

Professional Standards

Aaron Rosenthal, former Assistant Chief in the New York Police Department, stated, "If an organisation wants you to do right, it asks for your integrity. If it wants you to do wrong, it asks for your loyalty".

This essay considers the importance of professionalisation within the Police Service, considering how a negative subculture within policing can be negated by positive organisational identity. Coaching and Mentoring can contribute to the maintenance of Professional Standards.

(Bradford and Quinton, 2014) conducted a survey of police officers, in Durham Constabulary, in 2012 to establish where officers gained their sense of self-legitimacy from, enabling them to stand firm within their ethical decision making. They found that the key predictor of the confidence of officers in their own authority, was how they identified with their organisation. This was strongly associated with the officers' perception of their senior management's procedural justice. Being valued as an individual rather than just another employee and, a sense that justice and ethics matter within senior management, is of importance in officers' commitment to democratic modes of policing. (Bradford and Quinton, 2014) found that this sense of legitimacy is "embedded in a matrix of identities and cultural adaptations within the police organisation".

These identities over previous years have been wrapped up in a negative subculture within the police, identified by (Waddington, 1999). When officers feel unfairly treated and not valued within the organisation (Waddington, 1999) hypothesised that they identify with a subculture, whose core characteristics are suspicion and cynicism, particularly towards policies, procedures and senior management. This "canteen culture" promotes a rigid distinction between "us", the officers and "them", the organisation, public and senior management. He states that police subculture becomes dangerous when officers adopt a sceptical or negative stance towards the wider authority of the police service. There is a danger that officers, who identify with this subculture, see themselves as "the biggest gang on the streets" rather than an institution "imbued with a legitimate mandate to maintain social order".

(Bottoms and Tankebe, 2012) found that officers who were more cynical and authoritarian in their attitudes, such as those who were influenced by this subculture, were less motivated to be supportive of policing that is procedurally just. Such officers doubt their self legitimacy and this affects their confidence in making the difficult decisions, because they lack the firm basis of justification provided by an organisation that is professionalised at all levels.

It is within these circumstances that the research cited supports the professionalisation of the police service, whereby discretion officers use is regulated by organisational rules, the law and wider ethical and social values. Where officers actions and decisions are formulated from a basis of the National Decision Model, with the Code of Ethics at its centre, their actions will be likely to be supported by greater public cooperation, because, in ethical terms, they are desirable and in line

with the law. (Bottoms and Tankebe, 2012) also found that officers who have a weaker sense of their own legitimacy were less likely to interact positively with the public and more inclined towards the use of physical force, as they lack the self belief to be assertive and to maintain their authority through methods that are less confrontational.

Where the public perceive that the Police Service is a professional body, regulated by Professional Standards, they are more likely to have respect for the authority and faith in the decision making and legitimacy of the individual officers that they interact with.

(Edwards, 2012) explains that the police training has not previously prepared officers for ethical decision making and points out that the proliferation of new technology, such as uploading footage to social media, has added to police accountability. This accountability and public confidence in the police is central to the principle of policing by consent. He cites (Becker, 1998) as stating that integrity is the minimum standard that the public has a right to expect.

(Edwards, 2012) also cites (Delattre, 1989) in discussing the “Dirty Harry” concept, taking the law into their own hands, whereby officers, arrogantly believe that they can act outside the confines of the professional, ethical standards to achieve a result they see as justice. They justify this lack of professionalism and integrity by believing that the ends justify the means. (Prenzler, 2009) discusses the instincts of officers who subscribe to a subculture as being to protect colleagues and cover up misconduct, easily pressured by their peers.

(Delattre, 1989) asserts that this culture is based on cowardice, as where “hard decisions, based on legitimacy” have to be made, officers who are unprofessional, will act corruptly. This “Noble Cause” or “Dirty Harry” concept of policing is corruption and it is precisely this behaviour that Professional Standards in policing prevents.

Mentoring and Coaching approaches contribute to the ethical and inclusive training of officers, supporting their self legitimacy and identification with a Professional Police Service.

(Tyler and McKenzie, 2011) researched mentoring probationers in Australia, where a similar programme is used to that of UK services. Once on Response, probationers are teamed up with an experienced Constable as a Mentor. Students acknowledged that their subsequent working methods were significantly influenced by these Mentors. Where tutors are selected for their skills and work in line with the professional standards and ethics of their Service, they will hugely influence the behaviour of the student officers they mentor.

(Clutterbuck, 2004) created a method of successful mentoring and this included nurturing competency and “directive stretching” as desirable elements. The tutoring programme within the Probationary Period enables officers to push themselves, becoming comfortable with legitimate and ethical decision making under the guidance of an officer who has proven that they work to the professional standard of the organisation.

(College of Policing, 2022) offers coaching and mentoring courses to encourage mentoring within all levels of policing and (Police Superintendents Association, 2022) actively mentors officers who seek to enter senior management roles. There is particular emphasis on inclusivity of under represented groups. (College of Policing, 2022) describes Coaching as experienced officers offering support and guidance, which allows those coached to maximise self learning, whilst Mentoring is the sharing of expert knowledge in policing, to assist others to reach their potential. There are more than 700 mid to senior level police leaders who have been trained to support other officers one to one.

This essay has discussed how essential faith in the Police organisation is, for officers, particularly where they feel supported by senior management, through an ability to utilise the professional standards created in policing. This is being achieved through different levels of Coaching and Mentoring, to enable officers to have confidence in their legitimacy to make ethically sound decisions, based in integrity and in line with standards of professionalism.

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Conducting Investigations

Criminal Investigation , according to (Bryant, 2021) is an “investigation conducted by police officers with a view to ascertaining whether a person... charged with an offence, is guilty of it”, as defined in Criminal Procedure and Investigation Act 1996. One key area of the investigation process is interviewing, whether r victims, witnesses or suspects, to establish , (College of Policing, 2022) states, accurate accounts that provide established facts, information as to what has happened and possible leads to follow. This essay will evaluate whether interviewing techniques used currently, are effective, compared with previous techniques and, with regard to the successful investigation of volume crime over serious and complex.

(College of Policing, 2022) goes on to say that ” interviewing is complex. It requires learning and practice to ensure that high standards are achieved and maintained”.

(Roberts, 2012) discusses interview techniques used previously. In the 1930s and beyond, coercive methods were favoured , including the aggressive methods of beatings and torture. The key aim in this method was to elicit a confession from a suspect deemed guilty by the interviewer and these methods would continue until a confession was offered, regardless of any thorough investigation into circumstances or other investigative leads. False confessions were obtained and any exonerating information was missed.

Yet, in the 1940s , in Sweden , it was already being suggested to officers that they should ask for a version of events from the suspect first, and use open ended

questions to garner information. However, these methods were not introduced elsewhere and (Roberts, 2012) suggests this may have been because the research was based in no English speaking countries, so took some time to become available.

In other Western countries, a Question and Answer technique was being encouraged, but this involved little rapport building, or any attempts to engage with the Subject and often they were unable to offer information which could have been pertinent, but did not fit in with the interviewer's agenda.

This led to a persuasive agenda style, whereby the interviewer encouraged the interviewee to develop a dependence on them, and risked a false confession, or misleading information, in an effort to maintain good relations with the interviewer.

(Heaney, 2021) describes one UK miscarriage of justice during the investigation into the murder of Lynette White, in South Wales. After 19 interviews, a false confession was obtained from her boyfriend, Stephen Miller, who was wrongly imprisoned, as a result, leaving the murderer to roam free, despite an original description to officers of a white suspect, whilst Mr Miller was black. The methods of coercive interviewing described by (Roberts, 2012) were the direct cause of this and, similar miscarriages.

In (Baldwin, 1992) established that the general competence of police interviewers was low, with little rapport built and an inability to listen, preferring a confession seeking approach, like that in the Lynette White case and a propensity to act in a 'macho' way with both suspects and witnesses, deterring information giving.

(Shepherd, 1991) introduced the concept of Ethical Interviewing that exists today, having researched current interview techniques and found, disruptive talking, inappropriate listening and a number of barriers to communication, such as failing to allow interviewees time to reflect.

(Shepherd, 1991) recommended treating interviewees with respect and, as having the same rights as any other member of society, to dignity and self determination.

It was this concept, of a rapport based interview approach that created the PEACE model used in investigation today. (Loene, 2020) describes the model as effective in eliciting information from people, in a way that is meaningful and more complete.

(Kebbell, Alison, Hurren and Mazerolle, 2010) and (Goodman, Delahunty, Martschuk and Dhami, 2014) reported that convicted sex offenders and violent offenders viewed ethical practices as more likely to elicit confessions than coercive approaches. Interviewer dominance was perceived as being less likely to elicit a confession. Often, particularly with sexual offences which occur in personal situations without witnesses, officers must rely on suspects accounts. Offenders reported that feeling acknowledged and respected, seen by them as "humanity", was likely to elicit the truthful confession, whereby, aggression or condemning behaviour, defined as "dominance", would result in significantly reduced information provision.

Where victims and witnesses were being interviewed, officers were also deemed to have considerable influence over accuracy of information and garner more evidential detail from victims by using a cognitive interview technique.

There are five tiers of training in interviewing technique within the police service in the UK. (Robertson and Tilley, 2009) explain that volume crime accounts for a third of recorded crime in England and Wales and a large proportion are detected through information obtained from victims and witnesses.

(Dando, Wilcock and Milne, 2009) researched the abilities of novice officers to interview to an acceptable standard using the PEACE model. These officers receive five days training in Tier One within the initial training period and were found to be inadequate in using the Cognitive Interview Procedure in its entirety. They often missed out components. Yet, according to (Dando, Wilcock and Milne, 2009), 70 % of all Volume Crime in the UK is investigated by Novice Officers. They describe “key leakage points” along the trail of Volume Crime Investigation where important opportunities to gather information are lost.

In this research, just 2 out of 48 officers used the encouraging concentration component of the technique. (Dando, Wilcock and Milne, 2009) explain that an investigator’s primary objective is to elicit as much detail as possible, so this is a key element which highlights that retrieving information that is detailed enough, requires effort and concentration, encouraging the interviewee to put requisite effort into the recollection.

The suggestion from this research is that training relies too heavily on the Suspect Interview and the importance of interviewing witnesses in line with the model, is lost. Therefore, the course should be separated to focus on suspects and , at another time, on witnesses and victims.

(Wheatcroft, Wagstaff and Russell, 2013) report that longer serving officers are more confident in using cognitive interviews and recognise that often eyewitnesses provide major leads in investigations, with 36% of officers in the research programme stating that this was always/almost always the case and 51% stating that it was usually so. Yet, once initial training has commenced, unless officers go on to specialise and receive training in the upper tiers of interviewing techniques, there are no refresher courses to assess how well officers are using the models and to improve their skills.

The research cited would suggest that, particularly in the opinion of offenders and supported by researchers encouraging cognitive based interviewing, the PEACE model is effective in garnering key evidence, leads and information from Suspects, Witnesses and Victims. However, officers investigating Volume Crime are underskilled in the technique, compared to those trained in more advanced levels of the model . Yet they hold a substantial place in the investigation of complex crime and would benefit from further training throughout their careers.

Information and Intelligence

The (Home Office, 2022) describes the National Intelligence Model as “a business process to provide focus in operational policing and achieve a disproportionately greater impact from the resources applied to any problem. It is dependent on a clear framework of analysis of information and intelligence allowing a problem solving approach to law enforcement and crime prevention techniques. The expected outcomes are improved community safety, reduced crime and the control of criminality and disorder leading to greater public reassurance and confidence”.

There are two types of information, Open and Closed Source, from which to glean intelligence. Open Source can come from the public, general police observations, the internet and social media.

All of these sources are open to bias and their motivations in providing information should be assessed. (Bryant, 2021) explains that this assessment is managed through a 3x5x2 form. Officers input the intelligence they have received using the numbers, which refer to the quality of the intelligence, measured in three categories. These include information for the analyst as to how reliable the source is and what the motivation may be for the information. These reports will be assessed and information relating to the same matter, collated, then tasked to the relevant party.

There is a risk that officer's will input the information with embellishments or bias and, as (Keningale, 2022) quotes “People make the intelligence dirty when they first get it and put their own spin on things”. Efficient training and monitoring and the emphasis within recruitment on the Code of Ethics can assist in educating officers in their awareness of avoiding this. (Keningale, 2022) asserts the importance of good training for analysts, so that such “dirty” bias is prevented from clouding intelligence.

(National Crime Agency, 2022) states that “an accurate intelligence picture allows us to effectively prioritise action against the greatest threats and deliver the maximum disruptive impact on serious organised crime”. Thus, the importance of clean unbiased intelligence submissions at a grass roots level cannot be underestimated. Although it is not as glamorous as the more covert methods of gleaning information, a chance comment from a member of the public can provide the missing piece of intelligence needed. Comments made to Detective Hazel Savage by children, led to the discovery of the murders committed by Fred and Rosemary West.

The internet and social media can also be valuable tools as Open Source material. People upload vast amounts of information about their lives and activities, without considering the value to police. (Bryant, 2021) points out that officers must be aware that every search leaves a trace and the IP address of police services is available to the public. Therefore, any searches of a sensitive nature should be managed by specially trained officers, such as Digital Media Investigators, or risk alerting the Subject to police interest.

Closed Sources are often sources where access is restricted, such as Police Databases. Due to the nature of the Source, they are often deemed to be reliable,

however (Bryant, 2021) advises that these sources still need to be critically viewed. For example, Police Officers can upload flags onto the local Niche system, which do not need to be corroborated as fact. If an officer deems someone to have a Mental Health issue, such as Dementia, this can be added to their record, regardless of whether it is supported.

CCTV and ANPR systems are readily available to officers and of significant use as sources of information on movements of individuals. It is important to maintain an audit trail of the use of such systems, providing continuity of evidence to support admissibility within a court case. Again, these are Sources that can be weakened by human frailty, in officers not maintaining the integrity of the data.

Where covert methods are used to gain intelligence, significant legislation in the form of (British Government (The National Archives), 2000) Regulation of Investigatory Powers Act, means that stringent guidance and legislation is in place to manage the methods used to gain intelligence by these means and the way in which they are used.

This can be via Covert Human Intelligence Sources, who, according to (Home Office, 2018) are people who maintain relationships in order to obtain information, which they covertly disclose to the authorities, without the other person's knowledge.

The (Home Office, 2018) states that "participation in criminal conduct is an essential and inescapable feature in CHIS use, otherwise they will not be credible or gain the trust of those under investigation". The Covert Human Intelligence Sources Bill has inserted a section into the RIPA Act 2000 to authorise sources to participate in criminal activity.

Therefore, management and selection of CHIS falls to properly trained source handlers and there are special safeguards for vulnerable people regularly audited by a surveillance commissioner. Again, human motivation must be considered carefully. A CHIS may wish to manipulate officers for their own end, so legislation is in place to protect officers by ensuring two handlers and rarely supports individual meetings. This should provide greater protection against the dirty intelligence described by (Keningale, 2022) and would suggest that these stringent measures, overseen by direct senior supervision enable greater accuracy than the grass roots intelligence submitted by officers via 3x5x2.

All of these forms of intelligence become data from which Analysts, working alongside police officers, create intelligence packages, which are disseminated into the Tasking and Coordinating Process.

The Strategic Tasking and Coordination Group meetings maintain an overview of priorities within each Force, taking government, local and performance objectives into consideration and commissioning intelligence work and making operational decisions.

These operational decisions are constantly reviewed and updated and passed to the Tactical Tasking and Coordination Group Meetings at a BCU level for a planned response.

Information is disseminated at an appropriate level , whether through briefing packages on operations or a local intelligence briefing, whereby officers are given intelligence as a means of targeting further intelligence gathering or operational response.

(Keningale, 2022) cites a concern, as a result of her research, that where the T&CG places time constraints on analysts, information can be lost, by insufficient research. Regular reviews are a key component of the process and (Bryant, 2021) states that strategic assessments are created with long term goals in mind, rather than the urgent and unprofessional slant placed by (Keningale, 2022) interviewing a limited number of individuals without comparison to long term results. The Process is held at a National, Force and Regional and Local level. Decision making at all these levels follows the NIM process to avoid incompetence from individuals or smaller groups of decision makers, leading to the (National Crime Agency, 2022)“accurate intelligence picture”.

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Public Protection

The Domestic Abuse, Stalking and Harassment and Honour-based Violence Risk Identification, Assessment and Management Model (DASH) was brought in as a standardised risk assessment tool for police, in the UK , in 2009. This essay will critically evaluate whether the police strategy, of using the DASH model, is an effective tool for determining risk accurately, whether it is used effectively and whether known limitations could be better addressed using other strategies.

(SafeLives, 2022) reports that research shows that every year around 2.1 million people suffer Domestic Abuse in the UK and 7 women a month are killed by their current or previous partners, with suicide rates estimated at almost 30 women a day, as a direct result of experiencing Domestic Abuse. (Golding, 1999) reported that in studies on the effects of Domestic Abuse, 63.8% of victims suffered PTSD , 18.5% were found to have issues with alcohol abuse and 8.9% suffered issues with drug abuse.

(SafeLives, 2022) reports that research shows an estimated 130,000 children living in homes where there is High Risk Domestic Abuse, affected by Adverse Childhood Experiences. (Welsh Government, 2021) reported that in a 2015 study of ACE's and their impact, 50 % of the male prison population were found to have had 4 or more ACE's. Therefore, Domestic Abuse also impacts other crimes which fall under the auspices of public protection, including the chances that those made vulnerable as

young people, are easy targets for Organised Crime Groups (Cambridgeshire Police, 2022).

A key limitation in the use of the DASH by frontline officers, identified by (Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary and Fire and Rescue Services, 2014) and (Robinson, 2016) is a heavy reliance on officers attitudes towards and understanding of Domestic Abuse and the significance of the DASH questions.

(College of Policing, 2022) identified that throughout the UK police forces, initial risk assessments fell to frontline officers attending initial reports. In some forces, the frontline officer's risk assessment was supervised by a secondary assessor, however, it could take a significant period of time before a secondary check was made and this was not always by a supervisor specially trained in identifying Domestic Abuse, so may be of little value.

(Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary and Fire and Rescue Services, 2014) determined that the investigation of Domestic Abuse was a priority for police on paper only and not in reality. Another limitation was that officers were found to be "lacking the skills and knowledge necessary to engage confidently and competently" with victims of Domestic Abuse.

As a result of the Inspectorate's findings, (Robinson, 2016) confirmed that there was a significant difference in the way that individual officers responded to victims, which resulted in some being able to engage well and establish a good rapport, extracting valuable information to fill in the DASH with a superior level of information, while others merely considered the DASH a tick box exercise and did not engage fully with it as an assessment tool.

A lack of consistent training was identified in both reports, so that the difference in attitude from officers and a lack of understanding of coercive and controlling abuse affected the value of the DASH assessment.

(Strand, 2016) describes the types of question and their relevance, used in both the BESAFER model and the DASH, citing a concern that the questions that are relevant to recidivism are often misinterpreted, yet are particularly pertinent to violence prevention. These questions tend to be those relating to victim vulnerability, such as geographical isolation or health problems, which make it more difficult for the victim to leave. These questions (Strand, 2016) suggests, may appear to have an element of victim blaming, but actually relate to greater risk factors. However, if an officer is not correctly trained to understand the nuances of abuse, and the significance of these questions, but, takes the attitude that the victim should take

responsibility for themselves ,as noted by (Robinson, 2016) , the significance is missed when determining the risk of further harm.

(Turner, 2019) also raises these concerns, making the case that the DASH is underperforming as a tool, because officers use it purely to assess the immediate incident, prioritising violence over coercion and there is, therefore , poor prediction of recidivism by a large margin. As repeat victimisation is higher for Domestic Abuse, the opportunity for the prevention of new incidents is salient. (Emily Turner, 2019) goes on to explain that” greater weight is given to less useful” questions by officers, with key influencers being whether or not the victim reported the abuse as getting worse or the level of victim described fear.

(College of Policing, 2022) at this time, has issued guidance that police forces should avoid grading risk solely on the number of affirmative responses to the DASH, but state that, in the immediate term, the current arrangements provide a consistent approach, as they are used by partner agencies as well. Senior management are deemed, by the College, as being responsible for ensuring appropriate training to officers. Acknowledgement is given to the fact that “first responders assessment of risk is key to protecting the victim and preventing future harm”, but advises that there is limited evidence to support factors that predict future risk of domestic abuse.

(Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary and Fire and Rescue Services, 2014) suggests using “similar disruption tactics” to those used by police successfully against members of Organised Crime Groups by incorporating the use of Intelligence Analysts or covert intelligence gathering on the most harmful perpetrators of Domestic Abuse. The evidence supporting the fact that the DASH form is only as reliable as a risk assessment tool, as the ability and attitude of the officer completing it, is strong.

(Robinson,, 2016) points out that completing this form is “often a rushed and stressful endeavour... not always the best setting for establishing rapport necessary for securing full disclosure to sensitive questions”.

However, although these reports appear bleak in their assessment of the efficacy of DASH, (Office of National Statistics, 2018) reported the percentage of convictions, for Domestic Abuse related offences secured, as the highest in 8 years at 76%.

Frontline attendance at the time of a call for help, may be the only opportunity that presents itself, for victim engagement. Data and analysis may have their place and further investigation into the value of this is needed, but, currently, it is the element of

human connection which gives the DASH its power as a risk assessment tool, when in the hands of an experienced, empathetic and well trained frontline police officer.

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Evidence Based Policing

“The main hope is that policy and practice decisions informed by evidence will lead to better service to the public” (Knuttsen et al., 2017). This essay will consider what policing strategies work, evaluated in terms of using evidence based research to assess effective methods for reducing youth offending and whether this is wholly a criminal justice issue.

Evidence Based Policing is based on the suggestion by (Sherman, 1998) of using rigorous scientific evaluations to provide information upon which policing practices and policies are created. (College of Policing, 2022) explains that research can be used to develop a better understanding of issues and evaluate how successful a policing intervention has been.

The demands on policing are increasing and changing, budgets are limited and (Ian Pepper, 2020) states that a current recruitment drive, will only take officer numbers back to the level they were at in 2010, while numbers of crimes such as knife and cyber crime are increasing, compared to a decade ago and crime is becoming more “complex and diverse”. So, police methods need to be cost and result effective, informed by looking at what has worked and applying that information. (Johannes Knutsson, 2017) argue that knowledge must be used “judiciously” because government led reforms have created a culture of risk aversion.

Arguments for the use of EBP within (Knuttsen et al., 2017) are that it provides transparency as to where funding should go and enables theories to be evaluated. For example, a previous theory that randomised police patrols reduce crime has been shown to be incorrect and it is targeted patrols that are effective. Where resources are limited they can be used most effectively. Providing evidence can have the power to persuade, in that, EBP can be used to show that some issues can be best managed outside policing. A spate of thefts from shopping trolleys were reduced by redesigning the trolley. Providing evidence such as this to alter public perception, around police responsibility for all matters criminal, enables resources to be targeted at areas where the best strategy is through policing.

Also, there has to be “solid evidence or argument” through EBP for a policy or approach, so any based on “political concerns” do not stand up to scrutiny, strengthening police accountability to the public. (Knuttsen, et al., 2017)

Within (Knuttsen, et al. 2017), John Eck argues that many studies are used to arrive at the answer as to best practice or theory, but there isn't enough specificity around the subjects of the studies, for example, the people who took part or the area they live in, to compare whether they are valid to the current issue being considered.

However, (College of Policing, 2022) provides information on the studies evidence has been gleaned from, within its Toolkit and, is clear that EBP "does not provide definitive answers". Rather, that officers can use common sense to draw their own conclusions as to whether the study is valid for their particular issue.

Michael S. Scott in (Knuttsen, et al, ,2017) explains the difference between EBP and problem oriented policing, where one has the objective of improving the police institution, through achieving objectives fairly and effectively, while EBP is about building a body of reliable evidence which police can use to make decisions.

Youth Offending and how best to manage young people at risk of offending is one issue that can be assessed by researching EBP databases, available on (College of Policing, 2022). There has been much debate around whether criminalising young people deters them from crime.

Although first time entrants to the youth justice system fell by 86% since 2008, the reoffending rate is still higher than ten years ago, which would suggest that, once in the system as it stands, there is little positive effect achieved by criminalisation, (Public Health England, 2019)

(Petrosino, 2013) showed that the "Scared Straight" programme of taking young people at risk of offending to see prisons, actually increased the likelihood of later criminal activity and (Lyndel Bates, 2020) research into effective deterrents for young drivers offending at the wheel, rather than punitive measures, it was shaming on social media to their peers, that changed offending behaviours.

(Ministry of Justice, 2016) research would suggest that therapeutic programmes are more effective than approaches that are focussed on punishment or control. (Public Health England, 2019) supports this and promotes a collaborative approach, CAPRICORN, which has many prongs on a community and family level, supporting young people who offend through trauma work, mentoring, life skills training and health care and education strategies. It is recognised within CAPRICORN that the redirection of young people into Liaison and Diversion services, as quickly as possible, after initial police contact, is key.

The (College of Policing, 2016) Crime Prevention Toolkit cites evidence that mentoring programmes for offenders showed a significant reduction in reoffending in 14 out of 25 studies, only 3 studies showed a significant increase in offending. One review on the toolkit is for 46 studies focusing specifically on juvenile delinquents. Where Eck (Knuttsen, et al ,2017) was previously mentioned with regard to concerns over detail of reviews, in this instance officers can see that one of the research projects was held in Sweden. It would be for the officer to determine, in line with College of Policing guidance, whether this research is of value.

There are a number of crime prevention theories and strategies available to police, particularly effective in the area of youth offending, as, in the case of Routine Activities Theory, they are based around removing opportunities and with Rational Choice Theory, the decision making process of the offender (Cohen, 1979).

Felson and Clarke determined with Rational Choice Theory, that potential offenders rationally choose to commit crime and their desire to maximise reward while minimising risk. Therefore, if the risks of getting caught are increased and outweigh the level of reward, the offender will be diverted from committing the crime. (Felson, 2008). The focus is on the setting rather than on the offender, creating environmental and managerial change to reduce the opportunity for crime to occur.

With Routine Activity Theory, there are three linked elements for a crime to occur. Those being motivated offenders, suitable targets and an absence of capable guardians. If other strategies are put in place on a social level to improve the young person's behaviour through effective support, using these strategies will divert them away from crime and improve the chances of a change in behaviour. Take away the opportunity and meet the young person's emotional and environmental needs.

EBP in conjunction with operations based on the crime prevention theories mentioned, can be used to effectively target a reduction in youth crime, where policing is relevant, whilst supporting a multi agency and community approach to diverting young people away from offending, improving their quality of life exponentially, thus reducing the need for police intervention with the juvenile directly and sparing resources.

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