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1. Section 9 1 (a) of the Theft Act 1968 relates to the offensive of burglary with intent. What this means is that someone has entered property (or part of it) as a trespasser without lawful excuse, with the intent to steal something once inside the property. 9 1 (a) also applies to having the intent to commit grievous bodily harm once inside the property to anyone inside, or to commit criminal damage to anything once inside the property. This is different to 9 1 (b), as b relates to entering the property as a trespasser and then forming the intent once inside. This can also refer to aggravated burglary in which a person trespasses into a building or part of it with an offensive article, such as a weapon of offence, imitation firearm, firearm or explosive (WIFE) at the time of their entry into the building.
2. When arriving at the scene of a crime or incident, an officer should start by following the 'Golden Hour' principles and assess, protect and communicate. What this means is that upon arrival, officers should assess what is going on at the scene and perform an ongoing risk management to make sure themselves and others are safe. Then the next priority is to ensure the wellbeing of any victims/witnesses at the scene and attend to any pressing medical needs that there may be. Once wellbeing is ensured, the officers needs to secure any evidence and begin communicating with those at the scene. This involves ensuring any crowds are kept under control, informing the control room of what is happening and ensuring the incident is cordoned off. As well as this, the officer needs to communicate for any further resources they need to handle the incident.
3. 'The Golden Hour' is a period which is generally viewed as being the most crucial period for collecting evidence when it is fresh. This can refer to physical evidence or evidence taken from victims but during this initial period, evidence is less likely to slip away. Memory of victims and witnesses will be at its highest during this period, and physical evidence will have significantly less chance of becoming contaminated. Furthermore, there is a far greater chance of catching any suspects involved during the golden hour, due to the fact they may not have gotten far away from the scene. 'Golden Hour' is not specifically an hour in relation to time, but generally defines the initial period following an incident occurring and can even be considered to be the first few days after something has taken place.
4. Section 8 (1) of the Theft Act 1968 refers to the offence of robbery. Robbery is the act of theft with the addition of force being applied. What this means, is that in order to carry out a robbery, a person either immediately before or during the robbery applies unlawful force to another in order to carry out the act of theft. Or, it can also mean that they seek or mean to put fear into someone to make them apprehend immediate and unlawful force being applied to themselves.
5. Discrimination is defined as judging or treating someone differently because of a particular characteristic, such as race, gender, ethnicity or age. Discrimination can be influenced by a variety of factors with one of the most common being unconscious bias. The difference between discrimination and discretion is that discretion is when an officer applies their own judgement to a situation. For example, while theft is a crime, an officer might use their

discretion to decide that stealing a loaf of bread is not a serious crime and instead simply ask the person to return the item and apologise for their actions. To avoid discretion being seen as discrimination, officers need to use the National Decision Model in all cases to justify what they are doing and apply the treatment fairly to all.

6. A constable has power under S. 24 PACE 1984 to arrest someone when a statutory offence has been committed. For this to take place, the constable needs to have reasonable grounds for believing that a person has just committed a crime, is in the process of committing a crime or is about to commit a crime. In all cases, basing this arrest on the fact that someone has previous convictions will not be enough and neither will simply having a 'hunch'. The officer needs to make sure the arrest is Justified, proportionate, legal, accountable and ethical, as well as being decided through the use of NDM that it is to be the best possible outcome.
7. In relation to S. 24 PACE 1984, the code of practice that covers statutory powers of arrest is PACE Code A, the necessary criteria for making an arrest is that it is not appropriate to arrange for a voluntary interview at a later date. One of the reasons for this is that it may be necessary to arrest to allow for a prompt and effective investigation, for example, if not arrested they may alert co-conspirators. Another would be to prevent the disappearance of the suspect, if it is feasible they may attempt to flee the country. To protect any children or vulnerable person would be another key necessity for arrest, as well to prevent any obstructions to any highways. Preventing the person from injuring themselves or others is another crucial criteria for arrest as well as needing to prevent from committing acts of public indecency or obscenities. Finally, the other key necessities would be to prevent any loss or damage to property, or to ascertain the suspect's name or address if they refuse to provide them to an officer.
8. In relation to using force during arrests, officers can rely on four main pieces of legislation in relation to the use of force. The first of these is based on common law, which stipulates that a person may use reasonable force to defend themselves from attack, to defend property and to pre-emptively use force to defend themselves. The second piece of law is S. 117 of PACE 1984 which allows the use of reasonable force when carrying out any arrest under a PACE power. The third is S. 3 of the Criminal Law Act 1967, which allows for use of reasonable force in the arresting of crimes that do not fall under PACE. Finally, the other piece of legislation usable in relation to force is S. 78 of the Immigration and Criminal Justice Act 2008 which allows for the use of force in detention of illegal immigrants and other activities.
9. When making an arrest, the suspect needs to be informed that they are being placed under arrest at that time as well as being read the 'when questioned' caution. They need to be informed of their right to remain silent, but need to be informed that anything that do say may be given as evidence and used against them in court. They also need to be informed of the necessity for the arrest and for NICHE purposes, the time of arrest also needs to be noted.
10. The National Decision Model (NDM) is key to all decision making in the work of a police officer. It always allows them to make rationale, proportionate decisions that are ethical, legal, justifiable and accountable when they are asked to explain their reasoning. The NDM

is comprised of six key elements, the first being the Code of Ethics, which encompasses everything in the NDM and of which everything relates back to. All decisions must be made in line with the police Code of Ethics in mind. The next crucial element is information gathering, this is key because it enables for the efficient gathering of information which can then be used to inform the decision making process. Next is the step of making an assessment based on this information and coming up with a working strategy for moving forward. The next step of the NDM is to consider your powers and legal options, considering what legislation is there to allow you to do your work. Once this is considered, options and contingencies should be considered, options are important but equally as contingencies as they allow for compromises should difficult situations be encountered. Finally, the officer needs to take action based on these steps and then afterwards, review what has happened as well as what went well and what went wrong. The NDM should constantly be in motion in the mind to allow for a changing plan in line with a rapidly changing situation.

11. S. 17 of PACE 1984 relates to an officer's power of entry. This power allows for the entry of an officer in or out of uniform for the purpose to save life or limb. For an officer to enforce this power, they only need reasonable suspicion that someone's life or limb is in danger within a property. Furthermore, the power can also be used by an officer to enter a property to arrest someone for an indictable offence such as rape or murder; S. 17 cannot be used for entry for summary only offences such as minor theft. Finally, the officer can also enforce S. 17 PACE to allow for the recapturing of a suspect who has escaped from police custody, this may happen when preparing to place a suspect into the back of a van and they manage to evade officers; S. 17 PACE applies to private places not just public.

12. When a person is charged with dishonesty, a jury would be apply an objective test to examine whether they would deem the action as dishonest based on what a normal person would do when placed into the scenario. In the past, the piece of case law, R V Ghosh (1977) was used to highlight the example of dishonesty, however, in modern times the piece of case law, Ivey V Genting Casinos is used instead. This is because it asks the jury to be more objective as the definition of what is dishonest can vary from person to person based on their perception of dishonesty. The jury would need to examine whether the mens reus, what someone intends, is dishonest; for example, someone borrowing some of their neighbour's milk would not be considered dishonest by most. This would be because the element of believing the person would consent applies, if this aspect is feasible, then it cannot be argued they were dishonest in their intent. This also applies to the actus reus, their actions, if this can be said to be honest in the eyes of an objective person, then this is something the jury would also need to consider.

13. When grading the level of police response to an incident the call handlers will consider a number of factors that go into determining the police response to an incident. One of the first factors they will consider is the severity of the situation, for example, a minor shop lifting by a youth will require a significantly reduced police presence when compared to a seasoned ex-bodybuilder beating up random police in the centre of town. They will also consider where the incident is, for example if the incident is taking place near or at a school, it may become necessary to get a larger police response more quickly to prevent the incident from spilling over into the school grounds. The call handlers will also consider the numerous risk factors of the situation including, the age of the suspect, build, height, skill

set, if there are environmental hazards, has the suspect got previous, are officers already on scene. Furthermore, in relation to incidents that may involve other emergency services such as RTCs, the call handlers may employ the METHANE model of dealing with an incident. This model allows call handlers to effectively gauge what police resources are necessary to assist in the resolution of an incident and take account of what other emergency services are available and how many people are injured. This will also allow them to make judgement calls on whether specialist police units such as firearms, dogs or helicopters may be necessary to secure the scene, assist in life saving or to track down suspects.

14. Vulnerable is defined as someone that cannot meet some or all of their normal needs in life. This inability to meet their needs would leave them susceptible to risk and could lead to people taking advantage or persecuting them. Some of these vulnerabilities include aspects like age, physical state, mental state, disabilities, pregnant women, those with social issues as well as those in financial vulnerability where they may be at risk of blackmail.
15. According to the Anti-social Behaviour, Crime and Policing Act 2014, anti-social behaviour is defined as being behaviour that causes nuisance, harassment or discomfort to the surrounding community and people within it. These behaviours can fall into numerous categories, one of which would be environmental ASB, which includes acts such as dog fouling, graffiti and low level vandalism. Another would be misuse of public spaces, this would include things like violating Public Spaces Protection Orders (PSPOs) in relation to no drinking, no ball games or dog areas such as those found at the beach. Other various forms of ASB would include drug use in public spaces, not controlling dangerous dogs, harassment of people in the area and people generally engaging in nuisance behaviour. These behaviours are typically known as signal crimes, and give the impression to the community that crime in general is on the up and that the police are not doing enough to combat it. ASB generally does not involve significant crimes but can escalate into them, repeat incidents of ASB can escalate into cases as seen with Fiona Pilkington and her daughter.
16. A S. 35 Dispersal Order can be authorised by a superintendent, although it can be authorised by an inspector if there is a rush. This power allows for the ordering of a group or individual to move away from an area for 24 hours, this can then be extended up to 48 hours by further authorisation from a superintendent. While this can be used to exclude anyone from an area, it would typically be used for a select group of people or individual and forces them to stay away. This would typically be enforced if there had been significant reports of vandalism or drug taking in an area on a given evening and allows the chance for the police to break up the activities without the need for mass arresting for what could be potentially low level crimes. To break this dispersal order is a criminal offence and arrests can then be enforced, therefore, it acts as a strong deterrent to ASB in an area and would be categorised as an enhanced power.
17. Routine Activity Theory (RAT) is a problem solving similar to the Problem Analysis Triangle (PAT). Both models seek to try and identify the sources of problems and come up with actionable strategies for minimising or eliminating the sources of problems. These models move away from traditional methods of police, which used to heavily rely on just dealing with the crimes that arose from problems rather than actually trying to solve the source of the problems.

themselves. The RAT and PAT analysis methods allow officers to take the information they know and combine with other pieces of information that come into play. This greater emphasis on analysis and problem solving allows the police to better tackle issues before they develop into full scale crime. Sometimes, these issues may be as simple as identifying hot spots for ASB and putting PSPOs into place to prevent them.

18. Evidence Based Policing (EBP) is a method of problem solving that relies on the use of analysis and evidence to better inform police decisions as well as to allow officers to learn from the success and failures of previous incidents. EBP focuses on looking at the best possible practices for dealing with incidents and then teaching officers how to apply this to their own working styles. While the best possible practice is the ultimate gold standard, it is acknowledged that this style of problem solving will not always be possible due to various constraints. Instead, officers need to use EBP to influence their problem solving approach and aim for the best possible practice, but also to learn from the shortcomings in what they did and what the positives were as well.

By doing so, officers can use the previous research and experience from other forces and the College of Police, to enable them to carry out their work and problem solving to a higher standard. For example, officers may see evidence of how other officers have approached a problem in the past, instead of doing things their own way, they can implement this working style and then highlight the relevant strengths and weaknesses of themselves as they are going along. This allows for better development of officers in their career as it allows them to continually progress their development, as well as allowing for a flexible working style.

19. There are various different problem solving models that can be used by police officers to help them analyse and solve crimes. One of these models that can be implemented is Partnership Orientated Problem Solving (POPS), which relies heavily on working with partner agencies to help address various crimes such as ASB, domestic violence, gang crime, terrorism as well as other. The POPS model allows for better pooling of resources both within various police organisations and forces, as well as with civilian agencies such as the council, refuge and victim support. The POPS model seeks to use the combined knowledge of various agencies and focus them onto common problems. For example, working with a partner agency such as the council, the police may be able to crack crimes relating to repeat vandalism as the council have access to a wide variety of resources such as CCTV, witnesses and staff that can assist in pushing a police investigation along. Furthermore, working with other police forces can be useful when examining problems such as county lines drug dealing. In this instance, it may be vital to work with another neighbouring police force to identify key targets with an OCG and to use both force's resources to help bring them to justice.

In terms of other problem-solving models, some other models include the PAT and RAT triangles. These models allow police to examine the key factors in crimes and establish where the problems are originating, who is involved and how they are transpiring. By using these problem analysis triangles it may become clearer how these crimes fit into larger ongoing cases and therefore help to bring crime down overall. The Problem Orientated Problem Solving model is also another key model employed by police to help them resolve crimes. The model allows police to look at what the source of the problem is in a similar way that the PAT and RAT triangles allow. By examining the source problems, police can also learn how to better tackle

these issues in future and possibly make recommendations to the local community on how to better tackle these problems.

One of the key things the police could recommend is that people in the local community could look to adhere to the 10 principles of crime prevention to help reduce crime. While these do not help the police solve crime, it does help reduce them in the first place. Some of these measures are target hardening, target removal, increasing risk of reward, surveillance, limiting access and greater community engagement.

EBP is also another problem solving approach that can be employed by the police, in that it can help the police to use information and intelligence to help them better understand crimes, as well as helping them to be better at solving them. The effective use of evidence can ensure police do not waste time on strategies that will have limited or no usefulness in the application of solving crime. This benefit will allow for more efficient and effective police resource management in relation to crime solving. When combined with working with partner agencies, this will ensure that the police have the most resources on hand to deal with a wide variety of crimes.

20. ASB is often associated with low-level nuisance crime, however, sometimes ASB can become persistent and targeted; in these cases, there is the potential for a case of ASB to become a 'critical incident' which ends up with loss of life or serious harm. A critical incident would be defined as something that is either about to escalate or has already escalated from ASB into more serious crimes, some examples of this would include the Fiona Pilkington case where a woman and her daughter were subjected to repeat ASB until it pushed them to take their own lives. Another similar case occurred in London, where a man was subjected to ASB until it became a critical incident and his neighbour killed him after months of ASB via harassment. Both of these incidents could have been avoided had they been recognised they were turning into critical incidents by police. A person of inspector authority can typically declare an incident as critical, but it should be done at a time before things escalate to help preserve life and limb. Some of the key warning signs are repeat calls by a particular group, person or family within a short timeframe of a few months complaining about repeated and targeted ASB behaviour against them. Early police intervention can be the difference between resolving these cases and letting them become critical incidents; this is especially true for those that would be considered vulnerable.

21. S. 1 of PACE 1984 relates to the power of stop and search, before PACE was introduced, the stop and search powers were commonly known as the 'suss laws'. S. 1 defines that for a constable to detain someone for the purposes of a search, they must have met a threshold of criteria. This criteria stipulates that a constable must have reasonable grounds to believe that the person they intend to stop has on their person an offensive article such as a flick knife, or an item relating to an offence such as shoplifting like a stolen four pack of alcohol. As well as this, the constable must also believe that another person when presented with the same information and the same context would come to the same conclusion and deem it reasonable that the item they are searching for would be found on this person.

Both of these criteria are essential to S. 1 PACE as stop and search infringes on a person's right to liberty as stipulated under Article 5 of the Human Rights Act 1998. If there is not reasonable grounds to believe, the constable cannot use S. 1 PACE to carry out the search as it will be deemed as unlawful. Should these criteria not be met and a constable is unsure, they may approach the person and engage them in conversation and ask them basic questions about

what they are doing. Based on their behaviour or attitude, for example, sweating and not answering questions sufficiently, the constable may then deem as adding to the reasonable grounds to believe and therefore it may then meet the threshold to stop and search them. The other key pieces of legislation for stop and search are S. 60 of PACE and S. 23 Misuse of Drugs Act.

22. Prior to carrying out a search on someone under either S. 1 or S. 60 of PACE, or S. 23 Misuse of Drugs Act, the person being detained must be informed of some key information beforehand to make the search lawful. If this information is not given, the search will be unlawful and any use of force under S. 117 will also be deemed unlawful and classed as assault. The first thing that a person should be informed of is 'You are being detained for the purposes of a search', this clearly informs the person that they are then detained; at this stage, the officer should inform them they are not under arrest at that time but they will not be free to go until the search has been completed. Next, the officer should clearly state the article they are searching for by carrying out the search such as a knife or drugs, and inform the detainee of why they believe they have the article on them. The officer should then inform the detainee of their collar number as well as showing them their warrant card, especially if not in uniform, and clearly state which station they operate from. The detainee then needs to be informed of what legal power they are being searched under, whether it be S. 1, S. 60 of PACE or S. 23 Misuse of Drugs Act and the appropriate use of force legislation for carrying out the search such as S. 117 of PACE. Finally, the detainee needs to be informed of the fact they are entitled to a copy of the search for up to three months following on from the stop and search, a receipt will be given to them which then can then take to the corresponding station for them to collect a copy of the record. This information does not have to be given in any order but ideally, tell them you are detained at the start of the search so they do not misinterpret it as being optional.

23. The 'Best Use of Stop and Search Scheme' (BUSSS) was brought in back in 2014 by then home secretary Theresa May. The overall aim of the scheme was to improve public trust in police and increase transparency in their actions when carrying out searches. The main aims of the scheme were to make the process of stop and search fairer and to eliminate searches being carried out on preconceived ideas that some officers may have. Up until that point, there had been many accusations that the police, especially the Met, were heavy handed in their use of stop and search, and that its use was primarily targeted against minority communities. One of the other key aims of the scheme was to make the police more accountable in their use of stop and search, by ensuring that it was only being used in the best interests of the public. The scheme also recommended that the approval for a S. 60 PACE blanket stop and search, should be given by a superintendent as opposed to an inspector, something which Gwent Police now employs. Finally, the other main aim of the scheme was to ensure that officers meet a threshold for reasonable grounds to believe someone had a prohibited article on them, this ensures that the public do not see the use of stop and search as heavy handed, as it is being carried out with a key policing task in mind.

24. The National Intelligence (NIM) is a key framework within police work that places great emphasis on intelligence and information in the effort to reduce crime and disorder. The NIM framework is primarily composed of three layers of intelligence distribution, the top level of these framework is the national intelligence agencies within policing such as the National Crime Agency. At this level, intelligence is disseminated based on the more serious

national and international crimes, this allows for more discreet information sharing as well as more efficient resource pooling based on the level of response needed to tackle something. For example, a force investigating national wide carjacking operations would not have the necessary intelligence or resources needed to tackle crimes of this scale, therefore, they would work in tandem with agencies such as the NCA to help solve the crimes. One level down from this would be the force and regional levels of intelligence bureaux. In Gwent, this would typically be handled by the Force Intelligence Bureau (FIB), which would look at crimes taking place across a regional level rather than using resources necessary for national crimes. Finally, there would be the local level of intelligence which would come down to individual local officers within an area or station, at this level, the focus would be on much more local crimes within a much geographical area such as a specific town where a number of shoplifting offences are taking place. The NIM ensures that the most appropriate resources are devoted to the right intelligence level.

25. With regards to ethical gathering, storing, usage and dissemination of information the Management of Police Intelligence (MOPI) guidelines would govern these areas. MOPI was set up following the Ian Huntley murders in the late 1990s which saw a crucial breakdown in the way that information was shared among police forces and partner agencies. Following this, MOPI stipulated that police forces needed to share appropriate information with each other to help prevent crimes from reoccurring or happening in the first place. Furthermore, MOPI also stipulated that the police had a duty to inform relevant partner agencies such as schools and councils of issues that could lead to preventing crime or mitigating bad outcomes. For example, in the Ian Huntley case, the school could have easily found out that Mr Huntley had previous records in relation to touching a child which should have shown up on his DBS check had police information been shared more effectively and efficiently. The 3x5x2 framework also helps to establish how reliable information is, how it has come to be known and who it should be disseminated to. This in combination with MOPI guidelines, helps to direct police how the information they come by should be shared. For example, a highly classified piece of information relating to an OCG should not be shared with ordinary beat officers as it does not concern them and could then jeopardise the ongoing investigation through unnecessary sharing.