

DHEP Assignment 1 Cohort 2.20

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- 1. 1000 words - Understanding the role of Constable/Maintaining Professional Standards** Critically evaluate the concept of 'the professionalisation of the police service' considering how 'Maintaining Professional Standards' 'ethical and inclusive' and 'Coaching and Mentoring' approaches contribute to this.

According to Reiner (2010, p80), police were historically perceived as an 'efficient, disciplined bureaucracy.' However, its downfall, partially attributable to minimal entry requirements and inadequate training, resulted in police legitimacy being completely undermined (2010, p80). Reiner discusses that from 1960, numerous failed attempts were made to raise standards and recruit graduates via various financial incentives/schemes (2010, p80). Accordingly, Holdaway (2017) confirms the professionalisation of the police is not a contemporary pursuit. Reiner (2010, p80) suggests the public aren't highly confident in the professional standards of the police despite early attempts at its professionalisation.

In recent history, there has been several widely publicised police scandals and miscarriages of justice, such as the Hillsborough Disaster, 'plebgate', Stephen Lawrence enquiry and the Cardiff five (Holdaway, 2017). Such cases brought police integrity into the spotlight and caused irreversible impacts on public trust and confidence; all cases were a prerequisite for a Code of Ethics (COE) (2017).

As part of Neyroud's review of police leadership and training, he recommended the establishment of a singular regulatory body responsible for setting professional standards and conducting quality assurance checks on such standards (Home Office, 2011). Further recommendations included a revised method of delivery of

police training, and a new qualifications and professional development structure for new joiners (2011).

In 2012, the College of Policing (COP) was established to reflect the recommendations by Neyroud (Holdaway, 2017). Today, the COP is recognised as *the* police's professional body, responsible for determining national policing standards, strengthening career structures, and advocates 'what works', thereby sharing best practice to enable evidence-based policing (COP, 2022a).

The COP created the police COE, bringing it in line with other professions who hold similar codes of ethics, thereby professionalising the police (Holdaway, 2017). The COE establishes principles and standards of behaviour for each officer to follow whilst on and off duty (COP, 2022b). Adherence to the code encourages officer self-awareness and ensures integrity and in turn, public confidence (2022b).

To maintain professional standards, investigatory bodies were founded, aiming to reduce officer wrongdoings via investigations of any ethical breaches. Firstly, the Independent Office for Police Conduct (IOPC), an independent body who boost public trust/confidence in the police complaints structures, investigate the most severe incidents/misconduct concerns and sets standards surrounding complaint handling (IOPC, 2020). Secondly, each force has its own internal Professional Standards Department, who manage and investigate complaints from the local community and review breaches of standards (Humberside Police, 2022). Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary is an additional independent investigatory organisation, issuing reports on the efficiency of forces, and makes

recommendations to improve practices (HMICFRS, 2021). The concept of policing by consent is entirely reliant upon the public's trust in the criminal justice system, including the police service; the above bodies maintain the public's engagement and confidence (COP, 2015).

Furthermore, the COP's Policing Education Qualifications Framework (PEQF) ensures a high level of training regardless of method of joining the force (COP, 2020a). Now, new constables must either apply as a degree-holder contracted to complete a graduate diploma or those without a degree be contracted to complete a degree qualification as part of their police training (Bryant and Bryant, 2019, p115). Cockroft (2021) acknowledges the PEQF has "***rearticulated policing as a degree profession***", however explains officers usually value operational experience above academia/classroom learning.

The introduction of the PEQF falls in line with the Policing Vision (PV) 2025, which commits to standardising recruitment on a national scale (NPCC and APCC, 2016). The PEQF was introduced to boost numbers, improve education and knowledge standards, and decrease the potential for culturally motivated behaviour (Cockroft, 2021). As stated within a consultation by the Home Office (n.d.), "***A career in policing should be a vocation which is attractive to the brightest and the best in our society***". The Thinking Blue Line (2017) accepts the traditional police recruitment methods are unique, and Direct Entry (DE) pathways are in fact a common occurrence outside policing. DE aims to recruit outstanding candidates with innovative ideas, who hold valuable skills/knowledge gained from prior workplaces/industries to create future leaders in policing (COP, 2020b).

At work, there is much dissent towards DE, with colleagues expressing new joiners should earn experience operationally prior to securing promotions. The Home Office (2013) held a consultation on DE schemes; many responses were anti-DE, valuing operational experience as their preferred leadership quality. Responses also included concerns regarding potential discrimination against marginalised groups (2013).

On the other hand, COP (2020b) research suggests constables who initially had unfavourable opinions changed their minds after working with the DE candidates. Other benefits of the schemes include increasing diversity by introducing candidates into leadership positions who in other circumstances wouldn't have applied (2020b). Additionally, women and BAME individuals have greater representation within the programmes (2020b).

Whilst at university, I built strong relationships with individuals from around the world, connecting with all kinds of people has greatly enriched my life experiences. Learning about people's cultures/backgrounds enables an understanding of different values and perspectives. As stipulated by the New Zealand Government, "**People primarily form their attitudes from underlying values and beliefs**" (Ministry of Business, Innovation and Employment, 2021). Diversity within the policing workforce maintains the status quo in wider society and proves representative of the communities we serve. The PV commits to improved inclusivity, equal opportunities for all and building a representative workforce by 2025 (NPCC and APCC, 2016).

Increasing diversity will preserve public confidence in the police (Nick Hurd, quoted by NPCC, 2018).

As part of the police constable training programme, constables undertake 'on-the-job training', during which constables work closely with a tutor, whose role is to provide practical guidance, demonstrating best practice (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) 2021b). Coaching and mentoring are used to professionally develop an employee's abilities/knowledge, utilising a personalised approach to the individual (CIPD, 2021a). Coaching is a focussed developmental approach, aiming to progress the individual's abilities to achieve peak performance (2021a). Whereas a mentor, a competent and knowledgeable employee, provides encouragement, support, and guidance to an inexperienced employee to assist their development, orientation, and induction (2021a). Cockroft (2021) questions how effective tutors are in ensuring the degree-level knowledge new officers gain during the PEQF can be integrated into operational policing.

Expectedly, policing is mainly about learning on the job, however today, there is a stronger focus that policing should involve a 'professional workforce', who have the required competencies and skills needed for modern-day policing (NPCC and APCC, 2016). Therefore, the introduction of the PEQF and the professionalisation of the police service ensures a career that attracts a variety of candidates who have the required transferable skills and potential to achieve the PV (2016).

Word count: 1,098 words

- 2. 1000 words - Response Policing** Critically evaluate the role of the police in Response policing (public perception and critical/major incidents)

The Policing Vision 2025 is “***to make communities safer by upholding the law fairly and firmly; preventing crime and antisocial behaviour; keeping the peace; protecting and reassuring communities; investigating crime and bringing offenders to justice***” (NPCC and APCC, 2016). This extract encapsulates the many elements of response policing. Response Constables (RCs) are front line emergency workers, responding to differing incidents. Key responsibilities include: apprehending offenders; investigating; safeguarding vulnerable persons; and providing visible presence to deter criminals.

RC's first consideration at incidents is to protect life and limb, followed by the need to investigate (College of Policing (COP), 2013a). Once medical and safeguarding needs have been addressed, officers must apply their 'Golden Hour' considerations, referring to the securing of evidence whilst it's widely available (COP, 2013b).

An essential attribute of a RC is strong communication skills, used to establish exact circumstances surrounding an incident, identifying relevant parties involved, and to diffuse conflict situations from the outset (COP, 2021). Strong communication is attained by using Emotional Intelligence to successfully interact and create working relationships; self-awareness of one's own emotions and others is essential to the role (Goleman et al, 2013). Likewise, RCs ought to realise their own attitudes and behaviours affect others' attitudes and behaviours as per the Betari Box theory (Mind Tools, 2017). RCs can also demonstrate interpersonal skills through following the LEAPS mnemonic (a communications approach seeking to reach an understanding between two persons) (University of Warwick, 2019).

There are two methods to police investigations. Firstly, 'Reactive policing'; officers 'reacting' to reports made by the public (Patterson, 2004, p144). Conversely, 'Proactive policing'; dealing with issues before they arise, essentially officer-initiated actions (2004, p144). Dudley (2018) identifies several problems with reactive policing, remarking those who only respond are anticipating crimes to occur. He continues, it's, "***merely a system of report taking for property crime and calling for medical assistance to attend to victims of violent crime***" (Dudley, 2018). Dudley elaborates that being proactive is essential as it prevents crimes (2018).

The next topic I will discuss is public perceptions. During Peel's establishment of the police in 1829, the policing ideology of 'Policing by Consent' was developed (GOV.UK, 2012). Reith (1956, quoted in Casey-Maslen and Connolly, 2017) explained the ideology is based on the importance of public cooperation and support, inferred from the behaviour of officers retaining the public's acceptance and respect.

Exercising policing powers is based on public agreement; Brown (2021) suggests where public permission is revoked, the police lose their power, resulting in a lack of cooperation. Public 'consent' comes from RCs consistently applying and enforcing the law impartially and fairly, using the least amount of force possible (GOV.UK, 2012). Nowadays, policing by consent is maintained through demonstrating openness and transparency, which is necessary to maintain a working relationship with the public (COP, 2014).

A skill expected from RCs is connecting effectively with the public, considering how each interaction can affect the public's perception of police fairness (COP, 2021).

Within the criminal justice system, procedural justice is the demonstration that all procedures and decisions are made fairly (HMIP, 2020). The application of fairness is key to gaining and maintaining public support, and in turn develops confidence and trust (COP, 2013f). This then improves the legitimacy of policing, which results in increased public adherence to the laws and assistance to tackle crime (2013f). A report on corruption in English and Welsh police forces summarised, “**corruption is not widespread, or considered to be widespread, but that where it exists it is corrosive of the public trust that is at the heart of policing by consent**” (IPCC, 2012). A professional approach to integrity and complete adherence to all standards/principles of the Code of Ethics will positively influence RCs decision-making, and in turn ensure the public is treated fairly and consistently, resulting in policing integrity and transparency (COP, 2014).

Next, RCs may be first responders to both critical incidents (CI) and major incidents (MI). CIs are defined as, “**any incident where the effectiveness of the police response is likely to have a significant impact on the confidence of the victim, their family and/or the community**” (NPIA, 2011, quoted in Bryant and Bryant, 2019, p239). Dependent on the ‘professionalism, competence and integrity’ of the police response, any type of incident can develop into a CI (COP, 2013c).

Historically, ineffective police responses to incidents have escalated into CIs, notably the cases of Dwayne Floyd, and Fiona Pilkington, thereby negatively impacting public confidence.

To prevent this escalation ‘CI Management’ (CIM) guidance was developed in the aftermath of the Stephen Lawrence enquiry (COP, 2013d). Its aim to ensure a

satisfactory response to the varying needs of the victim, family, and community (COP, 2013c). There are three stages to CIM, firstly the preparation phase, which ensures officers have received adequate training on their roles/responsibilities and sufficient resources are available. Secondly, the management phase, ensuring processes are in place for the notification to the relevant person to manage the CI (2013c). Identifying a critical incident in its infancy is crucial for the implementation of early intervention and proactive response to prevent further escalation and maintain public confidence (COP, 2013e). Anyone can identify a CI; however, it can only be formally declared by a designated senior officer (2013e). Lastly, the restoration phase, where CIs have had a detrimental effect on public confidence, police must strive to restore it (COP, 2013c).

Alternatively, MIs are defined as, “***An event or situation with a range of serious consequences which requires special arrangements to be implemented by one or more emergency responder agency***” (JESIP, 2022a), examples are the Grenfell and Dunblane tragedies.

JESIP was founded to improve the way all emergency services work together when responding to major multi-agency incidents (JESIP, 2022b). Upon identifying a MI, RCs must communicate and update the control room, relaying information in line with the M/ETHANE acronym (2022b). The acronym constitutes, ‘MI, Exact location, Hazards, Access, Number of casualties, Emergency services’ (2022b). It enables ‘shared situational awareness’ amongst response workers, control rooms and other responding emergency services (JESIP, 2022c). Joint working in line with JESIP principles, facilitates the efficient sharing of information, a dynamic awareness of risk,

resulting in a coordinated unified response to MIs (2022c). First and foremost, RCs' responsibilities lie with protecting life and limb, preserving evidence and scenes of crime and identifying individuals involved (COP, 2013a).

There are four stages to major incidents: 'Initial response, Consolidation phase, Recovery phase and Restoration of normality phase' (LESLP, 2019). After a major incident, it is of exceptional importance to jointly de-brief to identify good policing practice and identify lessons and areas for improvement (JESIP, 2022c).

Word count: 1,095 words

- 3. 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.

In this essay, I will critically evaluate the intelligence cycle; the continual process covering the collection, development and communication of information and intelligence (College of Policing (COP) 2013a).

Police gather information only for a policing purpose and this activity is governed by various legislations (COP, 2013a). Information is gathered in three ways:

1. 'Routine collection' whereby information is collected as part of day-to-day operational policing (e.g., arresting an individual, conducting stop searches) (COP, 2013b).
2. 'Tasked information' whereby information is prioritised or targeted for collection (e.g., through surveillance, automatic number plate recognition systems) (COP, 2013a).

3. 'Volunteered information' whereby information is provided by others (e.g., the public, partners) (COP, 2013b).

Police utilise 'Intelligence Collection Plans' to fill any knowledge gaps; this is a structured information gathering method, collating information from communications data, covert human intelligence sources, forensic information and so forth (COP, 2013a).

Open sources (e.g., internet searches) are not always reliable, however they can be useful to: build a clearer picture surrounding subject/problem profiles; corroborate information gathered elsewhere; and identify investigative enquiries (2013a). Closed sources are information sources with access restrictions (e.g., established partner information sharing agreements, case management systems) (2013a).

Officers submit intelligence reports, which are reviewed by intelligence units who perform the '3x5x2 process' (COP, 2015). The '3' represents 'Source evaluation'; the source is evaluated into one of three subsections based on its reliability:

1. '**Reliable**': generally trustworthy sources (e.g., police officers, CCTV);
2. '**Untested**': sources which have not provided information before therefore their reliability is called into question; and
3. '**Not reliable**': sources where there are grounds to believe it's unreliable (2015).

The '5' represents 'Intelligence assessment', evaluating the reliability of the information itself into five subsections:

1. **'Known directly to the source'**: information gained first-hand (e.g., direct witness);
2. **'Known indirectly to the source but corroborated'**: information not witnessed directly by the source; however it is corroborated and verified;
3. **'Known indirectly to the source'**: information told to the source by another person;
4. **'Not Known'**: it cannot be assessed e.g., anonymous sources;
5. **'Suspected to be false'**: there are grounds to believe it's false (2015).

The '2' represents 'Handling code', whereby a risk assessment is undertaken regarding the dissemination of the intelligence:

1. **'Lawful sharing permitted'**: the information may be shared with others as long as there is a policing purpose, it's necessary to share or a community agreement is in place;
2. **'Lawful sharing permitted with conditions'**: dissemination of information is allowed; however the receiver must honour any conditions (2015).

Innes and Sheptycki (2004, p6) state, ***"Information consists of bits of data that, when combined and viewed together with relevant background knowledge, may be used to produce intelligence, which informs the actions and decisions of policing organisations"***. The National Intelligence Model (NIM) is a policing

framework enabling intelligence-led policing; it breaks down and scrutinises obtained information, which is then developed into useable intelligence, as stipulated within the *Home Office Memorandum (HOM) 'Setting Operational Priorities in UKIS'* (2006).

The police employ intelligence analysts and researchers to jointly undertake comprehensive analysis to identify data gaps, patterns and required actions (COP, 2013c), as well as using the analysis to foresee harm, risk, and criminal opportunities (COP, 2013d). However, Keningale (2020) demonstrated police officers concerningly have stronger voices than analysts, Keningale therefore proposes officers become receptive and listen attentively to analyst input, as their knowledge/skills are pivotal to investigations.

The analysis results in four products, each with a specific policing aim and provides guidance for decisions/actions:

1. **'Strategic assessment'**: provides a synopsis of immediate/ongoing concerns capable of impacting the Basic Command Unit, and lists strategy suggestions (COP, 2013e). It forms an important aspect of the business planning process, because it guides the 'Strategic Tasking and Coordination Group's (STCG) resource planning and allocation;
2. **'Tactical assessment'** highlights immediate concerns for the 'Tactical Tasking and Coordination Group' (TTCG);
3. **'Subject profile'**; the production of a detailed subject profile;
4. **'Problem profile'**; to increase knowledge surrounding known/emerging crime and priority areas (2013e).

Once the intelligence picture has been painted, and a greater knowledge of the problem has been attained through analysis, the intelligence is provided to operational superiors for decision-making on strategy, resources, and risk management, as set out in the *HOM* (2006). This is known as 'tasking and coordination', which assists superiors in making tactical and strategic decisions (COP, 2013f).

The STCG forms an integral part of governance and planning in policing (2013f). The group is responsible for setting the strategic route ensuring its alignment with the Control Strategy, and organises resourcing based on priorities (2013f). The Control Strategy sets out the current priorities for intelligence, prevention of crime and enforcement, facilitating decision making at senior level (2013f).

The TTCG forms an integral part of operational response (2013f). The group is responsible for setting tactical routes ensuring resources are aligned to operational priorities/needs (2013f). The Daily Management Meeting (DMM) connects any TTCG priorities to the daily operational delivery of policing, and enables rapid decision making within the tasking and coordination system (2013f). The DMM brings together representatives from various policing departments to consider high-risk incidents that have occurred over the past twenty-four hours or any ongoing concerns (HMIC, 2015).

The sharing of information must be done for a policing purpose (COP, 2016). There are various information sharing agreements enabling efficient information sharing

between departments within the police, between police forces, and between police and external agencies (2016). To share information with external agencies, one of the following must be in place:

1. Statutory obligation: where a legal responsibility exists, for example DBS check, whereby the police must divulge information to another party by obligation;
2. Statutory power: a legal right, but not a requirement, to disclose information to external agencies;
3. Common law: if neither of the above apply, then a common law police purpose must be founded (2016).

Sharing information creates 'situational awareness' between agencies and emergency responders resulting in improved and informed decision making all-round (JESIP, 2021). Alison and Crego (2008) emphasise the importance of understanding the work undertaken by other agencies/professionals, again to maintain awareness. If information is not communicated between agencies, things may slip through the net and harm could arise, such as the Fiona Pilkington case (IPCC, 2009). Failures to communicate information can in turn damage police reputation and public confidence in policing.

To summarise, the gathering, assessment and distribution of information and intelligence enables police to make informed decisions regarding policing priorities and strategies (COP, 2013a). It is indisputable that policing cannot function effectively without information and intelligence (COP, 2013b).

Word count: 1,087 words

- 4. 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.

'Responsible authorities' (police, probation, and prison services) are bound by 'Multi-Agency Public Protection Arrangements' (MAPPA), under sections 325-327b of the *Criminal Justice Act 2003*. MAPPAs are a public protection function, intended to manage risk and safeguard the public against harm by dangerous offenders (College of Policing (COP), 2017). MAPPA is an information sharing network, enabling strong partnership working whereby resources are pooled to effectively manage dangerous offenders (Nacro, 2021).

There are three categories of MAPPA offender classifications: registered sexual offenders; those with specific convictions and spent prison sentences; and those at risk of causing severe harm to others (COP, 2017). Once categorised, offender risk management plans are implemented, managed by a lead agency or multiple agencies, depending on risk level (2017).

Between 2000 and 2010 there was a 45% decrease in serious re-offending rates amongst newly registered MAPPA offenders deemed at high risk of re-offending; suggesting MAPPAs minimise risk of harm to the public (Bryant et al, 2015).

However, Yakeley et al (2012) argue there is lack of clarity surrounding information sharing for mental health practitioners managing MAPPA offenders. With no formal duty on psychiatrists to disclose information, Yakeley et al recommends the creation

of formal policies clarifying the role of psychiatrists in the multi-agency management of dangerous offenders and advocate for psychiatrist attendance at MAPPA meetings (2012).

The ViSOR database (detailing dangerous persons) enables the sharing of information/intelligence between responsible authorities to assist in the risk management of MAPPA offenders (Bryant and Bryant, 2019, p299).

'Multi-Agency Safeguarding Hubs' (MASH) assemble local agencies, including police forces, enabling an open dialogue, and sharing of information/intelligence to assist in joint decision-making surrounding safeguarding (Coventry City Council, 2021).

MASHs are a streamlined point of contact for any public protection concerns (Bridgend CBC, 2021).

Home Office et al (2014) recognise the importance of multi-agency working for risk identification, collective decision making and united procedures to best protect vulnerable children/adults. The article supports MASHs and acknowledges agencies must work collaboratively to "***mitigate the risk of anyone slipping through the safeguarding net***" (2014).

In the immediate aftermath of abuse, victims can experience intense emotions of anger, frustration, and confusion, additionally becoming fearful of repeat attack (Victim Support, n.d.). There are also complex emotions of self-blame, becoming reclusive and excluding oneself from support networks (n.d.). Long term impacts

may affect one's mental health, developing post-traumatic stress disorder, depression, and anxiety (n.d.).

Dutton and Painter (1981) explain victims of abuse can develop trauma bonds to their abusers as a survival mechanism, requiring the abuser's support/comfort, having established strong emotional ties. Additionally, Stockholm Syndrome illustrates victims may develop amicable feelings towards the perpetrator whilst having negative feelings towards rescuers (Westcott, 2013).

Abuse can also indirectly affect the victim's relations, this is reflected in the United Nations' definition of victim which includes, ***“the immediate family or dependants of the direct victim and persons who have suffered harm in intervening to assist victims in distress or to prevent victimization”*** (1985).

Police aren't immune to 'unconscious bias'; however, officers must have awareness of their own individual biases. It is defined as, ***“a person makes sense of the world around them by making assumptions and associations about people's characteristics, without being consciously aware of this process”*** (Jones and Cornish, 2013, cited in COP, n.d.A). It is considered a 'mental shortcut', potentially linking bias to specific groups of people; although uncontrollable, it can be dangerous in influencing decision-making, and may result in unintentional discrimination (n.d.A).

Likewise, Reiner stipulates the evidence shows police display high levels of discrimination when dealing with women as victims (Reiner, 2010, p172). Reiner

elaborates, officers are known for treating domestics without resorting to criminal charges even where there is evidence an assault has happened (Edwards, 1989, Hanmer et al, 1989, as cited in Reiner, 2010, p172). This may be because of organisational culture, where domestics are seen as 'rubbish' and the victim's own fault (Reiner, 2010, p124).

Moreover, Sleath and Bull (2017) discuss some officers hold concerning attitudes towards rape victims, such as acceptance of rape myths and victim blaming. The victim's levels of drunkenness and emotional reaction can influence the officer's validation of the victim (2017). Forces are regularly accused of victim blaming, only recently a police commissioner resigned after being accused of victim blaming during the Sarah Everard investigation (Halliday, 2021).

Victim blaming by police affects the investigation process because police are access to the criminal justice system. If police do not believe alleged abuse victims, the matter is unlikely to progress further than initial police attendance; victims will lack confidence to come forward for fear of not being believed. This is exceptionally true when dealing with sexual offences, highlighted in the TV series *Unbelievable* (2019). A woman was accused of lying about being raped and fined for wasting police time. It detailed the victim juggling processing the trauma of being raped whilst dealing with the officer scepticism. This is off-putting for other victims to come forward and evidently affects public confidence. The number of charging rates in rape cases are self-explanatory, with only 843 rapes resulting in a charge out of the 52,210 reported in 2020 (Barr and Topping, 2021).

Adherence to the COP's Code of Ethics will ensure the integrity of officers whilst carrying out their duties, the relevant principles of the code are:

- 'Respect': treating every contact with respect;
- 'Integrity': doing the right thing;
- 'Objectivity': making decisions based on evidence, rather than on biases/stereotypes (2014).

The professional standard of 'Authority, Respect and Courtesy' leads officers to demonstrate self-control/tolerance, thereby treating every contact with respect; and 'Equality and diversity', encouraging impartiality (2014). COP (n.d.B) stipulates, "***the quality of your initial response may influence the victim's decision to support the investigation***".

As per the South Wales Police and Crime Plan, positive action policies are now in place in instances of domestic violence and hate crime (Michael, 2019). These policies override officers' personal opinions and biases as officers must take appropriate action, thereby safeguarding the most vulnerable in our communities and prioritising victims of abuse.

The 'County Lines' movement links serious organised crime groups and public protection, its definition is the recruitment of vulnerable children and adults by gangs to transport and sell drugs and weapons across the country (Home Office, 2018). Gangs purposefully target those most vulnerable and bribe them by offering something of value (2018). It is of exceptional importance that police view them as

victims, as they have been exploited due to their vulnerabilities to make a gain for a higher power (2018). Evidently this is of concern to safeguarding agencies as their priority is to protect those most at risk of harm.

Word count: 1,100 words

5. 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.

In this essay I will critically analyse Evidence-Based Policing (EBP) and discuss 'what works' in policing. Additionally, I will evaluate crime prevention theories and strategies, and consider reducing re-offending options.

Sherman (1998, p2) stated, "***Police practices should be based on scientific evidence about what works best***". EBP is formed from thoroughly researching what methods have worked or not worked previously, implementing changes to current practice based on evidential research, then monitoring and reviewing any successes and failures in the implementation phase (Bryant and Bryant, 2019, p51).

According to Pepper et al (2020), despite low resources and budget cuts, police are expected to deal with ever-rising demands. Police cannot depend on traditional approaches or guessing tactics, instead police must progress by implementing evidence-based approaches and using 'what works', thereby working smarter (2020).

According to the College of Policing (COP) (2016, as cited by Pepper et al, 2020), police traditionally use the 'ATLAS' model as an EBP guide. COP's diagram clearly describes the five stages of the model:

1. Ask: Questions must be asked on all elements of the identified problem in order to gain a greater understanding and develop a working idea/thesis;
2. Test: We introduce the new idea/thesis into practice;
3. Learn: We review results and analyse whether it worked or not;
4. Adapt: We adapt the idea by improving it, then re-introducing it into practice with the improvements; and
5. Share: We must continuously share all findings (successes and failures), to establish what works and influence best practice (2016). Sharing should be implemented throughout the model, both internally within the force and externally to partners in order to learn from one another (2016).

The 'What Works Network' includes the COP's 'What Works Centre for Crime Reduction'; an online resource detailing practical approaches/methods that have worked in reducing crime levels (What Works Network, n.d.). The Centre is easily accessible, enabling learning from available evidence, and provides assistance tools for the implementation of any changes that have previously worked (COP, 2021b). Communicating and sharing ideas with other police forces also provides a means to explore EBP. Additionally, the HMICFRS undertakes inspections of current police practice, and makes formal recommendations to encourage improvement (HMICFRS, n.d.).

Cohen and Felson's (1979) 'Routine Activity Theory' explores the concept of a situational concurrence involving a 'Likely Offender', a 'Suitable Target' and the 'Absence of a Capable Guardian', leading to a crime. By using this theory and recognising situations involving the three elements, police can input measures for crime reduction and prevention by ensuring all three eventualities don't occur all at once (COP, 2021c).

The 'Problem Analysis Triangle' is a circumstantial theory focusing on an offender and victim, in the same location at the same time, leading to the opportunity for a crime to occur (COP, 2013). This means if police can remove one aspect of the triangle, i.e., either the offender, victim, or the location; the offence cannot occur.

Further, the 'Rational Choice Theory' implies offenders weigh up the benefits and costs before choosing to commit a crime (Cornish and Clarke, 1986). Thus, police could focus on making the cost of committing the crime higher.

After having considered the above theories of crime, police can then input prevention measures in line with the 'Ten Principles of Crime Prevention', as set out by West Yorkshire Police (2021):

1. 'Target Hardening': making the target more difficult for the offender to attain or commit their crime against (e.g. installing car locks, alarm systems, access codes, CCTV);
2. 'Target Removal': removing the target, ensuring it's not visible (e.g. park car in garage);

3. 'Reducing the Means': removing materials that can be used to offend (e.g. stocking plastic cups at a festival or sports game to prevent disorder, or refrain from leaving ladders in the garden as it could be used to facilitate access);
4. 'Reducing the Payoff': removing the gain for the offender (e.g. not leaving cash on business premises);
5. 'Access Control': ensuring access is controlled (e.g. access pin codes, swipe cards, identity cards);
6. 'Surveillance': modifying the surroundings to increase visibility of the offender (e.g., better lighting, installation of CCTV, dummy cameras) in turn making the opportunity less attractive;
7. 'Environmental Design': designing the property and surrounding location/community in such a way as to deter crime (e.g. that it looks well looked after and is well lit, high hedges);
8. 'Rule Setting': the setting of byelaws for behaviour control in suitable areas (e.g. rules in a pool, or byelaws surrounding alcohol consumption in public).
9. 'Increase the Chance of Being Caught': increasing the risk (e.g. light systems, CCTV, police patrol, neighbourhood watch); and
10. 'Deflecting Offenders': creating distractions from the appeal to commit crime (e.g., youth offending service to support offenders on a path away from crime and incarceration, offer extra-curricular activities for youths, or diversionary schemes such as the Women's Pathway, or drug/alcohol support programmes) (2021).

Implementing these crime prevention tactics may reduce the chance of crime occurring (2021).

There are several approaches aiming to reduce re-offending, however as Sapouna et al (2015) concludes desistance is a personal journey requiring tailored approaches for each person.

Remanding an offender will evidently prevent re-offending in the immediate aftermath of an incident, but research suggests remanding can be counterproductive as it could hamper desistance in the long-term (Armstrong, 2009).

According to an evaluation of past studies, supervision during probation can encourage desistance from crime (Manchester Metropolitan University, 2018).

Sapouna et al (2015) demonstrates a strong and supportive supervisory relationship could bring about lasting change in the offender and in turn reduce re-offending.

Diversionary programmes for young people are considered successful in reducing re-offending, as well as having lasting positive effects on the individual's lifestyle (Lopes et al, 2012). Locally, the 18-25 diversion scheme offers support to young people, steering them away from further criminal activity. A recent review found the project to have had a significantly positive effect on those who accepted a community resolution, whilst avoiding getting a criminal record via entering the criminal justice system (CJS) (Mann, 2018). Correspondingly, the Women's Pathfinder Diversion Scheme in South Wales, is an evidence-based approach delivering multi-agency holistic support to steer women away from entering the CJS

(IOM Cymru, n.d.). A recent analysis found the scheme had a 26% fall in re-offending rates (IOM Cymru, n.d).

To conclude, EBP is based on research, which is thoroughly undertaken and reviewed by police; it's relevant to tackling issues and is transparent/open as to how conclusions are reached (COP, 2021a). Therefore, effective use of EBP in implementing crime prevention methods could result in the enhanced safety of the community and reduction in crime levels.

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