

“Inclusion is increasingly recognised as essential to support and achieve diversity improvement” (Durham University, 2020). Examine the role of organisational culture in creating an inclusive and diverse workforce within policing. Your answer must be based on academic research, but you may refer to relevant case studies. (1000 words)

Today's modern policing has changed dramatically from previous years and has already started to become more inclusive and incorporate a diverse workforce. Historically, up until 1976, the police recruited people with a certain criterion, which discriminated against those that did not 'fit' that criteria (Hansard, 1976). This resulted in the police force not representing a diverse and inclusive workforce.

The University of Edinburgh (2022), states that inclusion is, “creating an environment where everyone feels welcome and valued [...]”. Diversity is about celebrating each other's differences and being able to recognise and respect this. As a police force, being able to have a diverse environment, allows for an “empowered culture” due to the array of mindsets and backgrounds (Edinburgh University, 2022).

Diversity is instilled in every police officer across the forces in England and Wales. It stems directly from the Code of Ethics and Nine Peelian Principles, which are the standards of behaviour and principles that should be present with every officer. Point three from the Code of Ethics, outlines 'Equality and Diversity', which states that each officer “will act with fairness and impartiality and will not discriminate unlawfully or unfairly.” (College of Policing, 2014, pp. 9). However, the difficulty that police forces have, is ensuring officers act within the code of ethics both on and off duty, as the culture is beyond managerial control (Fenn and Bullock, 2021). In 2010, the Equality Act was brought into legislation to further protect people who identified themselves within the nine protected characteristics, such as: Disability; Race; Religion or belief; Age; Marriage and civil partnership; Sex and sexual orientation; Gender reassignment; Pregnancy and maternity (College of Policing, 2016). Officers who placed themselves in one of these categories, often found themselves to feel that they were being discriminated against or excluded.

Culture in any organisation has an important role to play in its ability to react in today's modern society and every organisation has their own form of culture. This

will be unique to their occupation and will include their own set of values and beliefs. A document from the CIPD detailed that organisational culture stems from beliefs and principles, which when collectively put together, creates a shared set of values in which an organisation can establish its ideologies (CIPD, 2020). In policing, there is more a subculture. This stems from the very start of someone's policing career as officers are inadvertently influenced from other officers and their expectations (Torrible, 2021). The subculture has also been described as a "hypermasculine" occupation (Zempi, 2018).

Perceptions are key in organisational culture. Colvin (2015) identified that if perceptions are shared amongst the workforce, either negative or positive, then this has a major influence on the culture, mission, operations and productivity within an organisation. Training in Equality and Diversity has become more of a focus in the police forces in the UK due to there being many news articles relating to discrimination within police forces. Most recently, it has been announced, that even after the Stephen Lawrence inquiry was launched in relation to racism in the force, the Metropolitan police and other police forces were still being branded as institutionally racist (Zempi, 2018; Akram, 2022). A black, male officer from The Metropolitan Police who joined the force in 1983, also described how he felt shocked to the number of racist comments and conversations that he encountered as an officer within the police (Robinson, 2020).

For a police force to be labelled institutionally racist challenges the very fundamentals of policing. Policing by its very nature is to serve and protect all people regardless of characteristics. In 2022, a white serving American police officer was convicted of murdering a black USA citizen, George Floyd. His murder raised questions whether there had been a change in police behaviour towards discrimination, and are police forces encouraging a diverse and inclusive workforce to counter discrimination in the workforce? It was noted that people from a BME background were less likely to consider applying to join the police due to being treated unfairly by the police (Zempi, 2018).

The 1983 Scarman Report identified that in the police force, officers that were of ethnic minorities were not well represented and had recognised this as a failure in

the police (Law, 2015). Scarman concluded that police officers were also inadequately trained in dealing with a multi-racial society and that more attention should be devoted to the training of police officers in the understanding of the cultural background of ethnic minorities (Bhugowandeen, 2013). Due to the focus on race as a result of the Macpherson and Scarman inquiry, officers that might have experienced prejudice or bias within the workforce from other fellow officers, have gone unnoticed, which has resulted in these experiences being ignored and the officers feeling excluded (Zempi, 2018).

In a 2021 report made by Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary and Fire and Rescue Services, it was highlighted that male colleagues gave numerous examples of inappropriate and predatory behaviours, including bullying, harassment and offensive comments towards female officers (HMICFRS, 2021). A study by Colvin delved into how both gay and lesbian police officers felt that they were treated within the workplace. Both gay men and lesbian officers reported high levels of differential treatment, with 49% of gay women and 54% of gay men hearing homophobic talk within the workplace (Colvin, 2015). Burke (1994) also suggested that lesbian, gay and bisexual (LGB) officers hid their sexual preferences, in order to avoid any abuse.

In conclusion, reports still strongly state that institutional racism is prevalent in many police forces, in particular, the Metropolitan Police. A survey undertaken by Durham University in 2019, revealed that 35.5% of LGB officers are still being treated in a condescending manner and 42.7% of officers with a disability are being belittled (Durham University, 2020). Police services have recognised, through press releases, that the police force has been portrayed in a bad light. This may have contributed to the Metropolitan Police being the only police force across England and Wales that did not reach its target for recruiting 20,000 new police officers, missing out by 23% (Gov.UK, 2023). Zempi (2018) suggests that to build a diverse police service, lessons need to be learnt and implemented right from the start in police training, support mechanisms and leadership and that equal opportunities and additional policies need to be put in place or considered (Colvin, 2015; Zempi, 2018).

(Word Count = 1058)

Critically evaluate the role of response officers in dealing with critical/major incidents. (1000 words)

On a day to day basis, the role of a response officer can vary dramatically, and each day is never the same. Primarily, the role is to protect the public, carry out proactive patrols, attend and manage critical incidents, communicate with the community and vulnerable people and give emergency first aid (College of Policing, n.d). This list is not exhaustive and is in addition to responding to incidents.

As noted from the 2021 Home Office's Critical Incident Management report, it defines a critical incident as, "any incident where the outcome or consequence of that incident is likely to result in serious harm to any individual, significant community, public confidence, or business impact" (Home Office, 2021, p.7).

Some examples of critical incidents could be acts of terrorism, natural disasters or major disruption of power or communication networks (JESIP, 2023). In comparison to a critical incident, a major incident is declared when an event or situation requires the implementation of special arrangements by one or more emergency responder agency due to there likely to involve risk to human life, serious harm and damage (JESIP, 2023; Bryant and Bryant, 2020).

When response officers have to deal with critical and major incidents, it is extremely important that the National Decision Model (NDM) is utilised and 'golden hour' opportunities or principles are adhered to (Roycroft and Roach, 2019). If they are adhered to effectively, it can result in officers being able to preserve best evidence, save life, support victims and witnesses, arrest suspects, preserve scenes and secure significant material (Home Office, 2021). If this is not dealt with appropriately and at the highest level of professionalism, significant evidential material may result in being lost or not preserved (HMICFRS, 2023).

However, when dealing with a major or critical incident, officers do not have time to review all of the evidence and have to act quickly in making a decision, using the NDM. It has been suggested that in order for emergency services to engage quickly

and respond to an incident, organisations should form a multi-team system (Brown, Power and Conchie, 2021).

The multi-team system that is used in the UK is known as the Joint Emergency Services Interoperability Principles (JESIP). This is used at major incidents for police, fire and ambulance services to be able to work together (Abdeen *et al.*, 2021). JESIP contains the following five principles: Co-locate; Communicate; Co-ordinate; Jointly understand risk; Shared situational awareness (Home Office, 2021).

A model was also developed to minimise any errors from being repeatedly made and to improve communication and as part of the last principle. This model is known as M/ETHANE: Major Incident; Exact Location; Type of Incident; Hazards; Access; Number of Casualties and Emergency Services (JESIP, 2021; Wankhade, McCann & Murphy, 2019). The M/ETHANE model is used with the Joint Decision Model (JDM), which replaces the NDM, and is a framework that assists response teams to collaborate information in order to facilitate the different needs and requirements for teams to respond to incidents (Deeming, 2018). Nevertheless, challenges can be faced using this principle, due to poor communication and collaboration (Abdeen *et al.*, 2021).

A major incident that had a damning effect on so many people and criticised the use of JESIP was that of the Manchester Arena bombing in 2017, involving a suicide bomber at an Ariana Grande concert. Following this major incident, an independent report was published, named the Kerslake Report (2017). The report highlighted both positive aspects and negative criticism in how response officers dealt with the major incident.

It stated how poor communication from the police led to confusion between the three major responders (Fire and Rescue and Ambulance Service). The confusion occurred when 'Operation PLATO' (a multi-agency response) was placed on standby, and the force duty officer failed to inform the fire service of this. With Operational PLATO being placed on standby, this should have allowed the fire service to enter the incident area and treat the victims. Instead of which, the fire

service was 'absent' and did not attend until at least one and a half hours after the incident was reported (Deeming, 2018; Saunders, 2022).

In a separate report published in 2022, it commends the police for directing firearm officers to the explosion site quickly. This enabled the firearm officers to secure the area and reduce the threat of a further attack. However, three of the five JESIP principles were not implemented or embedded in the responders, which was criticised in the report, and ultimately resulted in the failings of JESIP (Saunders, 2022).

In contrast to this, the police were praised, in particular the British Transport Police (BTP), for the quick response when responding to the incident. They arrived first on scene within thirty seconds, declaring the major incident and used the M/ETHANE model to transmit the details of the incident. The BTP Sergeant used the shared situational awareness principle and was aware of the risks to him and his team regarding a potential follow up attack. With this quick response, it meant that first aid treatment could be administered to the injured (Deeming, 2018).

In conclusion, responding to a critical/major incident relies heavily upon communication and decision making. Emergency responders are only as effective as the information they receive. In relation to the Manchester arena bombing, the JESIP procedure was compromised, due to the commander failing to inform a major partner that a process had been administered or put on standby. This was because of poor communication, which resulted in a major service not offering its highly trained officers to assist in the incident. Although the JESIP model failed within this incident it was agreed that the correct model was used and that the JDM was utilised effectively, providing a structure to the decisions being made (Deeming, 2018).

That said, critical/major incidents by their very nature are chaotic. Officers responding will use their discretion combined with experience and training to make a situational decision (Roycroft and Roach, 2019). The force duty officer used their own discretion when requesting that first responders remain in the 'hot zone' treating the wounded when protocol states to evacuate responders and await further

instruction. Leaving the responders in situ, potentially saved lives and the decision was praised by the members of the 2017 Kerslake report (Deeming, 2018).

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Outline potential links between serious and organised crime and public protection issues. How might bias impact in the investigation of such incidents? Your answer must be based on academic research rather than personal experience. (1000 words)

Organised Crime Groups (OCGs) are detrimental to the fabric of modern society. Organised crime is fast becoming a national policing priority and although the public are aware of OCGs, they do not see it as a problem where they live locally as they believe it takes place in the cities, rather than in the rural urban places (Crocker *et al.*, 2017; Robinson, McLean and Densley, 2019). OCGs often operate within communities and lure vulnerable and non-vulnerable people, such as children, into their criminal enterprises (Robinson, McLean and Densley, 2019). The children that are being targeted are those that are from broken backgrounds, are a looked after child (LAC), are currently residing in a care or foster home, or have experienced chaotic lives (Crocker *et al.*, 2017; NCA, 2017).

The Crown Prosecution Service (CPS) defines serious and organised crime as a, “planned and coordinated criminal behaviour” (CPS, n.d). Antonopoulos and Papanicolaou (2018) note that there are four characteristics that set organised crime apart. These four characteristics are “planning, preparation, complexity and continuity”.

An OCGs motivation is not always for a financial gain and will use other ways and means to make a gain. For example, gang members will take control over a home belonging to a vulnerable person and use it as a central point for drug dealing, also known as ‘cuckooing’ (Robinson, McLean and Densley, 2019). Other criminal behaviour is often instigated by people working together on a continual basis, i.e., drug distribution, known as ‘County Lines’ (Robinson, McLean and Densley, 2019). County Lines represents a public health risk with vulnerable people being in harm’s way (HM Government, 2018), which links OCGs with public protection issues.

In 2017, the National Crime Agency suggested that County Lines had been established in 71% of the police forces in Britain (NCA, 2017), and in 2018 there

were over 4,500 identified organised crime groups functioning within the UK (Davies, 2019).

Crocker *et al.* (2017) conducted a study and stated that OCGs are honed into more modern crimes including human trafficking; modern day slavery; sexual exploitation and Child Sexual Exploitation (CSE). The OCGs use the threat of violence, sexual, physical and emotional abuse (Ministry of Justice, 2019) targeting vulnerable people, including children, the elderly and the poor (Crocker *et al.*, 2017) and use tactics, which help them evade scrutiny from the police, using children as young as 12, to be their 'drug runners' (Robinson, McLean and Densley, 2019; HM Government, 2018).

In a study conducted by the Office of Children's Commissioner (OCC), 2,400 children had been identified as victims of CSE. The report found that 25% of CSE victims, were brought up in environments surrounded by alcohol and drug misuse and domestic violence (Crocker *et al.*, 2017). Furthermore, the OCC stated that 43% of children who were brought up in the care system, were more likely to become victims of CSE (NCA, 2017; Crocker *et al.*, 2017).

It is essential that police forces across England and Wales continue to develop their understanding on how OCGs operate, and why OCGs are continuing to grow, despite the increase focus and financial funds being directed to tackle the threat they pose to local communities. The challenge that the police services face is that of the link between OCGs and protecting the public, especially those who may be considered as vulnerable. Communities fear OCGs, which in effect, results in a lack of intelligence being gathered from the community and a low level of crimes being reported, thus creating a challenge for the police to act upon and target OCGs (Crocker *et al.*, 2017).

Organised crime can thrive in communities as OCGs understand the 'landscape of vulnerability' (Fraser *et al.*, 2018), and will exploit the vulnerable and place them in a vicious cycle of manipulation and harm. The vulnerable are at risk, therefore it is essential that the police and their partners use their powers to prevent and react to incidents (Fraser *et al.*, 2018). Public protection is concerned in the safeguarding of people at risk within communities. The police and other organisations work in

collaboration to minimise the threat posed to a vulnerable person(s). In the 2016 Home Office report, it states that, "Vulnerable people are often targeted as being easier to coerce into a situation where they can be manipulated", which was cited in Kidd and Manthorpe's 'Journal of Adult Protection' (2017).

When police investigate OCGs, it is essential that bias of all people involved is considered and that prosecutors have the evidence of the OCG's involvement before a charge is considered. In a recent document from the Crown Prosecution Service, a director of the Public Prosecutions, Max Hill QC, warned of not making assumptions of people caught up in OCGs (CPS, 2020). An example used was that of a female who had been identified as a person of interest in a violent gang, was quite possibly somebody who had been coerced and exploited into the OCG's enterprise.

In an independent report published in 2014 by Alexis Jay on CSE in Rotherham, he highlights the extreme pressures on both victims and their families to come forward and talk to police or authorities of the exploitation they have faced. This manifests in children not coming forward, living in a sense of denial, resulting in no hard evidence being relayed to the authorities. Therefore, assumptions regarding a child's experiences should be fully investigated and past reports used in collaboration with the current incident to give a rounded and accurate picture (Jay, 2014).

In conclusion, regarding the links between OCGs and public protection is that the exploitation of young and vulnerable people needs to be explored in a more cultural level. The 2023 National Youth Agency (NYA) stated that 60,000 youths identified themselves as being involved in a gang, with a further 500,000 youths being susceptible to behaviours of gangs (Lee, 2023). This coupled with 4,500 identifiable OCGs in the UK (National Audit Office, 2019) highlights the concerns of an ever-growing exploitive culture within OCGs (Robinson, McLean and Densley, 2019). OCGs prey on the vulnerable to entice them into being exploited, by offering the young a structured, family life including affection, rewards and gifts (Crocker *et al.*, 2017; Robinson, McLean and Densley, 2019). The vulnerable by their very nature are in need of being protected by multi-agencies. Only 4% of front-line spending by the government, was used to prevent serious and organised crime, in comparison to an estimated 79% on pursuing OCGs, thus meaning that vulnerabilities had not been

addressed, which ultimately drives serious and organised crime groups (Winchester, 2020).

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Evaluate the effectiveness of crime prevention theories and strategies as a means of combating either anti-social behaviour or domestic violence. Your answer must be based on academic research, but you may make reference to relevant case studies. (1000 words)

Crime prevention strategies are used to take a pro-active approach to policing incidents with the aim of reducing the risk of crime. Throughout the years, there have been many theories or strategies that have been developed and used by police forces across the United Kingdom, to minimise the impact of anti-social behaviour (ASB). There are several theories and strategies used to prevent ASB, such as: Hot-spot policing; Problem-solving policing; Problem-oriented policing; Intelligence-led policing, to name a few (Bryant and Bryant, 2020).

The Crime and Policing Act (2014), defines ASB as, “conduct that has caused, or is likely to cause harassment, alarm or distress to any person” (Legislation.gov.uk, 2014). ASB has a huge impact on people and communities if left unchallenged. According to the Office of National Statistics, in 2021, 1.8million incidents of ASB were recorded by the police, which was a 7% increase since 2020 (ONS, 2021). ASB incidents can include people behaving in a threatening or abusive manner, vandalism, graffiti or loud noise complaints (Home Office, 2004). The list is substantive and the effect ASB issues have on both people and communities can be very destructive if left unchallenged. Results taken from a Crime Survey for England and Wales (CSEW) in June 2023, has shown that 34% of people have either witnessed or experienced ASB (ONS, 2023).

Problem-oriented Policing (POP) was developed in 1979 by Herman Goldstein. The objectives of POP are to identify patterns, find the root cause, develop points of intervention, work with partners and evaluate the process (Savage, 2007).

Goldstein’s focus was more on “proactively addressing chronic problems, rather than using traditional reactive efforts” (Hinkle *et al.*, 2020). When POP has been fully implemented, it has shown to reduce ASB and crime (CoP, 2019). Bullock *et al.* (2022) notes that problem-oriented policing has been praised for its approach. Police forces have adopted the model and have advocated the methods of its aim to reduce

disorder. Successive studies also documented that problem-oriented policing is an effective and efficient method for dealing with ASB (Bullock *et al.*, 2022).

The majority of police services implied that problem-oriented policing was suitable and a logical means of policing, due to it dealing effectively with problems, rather than just focusing on criminalising people (Bullock and Tilley, 2003). The strategy allowed police forces to break down ASB issues into a more tangible plan. POP commonly uses a four stage intervention known as 'SARA': Scanning; Analysis; Response and Assessment, to align with the model in creating an effective strategy.

Other crime prevention strategies that work integrally with POP is 'Community Policing' and 'Intelligence-led Policing'. These interventions work hand in hand, which helps the effectiveness of POP (Bullock, 2013). Community policing, also known as neighbourhood policing, encourages members of the public to build a relationship with the police. This builds trust and engagement, helping to reduce crime and anti-social behaviour (Tuffin, Morris and Poole, 2006).

Another widely used crime prevention strategy is that of 'Hot-spot policing'. The idea behind hot-spot policing is to increase the police presence and carry out surveillance at specific areas where there is an increase in patterns and consistencies of crime rates (Elliott and Fagan, 2017). In a review, 78 tests were conducted regarding hot-spot policing. The review showed that 62 of the 78 tests had a positive effect on reducing crime and that hot-spot policing was effective against various crime types, such as disorder, violence and drug offences (CoP, 2021).

Despite this, Fiona Pilkington and her 18-year-old daughter were failed by Leicestershire Constabulary in 2007, due to the force not identifying the ASB incidents. The area in which they lived was in a hot-spot area, but was not targeted with a proactive response by the police, even when 33 incidents had been reported to the police in relation to ASB, which resulted in the deaths of both Fiona and her daughter (Hussain, 2011).

Another crime prevention theory that is less common, is that of a police-led social crime prevention. The thought process behind it is to target young people who were

'at-risk', divert them from entering the criminal justice system and influence social factors which steer to offending (Rummens *et al.*, 2016). Places such as Brisbane and Victoria in Australia and Alberta and Toronto in Canada have used similar police-led social crime prevention strategies that have been successful, resulting in a better relationship between the police, youths and community (Hobson *et al.*, 2021).

A social crime prevention scheme, named as the 'Aston Project' was trialled locally in Gloucestershire, working with young people from the ages of nine and seventeen, who have demonstrated 'risk factors' that could lead them into being involved in ASB behaviour. However, it was reported that there was a lack of clarity in the aims and objectives and the goals they wanted to achieve (Hobson *et al.*, 2021). The project was also criticised due to police officers not having the skills and were not youth workers (Muncie and Hughes, 2002). Despite this, the feedback from the 'at-risk' children who had participated in the project, had commented that it had "improved their lives and allowed them to engage with the local community" (Hobson *et al.*, 2021).

In conclusion, data suggests that the most effective crime prevention theory is problem-oriented policing. This is due to it reducing anti-social behaviour and has been shown that it works best when it is used collaboratively with community policing and intelligence-led policing (Bullock, 2013). In a survey of which nineteen police services across England and Wales have taken part in, the results highlight that only 13% of the participants agreed that they had the resources and time to effectively implement problem-solving. The same survey states that 59% had not had sufficient training on problem-solving policing (Bullock *et al.*, 2021). However, when using the problem-solving approach, Longstaff *et al.* (2015) states that for any impact to be successful in reducing ASB, a targeted and intense patrol with both partners and the community, should be adopted. In studies that were undertaken up until 2018 by Campbell's Systematic Review, they stated that "POP is associated with a statistically significant overall reduction in crime and disorder of 34%" (Hinkle *et al.*, 2020).

(Word Count = 1025)

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