

“Understanding the Role of Constable and Maintaining Professional Standards”

This essay will 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.

Sir Robert Peel was Prime Minister from 1834 to 1835 and again from 1841 to 1846. Peel stated that because crime was on the rise, particularly in industrial areas and London, a shift in police was required. Sir Robert Peel founded the London Metropolitan Police Force in central London in 1829. The new police force was built up and managed by two commissioners. Peel devised the Peelian Principles, which specified the ethical standards that police personnel must adhere to in order to be effective. Sir Robert Peel stated in 1829, when outlining the principles of policing a democracy, "The police are the public, and the public are the police." He was considered the "Father of Modern Policing," and his commissioners developed a set of policing principles that are just as important and essential now as they were two centuries ago (askinglot, n.d).

Serving police officers and members of the police service are expected to comply with the Code of Ethics and 10 Standards of Professional Behaviour which was introduced in 2014 by the College of Policing. The Code of Ethics and 10 Standards of Professional Behaviour mirrors the Peelian Principles in a modern society and establishes and specifies the exemplary standards of behaviour for all policing personnel. It is a helpful, constructive, day-to-day decision-making framework that constantly reinforces the principles and standards that police is proud of. It is also meant to inspire personal accountability and the use of professional judgement, enabling everyone in police to do the right thing at all times (College of Policing, 2014).

The Code of Ethics have nine policing principles which have been built from the 'Nolan Principles for public life'. The Principles are accountability, integrity, openness, fairness, leadership, respect, honesty, objectivity and selflessness. These principles serve to support and reinforce the existing processes and laws for guaranteeing professionalism is expected of both police officers and police workers (College of Policing, 2014). Furthermore, it sets out the values the organisation stands for, for example, equality, impartiality, loyalty, non-discrimination and compliance within the law (Transparency International, 2013). This benefits the profession and the public's trust that there is a procedure in place to respond appropriately if anybody considers that the Code of Ethics' standards have not been met.

If a Police officer or police staff's behaviour does not meet the expectations or has been deemed to have breached one of these standards, they could be investigated by the Professional Standards Department (PSD) within the force that they currently serve. The principle of policing by consent relies on the trust and confidence that the public has in the police service and wider law enforcement community (College of Policing, 2015). PSD can play an important role in the maintenance of the trust and confidence by ensuring the public that any misconduct and complaints will be investigated effectively. Furthermore, the Independent Office for Police Conduct (IOPC) can conduct an inquiry if there has been a high degree of public concern, effect on the community, and major repercussions for the police service's reputation (Bryant & Bryant, 2019).

The Policing Vision 2025 helps to reinforce these values and the professionalisation of the police force. Improving policing for the public are at the heart of the vision and it acknowledges that the communities that the police serve are increasingly diverse and complex, necessitating a more sophisticated response to the challenges that they face. It also acknowledges that the police need to

meet the communities needs that they serve and emphasises the need to adapt to the modern policing environment (National Police Chiefs' Council, 2016).

According to the mission, the police service on a national level will embed consistent, professional practise and create a fair, just, and peaceful society to help citizens live confident and safe lives by giving them the right to express their views by electing a Police and Crime Commissioner to implement their local police and crime plans. As the police service faces new and growing criminal concerns, it is critical to establish a police force that is better suited to cope with these demands in order for the public to have more trust in the police (National Police Chiefs' Council 2016).

After initial police training, a police officer will be assigned a tutor in order to help them develop their skills that they have learnt into the workplace. A tutor can also be known as a mentor who is a more experienced colleague who can use their knowledge and skills to work to support their development in their next stage of development in the workplace. There are 4 stages of a mentoring relationship which are, building the relationship, exchanging information and setting goals, working towards, goals and deepening the engagement and finally ending the formal relationship and planning for the future (Bryant & Bryant, 2019).

Firstly, a tutor and new police student should arrange to meet up and talk about their background, how they came to join the police and what would they like to aim for. Secondly, a new student will have written assessments or reports from the initial training staff which can be utilised so that their tutor in the next stage of training can get to know them and they can work on a development plan for the future as people prefer to learn in different ways as seen by Kolb 1984. It is also at this stage, a student should discuss with their tutor their needs, concerns, wants and expectations that they have from their tutor in order to achieve the best possible outcome (Bryant & Bryant, 2019).

When working towards a goal it is important that both student and tutor communicate well with each other for example, pre-briefing before they attend a call in how they intend to deal with the incident at hand and in order to help achieve the best outcome whilst upholding the values of the police force. It is also important that a student and tutor de-brief after attending an incident in order to reflect on 'what went well' and also 'what would you do differently'. The tutor feedback serves as two main purposes, to help the learner feel reassured their contribution has been recognised and help develop their skills (Bryant & Bryant, 2019). It is important that throughout tutorship phase the Code of Ethics and Standards of Professional Behaviour are adhered to in order to achieve the best outcome and help increase the public perceptions of the police force through new recruits.

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“Conducting investigations”

This essay will explore the role of the police in conducting criminal investigations, taking into account the key principles for investigations and volume, serious and complex crime.

A criminal investigation is defined in the Code of Practice to the Criminal Procedure and Investigations Act 1996 (CPIA) as,

“An investigation conducted by police officers with a view to it being ascertained whether a person should be charged with an offence, or whether a person charged with an offence is guilty of it.”

(College of Policing, 2010).

an investigation may be conducted into crimes that have occurred, determining if a crime has been committed in order to initiate criminal procedures or crimes that the police suspect have been committed, such as when places or persons are kept under watch for an extended length of time in anticipation of the initiation of criminal proceedings (College of Policing, 2010).

A criminal investigation can be instigated using either a reactive or proactive approach. A reactive investigation can start with reports from the general public or referrals by other agencies. A proactive approach can start from an intelligence package which have been generated as a result of the tasking and coordination process such as operational intelligence assessments or tactical assessments (College of Policing, 2013).

Furthermore, CPIA also defines a criminal investigator as,

“Any police officer involved in the conduct of a criminal investigation. All investigators have a responsibility for carrying out the duties imposed on them under this code including, in particular recording information and retaining records of information and material.”

(College of Policing, 2010)

Investigators have a range of legal powers in order to enable them to conduct effective investigations. These are CPIA, Regulation of investigatory Powers 2000 (RIPA), Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984 (PACE), Human Rights Act 1998 (HRA) and Equality Act 2010. An investigator must be knowledgeable in investigation planning and execution, as well as decision making and how it may be enhanced by utilising the 'investigative mindset' (College of Policing, 2010).

To create and retain public trust, the police must guarantee that investigations are conducted professionally, ethically, and to an appropriate standard. To promote this quality approach to investigations, the professionalising investigation programme (PIP) was developed. There are 4 different levels of investigators under the Professionalising Investigation Programme also known as PIP. PIP level 1 is Priority and Volume Crime Investigations. Volume Crime can be defined as ‘any crime which, through its sheer volume, has a significant impact on the community and the ability of the local police to tackle it’. Volume crime includes priority crimes such as criminal damage and assaults (College of Policing, 2010).

PIP level 2 is Serious and Complex investigations. Serious crime is defined in Section 93(4) of the Police Act 1997 as,

‘conduct which involves the use of violence, results in substantial financial gain or is conducted by large number of persons in pursuit of a common purpose’.

(College of Policing, 2010)

Level 2 investigators are likely to have their own caseload of investigations such as sexual assaults or crimes including the use of weapons and firearms however, they may provide advice and support to Level 1 investigators (Bryant & Bryant 2019). Furthermore, PIP level 3 are investigators of Major Investigations and PIP level 4 investigators are the Strategic Management of Highly Complex Investigations.

A number of investigative concepts are widely acknowledged in the police force. The principles are based on the idea that policing operates best when it has the community's support and cooperation. According to the principles, the exercise of legal authorities should not be oppressive and should be reasonable to the offence under investigation. In order to comply with the Equality Act 2010, investigators must understand the requirements of the persons, including but not limited to any protected characteristics they may have. Furthermore, investigations should be conducted as transparently as possible, keeping victims, witnesses, and suspects informed of the progress of the case (College of Policing, 2010).

Whilst at the scene of a crime, investigators should prioritise the preservation of life, preservation of scenes, secure evidence, identify victims and identify suspects. These can also be defined as 'fast track actions' and 'golden hour' as identifying these actions helps produce the most effective outcome in order to help protect and preserve evidence from being contaminated or lost (College of Policing, 2013).

The initial investigation phase is concluded when a number of actions have been completed. These can include accounts from the victim and witnesses, all fast track actions indicated by the material to hand have been taken and all records required by CPIA have been made. A comprehensive record of all enquires completed can enhance the overall efficiency of the case (College of Policing, 2013).

When a crime or intelligence package is assigned for further investigation, detectives must formulate a clear strategy for bringing the case to a successful conclusion. A strategy should include particular investigative objectives, which will vary depending on the unique circumstances of the crime and the data acquired. Furthermore, the strategy should incorporate any investigation tactics required to fulfil these goals. These can include house-to-house inquiries, physical evidence, and search capabilities, as well as obtaining and executing search warrants. Finally, the investigator's resource requirements may be constrained; yet, it is their job to clarify their resource requirements to their supervisors (College of Policing, 2013).

In cases where the initial investigation has led to the identification of a suspect, investigators must pay special attention to Codes C and E of PACE 1984, which govern the detention, treatment, and questioning of suspects, as well as the code of practise on audio recording interviews with suspects (HSC, 2013). When confronted with false stories or contradictions, an investigator should use caution and approach each false account as a unique goal. Once a suspect has been charged and the full code test has been applied, detectives must handle a variety of issues before the case is brought to court. If more investigation is necessary, detectives will work closely with the Crown Prosecution Service, which is jointly responsible for the prosecution of the case after a suspect has been charged (College of Policing, 2013).

Investigators must prepare a file of evidence up to the national file standard once a court date has been agreed for the first hearing. This must be created proportionately for the requirements of that hearing whilst at the same time providing the prosecutor with sufficient information to be able to conclude the case if they plea is guilty (College of Policing, 2012).

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Information and intelligence

This essay will critically evaluate the methods used by police in gathering information and intelligence. It will also discuss how the information gathered contributes to the tasking and coordinating process and finally how this information and intelligence is communicated.

The police gather information that is necessary for a policing purpose. This helps provide the legal basis which is set out in the Regulation of Investigatory Powers Act 2000 for the collecting, recording, evaluation, sharing and retention in order to safeguard life and property, keeping the peace, preventing criminal offences from being committed, bringing criminals to justice and any common or statutory law obligation or liability (College of Policing, 2013).

The police receive information and intelligence in a number of different ways. The collection phase is the first step in the information management process. It has an impact on all stages of information management, from how information is captured to how long it is kept. A force management plan allows for the establishment of information requirements, which in turn specifies the information that must be gathered (College of Policing, 2013).

The Collection phase should be managed by using intelligence collection plans to ensure it remains focused. These plans focus on the intelligence requirement and provide a structure for the collection of information. The contents of an intelligence collection plan can vary, according to the intelligence that is required. Intelligence may be collected from community intelligence, communications data or CHIS. Furthermore, the intelligence plan should include the required information needs to generate a full and accurate intelligence picture, and it should be updated on a regular basis to ensure gaps and potential access challenges are detected (College of Policing, 2013).

Information is collected in three different ways; routine collection, tasked information and volunteered information. Routine collection is information which is collected as part of a routine operational policing activity for example, an officer responding to an incident, targeted patrol or a stop search. Tasked information is information collected with the concern of a problem and subjects identified in the intelligence required. This information may be accessed by internal and external databases, CCTV systems and covert human intelligence sources. Finally volunteered information is information which has been collected from the general public, community contacts and partners. This information is usually received through command and control crime systems, information from voluntary organisations such as neighbourhood watch or from partner agencies such as social services. From this information collected, users must ensure that the information collected is for a policing purpose and is in line with the Data Protection Act 2018, Human Rights Act 1998 and the Freedom of information Act 2000 (College of Policing, 2013).

The National Intelligence Model (NIM) was established in 2000 with the goal of leveraging intelligence to decide critical objectives in police. The Tasking and Coordinating Process, which is controlled by Tasking and Coordination Groups, is a critical component of the NIM. This dictates the operational reactions to crime and disturbance, as well as the intelligence requirements that must be prioritised. The procedure is carried out at three levels to coincide with the various degrees of crime:

- Level 1 (local BCU level)- local crime controlled by local resources
- Level 2 (force and regional)- frequently necessitates the use of extra resources; and
- Level 3 (national)- the most severe and organised crime (Bryant & Bryant, 2019).

Strategic Tasking and Coordination Group (Strategic T&CG) meetings are at the centre of the business process when dealing with Level 2 Crime. The sessions' objective is to kick off a Control Strategy, which will define the intelligence requirements and set the agenda for preventative, intelligence, and enforcement priorities. Tactical Tasking and Coordination group meetings are also

held at the BCU level (level 1) to apply the planned reaction to the control strategy, assess progress, and make modifications as needed (Bryant & Bryant, 2019).

T&CGs are informed by intelligence products developed and authored by analysts in collaboration with police personnel. These can comprise target/subject profiles of specific criminals, victims, or networks, as well as issue profiles like crime hot spots. The T&CG's decisions can be impacted by a variety of variables, including government objectives, local objectives, including force objectives, performance targets, and the professional expertise necessary by the employees to fully contribute to the NIM. In order to better the management of crime and the local community, a control plan is applied, and operational choices are taken. Daily Management Meetings (DMM) are held daily to verify that the T&CG plan is implemented and on track (Bryant & Bryant, 2019).

The intelligence report is used to submit and evaluate information and to manage dissemination of intelligence. It protects the source, contributes to an audit trail of the intelligence and provides a shared confidence between law enforcement communities and partner agencies (College of Policing, 2019). The source evaluation is made by the person submitting the information to describe the reliability of source. This is the first stage of the 3x5x2. Everyone submitting intelligence has a duty to ensure it is accurate and is corroborated where possible. There are three source gradings,

1. Reliable- a source is believed to be competent and information received is generally reliable. This can include information from human intelligence or scientific and forensic sources.
2. Untested- this is source that has not previously provided information and the information provided should be treated with caution. For example, Crimestoppers.
3. Not reliable- this is source where there are reasonable grounds to doubt their reliability (College of Policing, 2019).

Secondly, the information provided is graded on the reliability of the information based on how it became known to the source.

1. Known directly to the source- refers to information obtained first-hand for example, through witnessing it.
2. Known indirectly to the source but corroborated- refers to information that the source has not witnessed themselves, but the reliability of the information can be verified by separate information that carries the information/intelligence from assessment 1.
3. Known indirectly to the source- applies to information that the source has been told by someone else.
4. Not known- applies where there is no means of assessing the information. This can include information from an anonymous source.
5. Suspected to be false- if this is the case the rationale for why should be documented in the intelligence report risk assessment (College of Policing, 2019).

Finally, before information can be disseminated handling codes and conditions need to be applied in order to control the risks associated with sharing intelligence. Lawful sharing permitted permits the dissemination of the intelligence as long as there is a policing purpose and a legitimate need to receive it. Lawful sharing permitted with conditions permits the dissemination but requires the receiving agency to observe conditions as specified (College of Policing 2019).

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Public Protection

This essay will critically evaluate police strategies for dealing with public protection incidents considering the impact of abuse on victims, the impact of personal attitudes and values on the investigative process and the association between serious and organised crime groups and public protection issues.

The Code of Practice for Victims of Crime in England and Wales 2020 defines as victim as,

‘A person who has suffered harm, including physical, mental or emotional harm or economic loss which was directly caused by a criminal offence.’

(College of Policing, 2013)

Sections 325 to 327B of the Criminal Justice Act of 2003 created multi-agency public protection agreements (MAPPA). These procedures are intended to safeguard the general population, especially victims of crime, from substantial harm caused by sexual or violent criminals, as well as other dangerous offenders. MAPPA requires police, probation, and prison services to collaborate with other authorities to manage violent and sexual offenders in order to safeguard the public. This is a mechanism for exchanging information and combining resources in order to maximise risk management for each individual offender. This is additionally strengthened by the Human Rights Act of 1998, which contains Articles 2 and 3 of the European Convention on Human Rights, giving police officers the responsibility of care to the public (College of Policing, 2015).

MAPPA has three different levels based on the extent of multi-agency cooperation necessary to properly implement the risk management strategy. Higher risk cases are often handled at the higher levels, and offenders are transferred up and down levels as necessary. Level one is ordinary management. These offenders are subject to the standard management procedures imposed by the agency in charge of their supervision. Level 2 is active multi-agency management, the risk

management strategies for these offenders necessitate the active participation of various authorities through frequent MAPPA meetings. Finally, Level 3 is also active multi-agency management but with the engagement of senior officials to approve the use of special resources, such as police surveillance or specialised housing, and/or to offer continuing senior management supervision (College of Policing, 2015).

The offenders managed through MAPPA are also divided between three categories. Category 1 are registered sex offenders. The police have the overall responsibility to manage these offenders and will perform the role of the lead agency when they are no longer subject to the National Probation Services supervision. They will also ensure that all breaches of notification requirements are promptly followed up. Category 2 are violent offenders who have received a 12-month or longer jail term. Offenders who are confined under hospital orders or who do not qualify for registration are also included. Finally, Category 3 are other dangerous offenders which do not qualify under Categories 1 and 2 but currently pose a risk of serious harm (College of Policing, 2015).

MARACs (Multi-Agency Risk Assessment Conferences), which are generally managed by the police, are similar to MAPPA in that they provide a platform for the sharing of information while establishing a multi-agency risk management plan for each case. The police play an important role in apprehending criminals and referring cases. This is common among high-risk domestic violence victims. Furthermore, Safeguarding Adult Boards (SABs) decide how to act when there is a suspicion that an adult needs care and assistance and is experiencing or is at danger of abuse or neglect (Bryant & Bryant, 2019).

Crime can affect everyone differently. The impact of abuse on victims of crime can affect them on an emotional, physical, financial, psychological and social level. A victim initially may find it difficult to believe that they have been a victim of crime as they may be in shock, disbelief and denial. On the

other hand, a victim may experience other emotions such as anger, fear or shame. These can also be seen as short-term impacts of abuse (Canadian Resource Centre for Victims of Crime, 2005).

The physical impact of victimisation can range from physical injuries such as minor scratches and broken bones. While these injuries are visible, others may not such as insomnia, loss of appetite and muscle tension (Canadian Resource Centre for Victims of Crime, 2005).

Although the financial impact of crime is less documented than physical or emotional impacts, it is important to acknowledge that victims of crime can be affected financially. For example, a victim may have to take a number of months off from work or other income generating activities. They may also have to replace possessions (Canadian Resource Centre for Victims of Crime, 2005).

The psychological impacts of abuse can have long term effects on a victim such as loss of confidence and esteem. Life can also slow down and feel meaningless. A victim may also start to abuse substances in order to numb these affects (Canadian Resource Centre for Victims of Crime, 2005). A victim may also develop a Trauma bond where they develop a relationship with the abuser and they believe that their behaviour is 'normal'.

It is important to remember when dealing with victims of crime to treat all victims the same and not show unconscious bias. The term "unconscious bias" refers to a prejudice that we are unaware of and that occurs without of our control. It is an instinctive bias that is generated by our brain generating rapid judgements and assessments of individuals and events that are impacted by our background, cultural surroundings, and personal experiences (NHS, n.d).

For example, A street worker has reported that they have been a victim of sexual assault. It is important that the attending officer treats the victim with respect and courtesy, following the Codes of Practice for Victims and asks appropriate questions in the investigative process in order to establish what has happened. However, carefully wording the questions in order to help prevent the victim feel he/she is being blamed for the sexual assault (Police Chief, 2021). Victims may develop distrust in the police force and may feel like they are not being taken seriously. This can also have a detrimental effect on the organisation.

Individuals who plan, coordinate, and conduct significant offences, whether alone, in gangs, or as part of multinational networks, are classified as serious and organised criminals (CPS, 2017). A strategic framework set out in 2018 for serious and organised crime states 4 'P' work strands in order to target and disrupt these criminals. these are,

- Prevent people from getting involved in organised crime;
- Pursue and disrupt serious and organised criminals;
- Protect individuals, organisations and communities against serious and organised criminality and
- Prepare for when serious and organised crime occurs and mitigate its impact (HM Government, 2018).

This provides a unified strategy for all partners involved in combating severe and organised crime, from preventing crime to prosecuting criminals and assisting victims (HM Government, 2018). It is important to note that many perpetrators participating in this level of crime can also be victims of crime themselves as they have been deliberately targeted, recruited and exploited.

Word Count: 1079

Evidence based policing/criminology and crime prevention/criminal Justice

This essay will critically analyse the concept of evidence-based policing and 'what works' in policing evaluating crime prevention theories and strategies. It will finally consider the options open to help reduce re-offending.

Evidence based policing is a concept developed by Professor Lawrence Sherman in 1998. Sherman found that officers, supervisors, and command staff should not only be armed with the proper equipment, knowledge of the law, proper procedures, and defensive protection, but they should also be as knowledgeable about what tactics and strategies work best to combat crime so that they can make good decisions while patrolling or conducting investigations. Historically, police training has been primarily focused on procedures, the law, physical abilities, and the use of equipment. Police officers were hardly taught on the vast amount of knowledge regarding "what works" in crime control and prevention (Grieco, 2014).

Evidence-based policing also emphasises the importance of crime analysis in everyday police. By understanding how crime clusters geographically and temporally, as well as which environmental and situational elements might draw possibilities for crime, police can become more successful in tackling the unique crime, disorder, and traffic problems they encounter. The Police must use knowledge about what works to better their efforts in crime control, community relations, and internal management, as well as develop knowledge and analysis within their agencies to improve their capacity to prevent and decrease crime. As interest in evidence-based crime policy has developed, police scholars have made a variety of attempts to encourage its acceptance, including syntheses of research on police and crime reduction, with a focus on better methodological quality research (Grieco, 2014).

Analysts play an important part in evidence-based policing, which use the most advanced research methodologies to determine what works and what does not in policing. The Maryland scale denotes the several degrees of research that may be carried out to inform an assessment in which we want to know what influence our activity has had, for example, on reducing crime or reoffending. Level one is at the bottom of the scale which is one-off measure with no comparison site. Working up the scale to level 5 which is the gold standard with randomised control trials (College of Policing , 2013).

Van Dijk and Hoogewoning however argued that there is a risk of a narrow, instrumental and calculative emphasis on ‘what works’ accompanied by an over-valuation of random control trials which is detrimental to research and to the police because it does not appreciate the specific nature and culture of police work. Furthermore, it ignores the challenges that police organisations are currently facing (Van Dijk & Hoogewoning, 2015).

The Problem Analysis Triangle serves as a starting point for an officer to begin analysing a specific problem that is persistently happening within the area that they serve. The victim, the location, and the perpetrator are the three key areas of study in this theory. The answers are then identified by finding realistic methods to address the victim's safety through crime prevention or target hardening measures, providing surveillance or more patrols in the affected area, and targeting criminals to stop their disruptive actions. While some may regard this as a simple model, it does give a justification for responding to issues and gathering the information required to identify solutions. It necessitates analytical and objective thinking, which can serve as motivation for decision making (Bryant & Bryant, 2019).

Routine Activity theory developed by Felson (2002) follows preventative techniques which are; increase the effort (target hardening), increasing the risk (CCTV) and reducing the rewards (marking the property). Pease (2002) however adds a 4th heading which is reducing the excuses. Therefore,

making it harder for the offender to provide a valid rationale for why they have carried out certain acts and in the process making them feel ashamed for their actions. As this theory explains why crime is more prevalent for certain groups and why types of crime occurs more often, it fails to address the social aspects of committing a crime such as education and socio-economic status (Bryant & Bryant, 2019).

Furthermore, Eck and Spelman in 1987 produced the SARA method which advances the process by incorporating evaluation and review. This procedure entails a continuous re-evaluation of decisions with the goal of enhancing practise. These stages are as follows:

- Scanning is the process of identifying a problem or a crime.
- Analysis is the evaluation of available information about the conditions.
- Response: the approach used to cope with the occurrence
- Assessment is the process of reviewing and evaluating the impact or efficacy of a programme (Bryant & Bryant, 2019).

A strategy used in order to help reduce the opportunity for crime to occur a person could use the 10 principles of crime prevention. These are,

1. Target hardening in order to make a property harder for an offender to access. This can be achieved by enhancing locks on doors, windows or sheds or even by using secure passwords to prevent criminals accessing online accounts.
2. Ensuring that a potential target is out of view. for example, not leaving items in view through a window such as car keys or bags and being cautious about posting their location online.
3. Removing items that can help commit an offence by not leaving tools or ladders easily accessible to assist as a method of entry.

4. Reducing the profit the criminal can make by security marking up the property
5. Reducing access control by ensuring all doors and windows are locked
6. Improving surveillance around the property in order to deter criminals. This could be achieved by adding CCTV.
7. Ensuring the property and wider community looks cared for by ensuring domestic/commercial waste is cleared up and reporting issues such as broken street lights to the relevant authority.
8. Introducing a rule that the last person to enter/leave should lock the door and remove the keys.
9. Increase the likelihood that an offender will be caught by using security lighting, good quality CCTV and alarm systems.
10. Deterring an offender or deflecting their intention by using timer switches to make a property look occupied (West Yorkshire Police, n.d).

In order to help reduce re-offending forces should work in a partnership approach to help reduce re-offending. For example, a person could be a prolific shoplifter in order to help fund their drug addiction. By working with organisations such as the prison service, probation service and drug and alcohol services in order to help protect the public from further harm and address the causes for this re-offending behaviour they could reduce the risk of re-offending as they could have the support needed in order to beat their drug addiction (National Offender Management Service, 2015).

Furthermore, by using a restorative justice approach can help reduce reoffending as it holds a person accountable for their actions therefore seeing the impact that their actions had in order to prevent them from committing this offence again (National Offender Management Service, 2015).

Word Count: 1076

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