

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.

The concept of whether police officers are professionals or not has been debated for over a century (Rojek, Alpert and Smith, 2012). Sir Robert Peel invented the Metropolitan Police in 1829, a creation which is often viewed as the beginning of modern-day policing (Lumsden, 2017). The meaning of police professionalism initially was based on Sir Robert Peel's principles which relate to honesty and integrity, the code of ethics, decision-making based on facts and accountability for actions taken. Whereas, in modern society it also includes responding efficiently and effectively to the needs of the community and taking a proactive, problem solving approach rather than a traditional 'response' approach (Schneider, 2009). To increase professionalism within the police the Policing Educational Qualifications Framework (PEQF) drastically changed the education of new police officers (Wood, 2020). The framework involves universities which ensures that each police officer achieves a policing degree.

Research into the success of professionalising the police service is varied, for example in various studies it has been suggested that police officers with degrees were less enthusiastic and their attitudes became less professional as their experience increased (Shernock, 1992; Regoli, Crank and Culberston, 1989; Vogel and Adams, 1983). However, there is evidence to suggest that professionalising the police force can lead to an improvement in attitude and performance whereby officers are more effective, less cynical and uphold ethical values more (Davis and Lawler, 1985; Shernock, 1992).

Lumsden (2017) suggested that there are many factors which contribute to the professionalisation of the police service: training and coaching; supporting professional development; upholding professional standards; holding officers and organisations accountable; and having a representative workforce which reflect the communities that they serve.

Maintaining professional standards, valuing integrity, equality, respect and holding officers accountable for their behaviour is likely to increase public trust and confidence in the police (Boateng, 2013). Hough (2014) suggested that when members of the public encounter police officers, they often concentrate on how the officer engages with them and uses their powers. Tyler and Huo (2002) concluded that officers who utilised fair procedural justice, which relates to making decisions impartially and objectively, as well as being respectful and honest, led to an increase in trust and confidence between the public and the police. Members of the public value professionalism from police officers and show an increase in confidence and satisfaction with the criminal justice system if they deem to have been dealt with fairly and respectfully (Tyler, 1984). Failing to treat individuals with procedural justice reduces the legitimacy of the organisation, reduces support and confidence in the police and could result in an increase in crime (Sherman, 1993).

Public confidence in the police has not always been high and the integrity of police forces has often been questioned. For example, in the murder investigation of Stephen Lawrence, a public inquiry reported that the police involved were racist and discriminatory (Macpherson, 1999). As a result of these findings, police forces across the UK proposed to increase the number of black and ethnic minority (BME) officers to improve the relationship between the police and BME communities. By 2009, police forces across the UK set a target of having a 7% representation of BME officers. Murji (2014) concluded that having a workforce which is representative of the community it serves increases trust in the police force with the potential to break down barriers within certain communities.

Having ethical and inclusive officers is important as police officers are often faced with situations where they need to make ethical decisions (Johnson and Cox 2004). Delattre (2002) concluded that as police officers possess great power and authority, they are held to a higher moral standard than members of the public. Schneider (2009) suggested that police have a responsibility to obey moral duty and follow a code of ethics. The code of ethics was introduced to reduce corruption in policing and ensure that members of the public were treated with fairness and respect and to ensure that officers' actions are impartial and objective. However, studies conducted on police ethics and integrity across the south of England and the UK established that some police officers were unlikely to report offences where other officers were involved (Westmarland, 2005; Klockars, 2000). As a result of this, the

College of Policing (2014) introduced a formal code of ethics which made it a requirement to challenge and report improper behaviour from colleagues. When officers utilise their powers in accordance with the law, they are upholding the code of ethics and maintaining the standards of professional behaviour which increases legitimacy.

Mentoring/coaching is one way to ensure that the police service remains professional as experienced officers pass on their knowledge to new recruits. Daloz (1999) suggested that tutoring new recruits should take place at the start of their career after they have finished training. Tutoring new recruits early helps them to transition from the classroom to policing the public, enabling them to apply what they have learnt to a practical setting. Green (2001) stated the importance of debriefing after incidents, which allows the tutor and student officer to discuss and reflect on the incident, with opportunities for constructive feedback regarding what went well and what to change in the future. This is a valuable tool and helps to enhance the student's learning whilst increasing their ability to deal with a range of complex incidents.

The professionalisation of the police service has resulted in new recruits achieving a policing related degree, which provides them with transferable skills which can be practically applied in their role. The maintenance of professional standards is essential in ensuring legitimacy, which promotes trust and confidence from the public. Having a code of ethics which officers abide by ensures that officers are not corrupt and having a representative work force has enabled officers to engage with communities who may have negative experiences with the police. Finally, mentoring is an important aspect of a student constables' development and allows them to learn from an experienced officer to maintain the standards required to work for a professional organisation.

Word Count: 1000

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

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

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

Policing by consent has historically been the consensus in the UK (Reiner, 2010). To achieve this Hough (2010), stated that the public must find the police trustworthy and legitimate as well as believing that they follow the law and communicate with the criminal justice system. The public often believe that the primary role of a police officer is to deal with crime and to provide safety to members of the public (Reiner, 2010). This suggests that public confidence in the police would stem from statistics such as crime-rates, fear of crime and repeat victimisation (Jackson et al, 2009). However, several studies suggest that the public rely on the police service to protect their community values and public confidence in policing stems from trust, cohesion, and social order (Jackson and Bradford, 2008; Jackson and Sunshine, 2007).

Confidence in response policing across the UK has decreased since the 1980's as measured by a national survey (Jackson and Sunshine, 2007). It has been suggested that the reason behind this is the development of an increasingly diverse society, along with the publications of police corruption and scandals (Lowe, 2002; Loader and Mulcahy, 2003). Furthermore, an increased visibility of signal crimes such as vandalism has played a big factor on reducing public perception of the police. Jackson et al (2012), suggested that the public are concerned about becoming victims and by witnessing an increase in crimes and anti-social behaviour, they have lost confidence in the police, labelling them ineffective and unable to protect the community. A lack of trust or poor public perception can have detrimental impacts for the police force. For example, individuals may be less likely to report when crimes have been committed and there is likely to be a breakdown in communication between the public and the police, both causing the effectiveness of the police to reduce (Goudriaan, Wittebrood and Nieuwbeerta, 2006; Reisig, Bratton and Gertz, 2007).

Research has suggested that when the police have lost the confidence of the public, it can be increasingly difficult to regain it (Stanko and Bradford, 2009). An

example of this is known as the reassurance gap. Simmons and Dodd (2002) reported that crime-rates have been decreasing since the 1990's, however members of the public believe that crime is rising. Millie and Herrington (2004) suggested that as crime is decreasing, the public need to be reassured that the police are effective and efficient in their role. Ensuring the police force is legitimate is one way of re-gaining trust from the public (Schaap, 2021). Goldsmith and Harris (2012) claimed that it is essential that the public view the police service as trustworthy, so that they can carry out their duties more efficiently and effectively, therefore, making the public feel safer (Stanko and Dawson, 2016; Skogan, 2009).

Several factors can alter public confidence and trust in the police service; one of the main contributing factors is how the police deal with critical/major incidents (Eyre, 2014). These are described as incidents where the effectiveness and efficiency of a police officer's response could significantly impact public perception, including the trust and confidence of the victim, their family and wider community (Metropolitan Police Service, 2003). These incidents often require officers to make high consequence decisions whilst working under extreme pressure (Eyre, 2014). The incidents can be unpredictable and dangerous and may increase physical and psychological strain for an officer which may lead to errors (Orasanu and Lieberman, 2011; Paton and Flin, 1999).

In 2013, the Joint Emergency Services Interoperability Programme (JESIP) was introduced. This consists of multiagency emergency guidance for services within the UK. Power and Alison (2017) suggested that during critical/major incidents police officers are responsible for making decisions and positively impacting the situation. Police are also responsible for protecting members of the public and the community from adverse outcomes. Studies on police interaction at critical/major incidents is limited, however, research suggests that accountability alters an officer's judgement and their decision-making process during critical incidents (Van Den Heuvel, Alison and Crego, 2012; Van den Heuvel, 2011). Furthermore, the studies found that issues surrounding uncertainty and anticipated blame reduced performance and resulted in poorer decisions being made. It was also reported in a study by Crego and Alison (2004) that external pressures impacted on the decision making of officers, such as how they would be perceived by the community and the consequences of their actions.

It is worth noting that officers are not exposed to critical/major incidents daily and being faced with these incidents comes with great pressure. Klein (1997) suggested that police officers often make decisions based on what has worked previously for them (Klein, 2008). However, during critical/major incidents, officers cannot rely on this method as often these incidences are unique (Eyre and Alison, 2007).

Following a critical incident, it is important to 'restore public confidence' and create harmony between the police and the public (ACPO, 2011). This was supported by Brookman and Innes (2013) who found that the success of a police's response to a major/critical incident was measured by how they minimised disruption to the community.

Response officers have a difficult and demanding job as they respond to challenging incidents, whilst upholding public perception and confidence in the police force. Police forces must be trustworthy, honest, and transparent whilst holding their officers accountable to increase legitimacy, which in turn helps to improve public confidence. By carrying out their duties and utilising their powers accordingly, police officers can build up trust with the communities they serve, which can result in increased satisfaction from the public regarding the effectiveness and efficiency of the force. Critical/major incidents can influence public perception if the response from the police is not as expected. In these situations, it is important to make decisions to resolve the incident and protect members of the public so that the community impact is reduced. Holding officers accountable for their decision making and reducing the impact in the aftermath of the incident increases public confidence and trust in the police.

Word Count: 992

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.

The term intelligence in a traditional sense was gained from a covert source and relates to information about criminal activity and criminals (Oswald and Grace, 2016). The distinction between information and intelligence is well-known; information is small pieces of data, however, when it is added to other knowledge it can produce intelligence which guides decision making and police action (Innes and Sheptycki, 2004). Intelligence has played a role in policing since the introduction of the Metropolitan Police in 1829, however, up until the 1990's intelligence was viewed as information which added to or supported an investigation (Ratcliffe, 2009). In recent years police forces have adopted a more intelligence led approach and introduced concepts such as the Intelligence Cycle and the National Intelligence Model (NIM) (John and Maguire, 2003).

The Intelligence Cycle consists of several stages which includes the collection of information/intelligence (Akhgar, Bayerl and Sampson, 2017). Information/intelligence can be gathered from several different sources, which often causes concerns about their reliability and validity (Dunninghan and Norris, 1999). Ratcliffe (2002) suggested that routine collection is one of the biggest contributors to intelligence. This involves reports of crimes from members of the public, arrests made by officers and officers witnessing events whilst on patrol. Other intelligence may be created based on information from members of the public either through conversations with officers or crime reporting services. Nunan et al (2020) stated that the use of covert human intelligence sources (CHIS) produces reliable information. CHIS play important roles in intelligence gathering; they are witnesses who have protection under the Regulation of Investigatory Powers Act (2000) and often gain information/intelligence which is unobtainable to police officers. These sources of intelligence have often been labelled as traditional, however in recent years a range of new sources have become available. For example, John, Morgan, and Rogers (2006) suggested that due to data-sharing protocols, police are now obtaining intelligence from other agencies such as councils, housing associations, schools,

prison services and banks. This has improved the way police safeguard victims, identify offenders and how they are viewed by the public.

The NIM was first introduced by all 43 police forces in England and Wales in 2004 (Maguire and John, 2006). The model which made strides towards intelligence led policing was introduced for several reasons: to reduce crime rates; to develop new forms of evidence gathering to reduce issues; to improve the proactivity of officers; and to utilise surveillance to develop information and intelligence (Gill, 2018; Tilley, 2003; Grieve, 2004; Flood and Gaspar, 2009).

The NIM was designed to provide a more efficient and effective use of intelligence, creating an easier way to gather and share information with other police forces and agencies (John and Maguire, 2012). The NIM considers intelligence to work on three levels; level one concentrates on localised policing issues, level two concentrates on the police force area and level three concentrates on national and international issues. The processes of the NIM can be replicated at every level and allows local police officers to share information at a regional level and the same applies to a national level. Maguire and John (2004) provided an example of a drugs related issue. At level one, the local officers focus on street level users and dealers, level two focuses on the networks used involving county lines and level three focuses on importation.

A key element of the NIM is the tasking and co-ordinating group; these groups allocate resources and use intelligence to inform their decisions (John and Maguire, 2004). Each level in the NIM run a strategic and tactical group, the tactical group concentrates on local resources, planned responses to threats and ensuring that targets are still on course, whilst the strategic group, who meet less frequently discuss long term strategies for the policing area. Tilley (2003) concluded that the intelligence collected by police drives the tasking process for each level, therefore the effectiveness of the organisation to plan operational responses and allocate resources efficiently will rely heavily on the quality of intelligence gathered (Herdale and Stelfox, 2008). O'Neill (2010) suggested that the NIM focusses on a traditional police response and the tactical menu includes options such as targeting known offenders/hotspots. However, community action plans are also included; Hughes and Rowe (2007) suggested that community intelligence is essential and can impact on national and international events, meaning public trust is essential in gathering intelligence which impacts all levels of the NIM.

Once information/intelligence has been collected, an evaluation occurs to disseminate it to other agencies or relevant departments within the police (Sheptycki, 2004). This is essential in ensuring that the information is accurate, and the source is reliable. Since the introduction of the European Convention on Human Rights (Human Rights Act, 1998) a paper trail of a formal evaluation is required to demonstrate that the means of obtaining the intelligence is both necessary and proportionate. Occasionally there are difficulties in communicating intelligence to relevant teams in time (Barton and Evans 1999). The Bichard report (2004) demonstrated failings in sharing information between agencies and partners. Mackay and Ratcliffe (2004) stated that dissemination is important in sharing intelligence to necessary departments so that officers can act on it and planned responses can be made. The 3x5x2 model (College of Policing, 2015) is a risk assessment tool for dissemination which grades the intelligence giving other agencies/departments access to it. One advantage of this model is that it allows prioritisation of resources based on the value of the intelligence, which reduces the likelihood of missing time critical intelligence.

The gathering of information/intelligence, which can be conducted in several ways such as routine collection, the use of covert sources and through other agencies, is essential in driving intelligence led policing. By receiving high quality information, police forces can put in places strategies, at a localised, regional, and national level to disrupt criminality and improve public perception. The communication and sharing of intelligence between agencies is critical and ensures that high priority intelligence is communicated and acted on.

Word Count: 994

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.

Public protection issues and discussions surrounding how to protect members of the public from violent and sexual offenders have been debated over recent years (Kemshall and Maguire, 2001). The introduction of multi-agency public protection arrangements (MAPPA) under Section 67 and 68 of the Criminal Justice and Courts Services Act (2000) was designed to protect the public and victims from these types of offenders; the system requires agencies to work collaboratively to manage known and likely offenders. The Criminal Justice Act (2003) strengthened the legislation and added probation and prison services, along with the police as 'responsible authorities', taking the lead in managing these offenders (Kemshall and Wood, 2008). Taylor and Yakeley (2019) suggested that these services are responsible for identifying high risk offenders, assessing their risk to the public, managing risk, and sharing any information to partner agencies where applicable.

Kemshall et al (2005) was supportive of the tier system being utilised in MAPPA, stating engagement and information sharing was effective between other agencies. The tier system consists of three levels: level 1 offenders are managed by a lead agency, where information is shared but not discussed in multi-agency meetings; level 2 offenders require active involvement from several agencies due to the risk involved and are discussed at multi-agency meetings, which are determined by the lead agency; level 3 offenders are often discussed at multi-agency meetings and are classified as high risk to the public. These offenders have a management plan in place, where all agencies have joint responsibility for them. Peck (2011) suggested that the system is fluid and offenders will change between tiers to reflect the current risk posed to the public. Peck also stated that there are currently 3 categories of offenders; category one includes sex offenders, category two includes offenders who have received a sentence of 12 months or more for violent/sexual offences and category three includes other dangerous offenders who require discussions at multi-agency meetings.

Another strategy utilised by the police in dealing with public protection issues, particularly managing sex offenders, is the use of an intelligence database called VISOR (violent and sex offenders register). McCartan, Hoggett and O'Sullivan (2018) suggested that the database assists police to identify and track information about offenders residing in their force and assists in sharing information when offenders move. Harris, Levenson and Lobanov-Rostovsky (2015) conducted a study and concluded that the database was beneficial and assisted in reducing issues with public protection.

Abuse on victims surrounding public protection issues can cause long lasting negative impacts (Fergusson, Boden and Horwood, 2005). For example, those exposed to sexual abuse during childhood are increasingly likely to suffer from anxiety, depression, substance abuse and suicidal ideology (Finkelhor, 1990; Fergusson, Horwood and Lynskey, 1996). Furthermore, Wyatt, Guthrie and Notgrass (1992) concluded that individuals who were sexually abused were more likely to engage in risky sexual behaviour and have a higher number of partners. Research also suggested that those physically abused during childhood were likely to suffer from suicidal thoughts and attempts, anti-social behaviour, depression, PTSD, anxiety, and substance abuse. (Stevenson, 1999; Silverman, Reinherz and Giaconia, 1996). These studies outline the necessity for public protection teams to assess and manage the risk of offenders to reduce the negative impacts they can have on victims.

Whilst dealing with public protection victims, the attitude/values of police officers can impact the investigation. For example, Christie (1986) suggested that there is an 'ideal' victim who is characterised as being vulnerable and blameless. Ricciardelli, Spencer and Dodge (2021) reported that an officer's beliefs and values shape the investigation into public protection matters. Furthermore, Spencer and Patterson (2016) suggested that police officers show a passive masculinity, resulting in them displaying signs of insensitivity towards victims of crime. It has also been stated that gender bias and myths surrounding sexual assault influence how police officers conduct their investigations (Martin, 2013). However, Loftus (2010) reported that officers wanted to do more for victims of a sexual nature, considering the trauma caused and added appropriate safeguarding measures.

individuals exposed to sexual/physical abuse are more likely to suffer with mental health issues and substance abuse which makes them ideal 'targets' for

serious and organised crime gangs (SOCG) (Crocker et al, 2017). Hale and Hobbs (2010) conducted a study which identified that vulnerable children were exploited by drug dealers, who encouraged them to 'run' and 'deal' for them in exchange for money or free drugs. A further study conducted by Goodey (2008) suggested that vulnerable young women were more likely to be trafficked by SOCG for sexual exploitation. Several studies conducted on child sexual exploitation (CSE) concluded that the largest group targeted by SOCG were 13–14-year-olds and combating this cost the UK an estimated £100 million (Mills, Skodbo and Blyth, 2013; Said-Tessier, 2014). CSE victims regularly go missing from their homes, are often raised in houses with domestic violence, drugs or alcohol issues and have previous offending history (Cockbain and Brayley, 2014). To tackle this, the Serious and Organised Crime Strategy (2018) set out a four-stage framework to disrupt SOCG. The stages which involve pursue, prevent, protect, and prepare are designed to identify and prosecute those responsible, stop people from engaging in organised crime and to protect and prepare members of the public to reduce the impact of SOCG.

Public protection is essential in safeguarding members of the public from the most serious/violent offenders. The use of MAPPA and VISOR enables high risk offenders to be assessed and managed by the police and partner agencies efficiently with regular meetings. The abuse victims suffer can have a detrimental impact on their mental health and wellbeing, often causing them to suffer with depression, anxiety, and substance abuse. As a result of this, there is an association between vulnerable victims and SOCG. These groups target vulnerable individuals, leaving them susceptible to becoming involved in drugs, county lines, sexual exploitation and CSE. However, there is a framework which attempts to support individuals and their communities in response to these threats.

Word Count: 991

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.

Over recent years evidence-based policing (EBP) and 'what works' has been emphasised in the UK, coinciding with the aim of professionalising the police force (Lumsden and Goode, 2018). EBP involves decision-making, based on scientific evidence about what works, and which strategies achieve goals, such as reducing crime in a cost-effective way (Sherman, 2013). In 2013, the government introduced the 'What Works Centre for Crime Reduction' initiative (May, Gunter, and Hough, 2017). Fleming and Rhodes (2018) suggested that this initiative prioritises research and evidence to build a database of knowledge and to design, deliver, and evaluate a training programme, providing officers with theoretical and practical knowledge to inform their decision-making (Flemming and Wingrove, 2017). In a study conducted on EBP by Hunter et al (2016) it was suggested that officers consider research whilst making decisions, however they also consider several other factors such as professional judgement and advice from supervisors. Criticisms of EBP in this study involved the complexity of research, suggesting the message was not clear and police officers did not have the time to conduct research to the required standard.

Sherman (2013) suggested that 'targeting, testing and tracking' is essential in EBP. For example, the police should target the areas causing the most disruption, conduct tests and analyse what is working to solve the issue and then track the progress made, using evidence such as a reduction in crime rates/calls to the police. Lum, Koper and Telep (2011) suggested that evidence can be analysed on the 'Maryland Scale of Scientific Methods'; this scale assess the validity of the methodology and therefore does not measure the effectiveness of the strategy.

Situational crime prevention strategies focus on reducing the opportunity to commit crime (Clarke, 1992), expanding on the work conducted by Clarke and Mayhew (1980). They suggested that the strategies focus on changing the physical environment of a targeted area, to increase the offender's perception of the difficulty and risk associated with committing the crime whilst reducing the reward. Smith and

Clarke (2012) suggested that the strategies used can include: securing the location effectively; the removal of high value items from display; ensuring tools/items which can aid the crime are removed; increasing surveillance such as security lights and CCTV cameras; and marking/personalising property to reduce the value of it.

A further crime prevention strategy known as the 'Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design' (CPTED) suggests utilising the environment correctly can reduce crime rates and fear of crime whilst subsequently improving quality of life for members of the community (Cisneros, 1996; Crowe, 2000). Cozens, Saville and Hillier, (2005) suggested that a combination of improving surveillance, defining boundaries, and presenting a positive image can reduce offending as it makes offenders more visible which puts them at increased risk of getting caught. Schneider and Kitchen (2002) conducted a study on the use of CPTED and reported that the value of properties increased by 5.5% after a significant reduction in crime rates. Furthermore, Peiser and Chang (1998) reported a significant decrease in vandalism, graffiti and anti-social behaviour on an industrial estate which resulted in the rate of occupancy increasing from 75% to 98% in twelve months. However, Cozens, Saville and Hillier, (2005) suggested that there are limitations to the model, which include offenders who are under the influence of alcohol and drugs as it decreases the likelihood of them being deterred by such techniques. Furthermore, if a community relies heavily on target hardening and therefore minimises their involvement, communities can withdraw in their homes which works against the CPTED method.

It has been suggested that these prevention strategies were influenced by the opportunity theory (Smith and Clarke, 2012). The opportunity theory indicates that an offender is influenced by the environment and acts opportunistically (Clarke, 1995). The CPTED strategies have also been influenced by other theories of crime prevention such as the routine activity, crime pattern and rational choice theories. The routine activity theory states that an offender seeks opportunities to commit crime when there is a suitable target and the absence of a responsible person. The rational choice theory suggests that individuals make a rational choice to commit crime because it will benefit them and the crime pattern theory suggests that offenders analyse the movements of the victims, becoming aware of their habits before committing crime (Cohen and Felson, 1979; Cornish and Clarke, 2014 and Brantingham and Brantingham, 1993).

These theories help to explain why some individuals commit crime. Re-offending rates after conviction is an issue in the UK; for example, the rate of re-offending within a year of conviction is 58% for prisoners released from custody before 12 months, 35% for prisoners released from custody after 12 months and 34% for individuals who have a court order in place (Wright, 2013). There are several options available which attempt to reduce re-offending, for example Sapouna, Bisset and Conlong (2011) suggested that commencing a community order or suspended sentence reduced re-offending rates by 7% compared to short term custodial sentences. Furthermore, Marklund and Holmberg (2009) concluded that individuals released early from prison with an electronic monitoring device were less likely to re-offend in the following 3 years compared to a control group. Diverting young people away from the criminal justice system has also reduced re-offending. McAra and McVie (2007) reported that youths with previous offending history were less likely to re-offend if they were diverted to social workers rather than being sent to court. Further support for a multi-agency approach comes from Healy (2017) who suggested that a good relationship between an offender and an offender manager can significantly reduce the rates of re-offending.

Understanding EBP and what works by conducting research and utilising evidence can help to develop crime prevention strategies. Research has shown that crime is significantly reduced when communities increase the difficulty of committing crime and increase the likelihood of identifying offenders. Several theories attempt to explain why individuals commit crime and several options are available in the criminal justice system and other agencies to reduce the risk of re-offending.

Word Count: 996

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