

1000 words - Understanding the role of Constable/Maintaining Professional Standards

Critically evaluate the concept of ‘the professionalization of the police service’ considering how ‘Maintaining Professional Standards’ ‘ethical and inclusive’ and ‘Coaching and Mentoring’ approaches contribute to this.

Within this paper, I will evaluate the professionalization of the police service, exploring the facets within the notion. I will specifically explore the idea of higher education in the police service, the history of this and the progression into a professionalised, educated workforce.

Green and Gates (2014) state:

The push toward professionalisation of policing is an expanding discourse in western societies. Professions, as opposed to trades, crafts or occupations, have particular characteristics, some of which have eluded policing and must be considered if the police are to reach this goal. Characteristics of a profession include a professional association, cognitive base, institutionalised training, licensing, work autonomy, colleague control, a code of ethics and high standards of professional and intellectual excellence.

(Green and Gates 2014, 75)

A key facet within the professionalization of the police and any other large organisation can be seen from its adherence to the required standards of behaviour individually, culturally and structurally in all it does. Using the United Kingdom as a stark example, history has illustrated a troubled relationship between the police and the public they serve. In the modern age spanning the 1960s to present day as an example, The Police service in the UK has come under scrutiny and derision surrounding general and specific scandals. High profile Incidents such as the Brixton riots of the 1980’s and the Stephen Lawrence murder of the 1990’s has served to inflame and spotlight the notion of ineptitude and unsatisfactory behaviours individually and structurally within the police. As a direct result of this, comes distrust and the corrosion of belief in the police as a whole in society. Furthermore, this can lead to the underpinning notion that Police underperformance or misbehaviour can be correlated with the general lack of formal education undertaken by the individuals within all roles. The role of police constable, it is widely understood, requires a level of ‘street smart’ thinking and the ability to think critically and precisely in stressful and developing situations. The requirement

of formal educational qualification, such as university degrees as prime example are often contested as to the relevance or worth to the role of police constable. Previous generations of police have had little to no interaction with higher education in a personal or structural capacity. Historically, policing and the police officers within were of lower middle class social standing and without formal educational qualifications when employed to undertake their role. Punch (2007) states that ...’ For several reasons the founding father of the Metropolitan Police, Robert Peel, ‘was stubborn to the point of obsession that his “New Police” should be seen to be free of all taint of militarism and indeed he made it a cardinal principle that, as the force grew, it should be “filled up from below” (2007:111). As such and in essence, the ranks of police forces were filled with the aforementioned working class males and to a lesser extent females in abundance and by majority. Punch (2007) states that in relation to the effect this had on the police forces ‘Some of these agencies were, and are, typically macho, male preserves with powerful informal cultures, strong prejudices, an antipathy to senior officers (and females) and outsiders and especially to ‘theoretical knowledge’. Punch (2007) reinforces this narrative stating ‘...To be educated was to be deviant: as in the quote above it was an occupational handicap to be swiftly erased’ (2007:110).

The mentioned prejudices are of note when considering the role of non-university educated police officers historically. Whilst by no means guaranteed, it is widely accepted that a formal higher education instils a greater sense of cultural world understanding in individual who undertake such a path and as a direct result negates or vastly reduces the instance of wanton racism or racist mistrust within. This was a notion adopted and championed by Essex Police Chief Constable John Nightingale whilst in post in the late 1960’s. Nightingale believed that by pioneering a funded scheme whereby two officers per annum could undertake a social science university degree, he could reap the benefits of an educated and further enlightened workforce. Punch (2007) states that Nightingale believed the ‘...experience of university, mixing with people from different backgrounds taking a wide range of subjects, that formed the valuable learning experience for his officers rather than gaining specific, occupationally focused knowledge’ (2007:114).

When considering officers obtaining university degrees as a pre requisite of the role and the subsequent effect on the public perception of police officers, the notion of epistemic authority should be considered. Pierson (1994) explores the notion of epistemic authority and

how in everyday and mundane life, the layman requires essential deference on decision making to those understood to hold the relevant expertise in that field. He states that ‘...the demands of everyday life require us to make many more decisions and hold many more opinions than we could ever base on self-examined reasons’ (1994:398). As such, in a modern professionalised world whereby formal qualifications corroborating and solidifying skill sets are now an abundant norm, Pierson’s (1994) layman can now expect and even demand that the public servants that hold such societal power be held accountable to their required knowledge through means of formal and structured qualifications. This, consequentially will increase public perception of the police, indicating a further educated and therein qualified workforce garnering an augmented sense of public trust to undertake the serious and sensitive nature of their duties.

In conclusion, it is apparent that there is an intrinsic link between the professionalization of the police through higher education and the subsequent effect on maintaining of the professional standards required of individual officers and the police force as a whole.

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Word count - 1024

1000 words - Community/Response Policing/Policing roads/Conducting Investigations /Digital Policing

Critically evaluate the role of the police in one of the following areas:

- **Response policing (public perception and critical/major incidents)**

To many, the role of a response police constable is arguably the most important and critical role in the police service. The role of response officer is varied, wide ranging and multi-faceted. The College of Policing (2021) state that the role of the response officer in its essence is to ‘...Assess immediate threat, harm, risk and vulnerability to determine a proportionate response in line with the law, policy and guidance to protect life and property, preserve order, prevent the commission of offences and bring offenders to justice’ (2021:Online). The role of response constable elicits imagery of the traditional ‘bobby on the beat’, flashing blue lights and breaking up pub fights. Moreover, Vidal and Kirchmaier (2015) state that ‘...according to the British Crime Survey, responding to emergency calls is the aspect of police work that is most valued by the public.’ (2015: Online). By its very nature, this line of front line police work thrusts officers into the public domain on a daily basis as they respond to calls made by members of the public, some crime and others not. As such, response police officers bear the burden of often being the face of the police service and their behaviour, responses to crime and code of conduct can formulate and manipulate public perception of the police as a whole.

Within this paper, I aim to explore and discuss how response policing, and the response to critical and major incidents can influence the public’s perception of the police and the consequences of such influence. Firstly within this paper, I plan to focus on the oft discussed and controversial response policing method of Stop and Search, its influence on the Brixton Riots of the 1980’s in the UK and ultimately the detrimental effect it had on the public perception of the response officer. College of Policing (2017) summarise a police officer’s power to stop search as ‘...a range of statutory powers of stop and search available to them, depending on the circumstances. Most, but not all, of these powers require an officer to have reasonable grounds for suspicion that an unlawful item is being carried’ (2017: Online). In the majority, such searches are carried out by response constables responding to reports of relevant suspicious activity or crime involving illicit items on described persons. As such, the very nature of stop and search in policing is that of front facing policing

whereby public interaction and the perception therein is a crucial facet. It is of import to consider the potential effect on public perception of the response officers and police as a whole when discussing stop and search. College of Policing (2017) states that ‘disproportionate use of stop and search against particular social groups – most notably black and minority ethnic groups and young people – may increase their perception that they are being targeted unfairly. This may have an adverse effect on the establishment of a police service that is representative of the people it serves’ (2017: Online). Stop and search has historically carried significant racial undertones. The early 1980’s BBC (2006) illustrate ‘Many young black men believed officers discriminated against them, particularly by use of the 'Sus' law under which anybody could be stopped and searched if officers merely suspected they might be planning to carry out a crime’ (2006: Online). The potential negative consequences could be seen in the climatic example of the Brixton Riots of 1981. In early 1981, the police instigated ‘...Operation Swamp - an attempt to cut street crime in Brixton which used the Sus law to stop more than 1,000 people in six days’ (2006: Online). This is a stark example of public facing police using racial profiling to undertake their duties. Glaser (2014) defines this profiling as ‘...the use of race or ethnicity, or proxies thereof, by law enforcement officials as a basis for judgments of criminal suspicion’ (Online: 2014). The riots that ensued proved to be a historic turning point for the relations between the police and the community in the UK and has left a resounding legacy. Following the riots, the Lord Scarman Report of 1981 lead to police reform and the introduction of The Police and Criminal Evidence act – commonly known as PACE in the year of 1984 that aimed to restore, repair and reclaim the public’s trust with the police, a process that is still ongoing today.

The response of police to critical incidents is also crucial in the public’s perception of the police. A stark and cutting example of how this can be the case can be seen from the Metropolitan Police’s response to the racially motivated murder of young black male Stephen Lawrence in 1993. Stabbed by a gang of racist males and left to die in the street, the response to Stephens murder has been highly publicised as inherently flawed from the initial moments, including at the attendance of initial response officers who did not act quickly in the seeking of medical attention or conducting of ‘golden hour’ policing evidential enquiries so important of a response officer. The subsequent Macpherson report of 1999 as reported by BBC (2019) concluded ‘...that the investigation into Mr Lawrence's killing had been marred by a combination of professional incompetence, institutional racism and a failure of leadership.’ (Online: 2019)

Such incidents and the subsequent police responses to them can be seen to have significant and long standing effects on the public's perception to police. As the frontline of policing, the public facing response officer can be argued to receive the first hand consequence of such effects. However, in juxtaposition, the response police officer can be seen to hold the most power in altering said public preconceptions through diligent, fair and non-discriminatory conduct in their public facing role to re-instil and reinvigorate public perception and trust within the daily interactions they undertake.

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Word Count – 1071

1000 words - Information and Intelligence/Communication Skills

Critically evaluate the methods used by police in gathering information and intelligence, how information contributes to the ‘tasking and coordinating’ process and how information and intelligence is communicated.

Information and intelligence form the cornerstone of policing in all its forms. A bold statement, but without the provision of either, the Police’s capacity to prevent and solve crime is massively reduced. Within this paper, I aim to explore the National Intelligence model used by Police in the United Kingdom in relation to intelligence and how it shapes the tasking and communication coordination of said intelligence.

Firstly, it is of great importance to gain an understanding of the meaning of both information and intelligence in the initial instance. Information can be described as knowledge imparted on another. In a policing context, this can be details of persons, incidents or personal knowledge. Information can be provided by anyone to police by any means for instance in person or via other communicative methods such as via social media or telephone. Information however, is not limited to being given to police. Police can gather information surrounding specific subjects or incidents through first hand encounters and observations whilst on their routine patrols or indeed at specific incidents. The next stage is developing this information into what is referred to as ‘Intelligence’. Osborn (2012) states ‘The intelligence cycle includes the collection, evaluation, analysis and dissemination/actioning of criminal intelligence at the relevant levels in police and other investigative agencies’ (2012:7). Intelligence is said information gathered or provided that is subsequently subjected to risk assessment and evaluation for its use. The information is evaluated and risk assessed by a force Intelligence Officer to ascertain its value prior to cascading to relevant parties. College of Policing (2021) describe the role of this specialist officer as to ‘receive and assess information on the intelligence system and disseminate to relevant parties, in line with confidentiality, sensitivity and duty of care policies and relevant legislation to ensure intelligence is processed correctly’ (2021: Online).

Klieven (2006) outlines the four strands of intelligence and their respective sources:

- (1) Criminal intelligence — data on known offenders;

- (2) Crime intelligence — data on specific crime or series of crimes;
- (3) Community intelligence — based upon data from ‘ordinary’ members of the public concerning the quality of life and tensions impacting upon their community;
- (4) Contextual intelligence — social, cultural and economic factors that may impact on crime and offending.

(Klieven, 2006, 262)

Following a move to ‘Intelligence- led policing strategy in order to combat crime and focussing on intelligence dissemination in the United Kingdom, Key to the progression and appropriate distribution of the evaluated intelligence is the National Intelligence Model (NIM). Klieven (2006) states that the National Intelligence model was implemented in the UK as a tool to ‘...professionalise the police by providing a common structure and framework for police decision-making’ (2006: 257). The National Intelligence Model is structurally a six faceted model that Osborn (2012) outlines as such:

1. Direction: sets the objective and scope of the task
2. Collection: gathers information relevant to the task
3. Collation: organises material in a logical and useable form
4. Evaluation: considers both the validity and reliability of the information harvested
5. Analysis: of the information to develop inferences; identify information gaps; and making recommendations relevant to the task.
6. Dissemination: effectively communicate outcomes of analysis based upon the initial task

(Osborn 2012, 13)

Through the collection and processing of information into intelligence via the National Intelligence Model ‘problem’ oriented policing can be significantly augmented through the use of communicated intelligence. Kirkby and McPherson (2004) state ‘the NIM outlines how the problem identification process should take place. It offers a framework to gather internal, external, open, community and multi-agency information which feeds into four key intelligence products that inform the Tasking and Coordinating Group (TCG) of existing problems’ (2004: 38). As such, this is indicative of how information and its subsequent form

of intelligence can be used to coordinate police responses to ongoing and protracted issues as well as other more immediate issues.

It is also important to explore the potential implications of weaknesses within Police intelligence gathering. A key consideration is that of public trust in the police. It can be argued that information and its subsequent intelligence is in its most raw and abundant form amongst members of the general public who live amongst communities with burgeoning ongoing issues or individualistic problems. BBC (2020) indicate that a diminishing trust in the public perception of the capability of the police to solve certain crime owing to underfunding and low officer numbers has led to a reduction in the reporting of crime and dissolved trust as a result. They state that people have begun to believe in particular areas of the country that ‘...police do not have the capacity to deal with common crimes, such as burglaries or car crime, and have given up reporting incidents to police...particularly in the volume crime area the public has rumoured that the police capacity to deal with this is extremely limited’ (2020: Online).

It can be argued that as such in this way, the effects on public provision of the vital information and intelligence will also be detrimentally effected through the same means as the will and desire to report such information will be significantly impacted by potential disillusionment at the perceived prospect of any positive outcome or indeed consequence of their doing so. In this way, the public loss of trust in police to handle information given to them may erode valuable streams of information and intelligence regarding crime and community issues at their source and be detrimental to not only policing said community, but as a microcosm of society as a whole.

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Word count - 1027

1000 words - Public Protection

Critically evaluate police strategies for dealing with public protection incidents considering the impact of abuse on victims, the impact personal attitudes and values on the investigative process and the association between Serious and Organised Crime groups and public protection issues.

Within policing, vulnerability and officers exposure to it and the people within is an everyday occurrence and make up a high percentage of daily duties directly or indirectly. The College of Policing (2020) state that 'A person is vulnerable if, as a result of their situation or circumstances, they are unable to take care of or protect themselves or others from harm or exploitation' (2020: Online). As such, by the very nature of policing, the instances of contact with vulnerability and vulnerable people are extremely high. Vulnerabilities encountered by Police are vast and far reaching covering many groups. Within this paper, I plan to explore Police response to vulnerable individuals and the strategies in place to help those at risk of abuse or neglect as a direct result of their vulnerability. In the initial instance, I wish to focus on the vulnerable group of immigrants, migrants and refugees and how interactions with the police are dealt with respect to addressing their innate vulnerability.

Although in the majority, migrants and immigrants to the United Kingdom do not present with innate vulnerabilities, Public Health England (2017) state:

There are however some groups of migrants who may have increased health needs associated with their experiences before, during and after migration. Groups of vulnerable migrants living in the UK include:

1. asylum seekers and refugees
2. unaccompanied children
3. people who have been trafficked
4. undocumented migrants (those who are living in the UK with no legal status)
5. low paid migrant workers.

(Public Health England, 2017, Online)

A key consideration when exploring the additional needs of refugees to the United Kingdom is that of their mental health conditions as a direct result of their background and harrowing life experiences prior to relocation in the country. Refugee Council (2021) detail how refugees have vastly ‘...lived through dreadful experiences and faced devastating losses. All have lost their homes, their livelihoods and their communities and been separated from their loved ones. Many have witnessed terrible violence, been tortured, seen family and friends killed and made perilous journeys before they finally arrive in the UK.’ (2021: Online). As such, higher instances of mental health conditions are reported in individuals from such backgrounds which leads to a statistically higher chance of coming into contact with police or other emergency services following potential crisis or mental health induced episodes whilst in the United Kingdom.

The police, as such, utilise a mechanism known as a Public Protection Notification form in regards to dealing with individuals with vulnerabilities. The form, completed following an incident strives to allow the completing officers observations of the person and the incident details to be shared whereby it is assessed with the potential scope to be disseminated to an appropriate external source of help. A key example of the use of the mechanism can be seen in contrast with that of domestic abuse victims, if consent is given, the information is shared with appropriate organisations whereby the necessary aid can be administered away from the setting of the police. Furthermore and in addition, this will act as a marker and record of the individuals vulnerability rated from Low to High risk therefore informing police response to further incidents or interactions with these individuals in future as thus bolstering the offered protection. However, a key considerations when dealing with vulnerable groups and in this instance specifically the example of refugees is that of distrust in the authorities. Wu (2010) states that ‘“Citizens’ perceptions of the police can directly shape their responses to police requests, obedience to the law, and willingness to report crime and participate in crime prevention efforts.” (2010: 925).

Police officers arguably hold the key to the protection of these vulnerable individuals as they are often the first interaction following crisis. As such, officer’s personal perception of vulnerable adults, notably those in crisis holds great weight in how they are dealt with and the level of protection they get going forward. As such, any failure to implement safeguarding measures in the first instance could be as a result of unconscious biases whereby officers may automatically disregard or minimise their issues as a result of preconceived

ideas. As such, by their very nature refugees and other migrants can be seen to be vulnerable as their underutilisation of the police through reluctance to report crime increases their likelihood of abuse. This can be seen to intrinsically link into organised criminality and the exploitation of vulnerable people in the execution of said crime. Within this section of the paper I will explore the ever burgeoning organised crime known widely as ‘county lines’ and its effects on vulnerable individuals in society. The National Crime Agency (2021) states:

The 2018 Home Office Serious Crime Strategy states the NPCC definition of a County Line is a term used to describe gangs and organised criminal networks involved in exporting illegal drugs into one or more importing areas [within the UK], using dedicated mobile phone lines or other form of “deal line”. They are likely to exploit children and vulnerable adults to move [and store] the drugs and money and they will often use coercion, intimidation, violence (including sexual violence) and weapons. (Crime Agency, 2021, Online)

Prolonged isolation from society either as a cause of or symptomatic of vulnerability leaves individuals open to the abuse as described by drug dealers operating county lines dealing operations. The potential vulnerable adults and children at risk of such abuse is not limited to refugees however and can be seen to encompass all vulnerabilities such as age and personal circumstances. How can police public protection procedures such as the notification form detailed serve to attempt to negate such instances of exploitation of vulnerable persons in society?

As stated, the notification can refer the individual to appropriate third party resources that offer specialist support that cannot be undertaken by the police themselves. Early intervention via a referral can make all the difference in realigning the vulnerable individuals path, strengthening their position in society through the targeted help and support and thus making them a less viable target for those looking to use, exploit and abuse those most vulnerable in society.

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Word count - 1105

1000 words - Evidence based policing/criminology and crime prevention/criminal Justice

Critically analyse the concept of evidence-based policing and ‘what works’ in policing evaluating crime prevention theories and strategies and considering the options open to reduce re offending.

Evidence based policing utilises a method of policing that focusses on ‘what works’ in relation to accomplishing policing goals and objective. Sherman (2013) states that ‘...evidence based policing in contrast to basing decisions on theory, assumptions tradition or convention, an evidence based approach continuously tests hypotheses with empirical research findings’ (2013: 377).

Historically and until recent decades, policing in the majority has been a fundamentally reactive role basing its structure on three ‘R’s’ of policing: random patrol, rapid response, reactive investigation. Sherman (2013) goes on to state that this structure has evolved early in the twenty first century to adopt the alternative ‘...’triple T’ strategy of policing: targeting, testing and tracking’ (2013: 377). In practice, an example of evidence based policing can be seen as measures that aim to negate crime at source as opposed to engaging in reactionary practices. For example, if violent crime is prevalent in the location of particular late night drinking areas of a city a reactionary policing response would be to focus on the apprehension of offenders at scene following the incident taking place. In contrast to this methodology and empirical statistic data, evidence based policing would aim to target patrols in the areas at the predicted time of the issues to dissuade, prevent and deter such incidents occurring in the initial instance as opposed to reacting to them once occurred.

Within this paper I will explore how evidence based policing and crime prevention theories and the strategies used therein. A key example of the scope of using evidence based policing and the localised crime prevention techniques and strategies is that of Neighbourhood policing. The Home Office (2012) outlines that in essence, ‘Neighbourhood policing is an approach that seeks to increase contact between the police and local communities’ (2012: Online). In relation to the aforementioned aspect of presence as deterrence, the Home Office (2012) continues that:

Neighbourhood policing emphasises a local approach to policing that is accessible to the public and responsive to the needs and priorities of neighbourhoods. Its key elements can be summarised as:

1. The presence of visible, accessible and locally known figures in neighbourhoods, in particular police constables and police community support officers (PCSOs);
2. Community engagement in both identifying priorities and taking action to tackle them; and
3. The application of targeted policing and problem solving to tackle public concerns in neighbourhoods.

(Home Office, 2012, Online)

Where does extensive and localised criminality stem from? The Home Office (2016) outlines several key 'drivers' for crime. It is these key 'Drivers' that evidence based policing targets in its efforts to curb and negate crime at the source. In the initial instance, a key driver of crime is that of 'Opportunity'. '...There is conclusive evidence that crime increases when there are more opportunities to offend, and falls when the number of opportunities is reduced' (2016: 9). Using neighbourhood policing in the community as an overarching example, opportunity for crime can be abundant in physical location. As an example, a local park that is unlit and concealed from overt view with no security or CCTV cameras offers a potentially ample breeding ground for criminal activity as the location itself is innately vulnerable to such activity owing to its attributes. Evidence based policing would suggest such crime preventative strategies such as the example of 'target hardening.' Target hardening of a location rife with criminality serves to minimise the opportunity for criminality '...removing the opportunity to commit it. Research has shown that this can be achieved by making the surrounding environment less conducive to crime' (2016:9). An example in this instance could be seen from the installation of lighting and CCTV cameras at the location thus deterring potential criminal activity and reinforcing the aforementioned notion of preventative policing as opposed to reactive. This method of crime prevention can be seen to be an example of cross sectoral partnership working, the issues can be identified in the initial

stage by community stakeholders with local information and knowledge whilst rectification and implementation of physical deterrent tools can be undertaken by other bodies such as local councils or self-funded by neighbourhood watch organisations whilst directed and regular PCSO or constable patrols could be facilitated in the area by Police. This, therein, builds on neighbourhood policing partnerships and augments the level of community cohesion within. Other drivers of crime include that of character which hold roots of prevention at an earlier stage of development such as schooling and require the keen monitoring and engagement of early years actors such as school teachers to identify, engage and deter.

Another key consideration when exploring the notion of crime prevention and evidence based policing is that of the criminal justice systems role as a deterrent to criminality. Paternoster (2010) states that:

Law enforcement exists both to apprehend wrongdoers and to convince would-be wrongdoers that there is a risk of apprehension and punishment if they commit a crime. Laws that provide a host of different sanctions for the commission of criminal offenses (fines, probation, and imprisonment) serve notice that criminal statutes contain a credible threat that - it is hoped - will inhibit those who have been punished from committing additional crimes. (Paternoster, 2010, 766)

However, in contrast, the criminal justice system can be critiqued in its use as deterrent for criminality owing to the short sentences handed down to individuals engaged in crime thus not creating a striking enough deterrent to cease them continuing to do so. This links in to rational choice theory whereby it is understood that actors, and in this instance the perpetrators of criminality, are aware of the potential consequences of their actions and make the decision based on the evidence in front of them to still undertake the actions and thus risk the consequences. It can be argued that the criminal justice system in its current form does not always facilitate the required level of deterrence to act as a comprehensive crime prevention tool in this way.

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Word Count - 1065