthened powers to deal with fly tipping, litter and other environmental crime.

### 7) Police and Criminal Justice Act 2006

This Act is concerned with the development of Policing nationally and goes beyond the 2002 Act on the role of PCSOs, as well as paving the way for neighbourhood policing. It requires every local authority to have a Crime and Disorder Committee, providing a new source of account-

ability to elected representatives. The Act, which came into force in March 2007, also formally introduces the other changes proposed in the Review of 2001, that is:

- Repeals of requirement to produce three yearly audits and strategies
- Repeals the requirement for an annual report
- Introduces a requirement to produce annual partnership strategic assessment and a three-year annual rolling community safety plan
- Introduces the power to make regulations providing a framework for minimum standards and information sharing
- Extends Overview and Scrutiny Committees to include crime and disorder
- Introduces the Community Call to Action

### 8) A note on developments following the 2010 General Election

Throughout this Guide, references will be made, by agency and subject matter, to significant policy changes and proposed legislation which will change key parts of the community safety agenda, and its working context. As far as this section is

concerned, two areas seem especially important:

First, the Home Secretary announced in July 2010 an overall review of the measures available to deal with anti-social behaviour. This is based on a critique of the ASBO and its effectiveness, and a view that ASBOs and a number of other measures introduced by the previous government have been cumbersome and bureaucratic in their operation. Consideration is to be given to a consolidation of measures and this may include a scrapping of the ASBO in its present form at least. The announcement also suggested that Government sought the fuller involvement of communities in tackling anti-social behaviour.

Secondly, the general trend of the government is to seek a more local approach to the organisation and management of public services generally. This approach, together with the commitment to a ‘Big Society’ with more emphasis on citizen contribution, may have far reaching implications for community safety, especially if these changes are accompanied, as seems likely, by substantial changes to the funding base.

## 9 Summary

This section has covered the main Acts and requirements introduced since community safety was initiated.

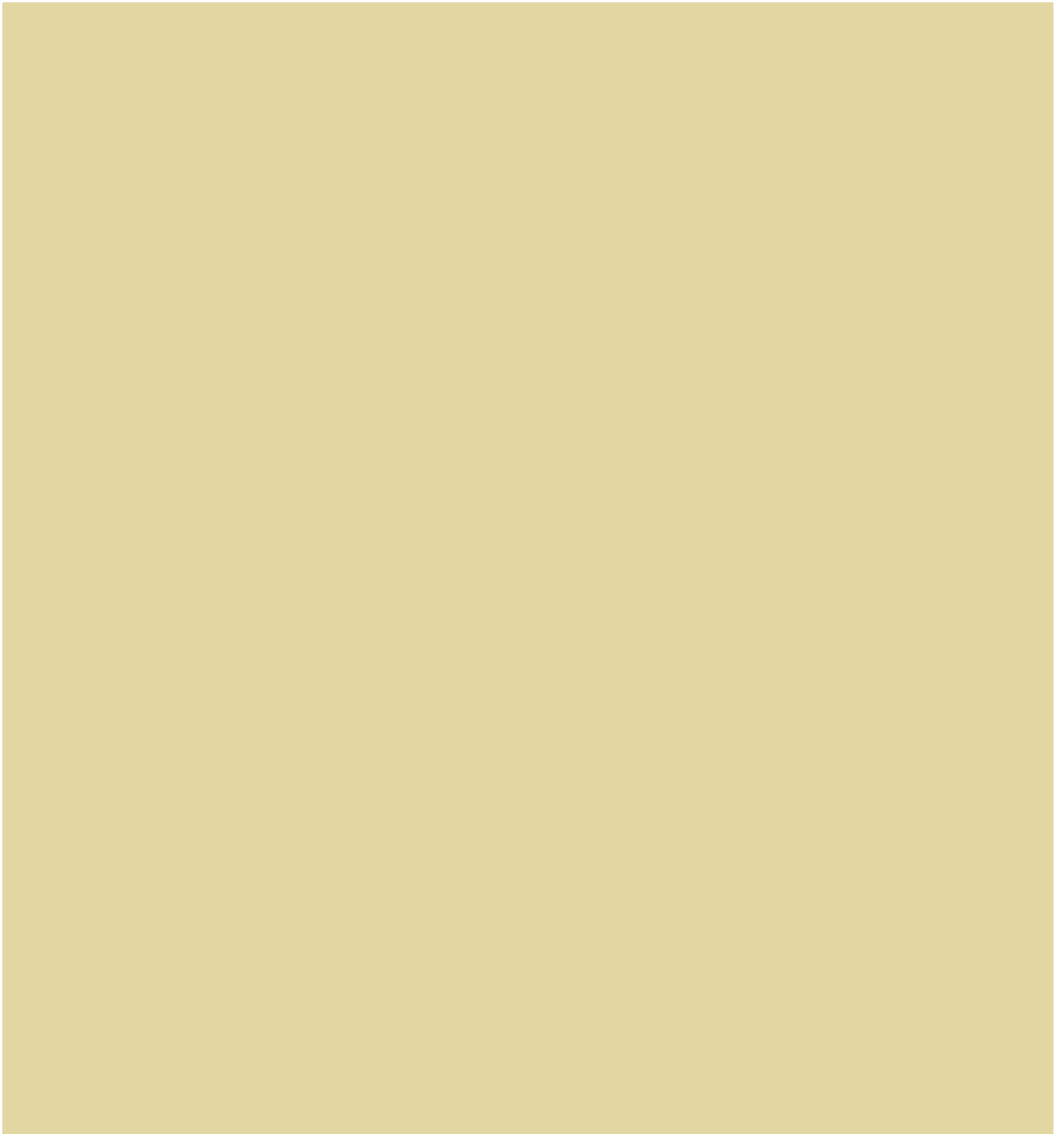
It adds up to a very full period of reform and change and provides the foundation for our current practice.

At the same time there has been a very intensive reform process in every other area of public expenditure and service, not only about how things should be organised but of how decisions should be taken about expenditure and accounting for it. The change process, in a context of both financial restraint and a more localised approach, is certain to continue in the next few years.

As you read on, therefore, remember that, as well as taking on board all the change required by community safety specific legislation, each manager around our imaginary community safety meeting will be dealing with a big change agenda affecting their own field of responsibility, whether that is in health, criminal justice or the operation of local authority services.

The following pages contain profiles and descriptions of the key partners in community safety, starting with the local authorities.

Customise and Update using this space:



## Local authorities

The arrangement of local government in England is complex and can be confusing, especially as a result of numerous re-organisations carried out over the last 30 years. Broadly, there are two basic models for principal local authorities in place, and these authorities are the ones which deliver most public services.

### a) Unitary authorities

This is the single-tier model for local government, and these councils carry out the vast majority of local government functions in their area. They are responsible for education, housing, planning, strategic planning, transport planning, passenger transport, highways, fire, social services, leisure and recreation, libraries, waste collection, waste disposal, and environmental health. They are also collection authorities, responsible for collecting council tax.

Unitary authorities in England can be categorised into three types, as follows:

#### *London boroughs*

There are 32 of these plus the City of London Corporation, which runs services in the City. The Greater London Authority (GLA), however, headed by the elected Mayor, has responsibility for passenger transport

and transport planning, and aims to co-ordinate economic development work across the capital. In some parts of London councils act jointly on waste disposal to improve efficiency, and increasingly London Boroughs collaborate regionally on service planning and commissioning.

#### *Metropolitan boroughs*

These consist of 46 metropolitan boroughs, which replaced the former metropolitan counties and boroughs in Greater Manchester, Merseyside, the West Midlands, South Yorkshire, West Yorkshire and Tyne and Wear in 1985. In the metropolitan borough council areas, passenger transport is the responsibility of joint passenger transport authorities. The fire service and civil defence are also the responsibility of joint fire and civil defence authorities

#### *Shire unitary authorities*

These unitary areas have developed in recent years where it has been decided to simplify the structure by changing from the county and district structure and setting up one-tier authorities outside the metropolitan areas. These can sometimes be large towns and cities, like Derby, for example, but a number of unitary authorities are quite small in population terms, such as Slough. Not all unitary areas are exclusively urban either. North Somerset Council was

set up as a unitary area in 1996 and is a mix of towns like Weston-super-Mare and smaller towns and villages. A number of new unitary authorities have been created in recent years, and this trend is likely to continue, since many people feel that single-tier local government is easier to understand and can provide better co-ordinated services. Currently there are 50 shire unitary authorities. They are confusingly called district councils sometimes. Most shire unitary authorities have shared arrangements for police, fire and ambulance services. In most unitary areas though the main health authority is now coterminous, enabling stronger and clearer partnerships to be established over joint responsibilities such as learning disability and adult care services. More information is given about all these links and groupings in the later sections.

### b) The Two-Tier System

In the two-tier system, responsibilities are divided between a county council and a district council. There are still 34 county councils and 238 district councils, so this is still the most common form of local government in England, even if a majority of the population now lives in a unitary area.

County Councils are responsible for:  
Education, strategic planning, pas-

senger transport, transport planning, highways, fire, social services, libraries and waste disposal.

District councils are responsible for:

Housing, planning applications, leisure and recreation, waste disposal and environmental health.

District councils are the collection authorities in two-tier areas. County councils, like the GLA, police authorities, fire and civil defence authorities, are precepting authorities, which means that they add a precept or required contribution for their services to the council tax bills issued by the relevant collection authorities.

District councils with borough or city status may be called borough councils or city councils instead of district council, but their role is exactly the same.

### **c) Parish and Town Councils**

Parish and town councils in England are actually the basic tier of local government and for many parts of England therefore it would be better described as a three-tier system. While they do not deliver major public services, they can provide many important local facilities. There are around 10,000 community, parish and town councils in England and Wales, made up of nearly 100,000 councillors. Some cities, such as Milton Keynes do have urban parishes,

but many do not. All the counties have parish and town councils.

### ***Powers and Duties***

Parish and town councils have a large range of powers, more than many people realise.

Many parish and town councils are involved in planning, promoting tourism, licensing, community halls, representation, management of town and village centres and providing community halls. They may deal with litter, parks, public clocks, and allotments. Some of the larger town councils can achieve a great deal in community safety because of the key environmental services they run, and because of their close links to the community.

Parish and community councils also have a consultative role in planning applications, and may issue precepts for their services to their local collection authority. Unlike principal councils, they receive no central government funding, but they can raise their precept to pay for community safety activities. More information about this can be obtained from the following: <http://localgov.co.uk/index.cfm?method=need.copy&ID=44430&&keywords=parish%20council>. Parish Councils are often involved in consultation with local people and regard representation of their area's needs to the district and county

council as an important part of their work.

### **d) Elections and candidates**

Local government elections can be quite confusing. There are a number of different electoral systems in use, different categories of authority have elections in different years and some authorities do not elect all of their members at the same time.

In most English counties, metropolitan and unitary authorities, the vast majority of seats are elected one at a time using the single-member first past the post system. In some county, unitary, and most district authorities there are wards electing more than one member at the same time and in the London boroughs three members are elected in nearly all wards.

The electoral cycle for local government elections is also complex. Different categories of authority have elections in different years. Another distinction is between authorities having partial and all-out elections. In the former, terms of office are staggered so that only a proportion of councillors, usually a third, are up for election in a given year. In metropolitan councils, for example, each ward has three members elected one at a time in 2006, 2007 and 2008 while the fourth year of the cycle (for example 2009) sees no local elections.



When boundary changes take place authorities that normally have partial elections have all-out elections, as the metropolitan boroughs did in 2004.

Parish and town councils are elected every four years and all seats are elected at the one time. These elections are timed to coincide with other elections in the local area.

### *Mayors*

Across England and Wales, there are also 13 directly elected Mayors (12 local authorities plus the Mayor of London). Directly elected Mayors were introduced as part of the Local Government Act 2000, which introduced the option of directly elected mayors for local authorities in England and Wales.

The introduction of a directly elected Mayor results from a referendum, called either by the council or by a voters' petition. So far, there have been 35 such referenda, of which only 12 have been successful.

### **e) Structure**

Each local authority has adopted a constitution that sets out how the authority operates, how decisions are made and the procedures that are followed to ensure that these are efficient, transparent and accountable to local people. Each authority's constitution should be available on their web site, at the local library

or directly from the authority. This sets out the structure and political workings of the council as well as the responsibilities of the leaders and of the members.

Local Authorities now operate very differently from the traditional committee structure. There are two main models, as follows:

### *Cabinet system*

Local authorities with an executive cabinet system have executive councillors appointed either by the full council (i.e. all of the authority's councillors) or by the leader. Each possesses a portfolio of responsibility for a particular part of the council's services - such as education, social services or the environment. Decision making on each policy area may lie either solely with the executive councillor or with the cabinet as a whole, depending on the constitution. There will normally be a portfolio member for community safety.

An authority may have upwards of fifty elected councillors so what do the rest of them do? The Local Government Act 2000 requires the appointment of Overview and Scrutiny Committees. These are made up of non-executive backbench councillors and members of the public, such as people from the business sector and voluntary groups. There may be a number of these committees

reflecting the portfolios assigned to the executive cabinet members such as education, environment and social services. The role of these committees is to hold the executive to account and scrutinise the decisions that the executive is about to take or has already taken. These committees are more likely to have politically balanced cross-party representation.

### *Modified Committee system*

A modified committee system represents a balance between the old committee system and the executive cabinet system. Such a structure will still have a council leader but decisions are made by politically balanced executive committees representing key policy areas such as education, social services and environment rather than by individual executives. There may well be an overseeing committee chaired by the leader of the council, such as a Policy and Resources Committee, but this will not have the power held by the cabinet in the previous example. A modified committee system will also have an Overview and Scrutiny Committee. There may well only be one committee (rather than several reflecting different portfolios) but it will have the power to set up panels to look at specific issues.

## *Decision making*

Most decisions will be taken by the executive councillors, debated and voted on at public meetings and based on publicly available reports produced by council officers.

The full council has to adopt and agree the broad policy framework of the council including the budget, development plans, best value performance plans, community strategies and local transport plan.

Your council will have a rolling plan outlining which decisions will be taken over the next few months and by whom. In addition, policy can be agreed by passing motions (once they are passed they are called resolutions). Motions can only be proposed by councillors.

## *Administrative structure*

Whilst the democratic power lies with the elected councillors, the day-to-day running of the authority is the responsibility of the paid employees; that is the chief executive, the directors of each service area and the council officers. It may well be that the administrative and political structures of the council are to an extent reflections of each other. In addition to providing and running council services, council officers also act as advisors to councillors providing expertise and information where required. Council officers will write

the reports on which policy decisions are based.

Sir Peter Gershon was commissioned in 2003 by central government to undertake an independent review to assess how the public sector could exploit opportunities for efficiency savings, so that resources could be released for front-line public service delivery. All councils had to respond to the Gershon Efficiency Review by finding ways of raising productivity and enhancing value for money. Efficiency gains were to be achieved through reforms that involved doing the same for less or more for the same. All councils were set an efficiency target by the government of 2.5% a year until 2008.

This has meant many local authorities drastically changing their structures, often combining departments, or streamlining their management structure. It has also often meant the council commissioning services from independent providers rather than directly providing services themselves.

## **f) The council and community safety**

Whether you are involved in community safety through the partnership, a community group, or a neighbourhood-policing group, the local council and its staff will have real importance for your work.

At partnership meetings and committees the local authority representation is likely to be at a senior level, possibly involving the chief executive, but other staff will be involved in the other committees and working groups which are set up to deal with ASB, licensing, and all the other community safety concerns. There is likely to be quite a lot of cross-representation, and in two-tier areas, both the district and county will need to be involved in a number of the groups. The organisation of the community safety department itself will vary as to where it fits into local structures and reporting arrangements, and it is important to understand these issues.

What is clear is that community safety cannot work well at any level without the full commitment and involvement of the main local authorities in an area, not forgetting the town and parish councils which often have a bigger part to play than is recognised.

As the 1998 Act recognised, Crime and Disorder are the responsibility of all public services and not just the Police.

## The Police

There are 43 police forces of varying size in England and Wales. There used to be many more but from the 1960s onwards the number of forces was reduced because of amalgamation. The Home Office envisaged further amalgamations several years ago, but this was resisted by many of the Police Areas and local councils involved. Sustained financial restraint may again make this a significant issue.

A Chief Constable commands each Police Area. The Chief Constables of Metropolitan London and of the square mile of the City of London are both known as 'Commissioners'. The Chief Constables report to both the Home Office and to local police authorities.

Following the 2010 General Election the Coalition Government announced significant changes in Police accountability. The main plans are as follows:

The police reform and social responsibility bill to be introduced in autumn 2010 will introduce directly elected individuals to take charge of Police Forces, though their powers are to be subject to "strict checks and balances by locally elected representatives" and these are expected to be existing local councillors. The new "directly elected individuals"

will oversee police force budgets and strategy. The change would concentrate a great deal of authority in the elected official's hands, and the arrangements for accountability are unlikely to operate in the same way as the current Police Authorities. Since those are the current responsible bodies their functions are summarised here, and readers should use the notes section to update as changes are introduced.

### a) Police authorities

Within the existing system most police authorities have 17 members: nine local councillors appointed by the local councils, and eight independent members selected following local advertisement. At least one of the eight independent members must be a magistrate. The Metropolitan Police Authority has 23 members because of London's size. Out of the total of police authority members, in November 2007 (the latest available figures), 8.5% were from minority ethnic backgrounds and 30.7% were women.

The police authority sets the strategic direction for the force and holds the Chief Constable to account on behalf of the local community. Delivery of policing services is the responsibility of the Chief Constable.

The police authority's role is an important one and these are its main jobs:

- Holds the police budget and decides how much council tax should be raised for policing
- Appoints (and dismisses) the chief constable and senior police officers
- Consults widely with local people to find out what they want from their local police
- Sets local policing priorities and targets for achievement
- Monitors everything the police do and how well they perform against the targets set by the authority
- Publishes a three-year plan and an annual plan which tells local people what they can expect from their police service and reports back at the end of the year
- Makes sure local people get best value from their local police
- Oversees complaints against the police and disciplines senior officers

### b) Organisation of the Police on the ground: territorial policing

The Basic Command Unit (BCU) is the largest unit into which territo-

rial British police forces are divided. This may actually be called a BCU or may have another designation, such as Division or Area. The BCU is usually commanded by a Chief Superintendent. Most forces are divided into at least three BCUs and some have many more. Most BCUs are further subdivided into smaller units. In the Thames Valley for example there are five BCUs, but these are divided into 13 Local Police Areas (LPAs) which are conterminous with county and unitary local authority areas. It is at present unclear whether these arrangements may change following the 2010 General Election.

### **c) National crime bodies**

#### **National Crime Agency- to be established**

In July 2010, The Home Secretary introduced the Policing in the 21st Century programme in the House of Commons, outlining what she called the “most radical reforms to policing in at least 50 years”. One of the major components is to be the establishment of a new National Crime Agency. She said as follows:

“A new National Crime Agency will lead the fight against organised crime, protect our borders and provide services best delivered at a national level. This powerful new body will harness and exploit the intelligence, analytical and enforce-

ment capabilities of the existing Serious Organised Crime Agency and the Child Exploitation and Online Protection (CEOP) Centre and better connect these capabilities to those within the police service, HM Revenue and Customs, the UK Border Agency and a range of other criminal justice partners.”

The National Crime Agency (NCA) will comprise a number of operational commands headed by a chief constable.

The reforms will see the new agency take over responsibility for investigating incidents of organised cybercrime that are reported by businesses. At the moment, businesses can report incidents of e-crime, such as hacking and online fraud, to a number of organisations including their local police authority and the Police Central e-Crime Unit (PCeU), which is part of the Metropolitan Police. Incidents that involve organised crime are then investigated by the Serious Organised Crime Agency (SOCA). It seems clear that SOCA will be absorbed within the new agency. Its current functions are described in the next section

#### **The Serious Organised Crime Agency (SOCA)**

SOCA was formed with the merging of the National Crime Squad (NCS), National Criminal Intelligence Serv-

ice (NCIS), the part of HM Revenue and Customs (HMRC) dealing with drug trafficking and associated criminal finance, and a part of UK immigration dealing with organised immigration crime (UKIS). It is an intelligence-led agency with law enforcement powers responsibility for reducing the damage caused to people and communities by serious organised crime.

#### **National Policing Improvement Agency**

The National Policing Improvement Agency (NPIA) was created following the White Paper Building Communities, Beating Crime in November 2004. Its job is to support police forces in improving the way they work. The body is owned and led by the police, and it has replaced national policing organisations such as the Police Information Technology Organisation (PITO) and Centrex, as well as functions that were carried out by the Home Office and the Association of Chief Police Officers (ACPO).

The main focus of the NPIA’s work is policing improvement in England and Wales, ensuring that a fair and equitable service is provided to diverse communities and staff. It has a strong relationship with policing bodies in Scotland and Northern Ireland and collaborates with them on some initiatives. The NPIA

has provided a number of benefits including improved co-ordination of major national projects previously managed by separate organisations. The rationalisation of previous policing agencies has removed the overlap and duplication of effort that used to characterise national policing improvement. The aim has been to achieve better efficiency both nationally and locally.

The recently announced policing reforms also call for the NPIA to be dissolved. The agency's functions will be divided up between the Home Office and the new National Crime Agency, and it will be phased out by 2012.

### **The Forensic Science Service**

Providing scientific support to police forces, the service also operates the national DNA database in England and Wales, which is used to match DNA profiles taken from suspects to profiles from samples left at scenes of crime. A DNA sample can be taken from anyone arrested for a 'recordable offence' and detained in a police station. Recordable offences include all but the most trivial and traffic offences.

### **The Serious Fraud Office (SFO)**

The SFO investigates and prosecutes serious and complex fraud in England, Wales and Northern Ireland,

employing teams of lawyers, accountants, police officers and other specialists to work together.

While in opposition the Chancellor of the Exchequer suggested the creation of an Economic Crime Agency (ECA) which would take over the functions of the long established SFO. It is not yet clear what action may be taken in this area.

### ***British Transport Police (BTP)***

The BTP is a special police force that polices those railways and light-rail systems in Great Britain for which it has entered into an agreement to provide such services. BTP officers do not have any jurisdiction in Northern Ireland where policing of the railways is the responsibility of the Police Service of Northern Ireland.

The BTP has its own national police authority and although 95% of its funding comes from train operating companies, it is the authority which sets objectives and priorities, though there are industry representatives on the authority.

Thought was given several years ago to the amalgamation of the BTP into the 43 police areas, but this was abandoned.

The BTP is organized into sections or neighbourhoods based on main routes and systems.

### **d) The Policing Pledge**

All 43 police forces in England and Wales signed up to the policing pledge in December 2008. It laid down a minimum standard of performance for the 3,600 neighbourhood policing teams, including holding monthly "beat" meetings with the public. A recent report by Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary, however, found that four out of every five forces were falling short of the promise.

The standards committed Police to the following commitments to citizens:

- To treat you with dignity and respect and provide fair access to their services
- To tell you who they are and how to contact them
- To spend 80% of Neighbourhood Police Team time working visibly in your neighbourhood
- To respond to your messages about non-emergency problems within 24 hours
- To answer emergency calls within 10 seconds and attend as quickly as possible within 15/20 minutes (urban/rural)
- To answer non-emergency calls promptly and attend within 60 minutes if you are vulnerable or

if it is a local priority, or if attendance is not required, make an appointment to see you within 48 hours

- To give you the opportunity every month to influence policing in your neighbourhood and agree your local priorities
- To provide you with crime maps for your area, update you on your priorities monthly and provide information about local crime and what they are doing about it
- If you are a victim of crime, to agree with you how, how often and how long you wish to be kept up to date – it will be at least monthly
- If you tell them that you are not happy with their service, respond to you within 24 hours and also talk to you in person

At the end of June 2010 the Home Secretary announced the scrapping of the Pledge and its targets on the grounds that in a context of financial cutbacks it was unsustainable. At the same time, the target on ‘confidence’ in policing was also scrapped.

The pledge has been outlined in this Guide because Government does wish to retain a local approach to Policing, and that this should be accompanied by greater public participation and contribution in ways unspecified

as yet. If nothing else, the Pledge commitments should continue to address the main concerns and preoccupations in trying to deliver a sensitive and effective local service which is well connected to the community. In the following sections more information is given about Neighbourhood Policing and its implications for Community Safety.

### **e) Neighbourhood Policing**

In the White Paper ‘Building Communities, Beating Crime’ (Nov 2004) the government set out its commitment to ensure that every area in England and Wales would benefit from neighbourhood policing.

Each part of a Police area is divided into ‘neighbourhoods’. The area covered tends to link to the local authority structures, so many cover a local authority ward. In rural areas they may be a single community or a group of parishes. Each neighbourhood has its own dedicated team of police staff. Led by police officers, the neighbourhood policing teams include police community support officers (PCSOs), often together with special constables, local authority wardens, volunteers and partners.

Neighbourhood policing teams are involved in proactive or preventative work to tackle low-level crime and ASB that may be a persistent issue or concern in the local com-

munity. Priorities are set by local groups which are made up of local citizens and representatives of local public services which also need to be involved in finding solutions to identified problems. These are often called Neighbourhood Action Groups (NAGs) and are usually chaired by a local citizen. Many of the problems identified are not issues which can be resolved by the police alone. In essence the local groups and neighbourhood police teams work on solving problems in ways which make best use of the different agencies and also involve citizens wherever possible. The most visible members of the local team within the community are the PCSOs.

### **Police Community Support Officers**

PCSOs play an important part in the delivery of neighbourhood policing. Their primary role is to provide high visibility reassurance policing dealing with low-level crime and ASB. Their presence on the streets makes residents feel safer and they are an important part of the police team. PCSOs are best seen as a complement to, not a replacement for, the role of sworn police officers. They provide high visibility for neighbourhood policing and are likely to be the main means of community engagement within neighbourhoods.

### **f) Safer School Partnerships**

Safer School Partnerships (SSPs) are a formal agreement between schools and police to work together in order to keep young people safe, reduce crime and improve behaviour. They involve a police officer or PCSO working full or part time at a school or across a cluster of schools, with pupils and staff.

New guidance about SSPs was launched on 11 May 2009, produced by the Home Office, DCSF, ACPO and the YJB. The guidance provides advice on what constitutes a SSP, the benefits of SSPs, how to set one up and how it can best be maintained. The document and accompanying DVD is aimed at head teachers, school staff and governors, police officers, local authorities, children's services and others professionally involved in keeping children and young people safe. It offers practical advice, with case studies of good practice. The document and DVD are available on the Teachernet website at [www.teachernet.gov.uk](http://www.teachernet.gov.uk)

### **g) The Police and Domestic Abuse**

Police at all levels play a critical role in the protection of victims, the prosecution of perpetrators and the operation of inter-agency structures, known as Multi Agency Risk Assessment Conferences (MARACs). These

are described in more detail in the Probation section which follows.

Specialist Police staff play a key role not only in casework, but also in liaison with other specialists within the local authority.

### **h) Community safety and police overview**

The police and local authority are the central partners in CSPs and police officers of different ranks will be involved in most of their activities. Neighbourhood policing is now a crucial area for other agencies to be aware of and find ways of engaging with, but police are also involved in a range of other initiatives such as SSPs, which demand good inter-agency collaboration.

At CSP level, the police will hold overall responsibility for the targets for crime reduction. Major priorities now lie, however, in the partnership between police and probation under CSP auspices for two key areas, the Multi Agency Public Protection Arrangements (MAPPA), the system for management of dangerous offenders, and the Prolific and Other Priority Offender Scheme (PPOS), the identification and management of prolific and priority offenders. More details of these two areas are given in the following section.

The current Police Reforms outlined in this section, particularly the new structure for accountability and the abandonment of an emerging scheme of National Standards for local policing, will clearly have a major impact on Community Safety and its structures. As far as increasing community involvement is concerned, there is no single available model, despite some small-scale experiments with community justice in some parts of the country. There may well be a greater role for Neighbourhood Watch into the future, but the potential for other citizen groups to contribute will also need to be assessed.

## **NOMS and Probation**

In recent years both probation and prison in England and Wales have been the subject of major reform and re-organisation. This section provides a brief history of the main reforms and then outlines the main agencies and organisations involved.

In 2001 a National Probation Service was set up for the first time, with the individual services becoming probation areas within the national organisation. The Prison Service, though it had a regional structure was always organised nationally. In 2004 both prison and probation services were joined together to form the National Offender Management Service (NOMS). This section concentrates primarily on probation, but where relevant, prison service issues and organisation are referred to.

### **a) NOMS**

NOMS originated in a review in 2003 by Patrick Carter. He had been asked by the government to propose a way of achieving a better balance between the prison population in England and Wales and the resources available for the correctional services. He proposed three radical changes. First, that there should be end-to-end management of each offender from first contact with the correctional services to full completion of the sentence. Second, that there should be a

clear division between the commissioners of services and their providers. Third, there should be contestability among these providers. By this means, he argued, efficiency would be increased, unit costs reduced and innovation encouraged. Growth in the prison population, which had increased by two-thirds over the previous ten years from 1993, would be constrained by giving the courts greater confidence in the effectiveness of community sentences as opposed to prison sentences through better management of offenders, leading to reduced re-offending. In fact, it is now generally recognised that the increase in prison numbers has been more to do with sentence length, and the strict enforcement of community orders, as required by the relevant Probation National Standards. Overall the rate of imprisonment rose by 29% between 1999 and 2009. The England and Wales rate of imprisonment is 153 per 100,000 of the population. This is 8th highest in the European Union overall, but if pre 2004 and 2007 accession countries are taken out of the calculation England and Wales is second only to Spain (164 per 100,000).

The emerging structure of NOMS saw the appointment of a Regional Offender Manager (ROM) for each of the nine English regions and Wales. Their responsibilities included the negotiation and performance moni-

toring of service agreements with each of the public sector prisons and probation areas in their regions, and of contracts with private sector prisons. The actual management of public sector prisons however remained with HM Prison Service, reporting separately to its own director general. ROMs were also given responsibility for the reduction of re-offending in their regions, to be effected by the development of multi-agency partnerships which harnessed the capacity of other government departments, agencies, and local authorities to influence the factors which affect offending, that is, drugs and alcohol, accommodation, employment training and education, children and families, health, finance debt and benefit, attitudes thinking and behaviour.

In May 2007 the correctional services element of the Home Office was moved to join the former Lord Chancellor's Department in the newly created Ministry of Justice. In January 2008, the Secretary of State for Justice announced major organisational reform which resulted in the Director-General of the prison service becoming the chief executive of NOMS, and assuming responsibility for both probation and prison services as well as management of contracts for private sector operation of prisons and prisoner escorting. ROMs were replaced by Directors of Offender



Management (DOMs) in each of the nine government regions in England and Wales, combining responsibility for prisons and probation services in their region.

### **b) Probation overview**

There had been probation officers since the beginning of the 20th century, and in the 1920s probation committees were set up to oversee their work. In the 1970s probation underwent a considerable expansion and a number of new sentences in the community, including Community Service, (now called Community Payback) were introduced to expand the range of sentencing options for courts. The probation service is the main provider of sentences in the community, but its staff also work in prisons, liaising closely with prison service staff to coordinate sentence planning within the context of a National Offender Management Model. This means not only working to ensure that offending behaviour issues are tackled during sentence but that releases on licence are planned in conjunction with the supervising Probation Officer from the home area.

Since the Offender Management Act of 2007, Probation Areas have gradually worked to achieve Probation Trust status, and this was fully achieved with 35 Trusts in place in April 2010. The trusts all expect to

have more independence than the former Probation Areas in funding and other matters, including additional responsibility for the commissioning of offender services. Probation areas are coterminous with police force areas in England and Wales. Probation deals with offenders aged 18 and over.

Figures for 2009 from the Ministry of Justice Offender Management Caseload statistics showed that at the end of that year the number of people under supervision by the Probation Service in England and Wales overall was 241,500 (up from 175,000 in 1999), and that in the full year 167,000 people were given new Court Orders. Of the overall caseload, 58% of Probation cases were on Community Orders and 42% on pre or post sentence supervision.

Just under 11% of Probation cases are female and just over a quarter of offenders serving community sentences are aged 16-20 with just less than three-quarters are aged 21 and over.

The NOMS Offender Management Model was established to provide end-to-end offender management, and this is summed up in the four 'Cs'.

- **Consistency**
- **Continuity**
- **Commitment**
- **Consolidation**

All Probation work with offenders combines continuous assessment and management of risk and dangerousness with the provision of expert supervision programmes designed to reduce re-offending. Enforcement of the order/licence conditions is a priority. Probation work is tiered to reflect the level of risk to the public and the risk of re-offending.

**Tier 1 = Punishment;**

**Tier 2 = Help (with personal problems relevant to offending);**

**Tier 3 = Changing Behaviour;**

**Tier 4 = Control.**

All sentences may include elements of each, but MAPPA cases (see below) are always Tier 3 or 4 cases.

Each year Probation assists magistrates and judges in their sentencing decisions through the provision of pre-sentence reports (218,000 in 2009) and approximately 20,000 bail information reports. Many court reports are now in shorter format and these may be delivered in writing or verbally.

Each year probation staff will find and supervise some eight million hours of unpaid work by offenders in local communities, to ensure that they meet the requirements of their Community Punishment Orders (Community Payback).

Probation makes a vital contribution to decisions about the early release of prisoners through the production of reports (approximately 87,000 annually), which combine risk and dangerousness assessments with community supervision plan proposals.

### **c) Community sentences**

A community sentence combines punishment with changing offenders' behaviour and making amends, sometimes directly to the victim of the crime. It can also encourage the offender to deal with any problems that might be making them commit crime, most commonly drugs and alcohol.

As part of the reform of sentences in 2005, the various kinds of community order for adults were replaced by a single generic community order with a range of possible requirements. Courts are able to choose different elements to make up a bespoke community order, which is relevant to that particular offender and their offences. Technological advances, such as electronic tagging and voice recognition also have provided ways to restrict liberty and reduce crime without requiring a prison sentence.

The range of requirements available with a generic community sentence or community order are:

- Compulsory unpaid work (Community Payback)
- Participation in any specified activities
- Programmes aimed at changing offending behaviour, known as accredited programmes and also available in many prisons. A central Accreditation Board is responsible for validating and overseeing the content of programmes, which are normally based on cognitive behaviour theory and operated in groups
- Prohibition from certain activities
- Curfew: the actual operation of curfew and tagging is undertaken by privately contracted firms
- Exclusion from certain areas
- Residence requirement
- Mental health treatment
- Drug and alcohol treatment
- Supervision: regularly seeing a probation worker

It is important that offenders receive the right combination of these in their community order as it can affect whether they offend in the future.

All these interventions and probation work generally are required to operate to national standards which regulate content, timing and enforcement.

The tight regulations for enforcement of orders have been a major focus in recent years and very high levels of compliance with the national standards are expected.

A key issue for probation is that priority within resources is required to follow the risk posed by the offenders to the public, with more serious offenders receiving more intensive supervision - see the early explanation of the Tiering system. This means that probation will only recommend a community sentence where the seriousness of the offence or the quantity of offending, justify it.

### **d) Probation and community safety**

Probation staff are now usually divided into those responsible for interventions, the actual work or programme of work with offenders, and offender management, that is the operation of the order itself, and its enforcement. Many probation staff operate in area offices, but others are in specialist area wide units. You can find out about your Probation Trust and its operation by visiting the web site concerned.

**[www.probation.homeoffice.gov.uk/output/Page1asp](http://www.probation.homeoffice.gov.uk/output/Page1asp)**

Probation has to maintain many links with other services and agencies to support its work with offenders,

ranging from housing and unemployment services, through to the Benefits Agency and a whole host of voluntary sector organisations.

It is worth noting, though, that recent changes in legislation gave CSPs a formal responsibility for reducing offending, thus making explicit the sharing of a responsibility which had previously been invested primarily in the police and probation. The fact that probation has become a full CSP partner means that its formal role in the partnerships will substantially alter and given its size and the issues raised above this will need careful planning. One of the implications of this is that Probation now falls within the remit of the Local Authority Scrutiny Committee arrangements.

There are four main areas of the probation services that now have a direct effect on community safety.

### **1. Prolific and Other Priority Offenders & Integrated Offender Management**

It is estimated that approximately 10% of the active offender population are responsible for half of all crime and that a very small proportion of offenders (0.5%) are responsible for one in ten offences. The Prime Minister announced the Prolific and other Priority Offender (PPO) strategy in 2004 to provide end-to-end management of this group of

offenders. The strategy has three recognised complementary strands, and is based on a multi-agency approach, with the CSP responsible for agreeing the main parameters and then the key agencies - police, probation and Youth Offending Service (YOS) - operating together to ensure close supervision and intensive work on offending behaviour. The three strands of the strategy are as follows:

- **Prevent and Deter**

The primary aim of Prevent and Deter is to work intensively with those young offenders locally identified as being on the cusp of becoming PPOs. The individuals in this Prevent and Deter target group will be identified in response to an escalation in their offending and/or the harm they are causing to their communities which has led local partners to identify them for management through the multi-agency PPO approach.

The supporting aim is early identification of those children and young people most at risk of becoming involved in criminality, so that they can be provided with multi-agency support to positively influence their lives and divert them from an offending lifestyle. It is normally the police, local authority and YOS that are involved here. The YOS are covered in the next section.

- **Catch and Convict**

This a managed multi-agency approach to tackle the offending behaviour of those individuals locally identified as committing most crime and causing most harm to their communities. The main agency in this is the police, but the Crown Prosecution Service and courts are also crucial. Probation's strict enforcement of orders is also an integral factor.

- **Rehabilitate and Resettle**

Multi-agency work providing supportive interventions to address the criminogenic needs of identified PPOs. It mainly involves probation and police staff working very closely and intensively together on individual cases often numbering up to about 20 or 30 in each CSP area. It is important to recognise that there is a dynamic relationship between the Rehabilitate and Resettle and Catch and Convict strands: appropriate activities are conducted across both strands in parallel. The strands are not mutually exclusive and activity is directed by the behaviour and needs of the identified offender.

The PPO programme has now been expanded to include non-statutory offenders.

## 2. Multi-agency Public Protection Arrangements (MAPPA)

Multi-Agency Public Protection Arrangements (MAPPA) support the assessment and management of the most serious sexual and violent offenders. The aim of MAPPA is to ensure that a risk management plan drawn up for the most serious offenders benefits from the information, skills and resources provided by the individual agencies coordinated through MAPPA.

MAPPA were introduced in 2001 and bring together the police, probation and prison services into what is known as the MAPPA responsible authority.

Other agencies are under a duty to co-operate with the responsible authority, including social care, health, housing and education services.

Each MAPPA area produces an annual report which details performance, statistics, future developments and MAPPA team contact details. You can normally see this on probation and police websites.

Four key features of MAPPA are listed below.

- **Identifying offenders to be supervised under MAPPA**

This is generally determined by the offender's offence and sentence, but

is also by assessed risk. There are three formal categories: category one; registered sex offenders, category two; violent or other sex offenders, category three; other offenders presenting serious risk.

- **Sharing of information about offenders**

MAPPA promotes information sharing between all the agencies, resulting in more effective supervision and better public protection. For example, police will share information with offender managers that they have gathered about an offender's behaviour from surveillance or intelligence gathering; and local authorities will help find offenders suitable accommodation where they can be effectively managed.

It is very important that victims' needs are represented in MAPPA, with the result that additional measures can be put into place to manage the risks posed to known victims.

- **Assessing the risks posed by offenders**

Most offenders do not present a risk of serious harm to the public; the MAPPA enable resources and attention to be focused on those who present the highest risks.

- **Managing the risk posed by individual offenders**

MAPPA offenders should be managed at one of three levels. While the assessed level of risk is an important factor, it is the degree of management intervention required which determines the level.

Level One involves normal agency management. Generally offenders managed at this level will be assessed as presenting a low or medium risk of serious harm to others.

Level Two often called local inter-risk agency management. Most offenders assessed as high or very high risk of harm.

Level Three is known as Multi-Agency Public Protection Panels (or MAPPPs) cases. Appropriate for those offenders who pose the highest risk of causing serious harm or whose management is so problematic that multi-agency co-operation and oversight at a senior level is required with the authority to commit exceptional resources. This is about 3% of all MAPPA offenders.

## 3. Multi-agency Risk Assessment Conferences (MARACs) - see also section on Police

First pioneered in Cardiff the MARAC model in domestic abuse involves risk assessment in all reported cases of domestic abuse to identify

those at highest risk so that a multi-agency approach may be taken. Evidence suggests that this reduces recidivism even among those most at risk. The goal of these conferences is to provide a forum for sharing information and taking action to reduce future harm to very high-risk victims of domestic abuse and their children. Police, Probation, Health, Housing and Women's Safety organisations are all likely to be involved.

MARACs aim to place the victim at the heart of the criminal justice system, and are a central element of the Home Office's National Domestic Violence Delivery Plan, published in March 2006. Interviews with practitioners showed confidence that such approaches could achieve many key objectives, including information sharing between agencies, contributing to victims' safety.

The following is taken from Jan Pickles' Community Care briefing on MARACs:

*It is vital that non-criminal justice agencies are well represented at MARACs. For example, the perspective of health visitors will be different from those held by police or probation, which typically are aware of criminal incidents only. Victim-oriented agencies, such as the WSU and Women's Aid, can provide information from the victim's perspective, social services can provide informa-*

*tion about children and take action on their behalf, police and probation are able to offer information about the perpetrator's history, and presence of other aggravating factors, such as drugs or weapons. There is usually a wealth of information held in the community about a particular household, but it takes a MARAC - type process for that information to come together in a meaningful way.*

*The evaluation of Cardiff MARACs showed that they were successful at improving the safety of victims, as measured by the decrease in the number of police complaints and police call-outs and telephone interviews with victims. All three indicators revealed that most victims (about six in 10) had not become a victim again in the six months after the MARAC. Further evaluation research showed that 12 months later this was the case for four in 10. This is notable given their extensive histories and identification as high-risk for repeat violence. These findings indicate the benefits of taking a multi-agency approach to helping women experiencing domestic abuse.*

*Resource or time limitations and lack of co-operation from victims were viewed as the main barriers to reducing the effectiveness of MARACs. Any response must take into account the complex set of issues confronting women (such as emo-*

*tional, financial, children) to ensure that they have the resources and support to make the difficult decision to leave and remain safe.*

*The evidence from several studies shows that MARACs can reduce recidivism, even among the population most at risk. No single agency can make victims and their children safe - a shared understanding of risk is needed so that resources are targeted effectively. Co-ordination of resources increases their value and this is why MARACs have been implemented in more than 50 areas. However, more research is needed to further document the benefits of these approaches for different types of victims.*

#### **4. Community Payback- unpaid work by offenders**

Community Payback is an element in many community sentences, and both Crown Court and magistrates can make orders. Offenders are 16 or over.

An offender can be ordered to do from 40 to 300 hours within a 12-month period, but closely monitored national standards make sure that work has to begin very soon after the order is made and that hours are worked regularly, normally a full working day each week.

Offenders coming onto Community Payback are assessed twice. The first step is a court report before sentence in which Probation assesses the person and their crime. This is to help the court decide which punishment will fit the crime best. After an order is made Community Payback, staff carry out a further assessment so that the offender can be found suitable work. A decision is then made about the level of supervision which the offender needs. Some are suitable for working on an individual basis, and are supervised by the agency providing the work, for example in an old people's home, or charity shop. Others need to be supervised in a group by a probation worker.

Offenders on Community Payback have to stick closely to the rules which are explained very carefully at assessment and are strictly enforced. They are designed to keep the work going and ensure that people work their hours off fairly and squarely!

Good assessment and effective supervision mean that Community Payback has an excellent track record on managing risk. A very wide range of offenders can carry out Community Payback, but violent offenders, those with serious mental health problems and those who are heavily dependent on drugs or alcohol are not taken onto the scheme. Those with a his-

tory of sex offending are not allowed onto the scheme either.

Courts and beneficiaries are regularly asked about whether the scheme is working effectively. Reports show very high satisfaction levels.

Community Payback is a valuable resource for both CSPs and neighbourhood policing. By working together, it means that offenders can carry out work in the community which is identified by local people as a concern. In this way the mystery is taken out of sentencing, and the agencies are seen to be working closely together, which is good for public confidence. You can get details about the local organisation of Community Payback from your probation area's website.

## Youth Offending Service

The 1998 Crime and Disorder Act created a new approach to youth justice with the youth justice system. A Youth Justice Board was created to take national responsibility for the new system, including the youth offending institutions. New teams were created in county and unitary authorities to deliver new approaches to youth offending in the community. They were called Youth Offending Teams, but they are now generally known as Youth Offending Services. The youth courts also acquired a range of new powers and responsibilities.

YOS are effectively inter-agency teams with staffing contributions from police, children's services, probation, health, education, youth services, substance misuse services, and housing. They are made up of representatives from the police, probation service, social services, health, education, drugs and alcohol misuse and housing officers. Each service is managed by a YOS manager who is responsible for co-ordinating the work of the youth justice services in that area, and for developing an agreed strategy.

Because the YOS incorporates representatives from a wide range of services, it can respond to the needs of young offenders in a comprehensive

way. The YOS identifies the needs of each young offender by assessing them with a national assessment tool known as ASSET. This identifies the specific problems that make the young person offend as well as measuring the risk they pose to others. This enables the YOS to identify suitable programmes to address the needs of the young person so that they can be helped not to offend.

### a) Sentences, Orders and Agreements

When young people first get into trouble, behave anti-socially or commit minor offences, they can usually be dealt with by the police and local authority, outside of the court system, using a variety of orders and agreements. This is to stop young people being sucked into the youth justice system too early, while still offering them the help and support they need to stop offending. The YOS is a key partner in the Prevent and Deter strand of the national PPO strategy, outlined in the previous section.

The range of sentences, orders and agreements used in the youth justice system, at each stage, are as follows:

#### 1) Pre-court measures

- Reprimand: a formal verbal warning by a police officer which

may be accompanied by a voluntary referral to the YOS.

- Final warning over a further offence: at this stage the young person would also be formally assessed and referred for work by the YOS, which will deal with the reason behind the offending.

#### 2) Anti-social behaviour (ASB) measures

- Acceptable Behaviour Contract (ABC) (voluntary agreement to behave) is given out when a local authority and YOS identify a young person who is behaving anti-socially at a low level. With the young person and their parents/carers, they agree a contract under which the young person agrees to stop the patterns of behaviour that are causing nuisance to the local community and undertake activities to deal with the problem. If they breach the terms of the contract, the local authority can get an ASBO applied to the young person.
- Anti-Social Behaviour Order (ASBO) can be used against anyone who is ten years of age or over and has behaved in a manner that caused or was likely to cause harassment, alarm or distress to someone or some people who do not live in their

own household. An ASBO stops the young person from going to particular places or doing particular things. If he or she does not comply with the order, they can be prosecuted.

Any one of the following agencies can apply for an order, subject to a legal obligation to consult with other agencies:

- Local authorities: district councils, London boroughs, the Corporation of London, the Isle of Wight, Welsh counties or county boroughs and English county councils
- Police forces
- British Transport Police
- Registered Social Landlords (as defined by Section 1 of the Housing Act 1996)
- Housing Action Trusts (as defined by Section 62 of Housing Act 1988)

Individual Support Orders (ISOs) are court orders only available for 10-17 year olds which can be attached to an ASBO and impose positive conditions on the young person to address the underlying causes of the behaviour that led to the ASBO. An ISO may last up to six months and can require a young person to attend up to two sessions a week under the supervision of the youth offending

team (YOT). Breach of an ISO is a criminal offence which may be punished by way of a financial penalty.

### **3) Other measures and sentences**

- Local Child Curfew: a local authority or local police force can ban children under 16 from being in a public place during specified hours (between 9pm and 6am) unless under the control of a responsible adult. With children under ten, contravening a ban imposed by a curfew notice (for instance being found outside their homes after the curfew or home detention curfew, HDC) is one of the conditions under which a family proceedings court could make the child subject to a Child Safety Order (see below). A local authority or police force can apply to the Home Secretary for a local child curfew where there have been, for instance, unsupervised children or young people involved in late night ASB. A local child curfew can last for up to 90 days.
- Child Safety Order: this order only applies to children under ten years of age. It can be applied to a child who has committed an offence, has breached a child curfew, or has caused harassment, distress or alarm to oth-

ers. Under a child safety order, a social worker or officer from the YOS supervises the child. If the order is not complied with, the parent can be made the subject of a Parenting Order, if that would be in the interests of preventing repetition of the behaviour that led to the child safety order being made.

### **4) Sentences in the community**

- Youth rehabilitation order (YRO) replaced nine sentences to simplify sentencing options and provide courts with greater flexibility. It is the new generic community sentence for children and young people who offend. Thus 18 possible requirements ranging from supervision and unpaid work through to tagging and fostering can be combined in a sentence tailored to the individual case. The YRO also allows plenty of opportunity for reparation to be included, giving scope for victims' needs to be addressed.

Additionally, the YRO will put intensive supervision and surveillance and intensive fostering on a statutory footing. This will help encourage sentencers to use these robust alternatives to custody where they are available. To promote community sentencing, sentencers must now



provide a reason if they do not use an alternative to custody for those young people who are on the custody threshold. If used effectively, the YRO should not only help reduce re-offending, but should also contribute to a reduction in the number of young people in custody.

- **Referral Order:** given to a young person who pleads guilty to an offence when it is his/her first time in court. The only exceptions are if the offence is so serious that the court decides a custodial sentence is absolutely necessary, or the offence is relatively minor (i.e. a non-imprisonable offence such as a traffic offence or fare evasion), in which case an alternative such as a fine or an absolute discharge may be given.

When a young person is given a referral order, he/she is required to attend a youth offender panel, which is made up of two volunteers from the local community and a YOS panel adviser. The panel, with the young person, their parents/carers and the victim (where appropriate), agree a contract lasting between three and 12 months. The aim of the contract is to repair the harm caused by the offence and address the causes of the offending behaviour. The conviction is spent once the contract has been successfully completed. This

means that in most circumstances the offence will not have to be disclosed by the young person when applying for work.

- **Reparation orders** are designed to help the young offender understand the consequences of their offending and take responsibility for their behaviour. They require the young person to repair the harm caused by their offence either directly to the victim (this can involve victim/offender mediation if both parties agree) or indirectly to the community. Examples of this might be cleaning up graffiti or undertaking community work. These orders are managed by the YOS. Note that some young people over the age of 16 may be sentenced to unpaid work managed by the probation service, but the numbers involved are quite small.
- **Fines, Conditional and Absolute Discharges** are also options available to courts. Fines in the Youth Court up to the age of 16 are the responsibility of parents.

## 5) Sentences to custody

Children and young people sentenced to custody may be contained either in a youth offending institution or in a secure children's home depending on their age, possible

security problems and their general circumstances.

- The **detention and training order (DTO)** sentences a young person to custody. It can be given to 12 to 17 year olds. The length of the sentence can be between four months and two years. The first half of the sentence is spent in custody while the second half is spent in the community under the supervision of the YOT. The court can require the young person to be on an Intensive Supervision and Surveillance Programme (ISSP) as a condition of the community period of the sentence. A DTO is only given by the courts to young people who represent a high level of risk, have a significant offending history or are persistent offenders and where no other sentence will manage their risks effectively. The seriousness of the offence is always taken into account when a young person is sentenced to a DTO.
- **Section 90/91.** If a young person is convicted of an offence for which an adult could receive at least 14 years in custody, they may be sentenced under Section 90/91. This sentence can only be given in the Crown Court.

For murder, the sentence under section 90 is a mandatory life sentence called 'At Her Majesty's Pleasure'.

The parole Board will consider release after the minimum term set by the sentencing court has been served. After release, there is supervision on license for an indefinite period.

Under section 91 if a young person is convicted of an offence for which an adult could receive at least 14 years in custody, they may be sentenced up to the adult maximum for the same offence, which for certain offences may be life. A young person given a Section 91 sentence will be placed in custody and be released automatically at the halfway point. They could be released up to a maximum of 135 days early on the Home Detention Curfew (HDC) scheme, but only if they meet the eligibility criteria for the scheme and pass a risk assessment. Once released, the young person will be subject to either a supervisory license until their sentence expires, if the sentence is 12 months or more, or a Notice of Supervision for a minimum of three months, if their sentence is less than 12 months.

## **6) Intensive Supervision and Surveillance Programme (ISSP)**

ISSP is the most rigorous non-custodial intervention available for young offenders, but can also be used in combination with a custodial order. As its name suggests, it combines extremely high levels of community-based surveillance with a compre-

hensive and sustained focus on tackling the factors that contribute to the young person's offending behaviour. ISSP targets the most active repeat young offenders, and those who commit the most serious crimes.

The programme aims to reduce the frequency and seriousness of offending in the target groups. It tackles the underlying needs of offenders which give rise to offending, with a particular emphasis on education and training, and it provides reassurance to communities through close surveillance backed up by rigorous enforcement.

Most young people will spend six months on ISSP. The most intensive supervision (25 hours a week) lasts for the first three months of the programme. Following this, the supervision continues at a reduced intensity (a minimum of five hours a week and weekend support) for a further three months. On completion of ISSP the young person will continue to be supervised for the remaining period of their order. The YOS and other local agencies work together to deliver the programmes.

### **b) Youth Offending Services and community safety**

Around the CSP table, the YOS are clearly an important partner in tackling early intervention with children

and young people, and in developing an ASB strategy, like probation.

However, services are often stretched, as capacity is inevitably limited. If resources are to be concentrated on the most serious concerns and risks, other agencies will need to support interventions for less serious problems. Another big problem is the transition between the youth justice system and the adult system, which occurs around the age of 18, and it is important that the probation service and the YOS work closely together on transfer cases, as these are very likely to be the young offenders presenting the most serious risk of continuing to offend.

## The National Health Service

The NHS is the biggest employer and the largest organisation of its kind in the UK. It is extremely complex in structure, and has been extensively reformed over the last 10 to 15 years. In this section the emphasis is on the chief differences between different components of the service. Recent Government announcements in the summer of 2010 will mean further major change in the structure of the NHS, especially at local level. In this chapter the current system is described by the different types of organisation. The proposed changes are indicated in each of the sections where relevant.

In the NHS services, the central distinction is between primary and secondary care.

Primary care is the first point of contact for most people and is delivered by a wide range of independent contractors, including GPs, dentists, pharmacists (chemists) and optometrists. Primary care is the care provided by people you normally see when you first have a health problem or if you are recovering from some time in hospital. It might be a visit to a doctor or a dentist, an optician for an eye test or a trip to a pharmacist to buy cough mixture. It also includes community nursing services

or therapies (such as physiotherapy or occupational therapy), which enable people to stay at home for their treatment. NHS walk-in centres and the NHS Direct telephone service are also part of primary care.

Secondary care is known as acute health care and is delivered in hospitals. It is categorised as either elective care or emergency or urgent care. Elective care means planned specialist medical care or surgery, usually following referral from a primary or community health professional such as a GP. Urgent care includes calling an ambulance, attending the Emergency Department or Minor Injuries Unit or calling out-of-hours primary-care services.

There is a general aim to move more services closer to home by commissioning services to be delivered in the community rather than in hospitals or specialist institutions. This includes some substance misuse services, delivered either by specialist providers or by GPs who have extra qualifications in this specialist area. The Government plans to take further action in this direction and plans a major change in the organisation of Primary Care.

### a) Primary Care Trusts

Primary Care Trusts (PCT) are currently the commissioners of all health services, whether primary or second-

ary care. They receive all the money for a particular area from which they have to procure all the services needed by the population of that area. The budget for an area is set by a national formula based on the general health of the population (which means PCTs in more prosperous and healthy areas such as the south-east have smaller budgets per head of population than other areas).

It is the responsibility of the PCT to assess the needs of the population, to engage and involve the public in setting priorities and to commission services. This is through a procurement process and is not limited to other NHS organisations; contracts are also held with voluntary organisations such as Age Concern, MIND and others. The PCT has the duty to manage all these contracts, ensuring that high-quality services are delivered, that budgets remain stable year-on-year and that targets are met. The contractors are generally known as providers and include hospital trusts, community trusts, mental health trusts and learning disability trusts, GPs, dentists, ophthalmologists and others.

PCTs are a responsible authority in CSPs and this function is usually led through the Public Health Department of the PCT. The delivery of health improvement is closely linked to social determinants of health,

which include living in healthy communities where crime and the fear of crime are at low levels. Health services are also critical to the delivery of substance misuse targets, domestic violence strategies, sexual abuse strategies, alcohol harm reduction and reducing re-offending.

The government in its white paper 'Equity and Excellence - liberating the NHS' now proposes to scrap PCTs and give councils responsibility for public health and joint working between NHS and other services.

The white paper also sets out plans for local GP consortia to take on the PCT role of commissioning hospital treatments.

All the measures in the white paper will affect health services in England only.

Councils will become responsible for a newly ring-fenced public health budget, currently around £4bn a year, and be required to appoint a local director of public health.

They are also to take responsibility for 'joint strategic needs assessments', setting local health priorities and supporting commissioning in their area.

Dental services will be commissioned centrally through a new NHS Commissioning Board, which will also have a duty to promote equality of

choice and of access to health care, and allocate NHS resources.

PCTs are to be phased out from April 2013. All hospital trusts will become financially autonomous foundation trusts in 2013/14.

These changes will have substantial implications for Community Safety given the increased responsibility for Public Health by the local authority and the development of the new GP Consortia, which will have many of the commissioning responsibilities at present exercised by the PCTs.

Readers are advised to follow progress carefully and note developments on the pages available at the end of this and related sections.

### **b) Community Health Services**

Community health services, such as health visiting, district nursing, physiotherapy and occupational therapy have, until recently, been part of PCTs. These services are now separating themselves off as provider organisations, either on their own or by amalgamating with other provider trusts. They are also under contract to the PCT and those contracts are drawn up, procured and monitored in the same way as other providers. Their relation to the new GP Consortia and the new Public Health structures is not yet clear.

### **c) Mental Health Trusts**

NHS mental health services trusts provide mental health care in England and are under contract to the local PCTs. There are 73 mental health trusts in England. They provide health and social care services for people with mental health problems.

Mental health services can be provided in primary care or through more specialist care. Primary care provision might include counselling and other psychological therapies, community and family support or general health screening. For example, people experiencing bereavement, depression, stress or anxiety can get help from primary care or by contracted voluntary-sector agencies such as MIND. People with more complex needs are referred for specialist care, which is normally provided by mental health trusts or local council social services departments. Services range from psychological therapy to specialist medical and training services for people with severe mental health problems. About two in every 1,000 people need specialist care for conditions such as severe anxiety problems or psychotic illness.

### **d) Acute Trusts**

There are 168 Acute NHS trusts which oversee 1,600 NHS hospitals and specialist care centres.

Acute Trusts employ a large part of the NHS workforce, including hospital-based nurses, doctors, pharmacists, midwives and health visitors. They also employ physiotherapists, radiographers, podiatrists, speech and language therapists, counsellors, occupational therapists, psychologists and health-care scientists. Acute trusts make sure that hospitals provide high-quality health care and that they spend their money efficiently. They also decide how a hospital will develop in order to improve services.

Emergency Departments are run in some acute trust hospitals, but not all. They provide urgent care for serious injuries which cannot be dealt with in primary care. This includes injury caused by assault and the growing number of alcohol-related injuries sustained as a result of binge drinking. Many areas also have Minor Injury Units which are local and which take less urgent and life-threatening urgent cases. The NHS is keen to ensure people attend the right service for their need, as inappropriate attendance at the Emergency Department is costly and distracts staff from the most urgent cases.

There are many other non-medical staff employed by acute trusts, including receptionists, porters, cleaners, specialists in information technology, managers, engineers,

caterers, and domestic and security staff. Some acute trusts are regional or national centres for more specialised care. Others are attached to universities and help to train health professionals.

Acute trusts can also provide services in the community, for example through health centres, clinics and in people's homes.

#### **e) Foundation Trusts**

Many NHS trusts have been encouraged to apply for foundation status which gives more freedom in governance structures and builds in more local accountability. Many acute trusts and mental health trusts now have foundation status. As noted earlier, all hospital trusts will now become financially autonomous trusts in 2013/14.

#### **f) Ambulance Trusts**

Urgent care is provided by the NHS ambulance services trusts with paramedics providing the most urgent response to need and then handing the patient on to Emergency Department staff if appropriate. There are 12 ambulance trusts in England. The Scottish, Welsh and Northern Ireland ambulance services provide cover for those countries.

If you call for an emergency ambulance the calls are prioritised into:

- Category A emergencies, which are immediately life threatening; and Category B or C emergencies, which are not life threatening. The emergency control room decides what kind of response is needed and whether an ambulance is required. For all three types of emergency, a rapid-response vehicle is sent, crewed by paramedics and equipped to provide treatment at the scene of an incident. Over the past five years the number of ambulance 999 calls has gone up by a third. Ambulance trusts have targets for response times depending on the category of the call. Inappropriate calls for ambulances cost the health service a lot and trusts try to inform people about when they are appropriate.

The NHS is also responsible for providing transport to get many patients to hospital for treatment. In many areas it is the ambulance trust that provides this service.

#### **g) Strategic Health Authorities**

Strategic health authorities were created by the government in 2002 to manage the local NHS on behalf of the Secretary of State. There were originally 28 SHAs, but the number was reduced to ten in July 2006, making them coterminous with the English regions (apart from the south-east region where there are two SHAs, South Central and South

Coast). SHAs manage the NHS locally and provide an important link between the Department of Health and the NHS.

SHAs are currently responsible for:

- Developing plans for improving health services in their local area
- Making sure local health services are of a high quality and are performing well
- Increasing the capacity of local health services so they can provide more services
- Making sure national priorities (for example, programmes for improving cancer services) are integrated into local health service plans

The white paper commits the Government to abolishing these Authorities by 2012/13.

#### **h) Special Health Authorities**

Special health authorities are health authorities that provide a health service to the whole of England, not just to a local community, for example the National Blood Authority and the National Institute for Clinical Excellence (NICE). National Treatment Agency for Substance Misuse (NTA) is also currently a Special Health Authority. Special Health Authorities were set up to provide a national service to the NHS or the public un-

der section 11 of the NHS Act 1977. They are independent, but can be subject to ministerial direction in the same way as other NHS bodies.

The Government has announced that the NTA will cease to exist as an organisation in its own right and its functions will be transferred to a new Public Health Service, which will be directly accountable to the Secretary of State. The Public Health Service will also incorporate the functions of the Health Protection Agency. The aim is to establish the new Public Health Service by April 2012.

#### **i) Health and community safety**

Worries have been expressed about the limited engagement of the health services with CSPs in some areas despite the clearly central importance of health professionals to many of the main crime and disorder problems.

For example:

- Substance misuse: PCTs and their services are involved in the delivery and management of services in the Drug and Alcohol Action Teams (DAATs)
- Domestic abuse and child abuse: have a vital relationship with health services, including the accident and emergency services
- Mental health services: are often involved with people caught up

in ASB either as victims or perpetrators

- The health needs of elderly people: are often bound up with a lack of confidence that they are safe and also a fear of crime

In reality, most health professionals operate in a range of complex structures, including working with the local authority on many health care issues, so participation in community safety work has to be justifiable in terms of their other priorities and their capacity to contribute. There are many cases where this is managed effectively. The main factor in achieving effective health participation in community safety structures is negotiation about the agenda and the specific contributions required – and a limited number of meetings.

The recently announced NHS structural changes will present significant new challenges in these areas. The increased role of the local authority and the new powers of the GP Consortia are the key changes which will need to be taken account of.

## Fire and Rescue Service

Fire services in England are provided by Fire and Rescue Services (FRS). The FRS is directly governed and funded by a fire authority.

Many FRS were previously known as brigades, or county fire services, but legislative and administrative changes, and alterations to boundaries have meant the FRS is now the normal designation. There are many combined services, though some county services still exist.

In 2002, Professor Sir George Bain was asked by the government to conduct a wide-ranging review of the fire service in the UK. One of the areas he identified as being in need of modernising was FRS approach to fire prevention and community fire safety. In due course under the updating of community safety legislation the FRS became statutory CSP partners.

### a) Fire safety

Historically fire safety was a function of local authorities rather than the fire service. However in 1947 the introduction of the Fire Services Act gave the fire brigades their first responsibilities for fire safety. The Fire Precautions Act 1971, the Fire Precautions (Workplace) Regulations 1997 and the Regulatory Reform (Fire Safety) Order 2005 gave more powers to the service.

The modernisation of the UK fire service has taken into account the role that it plays in fire safety and prevention. Now all fire and rescue services have community fire safety departments.

The Fire and Rescue Services Act 2004 now lays out in Section 6 what the fire service must do:

- Promote fire safety in its area.
- Provide information, publicity and encouragement to agencies and the public about how to prevent fires and death or injury caused by fires.
- Enforce fire safety legislation.
- Develop an active strategy targeted at all sections of the community.

### b) Fire and Rescue and Community Safety issues

Since incorporation as community safety partners many FRS have developed very effective strategies for such key community safety issues as the following:

- Firework safety and enforcement with the police and local authorities.
- Anti-social behaviour – data sharing with the police and work with the YOS on prevention are key elements of good practice.
- Prevention work in schools.

Most FRSs have specific teams liaising with CSPs on agreed programmes of intervention.

## Housing

Traditionally, and especially following the Second World War, the local authority was the major provider of rented housing across the country. The sale of council houses in the 1980s has substantially reduced the housing stock of local authorities but there are still 2.5 million council tenants in the U.K.

In recent years local authorities in many areas have transferred all or part of their housing stock to housing associations following an approval vote by a majority of tenants. This means that in many areas the major housing providers are housing associations, but the local authority retains a number of statutory responsibilities, which are to do with special needs provision and homelessness.

### a) Housing Associations

Originally, housing associations were established as a new third sector in housing by central government in the 1960s to combat a serious shortage in rented housing.

Many housing associations are the providers of transfer stock from the local authority, and range considerably in size and function. Housing associations are independent, not-for-profit social businesses set up to provide affordable homes for people who need to be housed. They

vary in size from fewer than ten to more than 50,000 homes. Altogether, housing associations provide about 2.5 million homes for more than five million people across England. Most of these homes are rented at affordable rates; a significant minority are sold through low-cost home ownership schemes.

Many have a specialist commitment to particular needs, including older people, people with disabilities and learning difficulties, and people who have been homeless. Often they are involved in floating support schemes, in which vulnerable people are re-housed and maintained in their tenancy with advice and support from visiting staff. Housing associations have specific powers in their own right, including powers to deal with ASB.

The Housing Corporation, a government agency, funds and regulates housing associations (and registered social landlords) in England.

In any CSP work there should be good liaison with the housing providers, though this can sometimes be difficult if an area has many housing associations. Sometimes a special liaison forum is set up to help with co-ordination and information sharing.

Housing associations provide temporary accommodation, such as hos-

tels, for homeless people. They also lease accommodation from private landlords for local authorities to use as temporary homes for people in urgent need of housing, particularly families.

Many housing associations also provide community services including employment training; regeneration projects; childcare; projects with children and young people; credit unions; food co-ops and community centres.

### b) Arms Length Management Organisations (ALMO)

Since 2001 another level of agency has been introduced: the ALMO. This is a company set up by a local authority to manage and improve all or part of its housing stock.

When ALMO is established, the housing stock remains in the ownership of the local authority but the ALMO takes responsibility for its day-to-day management. The ALMO is managed by a board of directors which includes tenants, local authority nominees and independent members.

As with proposed housing association proposed stock transfers the local authority is required to consult its tenants and leaseholders about its plans to set up an ALMO and must



be able to demonstrate their support for the proposal to the government.

### **c) Housing Management**

The profession of Housing Management is generally seen to have begun with the work of Octavia Hill, a pioneering housing reformer in London in the 19th century.

With over 2.5 million council tenants in England, the government expects local housing authorities (LHAs) to deliver high quality services which are vital for council and housing association tenants and to the quality of life on housing estates.

Services cover a wide range of functions: estate and tenancy management including rent collection and management of rent arrears, tackling ASB and succession rights (i.e. the right to take over a tenancy from an existing tenant); repairs and maintenance services; allocations and lettings policy, including making the effective use of housing stock through tackling over-crowding and under-occupation and the management of voids (unoccupied homes); and tenant involvement, consultation and rights. The housing manager is involved with many different people in the community. He or she is likely to be prominent in any issues of community development, local problem-solving and inter-agency working,

as well as neighbourhood policing groups.

### **d) Homelessness**

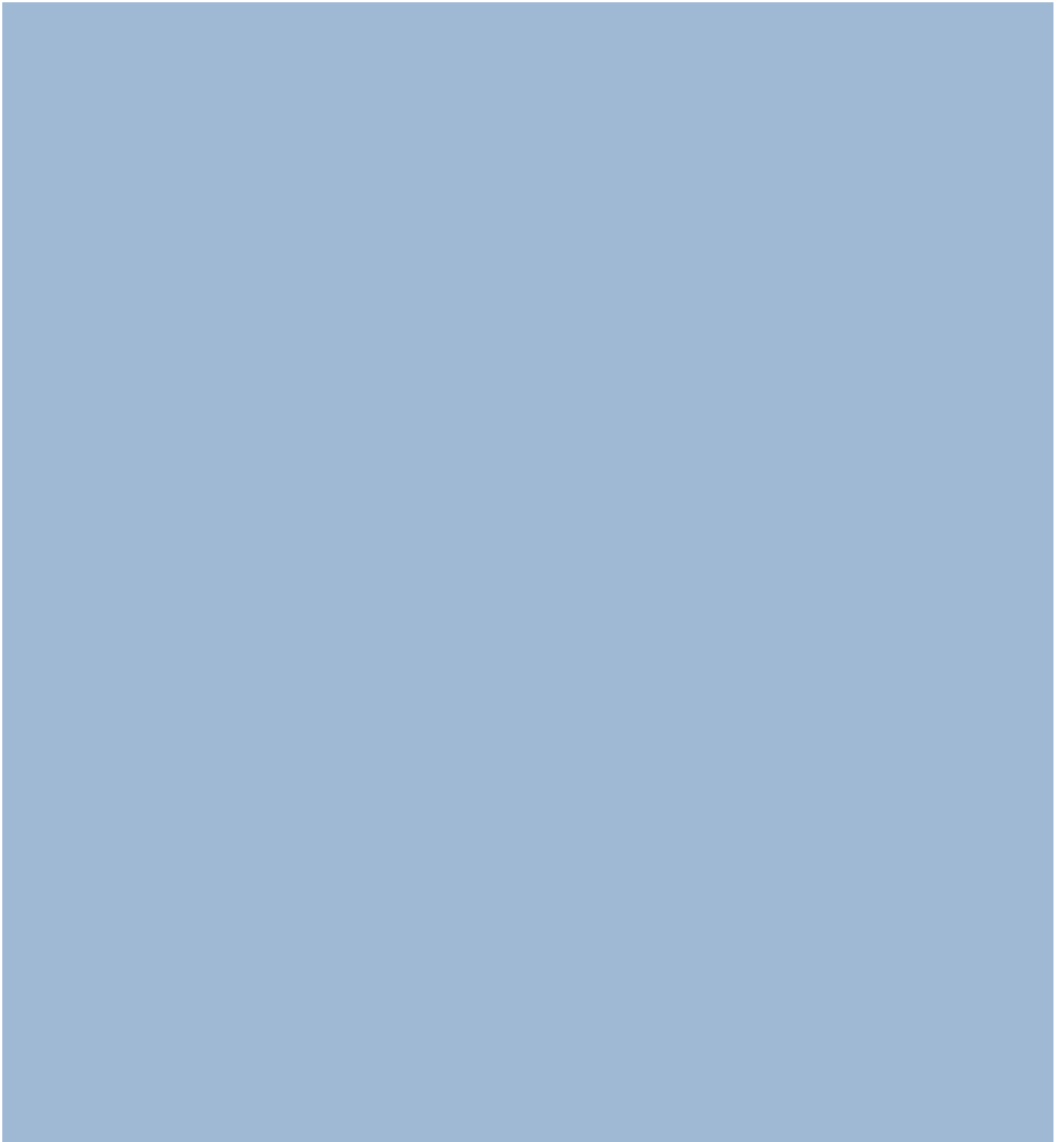
This is a major responsibility of local authorities and is the subject of quite complex regulations about priority and entitlement. Considerable care is always needed in advising people about their rights in respect of homelessness, and non-specialists are best advised to seek confirmation from specialist staff, or refer people to advice centres, or the local authority itself.

### **e) Local authority housing departments and community safety**

Housing departments are involved in CSPs as part of the local authority, though they may not necessarily be represented directly around the table. Nonetheless, housing issues are central to many community safety concerns. The following list gives an idea of the links involved.

- Homelessness
- Planning of housing: design is a big issue in improving community safety
- Repair and maintenance of housing and other community buildings; the broken windows theory is that poor levels of repair tend to attract more damage and criminal behaviour
- The management of problematic tenants such as drug users and violent neighbours; resolution of these problems usually involves an inter-agency approach and the re-housing options are a key part of this, especially when children are involved
- ASB on estates, neighbour disputes and behaviour on public spaces
- Provision of special needs housing for vulnerable groups including offenders
- Older people's housing needs, and inter-agency responses to such issues as distraction burglary

Customise and Update using this space:



## Substance Misuse

### a) National Treatment Agency for Substance Misuse (NTA)

The NTA is currently a Special Health Authority of the NHS and oversees the work of Drug and Alcohol Action Teams (DAATs) in England. It was set up in 2001 to improve the availability, capacity and effectiveness of treatment for drug misuse. The agency oversees both adult drug treatment and treatment for children and young people.

The NTA is not a treatment provider, but works to improve the commissioning of services, promote evidence-based practice in drug treatment and improve the skills of the drug treatment workforce. It has a regional structure based on the English government regions. DAATs submit plans based on needs assessments for their areas and are required to provide detailed returns on performance against identified treatment targets. The key drivers are as follows.

- Increasing the numbers of people in treatment, including offenders committing drug-related crime.
- Increasing the period of time people stay in treatment, with a target of 12 weeks.

- Ensuring that HIV spread is reduced by the availability of prescribed drugs such as methadone.
- Ensuring good access to legal prescribing to reduce the high levels of acquisitive crime associated with illegal drug use.
- Reducing deaths associated with substance misuse.

The Government announced in July 2010 that the NTA will be abolished as a statutory organisation, and its functions transferred to the new Public Health Service (PHS). The new Public Health Service will incorporate the NTA and its functions by April 2012. It remains to be seen what the implications organisationally will be for DAATs, who have since their establishment been required to work closely to targets and priorities set by the NTA.

### b) DAATs

DAATs are multi-agency partnerships created by the UK national drug strategy formulated in 1995 and are responsible for delivering the drug strategy at a local level. DAATs normally have the same geographical areas as county and unitary authorities. They were originally known as DATs, but are now normally known as DAATs to take account of the importance of alcohol work in their remit, though specific funding for al-

cohol work from central government is very limited.

The membership of DAAT boards reflects the partnership structure of the organisation. Probation, police, the local authority and the PCT are the key agencies involved. DAATs normally receive administrative services and are housed by either the local authority or the PCT.

The relationship between the DAAT and the CSP is a crucial one, and the two need to work very closely together. While many DAATs are organised separately, in others, DAAT functions are carried out by the CSP. In some places the DAAT is effectively a sub-committee of the CSP. DAATs in England receive various funding streams to deliver drug treatment. The main ones are the Pooled Treatment Budget (PTB) via the National Treatment Agency (NTA) and the Drug Interventions Programme via the Home Office.

### c) Drug treatment

Drug treatment is provided by a mixture of NHS, voluntary-sector and private provision. In 2008/2009, total spending was £398m. Services are commissioned at a local level by the DAAT.

The NTA regional teams provide guidance on spending this money to provide a full range of services, such

as access to advice and information, needle exchange, psychosocial interventions (PSIs), community prescribing (when doctors provide people with access to substitute drugs such as methadone as a means of stopping them using illegal drugs such as heroin), assessment, stabilisation and detoxification, and residential rehabilitation.

In 2007, the NTA introduced the Treatment Outcomes Profile (TOP). This is a tool for drug workers to monitor the outcomes of treatment, which yields measurable data on substance use, injecting behaviour, crime, and health and social functioning, rather than indirect measures such as waiting times and retention in treatment.

Overall, the NTA monitors the performance of the drug treatment sector through the National Drug Treatment Monitoring System (NDTMS) and information on individuals in treatment is released on a monthly basis. NDTMS replaced the regional drug misuse databases when the NTA took over data collection from the Department of Health in 2003. Since April 2008, providers of specialist alcohol treatment have also been asked to submit data.

#### **d) Prescribing, harm minimisation and detoxification**

When people enter treatment, the priority is to stabilise their often chaotic lives. Opiate users are typically given oral methadone, taken under supervision at a pharmacy or treatment centre. Buprenorphine is also used as a substitute medication. In 2007, 2.4 million prescriptions of methadone for substance dependence were written, an increase of 60% since 2003. For methadone-based treatments, guidance from the NTA advocates tailoring treatment to individuals depending on circumstances and clinical judgement, rather than advocating a single definition of recovery for everyone in treatment, such as indefinite maintenance on substitute drugs, or abstinence.

When opiate users have achieved some stability, they can choose to undergo detoxification, with the eventual goal of abstinence. This may be in the community under the supervision of a clinician, in a hospital, or as part of treatment in a specialist residential rehabilitation facility. Detoxification is considered ineffective without adequate psychosocial support.

Many people continue to inject and needle exchange schemes have been in use in the UK since 1987 to reduce the risk of infection from shared use

of needles. Many CSPs also work with DAATs to provide safe places for needle disposal.

#### **e) Connections with criminal justice and prisons**

One of NTA's most important strategies from its beginning has been to get more offenders into treatment as a means of reducing crime. The government shifted the emphasis from wholly voluntary treatment to more coercive treatment, with the introduction of Drug Treatment and Testing Orders (DTTOs) in the Crime and Disorder Act 1998.

In 2003, the Home Office and the NTA developed the Criminal Justice Interventions Programme (CJIP), which introduced drug testing on arrest for certain trigger offences in areas of high drug use.

In 2004, CJIP became the Drug Interventions Programme (DIP). The Home Office has published data showing reductions in acquisitive crime in DIP areas.

In prisons, the Integrated Drug Treatment System (IDTS) aims to increase the quantity and quality of drug treatment. Measures include substitute prescribing, integrated clinical and psychological treatment, and better links between prison and community treatment to ensure consistency of care.

### **f) Young people's treatment**

The NTA oversees DAATs' provision of drug and alcohol treatment for young people. This requires a different approach, which is often based primarily on inter-agency work and prevention, but the NTA has published assessment criteria for young people's services and has recently taken on more responsibilities in conjunction with the DCSF. The DAAT and CSP liaise with children's trusts. Since in every area provision is usually separated for young people and adults, transition is especially important, in a similar way to young people moving from the YOS to the probation service.

### **g) The 2008 Drug Strategy**

The government's 2008 Drug Strategy emphasises the outcomes of drug treatment, particularly reintegration and recovery, and moving people through and out of drug treatment. The earlier focus had been on getting as many people as possible into treatment and while this remains important the 2008 strategy underlined the importance of the 'client journey', with individuals making progress through treatment and then living normally in the community.

### **h) Alcohol**

The strategy aims to reduce the risk of harm from alcohol, which is

considered to be a major national problem. Excessive alcohol use is closely associated with much crime and disorder. DAATs are not funded specifically for alcohol, and therefore have to meet needs either by commissioning services which can address substance misuse generically, or make use of funding provided locally. Close partnership between the DAAT and the CSP is important in co-ordinating strategies on alcohol, particularly on prevention and harm reduction.

## **Children's Trusts and Every Child Matters**

### **a) Children's trusts**

Children's trusts exist to improve outcomes for all children and young people. They are based on unitary and county local authority areas. Essentially, they are partnerships led by local authorities in order to commission, plan, fund and deliver children's services. They establish what services are being provided locally and what services are still needed in order to coherently address the needs of children and young people in the area. They cover all aspects of local services for children, from the development of the overall strategy to the delivery of front-line services.

Children's trusts are not separate organisations in their own right and each partner in them retains its own responsibilities. Local authorities, represented by the Director of Children's Services and the Lead Member for Children's Services, head children's trusts. Some agencies have a 'duty to co-operate', to be an official partner of a children's trust, which is set out in law. These include strategic health authorities, PCTs, police authorities, local probation boards, youth offending teams, Connexions partnerships and district councils in two-tier local government areas.

Children's trusts are the most important group for improving the situation of children and young people across all five of the Every Child Matters outcomes (see below). The Children, Skills and Learning Act passed in 2009 extends the existing duty to co-operate to include all maintained schools, academies, further-education institutions, sixth-form colleges and Job Centre Plus centres. The government also recommends that children's trusts include other local partners such as voluntary and community organisations, although there is no statutory duty to do so.

The Children's Trust (Partnership) Board is responsible for co-ordinating services in its area, including producing a Children and Young People's Plan (CYPP). It should ensure that the CYPP is consistent with local strategies. The board should feed into the local strategic partnership (LSP) (see below) and engage with the other partnerships of the LSP. Partnership boards should also promote strong joint planning and commissioning of services.

There will often be subgroups or working groups that feed into the thinking and decisions of the children's trust board, for example an early years or youth offending group that brings together practitioners and decision-makers from different agencies and sectors. These groups

are concerned with the practical aspects of developing and improving services for particular children and young people.

### **b) Every Child Matters (ECM)**

ECM identifies the prime priority areas for the improvement of children's lives in the UK. It was launched in 2003, at least partly in response to the death of Victoria Climbié, and the report of the inquiry into her death, which identified services to children which remained poorly integrated and poorly focused on those in most need. ECM has led to a sea change in attitudes towards service structure and organisation for children and young people up to the age of 19. The website [www.everychildmatters.gov.uk](http://www.everychildmatters.gov.uk) provides full details of initiatives. The main concerns of the ECM report were the subject of the Children's Act 2004.

Its main aims are that every child, whatever their background or their circumstances, should have the support they need to attain each of these five outcomes:

- Be healthy
- Stay safe
- Enjoy and achieve
- Make a positive contribution
- Achieve economic well-being

Each of these themes has a detailed outcomes framework attached to it, which requires multi-agency partnerships working together to achieve them. These include children's centres, early years support, schools, children's social work services, primary and secondary health services, play work, and Child and Adolescent Mental Health services (CAMHS). ECM aims overall at a major improvement in the co-ordination of services.

### **c) Local Safeguarding Children Board (LSCB)**

The Local Safeguarding Children Board is responsible for co-ordinating work to safeguard and promote the welfare of children. The children's trust should consult the LSCB on issues that affect how children are safeguarded. The LSCB must also be consulted during the development of the CYPP.

## The Voluntary Sector

The voluntary sector is known by a number of general labels, though there is no one accepted title for it. Other terms in common use are 'community sector' or 'civil society'. In recent years the government has tended to use the umbrella description 'third sector'. Though these terms are often used interchangeably, they do represent different areas and perspectives. The following definitions are generally accepted, and illustrate both the differences between the different categories and the meaning of some frequently used terms:

### a) Voluntary sector

This is the part of the national economy that is not for profit and not an agency of the state. It includes charities, community groups and religious organisations. It can also include public-interest companies, sometimes known as 'social firms'. As an umbrella term, it can cover everything from a sizeable housing association to a local sports club. The term 'voluntary' should not be confused with 'volunteer'. Many of these organisations will have paid professional staff, even if they also provide work for people working as volunteers. Other groups, such as a boys' football club, or an old people's lunch club, may be entirely run by volunteers.

### b) Charities

Many organisations in the voluntary sector are charities. These are organisations which are not for profit and whose objectives are charitable, educational, and religious or for the public good. An organisation which wishes to become a charity can do this by making a formal application to the Charity Commission, which keeps records of all charities and is the national regulatory body. Charities all have to have a constitution and a number of trustees. They have to submit an annual return to the Charity Commission with a report on activities and accounts. The regulations on reporting depend on the turnover of the charity, but basically the same rules apply whether the organisation is a huge national operation or a tiny local trust. Organisations with charitable objectives do not have to have this status, but being a registered charity can provide access to tax relief and Gift Aid, the government support scheme whereby donors know that the government will give the charity additional money linked to the tax they have paid on their income.

Some organisations, which trade for income or operate as a business, such as housing associations, may be companies limited by guarantee as well as charities, though there are different accounting and taxation arrangements.

You can find any charity online by visiting the Charity Commission for England and Wales website, where you will find who the trustees are, the annual report and their last accounts.

### c) A community interest company (CIC)

This is a type of company introduced by the government in 2005 under the Companies Act 2004, designed for social enterprises that want to use their profits and assets for the public good. CICs are intended to be easy to set up, with all the flexibility and certainty of the company form, but with some special features to ensure they are working for the benefit of the community. The CIC is intended to meet the needs of regular limited liability companies that do not have charitable status and find it difficult to ensure that their assets are dedicated to public benefit. There used to be no simple, clear way of locking assets of such a company to a public benefit purpose other than applying for charitable status.

When a CIC is requested, the CIC regulator considers whether applications meet the criteria. If satisfied, the regulator advises the registrar in Companies House who, providing all the documents are in order, will issue a certificate of incorporation as a CIC. A charity can convert to a CIC with the consent of the Charity

Commission. In so doing it will lose its charitable status including tax advantages. However, a charity may own a CIC, in which case the CIC would be permitted to pass assets to the charity. CICs are more lightly regulated than charities but do not have the benefits of charitable status, even if their objects are entirely charitable in nature. Those who may want to set up a CIC are expected to be philanthropic entrepreneurs who want to do good in a form other than a charity.

#### **d) Community sector**

This describes the vast majority of voluntary organisations characterised by a local rather than national presence, and whose link is likely to be with local government or communities rather than with central government. Many of the services provided by local government are delivered through community-sector organisations, usually charities or CICs. In such types of work as elder care, there will usually be a mix of organisations delivering the various services, some by the local authority or PCT direct, some by community-sector organisations and some by private companies. Services are now generally commissioned by local authorities, and some information about commissioning and purchasing is given in the next section. In some fields of work, including com-

munity safety, a good deal of public expenditure is still made through grant aid rather than a commissioning process, but in line with overall modernisation most significant expenditure will in future be through commissioning.

#### **e) Councils for Voluntary Service (or equivalent) and their national organisation**

NAVCA, the National Association for Voluntary and Community Action, is the national body for local infrastructure organisations in England. Local infrastructure organisations are often known as Voluntary Action, Community Action or Council for Voluntary Service (CVS). The CVSs cover almost every local authority area in England.

NAVCA has approximately 290 full members and 60 affiliates that work with over 160,000 organisations. NAVCA's stated purpose is to promote the local third sector nationally. It does this by providing its members with representation, information, advice, networking and learning opportunities, support and development services and in turn it draws on its members' experience to influence the government and contribute to national policy

NAVCA is a strategic partner of the Cabinet Office's Office of the Third Sector, the office specifically respon-

sible for the voluntary and community sector in central government.

#### **f) The Compact**

In England, the Compact is an agreement between the government and the voluntary and community sector made in November 1998. It aims to improve the relationship between the two sectors for mutual advantage. The Compact is made up of five codes of good practice:

- funding and procurement
- consultation and policy appraisal
- black, minority-ethnic voluntary and community organisations
- volunteering
- community groups

Established in April 2007, the Commission for the Compact is an independent public body responsible for overseeing and promoting use of the Compact. The Commission is sponsored by the Office of the Third Sector and the Minister for the Third Sector.

Almost all local authority areas have now developed a local compact in partnership with the voluntary and community sector. The national umbrella organisation supporting local compacts is called the Compact Voice.



### **g) The voluntary sector and community safety**

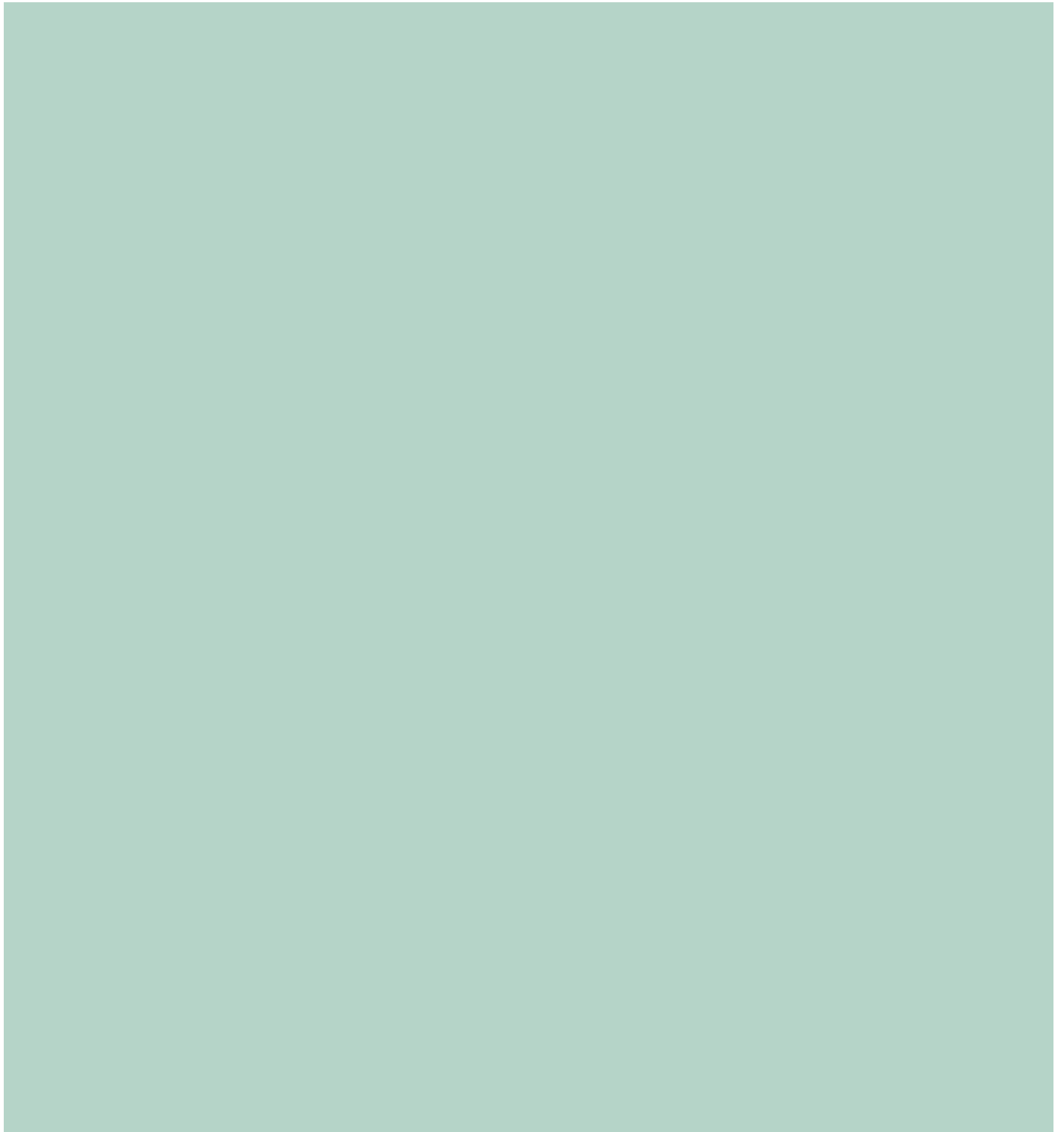
In most aspects of community safety work CVS organisations have an important part to play. They may be providing representation of a particular group of people as well as a local service, say victim support. They may be community groups not directly concerned with community safety but provide facilities which could be involved in addressing problems, such as local children's football clubs. They may be the means of obtaining views and community input, like tenants' organisations.

The local CVS or Voluntary Action organisation is important because it provides information about all the organisations in the area, and will have a valuable overview. The CVS voice should be heard in planning and reviewing community safety work, but it is a good idea to think through carefully how this is most likely to be achieved. Invitations to meetings are an easy option, but many CVS organisations are small, and representation at meetings can eat very quickly into the limited time available for their core activities. Planning the timing and venue of meetings and meeting necessary expenses may help. Similarly, it is good to be aware of other costs, such as the production of documents and

other unforeseen administrative costs in attending meetings or training.

Since the General Election of 2010, the Government has adopted the Big Society approach which had been included in the Conservative Party Manifesto. This is a general approach rather than a specific policy, but does envisage higher levels of citizen participation in the delivery of public service, and VCS organisations are likely to be regarded as the providers of many of those opportunities. Community safety already has long experience of neighbourhood watch and earlier campaigns on anti-social behaviour often included the development of local organisations initiated by 'champions'. While there are clearly major advantages in engagement and participation local and national organisations have already expressed concern about unrealistic expectations especially in the light of major financial cutbacks.

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## **Central government departments and the regional offices**

This section gives basic information about the central government departments which are relevant to community safety

### **a) The Department for Communities and Local Government (CLG)**

The CLG has been the government department for communities and local government in England since May 2006. The department originated in 2001 as the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister.

There are corresponding departments in the Scottish Government, the Welsh Assembly Government and the Northern Ireland Executive, responsible for communities and local government in their respective jurisdictions.

CLG is responsible for:

- Building regulations
- Civil resilience
- Fire services
- Homelessness
- Housing
- Local government
- Neighbourhood renewal

- Neighbourhood management pathfinder programme
- Neighbourhood renewal fund
- Planning
- Regions
- Social exclusion
- Sustainable communities
- Urban policy

On its creation it also assumed the community policy function of the Home Office and has since established the Commission on Integration and Cohesion, and the now separate Government Equalities Office.

In January 2007, proposals were announced to bring together the delivery functions of the Housing Corporation, English Partnerships and parts of communities and local government functions to form a new unified housing and regeneration agency, the Homes and Communities Agency (initially announced as Communities England), which became operational in December 2008. This also includes the Academy for Sustainable Communities and advisory team for large applications.

### **b) Department of Health (DH)**

The DH has responsibility for government policy for England alone on health, social care and the NHS. The DH carries out some of its work

through arm's-length bodies, including non-departmental public bodies and executive agencies such as the NHS Purchasing and Supply Agency (NHS PASA) and the Medicines and Healthcare Products Regulatory Agency (MHRA).

In the other countries of the UK, responsibility for health and the management of National Health Services falls under the jurisdiction of the devolved governments.

The DH has the following responsibilities or agencies relevant to community safety:

- the NHS, including the NTA, technically a Special Health Authority
- drugs and alcohol, though not the Advisory Council on the Misuse of Drugs which falls within the Home Office
- adult social care and the needs of the elderly or handicapped
- mental health

### **c) Home Office (HO)**

This is the government department responsible for immigration control, security and order. As such it is responsible for the police, the United Kingdom Borders Agency and MI5. It is also in charge of government policy on security-related issues such as drugs, counter-terrorism and ID

cards. It was formerly responsible for the prison service and probation service, but these are now under the Ministry of Justice.

It continues to be known, especially in official papers and when referred to in Parliament, by its former title, the Home Department.

The Home Office has the following stated objectives:

- to reduce crime
- to ensure people feel safer in their homes and daily lives, particularly through more visible, responsive and accountable policing
- to protect the UK from terrorist attacks
- to re-balance the criminal justice system in favour of the law-abiding majority and victims
- to manage offenders in order to protect the public and reduce re-offending
- to secure the borders of the UK, prevent abuse of immigration laws and manage migration for the benefit of the UK

#### **d) Ministry of Justice (MoJ)**

This has been a department since 2007. It is responsible for courts, prisons and probation in England and Wales.

Further responsibilities include criminal justice policy, sentencing policy and prevention of re-offending in England and Wales.

The ministry handles relations with the Scottish, Welsh and Northern Irish governments in all areas for which it is responsible in England and Wales.

The ministry was created on 9 May 2007 by detaching parts of the Home Office and merging them with the Department for Constitutional Affairs (formerly known as the Lord Chancellor's Department).

It has various other functions, such as human rights and electoral reform, which also cover the whole of the UK.

In the jurisdiction of England and Wales, the Ministry of Justice is responsible for dealing with all suspected offenders from the time they are arrested, until convicted offenders are released from prison. The main services relevant to community safety which come under the Ministry of Justice are as follows:

- National Offender Management Service
- Youth Justice and the Youth Justice Board
- Parole Board

Her Majesty's Courts Service: administration of the civil, family and criminal courts in England and Wales

- Tribunals Service: administration of a large part of the UK tribunals system
- legal aid and the wider community legal service through the Legal Services Commission
- judicial appointments
- constitutional affairs including electoral reform
- civil and human rights

The Office of Criminal Justice Reform (OCJR) was created to oversee overall reform of criminal justice. It is hosted by the Ministry of Justice but works with three departments: the Ministry of Justice, the Home Office and the Attorney General's Office.

#### **e) Government Regional offices (GOs)**

The Government Office (GO) network consists of nine regional offices across the country, and the GO Network Centre and Services. Located in major cities across England, the GOs were set up to understand and address the particular needs of their region. They offer experience and expertise to Whitehall departments in the development of policy and in the way that policies are best implemented, and are the primary means

by which a wide range of government policies and programmes have been delivered in the English regions.

GOs represent 12 Whitehall departments, and are involved in regenerating communities, fighting crime, tackling housing needs, improving public health, raising standards in education and skills, tackling countryside issues and reducing unemployment. In community safety they provide a prime link on funding and strategy between CSPs and the government.

A decision to abolish the Government Office for London was taken soon after the 2010 General Election. The Secretary of State for Communities and Local Government announced in July 2010 that in principle the other eight Government Offices would also close in 2011, but this is subject to the autumn spending review and the need to make specific arrangements about transfer of functions.

## Local area agreements, the local strategic partnerships, and community empowerment

### Local Area Agreements

A Local Area Agreement (LAA) is a three-year agreement based on local long-term community strategies, which sets out priorities for a local authority area. It operates only in top-tier authorities, that is, counties and unitaries. It consists of improvement targets which local organisations are committed to achieving and a delivery plan setting out what each partner is intending to do to achieve those targets.

The priorities, which are based on evidence of local need and extensive community engagement, are developed through the local strategic partnership (see below), and agreed by central government through one of the regional government offices.

The government's White Paper 'Strong and Prosperous Communities', which was published in October 2006, set out new arrangements for LAAs, in order to 'provide local authorities and their partners with the flexibility and capacity to deliver the best solutions for their areas through a reformed relationship between central and local government'.

The new LAAs, introduced in April 2008 and running until 2011, define local priorities and the overall targets for the area, most of them needing to operate across a range of services. A new LAA grant was introduced to give areas flexibility on spending.

The key documents are the area's sustainable community strategy (SCS) and the agreement itself, covering 2008–11.

The LAAs have five key themes:

- children and young people
- safer communities
- stronger communities
- healthier communities
- sustainable communities

The government gives a reward grant at the end of three years if LAA targets have been achieved.

The new duties under this legislation came into effect on 1 April 2009. They require local authorities 'to take those steps they consider appropriate to involve representatives of local persons in the exercise of any of their functions, where they consider that it is appropriate to do so.' The duty involves three 'modes' of involving local people, as follows:

- providing information
- consulting about how action will be taken on services or policies

- involving people directly in implementation

In essence this is a broad requirement across all functions of the local authority but it includes a 'get out clause' since the authority itself can decide on appropriateness! To that extent the requirement is more permissive than it looks, and it will be interesting to see how this works in practice over time.

### Local strategic partnerships (LSPs)

These exist to bring together representatives from the local statutory, voluntary, community and private sectors to address local problems, allocate funding, and discuss strategies and initiatives. They aim to encourage joint working and community involvement, and prevent 'silo working' (i.e. different agencies that share aims working in isolation), with the general aim of ensuring resources are better allocated at a local level. LSPs operate at both county and district level in two-tier authorities but the LAAs operate only at county level.

The structure of an LSP is flexible to a large degree, and is decided at the local level. This has resulted in a diverse collection of partnerships across the country, both in terms of who is represented and how they work. Differences in structure and process influence the effectiveness

of each partnership, but the central focus is the partnership between the local authority and the PCT.

The involvement of the community is an important aspect of the government's vision of LSPs.

### Community empowerment

The Local Government and Public Involvement in Health Act came in 2007. The Act covers four main areas, as follows.

**Section 1** introduces the concept of a new settlement between central government, local government and their partners and citizens and community leadership, providing a context for the later sections of the Act.

**Section 2** addresses governance and engagement, setting out the role of the LSP and the leadership role of local authorities within them. The section also deals with the duty to involve best value authorities and how local communities are to be engaged and empowered in shaping the future of their area.

**Section 3** provides guidance on establishing a vision for the area. The central role of the SCS in encapsulating the 'story of place' is explained as a way of describing their area, together with how this strategy should relate to other local plans and strategies.

**Section 4** covers the overall establishing of priorities for an area through the LAA (including the formal submission, approval, designation and revision processes).

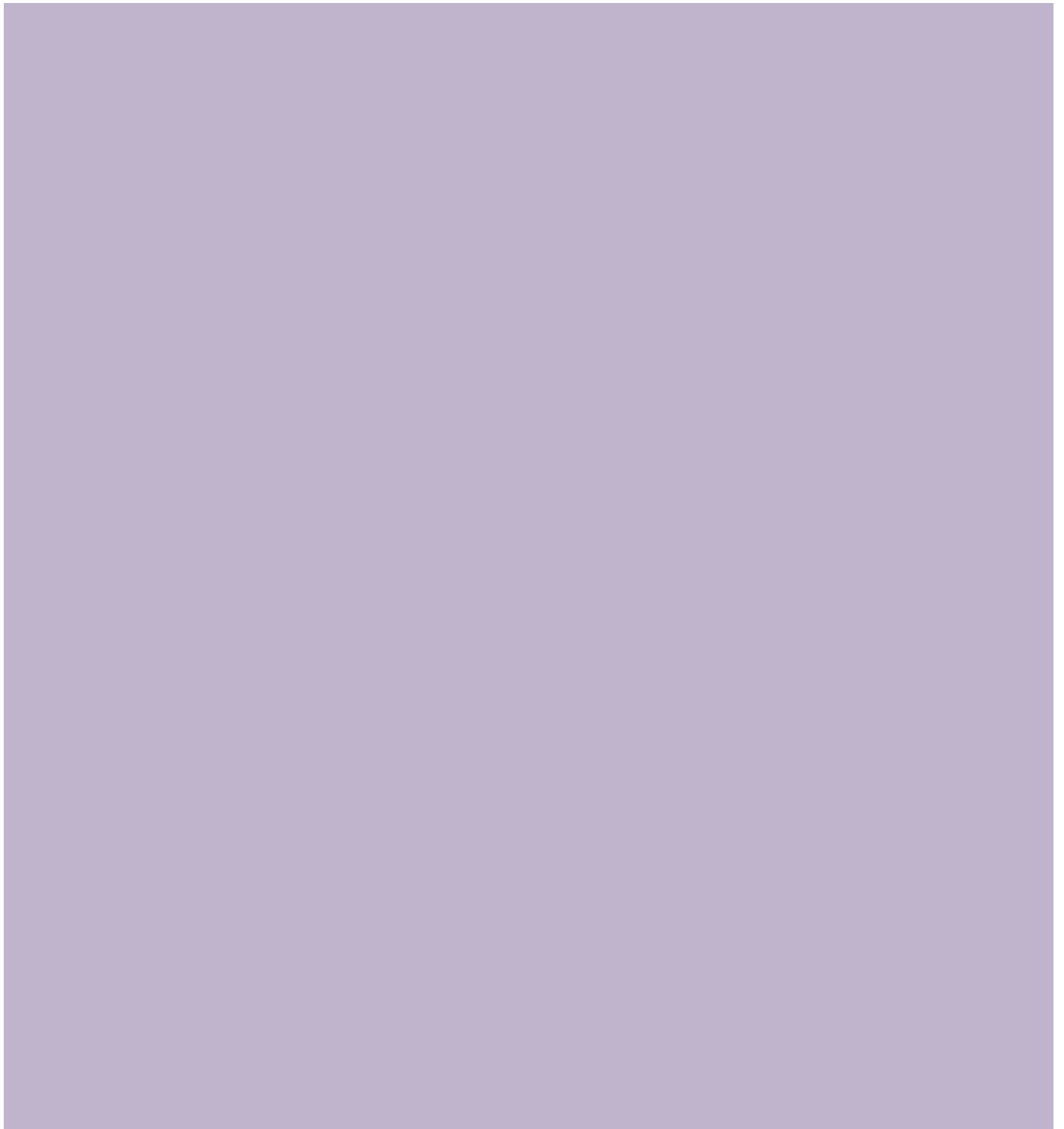
**Section 5** addresses the establishing of priorities from the perspective of partners, explaining what is expected in terms of co-operation to determine targets.

**Section 6** covers the delivery of outcomes for an area. It explains how partner authorities are required to have regard to targets they have agreed in the LAAs, along with how commissioning and the duty of best value should be addressed in the future.

The new duty, which came into force on 1 April 2009 and requires authorities to take those steps they consider appropriate to involve representatives of local persons in the exercise of any of their functions, where they consider that it is appropriate to do so. The duty involves three ways of involving local people and their representatives:

- providing information
- consulting about how action will be taken on services or policies
- involving people directly in implementation

Customise and Update using this space:



## Glossary of commonly used community safety acronyms

# Appendix

<b>ABC</b> = acceptable behaviour contract	<b>BTP</b> = British Transport Police	<b>CVS</b> = Council for Voluntary Service
<b>ACPO</b> = Association of Chief Police Officers, UK-wide group that sets national policing policy in consultation with the Home Office	<b>CAB</b> = Citizens Advice Bureau	<b>DA/DV</b> = domestic abuse/ domestic violence
<b>ALMO</b> = arm's length management organisation	<b>CAMHS</b> = Child and Adolescent Mental Health Services	<b>DAAT</b> = Drug and Alcohol Action Team, inter-agency partnership responsible for the commissioning and performance of drug and alcohol services in a county or unitary authority area
<b>ALO</b> = architectural liaison officer, police officer authorised to issue 'Secure By Design' award	<b>CCTV</b> = Closed Circuit Television	<b>DAT</b> = Drug Action Team/s
<b>ARC</b> = appropriate, realistic and cost-effective, what the Home Office likes us to be with their money	<b>CDRP</b> = Crime and Disorder Reduction Partnership, statutory partnership for dealing with crime and disorder reduction in England	<b>DCSF</b> = Department for Children, Schools and Families
<b>ARG</b> = Arson Reduction Group, subgroup of the partnership set up to tackle arson	<b>CEOP</b> = Child Exploitation and Online Protection Centre	<b>DIP</b> = Drugs Intervention Programme, Home Office funded programme previously known as Through care/ Aftercare
<b>APACS</b> = Assessment of Policing and Community Safety, government performance regime for police and CSPs	<b>CIC</b> = Community Interest Company	<b>DPPO</b> = Designated Public Places Order, or controlled drinking zone
<b>ASB</b> = anti-social behaviour	<b>CJA</b> = Criminal Justice Act	<b>DRR</b> = Drug Rehabilitation Requirement, a sentence of the court for those needing drug treatment)
<b>ASBI</b> = Anti-social Behaviour Injunction	<b>CJS</b> = Criminal Justice System	<b>DTOA</b> = Drug Testing On Arrest
<b>ASBO</b> = Anti-social Behaviour Order, issued by a magistrates/ county court	<b>CLG</b> = Department for Community and Local Government	<b>DTO</b> = Detention and Training Order
<b>BCS</b> = British Crime Survey, the annual survey carried out by the Government to assess levels of crime and fear of crime	<b>CONTEST</b> = Counter-Terrorism Strategy	<b>DTTO</b> = Drug Treatment and Testing Order
<b>BCU</b> = Basic Command Unit, a geographic division of a police area	<b>CPO</b> = Crime Prevention Officer, a police officer whose role is to advise on crime prevention measures	<b>DTOC</b> = Drug Testing On Charge
	<b>CPS</b> = Crown Prosecution Service	<b>DV</b> = Domestic Violence
	<b>CRASB</b> = Crime Reduction and Anti-social Behaviour funding stream from the Home Office to support PSA delivery	<b>ECM</b> = Every Child Matters
	<b>CSP</b> = Community Safety Partnership	<b>FIO</b> = Field Intelligence Officer,
	<b>CYPP</b> = Children and Young Peoples' Plan	



police officer based in section gathering intelligence

**FIP** = Family Intervention Programme

**FRS** = Fire and Rescue Services

**FTE** = First Time Entrant to the criminal justice system, a KPI (see below) for YOTs (see below)

**GLA** = Greater London Authority

**GP** = General Practitioner

**HDC** = Home Detention Curfew

**HO** = Home Office

**IDTS** = Integrated Drug Treatment System

**IOM** = Integrated Offender Management

**IQUANTA** = Information Quantification, Home Office web-based accounting system used to monitor performance of police forces and partnerships using data provided by NCRS and NSIR (see below)

**ISO** = Individual Support Order

**ISSP** = Intensive Supervision and Surveillance Programme

**KPIs** = Key Performance Indicators

**LA** = Local Authority

**LAA** = Local Area Agreement

**LCJB** = Local Criminal Justice Board, a criminal justice partnership set up to improve the criminal justice system, which includes police and the criminal justice agencies including the Crown Prosecution Service

**LHA** = Local Housing Authority

**LPA** = Local Police Area

**LSCB** = Local Safeguarding Children Board

**LSP** = Local Strategic Partnership

**MAPPA** = Multi Agency Public Protection Arrangements, the structures and processes which regulate management of identified dangerous offenders in the community, led by police and probation services

**MAPPP** = Multi Agency Public Protection Panel

**MARAG/MARAC** = Multi Agency Risk Assessment Group/Conference, inter-agency group set up to plan action to either assess risk to and provide support for a victim, i.e. of domestic violence, or to action plan for the release of a dangerous offender

**MoJ** = Ministry of Justice

**NACRO** = National Association for the Care and Resettlement of Offenders

**NAG** = Neighbourhood Action Group

**NAVCA** = National Association for Voluntary and Community Action

**NCA** = National Crime Agency

**NCRS** = National Crime Recording Standard, national system for recording crime that was introduced in April 2002, designed to standardise how different police areas record crime

**NCSN** = National Community Safety Network, UK-wide network of community safety officers, managers and practitioners

**NDTMS** = National Drug Treatment Monitoring System

**NEET** = Not in Education, Employment or Training, a mnemonic applied to under 25

**NHS** = National Health Service

**NHW** = Neighbourhood Watch

**NICE** = National Institute for Clinical Excellence

**NIM** = National Intelligence Model, police business model for determining priorities for action/deployment of resources based on use of intelligence

**NOMS** = National Offender Management Service, national agency responsible for probation and prisons

**NPIA** = National Policing Improvement Agency

**NPS** = National Probation Service

**NSIR** = National Standard for Incident Recording, new dataset requiring police to record ASB that is not classed as crime, implemented June 2005

**OCJR** = Office for Criminal Justice Reform

**NTA** = National Treatment Agency for Substance Misuse

**PACT** = Partnerships and Communities Together, engagement tool used in neighbourhood policing models

**PAT** = Problem Analysis Triangle, used as part of POPs (see below)

**PCSO** = Police Community Support Officer, uniformed officer who does not have full police powers

**PCT** = Primary Care Trust

**PHS** = Public Health Service

**PMF** = Performance Management Framework, set of key performance indicators

**POPs** = Problem-Oriented-Policing or Problem-Oriented-Partnerships

**PPO** = Prolific and Other Priority Offender

**PPOS** = Prolific and Other Priority Offender Scheme, aimed at dealing

intensively with the offenders committing most crime in a CSP area

**PSA** = Public Service Agreement, performance regime agreed between government departments and the Treasury

**PTB** = Pooled Treatment Budget

**PSI** = Psychosocial Intervention

**PYO** = Persistent Young Offender

**RAT** = Routine Activity Theory, criminology theory used in crime reduction

**RIPA** = Regulation of Investigatory Powers Act/ Authority that governs targeted surveillance, etc

**SARA** = Scanning, Analysis, Response, Assessment, problem-solving tool

**SARC** = Sexual Assault Referral Centre

**SCS** = Sustainable Communities Strategy

**SEU** = Social Exclusion Unit

**SFO** = Serious Fraud Office

**SHA** = Strategic Health Authority

**SOCA** = Serious and Organised Crime Agency, new national policing organisation aimed at tackling serious and organised crime

**SSCF** = Safer Stronger Communities

Fund, Home Office funding stream for CSPs in England

**SSP** = Safer School Partnership

**TKAP** = Tackling Knives Action Plan

**TOP** = Treatment Outcome Profile

**TVCP** = Tackling Violent Crime Programme, one of the Home Office's work streams with funding attached

**YIP** = Youth Inclusion Programme, similar to a YISP but set up for a specific geographic area

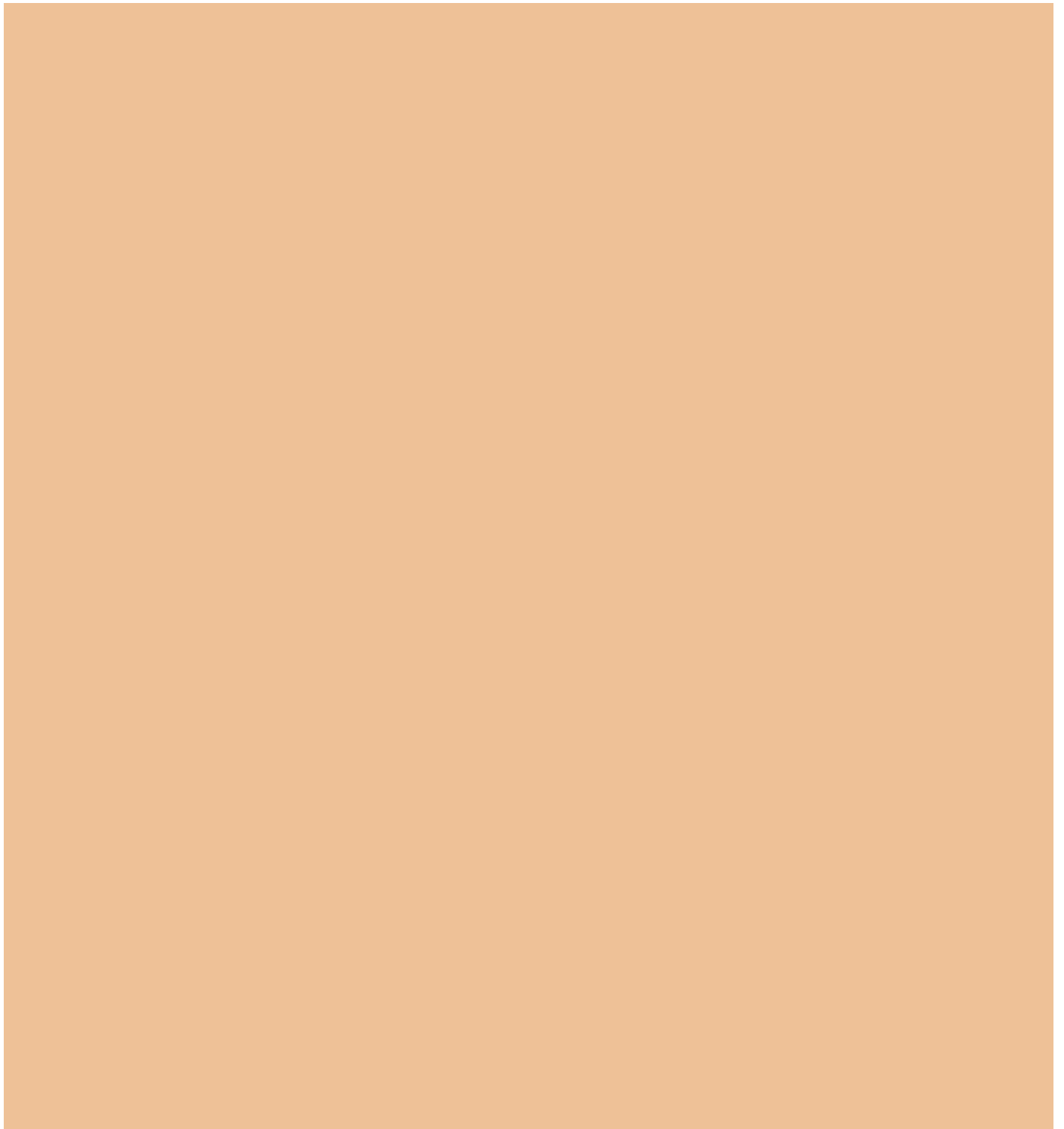
**YISP** = Youth Inclusion Support Panel, mechanism to case manage problem youngsters

**YJB** = Youth Justice Board, national board set up to manage YOTs (see below)

**YOT/YOS** = Youth Offending Team/ Service, statutory partnership created to manage young offenders

**YRO** = Youth Rehabilitation Order

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