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THE INVESTIGATION OF CRIME

THE MYTHS AND THE REALITY

John Brian Morgan

Doctor of Philosophy

THE UNIVERSITY OF ASTON IN BIRMINGHAM

September 1988

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Initially the study focussed on the factors affecting the ability of the police to solve crimes. An analysis of over twenty thousand police deployments revealed the proportion of time spent investigating crime contrasted to its perceived importance and the time spent on other activities.

The fictional portrayal of skills believed important in successful crime investigation were identified and compared to the professional training and 'taught skills' given to police and detectives. Police practitioners and middle management provided views on the skills needed to solve crimes.

The relative importance of the forensic science role, fingerprint examination and interrogation skills were contrasted with changes in police methods resulting from the Police and Criminal Evidence Act and its effect on confessions.

The study revealed that existing police systems for investigating crime excluding specifically cases of murder and other serious offences, were unsystematic, uncoordinated, unsupervised and unproductive in using police resources. The study examined relevant and contemporary research in the United States and United Kingdom and with organisational support introduced an experimental system of data capture and initial investigation with features of case screening and management. Preliminary results indicated increases in the collection of essential information and more effective use of investigative resources.

In the managerial framework within which this study has been conducted, research has been undertaken in the knowledge elicitation area as a basis for an expert system of crime investigation, and the potential organisational benefits of utilising the Lap computer in the first stages of data gathering and investigation.

The conclusions demonstrate the need for a totally integrated system of criminal investigation with emphasis on an organisational rather than individual response. In some areas the evidence produced is sufficient to warrant replication, in others additional research is needed to further explore other concepts and proposed systems pioneered by this study.

Police Management

Investigation of crime

Detective skills

Knowledge elicitation

Case screening

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CHAPTER 1

THE POLICE FUNCTION AND THE INVESTIGATION OF CRIME

"The average citizen thinks of the police as an organisation primarily concerned with preventing crime and catching criminals. When crime increases or criminals go uncaught, the conventional public response is to demand more or better policemen. When the crime rate is solved, the police often get, or at least try to take the credit." Wilson (1975).

As will be discussed in a later chapter, one of the provisions of the Police Act of 1964 was the requirement of every Chief Officer of Police to provide the Home Office with an annual statistical return of all crimes recorded in that police area, this includes a sub division by type of crime and the percentage of crimes so recorded that have been categorised as 'cleared up'. To be officially recorded as 'cleared up' does not necessarily mean that an offender has been arrested and convicted of that particular crime, although this is the case in the majority of crimes 'cleared up'. The notes of guidance in relation to the police preparation of criminal statistics issued to Police Forces allow, in addition to the normal category of conviction, instances where the person charged with a criminal offence is acquitted, and a person who has been a suspect against whom there is considerable evidence dies, or when no useful purpose would be served in proceeding with the charge. (Home Office Instructions to Police 1971).

It is therefore not surprising that with this annual statistical emphasis on the criminal aspect of police work, the volume of recorded crime and the percentage of that crime which is classified as 'cleared up', tend to be viewed by police and public alike as a measure of police effectiveness. If, for example, recorded crime collectively or by specific categories is shown to have risen whilst detection levels are shown to have fallen, a typical media comment would be 'Police losing the battle against crime'. Conversely, if such comparisons tend to show an increased detection figure or the amount of recorded crime collectively or by categories is less than the last year's figure, it is not unknown for chief officers to publicise this fact as some indicator of increased police efficiency.

A number of research studies in the United States and in the United Kingdom (Martin and Wilson 1969, Punch and Naylor 1973, Comrie and King 1975 in the U.K., and Barcal 1970, Wilson 1968, Westley 1970, Reiss 1971, Kelling *et al* 1974 in the U.S.) have generally shown that a large proportion of police work is concerned with matters more social than criminal and the author's own findings in connection with this research of over twenty thousand police deployments generally supports these previous research findings.

The work of Michael Banton (1964) in the sixties postulated the concept of the duty of police as being concerned with a social welfare role in addition to the role of the prevention and detection of crime. Banton also examined the balance between the legal and service roles of the police and concluded that the character of policing in Britain was based on an amalgam of such roles.

Punch and Naylor in their article "The Police: a Social Service" describe how police respond to calls from the public on a wide variety of issues not connected with crime. They also give an indication of possible reasons why the public want the police to undertake a wider social/welfare role. Punch and Naylor analysed 181 calls over a two week period received by police from members of the public in three small towns whose population ranged from 41,000 to 66,000. The study divided the calls received into two main categories, namely 'law enforcement' and 'service'. The 'law enforcement' category included all reported crime, breaches of traffic regulations and calls pertaining to suspicious circumstances. The 'service' category included domestic disturbances such as family disputes and personal problems, nuisances, illness both mental and physical, missing persons and cases of found property. Analysis of all calls revealed findings of 59% defined as service and 41% defined as law enforcement.

In the composition of the service calls domestic occurrences were the largest category and subsequent interviewing of those who had called the police revealed that availability and certainty of response was the dominant reason given for calling the police. A similar study in the United States by Cumming and others (1965) entitled "Policeman as Philosopher, Guide and Friend", showed that although the social/welfare aspect of police work was extremely significant in respect of the total volume

of police work, it was often officially minimised by officials and dismissed by many police personnel as not 'real police work'. In a similar vein the significant work of Albert Reiss (1971) also in the United States, in a study of over five thousand deployments in which 87% were initiated by calls from the public, found that 80% were defined by the police as being in connection with 'non criminal' matters.

A study of deployments in one police division of the Devon and Cornwall Constabulary by the author revealed supporting evidence but more complex patterns. The analysis of police deployments to incidents was based on a detailed examination and analysis of over twenty thousand deployments or mobilisations of police resources by members of the public over a twelve month period for the 'C' Division area in North Devon. 'C' Division covers a land area of 1067.8 acres, a population of 152,856 and with some 202 uniformed police and 32 detective officers

Table 1.1
Source of Origin of calls to Police

Received via 999 system	2,900
Received via telephone	12,698
Personal caller to police station	1,030
Police initiated	3,455
Alarms	196
Other	190
Total	20,469

Table 1.2
Overall Pattern of Police Deployments

Crime	7,200	35.18%
Service	6,752	32.99%
Disorder	3,709	18.12%
Traffic	2,808	13.71%
Total	20,469	100.00%

Overwhelmingly the deployments of the initial police response were as a result of a telephone call by the emergency '999' system or normal listed number from a member of the public. The categorisation is taken from the grading of that initial call. Each deployment is recorded on a computer where a program analyses the content of each message and allocates it to one of the categories created by the author in a previous research study (Morgan 1980).

In the total figure of 20,469 incidents, forty three different categories were identified. (Including the category of 'other' where the incident does not readily fall into one of the other forty two categories).

A further division was necessary for police management purposes in order to be able to establish the relative frequency of demand on general and specialist police functions and departments within the overall organisational framework of a police command area. Similarly from a management perspective, information from studies of this kind underline the need for more accurate groupings other than the basic division between the 'law enforcement' and 'service' roles. To that end, four general groupings were derived from the forty two specific categories. The four main groupings were classified as Crime, Service, Disorder and Traffic, and are shown in Tables 1.3 and 1.4

Table 1.3

C DIV INCIDENTS 1987

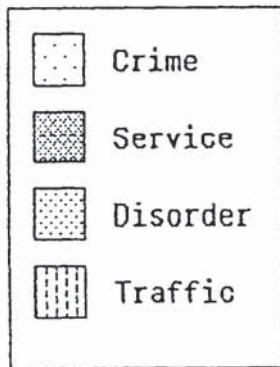
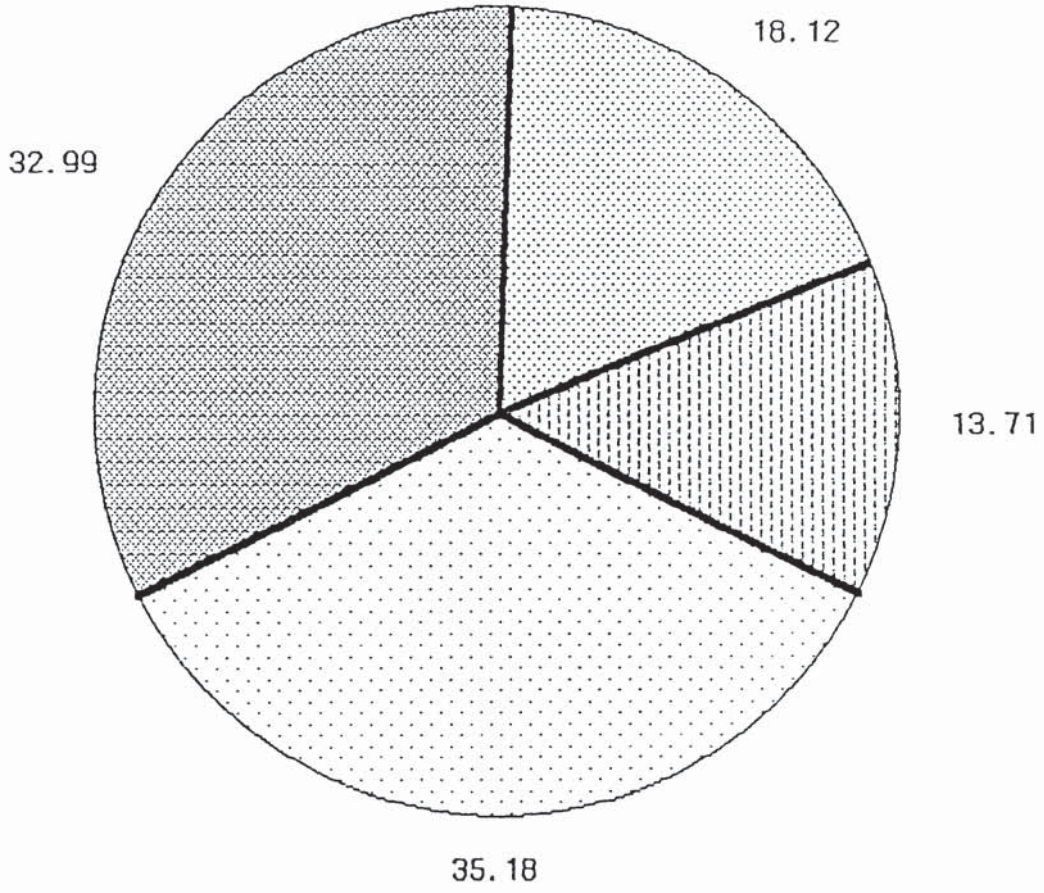
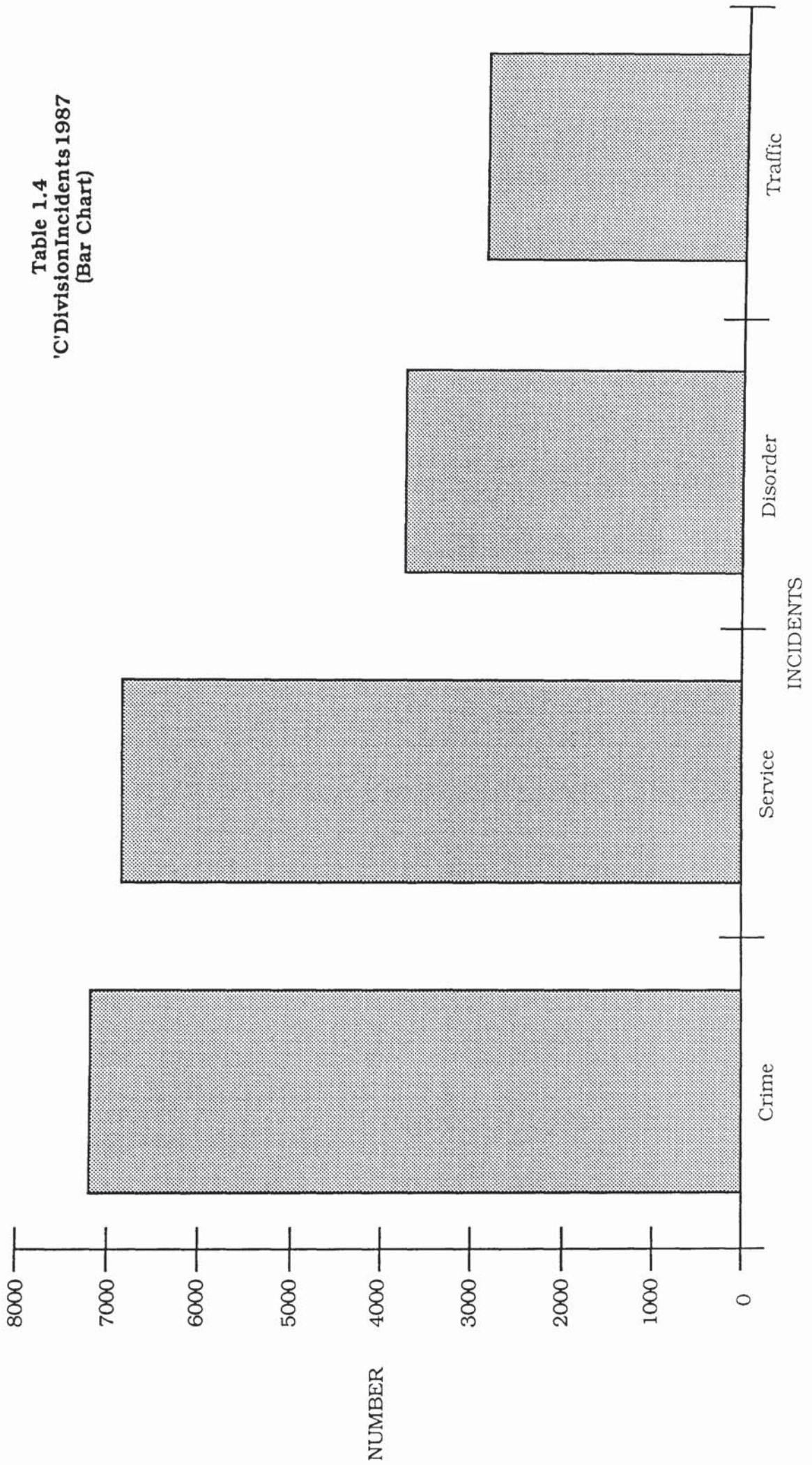


Table 1.4
'C'Division Incidents 1987
(Bar Chart)



In Table 1.5, below, the following sub divisions of the four main groups can be seen, together with the total deployments and percentage contribution to the total number of deployments.

Table 1.5
Breakdown of the four main groups
showing component categories

Crime	
Damage/Vandalism	797
Assaults	286
Burglary (dwelling)	613
Burglary other	799
Indecency/Sexual offences	52
Taking a conveyance (motor cars)	321
Theft from a conveyance (motor car)	1140
Theft generally	1741
Crime (other)	1451
Total	7,200

Service	
Domestic	710
Alarm	1164
Lost/Found property	127
Death/Illness	588
Mental Health	96
Livestock/Straying/Worrying	666
Missing Person/Absentee/Absconder	463
Insecure/Unoccupied premises	103
Fires	491
Maritime matters	22
Floods/fallen trees	64
Aeronautical matters	10

Service /Cont'd ..	
Non urgent messages	113
Urgent messages	130
Household problems	20
Beach incidents	10
Other	1536
Total	6752

Disorder	
Firearms/Shotgun/Poaching	120
Public Disorder	460
Drunkenness	284
Suspicious conduct	1578
Explosives/Fireworks	65
Nuisance complaints	1202
Total	3709

Traffic	
Road Traffic Accident	1552
Suspicious vehicle	282
vehicle obstruction/breakdown	657
Traffic offences	243
Non Road Traffic incidents/accidents	74
Traffic	2808

Although crime was found to be the largest single category (35.18%), this was followed closely by the service element (32.99%). If we add the crime and traffic components together and the service and disorder groupings together we arrive at a figure of 48.89% for law enforcement and 51.11% for service which generally equates to the Punch and Naylor findings, but the comparison is with 181 calls over two weeks with over 20,000 over a twelve month period.

The figures, categories and groupings so obtained represent the range and scope of matters which the public call upon the police to perform. The sample is not biased by seasonal fluctuations. (It may be however that some completely rural or urban areas might deviate from this pattern). In the crime category the predominance of cases of thefts from motor vehicles is the highest level of individual crime category (some 1140 cases or 15.5% of the crime group total). This figure follows generally the national predominance of this category of crime in comparison to other categories.

In the service category the high figure of 666 for livestock/worrying/straying incidents (just over 10%) reflects the strong rural character of the Police area surveyed in North Devon with only one major population centre of Barnstaple and a high incidence of animal ownership across the socio/economic spectrum. Similarly beach incidents, maritime matters and aeronautical matters reflect the geographical location and the major Royal Air Force advanced flying training establishment.

In the disorder group of incidents the fairly high incidence of firearms/shotgun/poaching categories reflect the high level of shotgun ownership, with the Force area having the highest level in the country of some 50,477 shotgun licence holders. The high categories of suspicious conduct and nuisance complaints again reflect a community norm to involve the police, and indeed expect police involvement in cases of concern or disagreement. In many localities the local police officer is seen and used as a form of honest broker in dealing with disputes concerning behaviour and even property ownership.

In the main group covered by the nomenclature of traffic, road traffic accidents are by far the most significant single category comprising 55.27% of the group. The high figure of 657 police responses to vehicle obstruction and breakdown again reflects the

isolated character of much of the police area and the high incidence of tourism in the summer months.

The style and character of a police force will, to a large extent, affect the relationship with the public, especially if the police function is generally seen as one of care and service to a community.

The diversity of the police role, especially in England and Wales, stems historically from the concept of a citizen based organisation, locally administered with pre-eminence in a wide variety of law enforcement functions. In the author's own experience legitimate police functions have included a multifarious 'pot pourri' of social and criminally related activity. The laws and customs which generally govern social behaviour and practice are in England and Wales, unlike other countries, administered by one agency, i.e. the police who possess local and national powers of enforcement and prosecution, and are accepted as having a legitimate mandate to concern themselves with as wide a range of issues as there are varieties and complexities of human behaviour.

In spite of attempts to focus police interest and attention on matters which many commentators and the police themselves would consider the main priority tasks of police, namely preventing and detecting crime, in the absence of other appointed organisations the police have to respond to requests across this wide variety of public demand. Cruelty to children, cruelty to animals together with the attendant enforcement of legislation still clearly falls to police, in spite of the establishment of social services and other specialised agencies. Licensing laws, gaming laws, even laws governing the opening and sale of items in shops. The ever growing need to control the acquisition of shotguns and firearms now occupies a considerable element of police time both in the administration and the physical inspection of licensed premises. Diseases of animals and restriction orders together with livestock movement again falls to be supervised by police. Lost dogs, lost property, mental health, illness, homelessness, harassment, eviction, are examples of police involvement in matters that arguably should be administered elsewhere.

In the context of this study this introductory chapter highlights the vast amount

of disparate demand and function that the general public in England and Wales expect and demand from the police. The forty two categories used in this preliminary study could have been expanded to include a greater number, because the criterion of a minimum of ten incidents per category was established.

The police of course operate a twenty four hour service, seven days a week, for three hundred and sixty five days of the year. The public have free and reasonable accessible communication link to police resources via the emergency 999 telephone system. The growth of telephone ownership generally has again contributed to the ease by which members of the public can request and in many cases demand police attention and presence. Ease of communication and a willingness, and arguably a duty to respond to requests from the public, has become a significant characteristic of modern police work both here and in the United States of America, Reiss (1971).

It is against this backcloth of wide ranging public demand and a considerable proliferation and diversification of legal and social functions that this study is set. The police management problem is complex and in some ways the solutions unattainable without some form of reduction in some areas of resource deployment or a change of present practices. If the public and the police themselves want police to define their major task as preventing and detecting crime, will the public accept the non attendance of police for all the other non-criminal functions they wish the police to perform?

However, rather than have to make invidious choices, there is a need to look at ways in which better use can be made of the resources. Since it is the detection of crime which concerns both the police and public, it is in this area that a radical rethinking of the nature of the task needs to be undertaken. Essentially the question posed is "How do detectives solve crimes and what can be done to improve performance?" This study is essentially concerned with practitioner based research and through research attempting to solve management problems. It will be seen in later chapters how the recording and investigation of crime has become unco-ordinated, unsystematic, resulting in the collection of so little information that attempts at analysis, management information and prediction from that information are meaningless. Similarly it will be shown that information gathered at the scene of a crime and the

quality of such information are a crucial determinant in the successful detection of crime and in the optimum utilisation of police resources in the subsequent investigations.

Above all else the management of relatively scarce police resources set against an ever increasing public demand for a wide variety of police services and a similar increase in recorded crime levels means a managerial challenge that needs to examine basic functions rather than a reliance on organisational folklore, custom and myth.

CHAPTER 2

PUBLIC PERCEPTION OF THE SKILLS AND FUNCTIONS OF DETECTIVES

"Newspapers, magazines, radio, television, movies and drama perpetuate the idea that the police are a body of men engaged in the exciting, dangerous and competitive enterprise of apprehending criminals. Emphasis on this one aspect of police functioning has led to a tendency on the part of both the public and the police to underestimate the range and complexity of the total police task". (Presidents Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice 1967).

If this comment was valid in the United States of America some twenty years ago how much more relevant is it today in the households of the United States and the United Kingdom dominated by almost universal ownership of television with its stable diet of cops and robbers.

The police are of course not immune to the perpetuation of their fictional and dramatised image. Whilst pipes and deerstalkers may not abound in the corridors of the Metropolitan Police Detective Training School, a few years ago one could find numerous look, dress and sound alike of Detective Inspector Jack Reegan and his faithful Sergeant George Carter of 'Sweeney' fame.

As contemporary commentators have remarked, "It is difficult to avoid romanticising about police work. The thrill of the chase as described is quite compelling. Anyone who has spent any time enjoying the intimacy of police officers will have heard of such stories and many more dramatic, though probably apocryphal, tales of 'real police work', brilliant detective work and the eventual triumph of law and order. Of course such tales are usually the stuff of fiction and one does not have to watch television for very long to be presented with a police drama which will reaffirm this image of the police as avenging blue angels." Cumberbatch and Morgan (1983).

Even within the police service armed with the knowledge and first hand understanding of the wide and complex variety of tasks that police are required and requested to perform the 'cultural' adherence remains to crime and the investigation

as paramount functions. Many studies over the last decade in particular those of Reiss and Greenwood (1976) in the United States and Banton (1964), Punch and Naylor (1973) and Cain (1973) in the United Kingdom have clearly demonstrated and emphasised the dominance of the social welfare aspect of the total police function in comparison with the time devoted to criminal activity. The detailed study in the previous chapter as previously stated reinforces and supports their general findings.

Nevertheless an important element in the police perception of their role, is in the process of governmental scrutiny of the police function. In England and Wales Central Government provides 51% of police expenditure, the remainder of the money being contributed by Police Authorities who comprise two thirds elected local politicians, i.e. County Councillors deputed by their Councils to sit on police committees and one third non-elected magistrates chosen by their own county organisations.

Each force receives an annual inspection by one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Constabulary (usually a former Chief Constable) and having certified to the Home Secretary that the force is efficient and well run the Central Government grant of 51% is paid. The local authority contribution is devised from the rates revenue which itself is subject to a Central Government Rate Support Grant. In essence therefore Central Government directly and indirectly contributes approximately 65% of all police expenditure, which explains the function of the Home Office in determining the national character of general police and detective training discussed in later chapters.

Apart from the ongoing inspectorate scrutiny of individual forces except the Metropolitan Police, the only national scrutiny or comment on the police service generally is the publication of the annual Home Office Statistics on Crime for England and Wales (HMSO).

The publication of the annual statistics which will be described in detail later have therefore become arguably the basic, and to many such as the media, the only generally known indicator of police performance.

It is therefore not surprising that the annual publication of Home Office Criminal Statistics has tended to become viewed by commentators inside and outside the police service as some kind of measure of police effectiveness.

With the police themselves almost volunteering to be publicly judged on elements of their work that by the most generous margin have been conclusively proved to be less than half of the total police output, it is not surprising that a considerable body of powerful opinion within the service sees the publicity of successfully solved high profile cases as a major influence on the public perception of the police function overall.

It is interesting to note that at the time of writing a new television format has emerged which encapsulates the high drama, and creation of revulsion so beloved of the fictional portrayers of crime and police, and applies this formula to real life, undetected cases. The programme 'Crime Watch' (BBC) uses all the skills of drama production to reconstruct details and circumstances of crimes that have actually occurred and are under investigation.

A team of presenters comprising professionals and actual police officers talk about the case following a dramatically produced reconstruction or a description of people or articles the police are attempting to trace. The members of the public viewing the programme are given telephone numbers of either the programme or the police force concerned and asked to give information.

The programme has been successful in terms of the information received resulting in the arrest and conviction of those criminals and perpetrators portrayed in the reconstructions. The programme also supports the theory that the public by virtue of the information they supply to police are a crucial determinant in the successful detection of crime Reiss (1971), Greenwood *et al* (1977), in the U.S.A. and Morgan (1980) U.K.

The fictional portrayal of police and essentially the detectives, together with the examination of considered necessary and desirable, if not the essential 'skills' of a detective, are examined in greater detail in the following chapters together with other qualities and skills that have become fictionally represented as essential tools of the trade. Such skills can vary considerably from a knowledge of forensic science to the discovery of clues, the ability to interrogate to determine who is lying and who is telling the truth and in latter day fiction, skill at arms, especially the ability to be a 'crack shot'.

It is curious in a sense that a subject as fascinating as detective skills should have

so successfully escaped any serious research. It must be said in qualification that the work of Greenwood *et al* (1977) in connection with a series of studies commissioned by the Rand Corporation in the United States provided a significant insight into the process of the reporting of crime and the significant variables that would determine whether the perpetrator was apprehended or not. The studies did not examine the specific roles and attendant skills of the various actors in the police process of investigation, but rather the relationship between the availability and capture of information at the scene of a crime giving the greatest promise of detection. Similarly there has been little or no significant research identifying the skills required for a police officer and a detective, or examining the training given compared to 'professional' qualities required.

What the subsequent examination of both basic and detective training does show (in later specific chapters) is an attempt to cater for the considerable, if not impossible, generality of police and detective work. The study does attempt to differentiate between fact and fiction in respect of what are perceived by many to be detective skills. Often the differentiation will be in degrees of importance and relevance rather than in an attempt to prove the existence or non existence of qualities regarded by some as essential and others as irrelevant. Indeed in many difficult contemporary murder enquiries it is quite feasible to extract a particular element of contributory forensic evidence together with elements of skillful deduction and enquiry which could quite legitimately be presented as a 'modern' Sherlock Holmes type investigation.

The same criminal case could equally have been presented by the media to highlight the massive quantity of information supplied by the public, the thousands of computer hours of comparison between witness statements resulting in perceived inconsistencies which prompted the in depth interrogation, or the 'accidental' stumbling across an important discovery by another form of police activity.

Police work is essentially concerned with all aspects of human behaviour, and interpersonal conflict that results in crime, misery, injury and sometimes death. If one considers the infinite variety and vagaries of human behaviour it is inevitable that truth and fiction will intertwine and produce mutations of greater complexity than the

original. Indeed examples of 'copy cat' criminal behaviour have emanated from both fictional and real life incidents. It is difficult if not impossible, even in specific case studies, to determine where fiction ends and fact begins. This study will attempt to explore some of the main public perceptions gained from novels, films, television, radio, the theatre and the media and relate those impressions to those skills and qualities that have emerged from the study of the police themselves and the systems of crime investigation which govern their behaviour.

CHAPTER 3

CLASSIC FICTIONAL DETECTIVE SKILLS

In looking to ascertain the qualities of a detective one cannot ignore the impact of the fictional detective whose character and skills have been analysed by many writers. Arguably the best are Conan Doyle (Sherlock Holmes), Agatha Christie (Hercule Poirot), Georges Simenon (Maigret) and Dorothy L. Sayers (Lord Peter Whimsey). Of all these fictional characters Sherlock Holmes must be regarded as the pioneer, "the world's first consulting detective!" (Doyle 1888). The success of Sherlock Holmes in novels, radio, films and television is convincingly demonstrated by the public support for productions of new, and revivals of old, performances. In the film and television world it is believed that more actors have portrayed the character of Sherlock Holmes than any other part. Baring-Gould (1962)

The supreme, some would say genius, qualities of Sherlock Holmes with his great emphasis on science and observation not only captured the imagination of a public eager and intrigued by each new adventure, but directed the perception of police and public alike to the kind of characteristics and attributes the 'ideal' detective should possess. Indeed this factor is further emphasised by reference to an early text book, one of the few, on criminal investigation by Dr. Hans Gross (1902) where the language could just as easily be that of Conan Doyle.

The appeal of Holmes apart from a class bias which is evident in the rather supercilious portrayals of the Scotland Yard Police Officers, was the possession of this great intellect coupled with powers of observation, knowledge of science and master of disguise. To quote Holmes himself "Detection is, or ought to be an exact science and should be treated in the same cold and unemotional manner." (The Sign of the Four 1890).

In a way, the character of Sherlock Holmes and his adventures arguably started the cult of the 'detective yarn' or the popularity of the 'Who Dun It' school of crime writers and stage presenters. The reader, watcher or listener, is presented with a story with an intellectual challenge to him or her to attempt to compete with the qualities of

the 'great detective'. The works of Agatha Christie especially in the visual form on film and theatre, notably the 'Mouse Trap' now in its 36th year are evidence of this phenomenon.

The audience, or most of them, (perhaps except the lateral thinkers) are led to form a series of conclusions and opinions as the plot unfolds and then, only at the last moment to be dramatically confronted with the identity of the real culprit together with an explanation that is as logical after the revelation as it was as improbable before it.

In a similar way albeit a long time before, Conan Doyle illuminated the detective process sufficiently to make it credible. The classic technique was to provide a Dr. Watson figure to be the minimal thermometer of the reader's intelligence. Watson asks the stupid question how? and receives a patient explanation by Holmes of his brilliance (Cumberbatch and Morgan 1983).

There are books written by, and for, detectives usually as training manuals on how to take plaster casts for footprints or fingerprints and subsequent classification and identification (see Gross 1906, 1962). Some writers such as Webb et al (1966) writing on unobtrusive measures for social scientists, discusses ideas for non-reactive research using physical artifacts such as the degree of erosion and wear being an indicator of the use or popularity of objects, (an observation that Sherlock Holmes used on various objects such as steps, doors and shoes). Most text books are in the manual category and whilst certainly providing much invaluable and often basic practical do's and don'ts tend not to offer general theories on the skills required by detectives.

Holmes possessed a great number of theories, some of which were devised from his own scientific experiments and others from his knowledge of human or animal behaviour. In *Silver Blaze* (1892) for example Holmes observed that the dog did not bark and therefore the thief must have been known to the dog. This 'fact' was missed by other observers. However, the importance of the example is that Holmes perceives the fact because he has a theory about the behaviour of dogs in that they do not ordinarily bark at people they know well. This is an epistemological issue of course as in the social sciences the real goal is not fact finding but theory generation which allows us to predict and indeed perceive facts.

The analogy between the role of the creative scientist and the brilliant detective is worth pursuing. In both cases the solution/discovery theory can be logically explained by hindsight but such logic remains a retrospective interpretation which has only marginal validity as an account of the thought processes which gave rise to that discovery (Bastick 1982).

Sherlock Holmes was a product of fictional Victorian melodrama whose appeal relied above all else on a brilliant intellect supported by an internationally based education culminating in attendance at both Oxford and Cambridge, Baring-Gould (1962). Perhaps the key to the development of admiration for the character which today has developed into an international cult with the Sherlock Holmes Society operating world wide, is the almost superhuman but nevertheless credible qualities of Holmes.

A hero figure certainly, but also a man by virtue of his extraordinary talents could have been almost anything he wanted. An accomplished musician who could spot a Stradivarius (unbeknown to the shopkeeper) as well as he could play it. A linguist by virtue of his European travels as a child: and actor and thereby master of disguise, and a scientist at a time when forensic science was relatively unknown.

In the biography of Sherlock Holmes (surely the first of a fictional character) by Baring-Gould (1962) the writings of Mr. Sherlock Holmes cover such topics as handwriting, tattoo marks, tracing of footsteps, 'the distinction between the ashes of various tobaccos', secret writings, a definitive work on medieval music and a study of the Ancient Cornish language. Clearly Sherlock Holmes possessed the academic scientific and artistic background of knowledge which enabled him to exploit his natural talents of observation and deduction to the full. Such superhuman qualities were not only needed to demonstrate the superiority of Holmes over normal mortals; Watson was a doctor albeit in comparison to the intellect of Holmes almost universally portrayed as an honest, loyal non- intellectual. Such qualities were also needed to deal with the arch criminals constantly bedevilling Holmes.

The criminals of Conan Doyle were no less colourful than the character of Holmes himself and worthy adversaries for his qualities. John Clay the fourth most dangerous man in London murderer, thief, smasher, forger, Old Etonian, a graduate of Oxford and

the grandson of a royal duke: Colonel Sebastian Moran, the second most dangerous man in London. Educated at Eton and Oxford late of the Indian Army, best shot in the Empire and Moriarty's Chief of Staff; "Professor Moriarty of course the 'Napoleon of Crime Watson'. He is the organiser of half that is evil and nearly all that is undetected in this great city. He sits motionless like a spider in the centre of the web, but that web has a thousand radiations, and he knows every quiver in each of them. He does little himself. He only plans. But his agents are numerous and splendidly organised. If there is a crime to be done, a paper to be abstracted, we will say a house to be rifled, a man to be removed - the word is passed to the professor, the matter is arranged and carried out. The agent may be caught. In that case money is found for his bail or his defence. But the central power which uses the agent is never caught - never so much as suspected. That's genius Watson. But if I am spared by lesser men our day will surely come." (The Valley of Fear, 1915).

To complement the establishment villainy with whom Holmes had to contend, Conan Doyle further displayed his sense of mischief by giving the identity of Jack the Ripper to Inspector Altheny Jones of Scotland Yard.

In the creation of Sherlock Holmes Conan Doyle not only introduced the concept of the Master Detective but in the form of Professor Moriarty also the Master Criminal.

The character of Holmes is made more fascinating by the contrast between on the one hand the heroic image with the forces of good triumphant over the forces of evil and on the other hand the celibacy and drug taking.

An interesting feature of the novels of Conan Doyle and in particular the main characters of the Sherlock Holmes novels was the class nature of both detective and villain. The creation of the best detective in the Victorian tradition arguably necessitated upper class characteristics and to invent worthy adversaries resulted in establishment villains. The fictional melodrama reflected a sharp contrast to the reality of Victorian crime described by Chesney (1970) and Mayhew (1862). In contrast we know the police of the day following the desire of Sir Robert Peel and Rowan and Mayne the first Commissioners were required not to have the habits or characteristics of gentlemen. Such artisan characters were of course well known to Conan Doyle's

readership and were no match for the superior intellect of Holmes and Moriarty. Lord Peter Wimsey (Dorothy L. Sayers), Hercule Poirot and Miss Marples (Agatha Christie) are descendants in many ways from the classic standard set by Sherlock Holmes. They all act, albeit with various distinguishing characteristics, independent of the police, are held in awe by the police as consulting detectives receiving as Holmes did the full cooperation of the police and the information they the police possess or can acquire. They are also all firmly upper middle or upper class. Each has a Doctor Watson character lurking in the background in that there is a companion or character not necessarily the same in all the novels, through whom the brilliance of the final deduction is explained to the reader, viewer or listener. All these 'descendants' are educated middle and upper class and demonstrably in possession of the main, if not all the talents of Holmesian, observation and deduction.

CHAPTER 4

THE FICTIONAL POLICE DETECTIVE

The commission and detection of criminal offences especially the most serious, violent and audacious such as murder, robbery and burglary have provided the inspiration for arguably more literature, films and television presentations than any other single topic. Not unnaturally with such a plethora of material it would be impossible (certainly in a study of this nature) to analyse the characteristics of the detective skills portrayed by all the characters created. In many fictional representations of the private or gifted amateur detective described previously, the skills of the official police detective have been often described as 'non-existent' in comparison with the non-police hero detective figure. More often than not the police (working class) 'dullard' is a necessary ingredient and contrast to the brilliance of the non-police (upper class) detective.

In contrast to the police detective playing this secondary and negative role a section of the vast industry of crime writers have decided to cast the police and especially the police detective in the leading role. As in the many non-police fictional detective representatives we observe a tremendous variety of characteristics with varying degrees of attendant detective skills ranging from the perceptive observation and astute questioning which induces confessions in the Sherlock Holmes classical school; to the more violent ruthless relentless pursuing 'Super Cop' where skill of arms and physical prowess are the main perceived skills or characteristics.

Between these two broad generalisations of fictional police detective typology are as many variations and combinations that one would expect from the vast volume of fictional material produced.

In contrast to the character of Maigret the French police detective created by Georges Simenon in the 1950's and subsequently immortalised in film and television series a new realism was created by the novels of Joseph Wambaugh (A former Lieutenant of the Los Angeles Police Department in the United States). The key works, 'The New Centurion', 'The Choirboys' and the 'Blue Knight', have caricatured in often

an amusing way some of the real truths and very obvious tragedies of police work. The tragedies are very much ones of human and institutional weaknesses and especially the influence of the later on the former.

We can no longer talk of television series produced in the United States being viewed in the context of a reaction to an entirely American audience. Neither can we talk of British produced police detective series as formulating opinion on viewers solely resident in the United Kingdom.

The cross-cultural fertilisation process of U.S. programmes being shown in the United Kingdom and vice versa, makes it difficult to assess the impact on a non-indigenous culture. The distribution, even if it is significant, is further blurred by programmes presumably made for both United States and United Kingdom audiences. *Dempsey and Makepiece* brings both, American and British 'police detectives' together in Britain whilst *'Callan'*, Thames TV (1978) although not strictly police is busy shooting baddies in New York surreptitiously aided and abetted by the police.

The traditional significant difference between the American and the British police even recognised and accepted by fictional television creations was that one had instant recourse to, and continual possession of, firearms, and the other did not. Times change and the continuous and conspicuous carrying of firearms is arguably now as much of a characteristic of the *'Sweeney'* and the *'Professionals'* as it is of *'Starsky and Hutch'* and *'Hunter'*. Nevertheless it is possible to distinguish certain 'detective skills' albeit not universal characteristics in the various characters portrayed on both sides of the Atlantic.

In the United Kingdom the portrayal of Stratford Johns of *'Barlow'* in the successful series *'Z' Cars* and later *'Softly Softly'* demonstrated the fierce but fair 'hard man' 'soft man' interrogative approach alternatively frightening then befriending the suspect. Skilful probing determined questioning often bordering on oppression and intimidation but never degenerating into unlawful behaviour. This kind of questionable interviewing or interrogating technique is similarly portrayed by *'Kojak'* whose hard ruthless determined tough style often involves the concern of his superiors.

A common theme in police drama is that of the unco-operative criminal who is

finally 'tricked' into a confession. In such productions a variety of skills are demonstrated. Columbo, a faintly amusing and disarming character needles, in that he goes back time and time again with requests for clarification on something bothering him. Similar characters abound in the role usually of the county detective inspector in the United Kingdom. Affable, amiable, disarmingly, irritatingly, persuing a determination that eventually uncovers the false story or alibi and produces, after confrontation, the confession.

In contrast to this fairly leisurely style of questioning more often or not television demands a higher level of dramatic success. Tension is induced when the information must be obtained urgently for example from a terrorist or criminal where a bomb has been planted or a violent robbery attack is planned. In such cases we see the use of terror and physical violence by police detectives, with a hint of morality that the ends justifies the 'illegal' means.

The new breed of fictional police detective hero, albeit as inaccurate a portrayal as the gentrified amateur, is certainly a more powerful behavioural model to the would be real life practitioner.

The new breed of 'Super Cops' are truly transatlantic. Not for them the painstaking attention to detail, these are the 'macho' men and women of action. Smart, shrewd, anti-authority, lovable, rebellious and insubordinate but heroes and heroines all. The action is more often than not tough, fast and violent with the suspect fleeing and the heroes persuing. Skill at arms, with the fists and the gun, considerable athletic prowess to run, jump and climb and of course superlative driving skills. The conclusion of the case is far more likely to end in the death of the criminal than any portrayal of the gathering of evidence to gain a successful conviction at court. Indeed as will be demonstrated later in this study, preparation of cases for prosecution and the gathering of evidence, which will form a great deal of the time of real life detectives is seldom featured in fictional portrayals of the more macho category.

In both 'Rockcliffe's Babies' (BBC TV) and Cagney and Lacey (BBC TV), we see similar skills being portrayed, namely the systematic enquiry and collection of information and evidence resulting in, more often than not, planned arrests. Although

in both those series, one British the other American, events are highly dramatised nevertheless both accurately portray much of the routine and unproductive nature of actual detective work. In both series the emphasis is on team work relying heavily on their co-workers in the organisation to provide essential and contributing elements of help and information leading eventually to a successful outcome, but not always.

The recognition of failure and a demonstration of frustration, together with the understanding of the vagaries and inequities of a legal and criminal justice system which is fallible, tend to bring the best of fictional portrayal of police and detective work more in line with their real life counterparts. The fact that 'Rockcliffe's Babies' (BBC TV) has as its professional advisor a former distinguished senior detective of the Metropolitan Police may account for these similarities.

A category that is not strictly that of police detective and not that of private investigator paid or gentrified amateur but nevertheless seen to be sufficiently attractive is that of the forensic scientist/investigator. In the United Kingdom we have seen two quite popular (in terms of repeat series) programmes, one home based and the other American but remarkably similar in terms of the main character and the stories involved.

The series are 'The Expert' in the U.K. which starred Marius Goring as the forensic scientist and 'Quincy' starring Jack Klugman as a coroner who in the United States is a scientific examiner. In both series the stories not unnaturally feature a clue or characteristic that intrigues and involves the forensic scientist. It is the scientific detective process in matching the sample with the suspect or identifying a hair or fibre which is the crucial solving factor of the case. The skills exhibited are in the classic Sherlock Holmes tradition utilising powers of observation and collection of substances which by the application of various scientific techniques produce conclusive and crucial evidence.

It is probably in the field of forensic science applications to crime investigation that the skills portrayed by the fictional characters most resemble the real life processes. The significant difference between the fictional and factual is not in context but rather in degree or volume. A separate chapter on the relative importance of the

use of forensic science in relation to the process of criminal investigation discusses this aspect more fully. Suffice to say in relation to the context of this chapter that the role of forensic science assumes a much greater and significant importance in those cases where the most serious offences have occurred and present the most difficulty in investigation.

The whole ethos of policing encourages a resourcefulness in dealing with novel situations. This is perhaps one of the few skills which is unique to this occupational group. However, police work is very situational, practical and experimental. Few incidents dealt with by police officers will be immediately observed by colleagues so that ironically, media myths of policing are quite readily absorbed into the police culture.

The experienced detective often becomes a novelist bent on perpetuating the mystique of detective work. Almost inevitably he will be reluctant to negate that image. The media images of the detective necessarily focus on personalities rather than the slow tedious methodological fact collection of the organisation - for fairly obvious dramatic reasons. Similarly the police officer in order to demonstrate his 'special' skills will be strongly encouraged by the peer culture to produce a script of dramatic success, especially in connection with the detection of crimes that have caused public comment and concern.

The shopkeeper who provides crucial information may become quite necessary to preserve the image 'my informant' who by definition must be protected by anonymity and possibly be rewarded financially. There is of course an element of truth in this 'police produced fiction', especially with experienced detectives whose street training as much as anything provides the knowledge of how to develop and use informants. The process by which this is done is seldom publicised but bargaining and negotiation are obvious elements.

The concept of plea bargaining is far more understood now, probably due to American T.V. detective series, than hitherto. A great deal of bargaining has always taken place by use of police discretion where action is not taken against perpetual offenders such as 'barrow boys' or 'prostitutes' in return for information. Of necessity such transactions must be kept secret to prevent reprisals and disclosure of identity,

from such humble beginnings 'informants' are born.

Although it has been suggested that whilst the emphasis of many fictional accounts of detective skills is misplaced, nevertheless as has been suggested, some offer many important insights into the police culture and its enacted myths. (Also see for example Hurd 1979).

The influence of fictional representation upon real life practitioners cannot be discounted and, as stated, media myths can be absorbed into the police culture to dramatise events. Detectives can be encouraged to place more emphasis on those qualities extolled by their television counterparts such as observation, interrogation and the use of forensic science than the frequency of their use in actual cases warrants.

With some American law enforcement agencies reducing the number of detectives employed and redeploying detective police officers into more generalist roles, the detective needs to preserve as much impenetrable mystique and myth as he can find. The media and fictional image of the detective and his importance and fictionally perceived pre-eminence in the crucial role of successful crime detection may be the most significant safeguard for the real life counterpart in preserving his status within and without the Police Service.

The importance of crime and the process of criminal investigation has a significant bearing on the perceptions of the police role from both within and without the Police Service. The emphasis of governmental focussing on the amount of crime recorded and detected gives publicity and attention to that segment of police work already highlighted, dramatised and often romanticised by media and fictional attention.

In the light of such attention the classical and not entirely apocryphal retort of "why aren't you catching burglars?" in response to being taken to task for a minor traffic violation, can be considered a reasonable and justifiable response by a member of the public conditioned and continually exposed to the police as crime fighters and exclusively 'bad guy' chasers.

In a study of this kind it is essential and necessary to put the amount of time and effort devoted by the police to the investigation and detection of crime in its rightful

context. It is also recognised that public perception of what functions the police detectives actually perform and the reason why can differ widely from the reality.

The following chapters will examine the various component elements in the process of the investigation of crime and will identify the extent and importance of what fictionally and perhaps publically perceived detective skills and the perceived importance of such practices as interrogation and forensic science relate to the reality of the detection process. The professional training of both police and police detectives will be examined together with the advent of major legislation that effects existing police practices in the detection of crime.

CHAPTER 5

BASIC POLICE TRAINING

Basic police training consists of a short initial period at a residential training school of 13 weeks followed by a period in the police force itself working alongside and under the supervision of an experienced "tutor" constable, encompassed within a two year probationary period with an average of one day a week on- the-job training.

In England and Wales all police training follows a basic format laid down by the Home Office in a national system that had been in operation in a ten week form since 1973, changing to its present format in 1984. There are six Home Office Training Centres, in addition to the training facilities of the Metropolitan Police, located throughout the country and staffed by police officers seconded from various forces. Detective training, both initial and senior, to which there will be a subsequent reference, again follows a national core curriculum at six different geographically located detective training centres.

The structure of the system was an initial 10 week course for people entering the police service either preceded or followed by a short in-force local procedure course, then a period of attachments to an experienced tutor constable, then either short one day or one week attachments to the Criminal Investigation Branch and Traffic Branches, possibly a short attachment to some form of administrative department, then on the streets as a probationary constable.

In the following two years, probationer police officers receive on-the-job training which can either occur at the police station or take the form of a number of week long residential courses at the force training school. They then return to the training centre for a final two week continuation course, after which the officer is confirmed in the rank of constable and becomes a permanent appointment to the force.

Progress reports are submitted throughout the probationary period and if acceptable standards are not obtained by the probationary police constable, his or her services can be dispensed with under the Police Regulations. In short, there is a system of 'trial' and 'probation', with a form of apprenticeship interspersed with small amounts

of classroom training and examination, operating under an overall system of continuous assessment. The reality of such a training package means that the probationary constable, who in terms of uniform and insignia, (unlike a member of the Special Constabulary), is to every member of the public a real and proper police officer who could find himself or herself working alone and directly unsupervised representing the full majesty of the law, some 17 weeks after entering the Police Service.

It is not the purpose of this study to explore in depth the relative merits or demerits of a system of training that allows strong pervasive and persuasive elements of group solidarity and identification, to exert pressure and influence on laid down patterns of procedure and official standards of behaviour. Suffice to say that the writings of such academic observers of the various cultures within the police service have commented at length on the powerful influence of group norms and rituals on the subsequent behaviour of initiates to the police forces. (See for example Skolnick 1966, Cain 1973, Reiss 1978, Chapman 1968, Chatterton 1979).

Although the professional socialisation of police officers is interesting, this study is more concerned with the amount of 'professional' instruction given to the fledgling police recruit in the investigation and detection of crime, in the light of what research has indicated are the most productive police practices in this area. Accordingly a detailed analysis was conducted by the author comparing the course content of the ten week course operating prior to 1984 with the thirteen week course operating since.

A common core curriculum is followed by all six training centres and details of four centres were obtained and compared. The subject matter and the proportion of time so allocated did not show any appreciable variation, although there were slight differences in the order in which the subjects were taught.

The examples were taken from the courses conducted at the training centre in Chantmarle, Dorset which trains the officers from the Devon and Cornwall Constabulary.

The former ten week initial residential course at a Home Office Training Establishment, for example, comprised a syllabus dominated by adherence to laid down procedures and regulations together with a basic appreciation of rudimentary

legal powers of arrest and sanction. In the ten week period consisting of, usually, 300 lessons of 50 minutes duration, the prevention of crime occupies two lessons and the recording of crime some eight lessons and the specific identification of crimes, such as burglary, assaults, sexual offences and robbery, some 12 lessons.

There were no lessons devoted exclusively to the techniques of interrogation. There was one lesson on interviewing techniques and some half a dozen lessons giving guidance on conditions governing the taking of statements and the Judges' Rules applicable to the detention and questioning of suspects and prisoners. In a content analysis of police recruit training physical activity, consisting of games, physical training, self-defence, swimming, life saving and drill amounts to almost a quarter of the lessons a recruit receives during the ten week initial training period.

The major area of instruction of some 94 lessons, 35 of which are in the classroom and 59 as practical role playing and demonstrations, was devoted to general police duties. This area covers the wide range of matters with which a police officer has commonly to deal in a day-to-day capacity. Such topics that do not fit into the categories of crime or road traffic matters, such as patrolling a beat, compiling pocket books, police procedures, domestic disputes, dealing with lost and found property and duties in connection with licensed premises come into this category.

The next major area concerned the police function in respect of the law and practice pertaining to Road Traffic matters with 56 lessons fairly equally divided between knowledge of the law and practical lessons dealing with events such as road traffic accidents and offences.

Crime both from the legal and practical standpoint is the next significant block of learning and here there is a different division, in that unlike road traffic instruction, the criminal law dominates with 28 classroom law lectures and 14 practical periods.

Police training is to a certain extent dynamic in that it reflects, and on occasions, responds to external disquiet and criticism. The report into the disturbances in the inner cities by Lord Scarman (1981) commented *inter alia*:- "On the increasing complexity of the police role in society and the need for a higher level of social skills and professional ethos to be reflected in police training."

The question of an increased racial awareness, a firm commitment to the principle of acknowledgement of human rights of others coupled with a perceived need for a greater range of inter-personal skills led Lord Scarman to recommend that there should be at least six months training at a training centre and that the whole of the police probationary period should be regarded as a period of training. Accordingly a Government working party submitted new proposals for police training which were accepted and put into practice in January 1984.

The changes in the training of police reflect not unnaturally the concern and criticism explicitly and implicitly contained in the Scarman report and subsequent public debate.

In a political world dominated by an avowed policy to reduce public expenditure, the recommendations were inevitably a compromise primarily to satisfy specific criticism without attempting to explore in a systematic and objective manner the overall efficacy of police training in the light of increased demand on police services. In the last decade there has been a considerable worsening of performance in the field of criminal detection against an ever increasing level of reported crime.

The report of the Working Party (1983) which met fifteen times between the 7th April 1982 and the 5th April 1983 published its terms of reference thus: - "To review the training given to the police during the first two years of their service, with particular reference to the recent recommendations of Lord Scarman and to make recommendations".

The twelve members of the Police Training Council Working Party on Probationer Training, to give it its full title, reflected, not for the first time, on how police procedures are changed, not from any internal 'professional' or work ethos, but as a result of political pressure and expediency. The chairman was a career civil servant directly appointed from the Home Office with two other senior Home Office civil servants, including the secretary. The rest of the Committee comprised two representatives from the Local Authority governing bodies, the Association of County Councils and the Association of Metropolitan Authorities (one of which did not wish to be regarded as a signatory of the report). Each of the police staff associations were represented, which

gave one chief constable, one superintendent and one constable, the Director of the Central Planning Unit - a Home Office Department, the Commandant of the Police College, a representative of the Metropolitan Police of chief officer rank and an academic advisor.

The findings of the report and the immediate acceptance of its main recommendations further indicated the narrow and political nature of this review. The expediency of the report was highlighted by one of the recommendations which was termed the Stage 2 review that should be fundamental in nature with no options ruled out and that this should start immediately and report to a group "not dissimilar to the present Working Party". (This review is still in being at the time of writing).

The review of probationer training by its declared objectives and recommendations demonstrated its 'political' rather than 'professional' mandate. The first of the broad objectives gives the key to the thinking behind the review, namely, "The probationary period should be regarded as a two year apprenticeship during which the overall task would be to train the recruit through a comprehensive programme of academic and practical training, including supervised job experience, for his future part in the policing of a modern multi-ethnic community in England and Wales.

It is worth quoting the remainder of the objectives of probationer training as seen by the 'reforming' committee:-

"BROAD OBJECTIVES OF PROBATIONER TRAINING

Since, on successfully completing the probationary period, an officer will be mainly involved in street policing duties, probationer training should be primarily concerned with imparting the wide range of knowledge, techniques and skills, and in developing the personal qualities, attributes, attitudes and self confidence that are required for the successful performance of this complex and very important police task.

Within this overall context, particular attention should be given in the training curriculum to the following more specific objectives:-

- (a) The concept of a positive 'professional ethic' enshrining amongst other concepts the need for a firm police commitment to establishment and implicit human rights and the maintenance of high ethical standards, should be emphasised in

probationer training.

- (b) An underlying theme of probationer training should be the police officer's role as a member of the community he polices and the need for him to enforce the law and maintain the peace, through the approval, confidence and respect of the community he serves. This should be recognised by all police officers as an essential element in promoting the efficiency of the police,
- (c) Adequate attention should be given to the problems of policing a multi-racial society, and the probationer should acquire a general social awareness, including an understanding of the various cultural backgrounds and attitudes to be found in an ethnically diverse society and the implications of these for community policing.
- (d) High priority should be given to training in the prevention of disorder and the positive preventive skills of mediation in order to successfully handle and defuse situations of potential conflict with the public, in addition to practical training in the use of shields, and other defensive measures. Training must also be given in the professional use of force to enable people to be restrained with least possible harm.
- (e) Officers must acquire an adequate understanding of human interactions and relationships and be able to apply appropriate interpersonal skills in the course of their duties." (Report of Police Training Council Working Party on Police Probationer Training 1983).

It is significant that there is no mention here of the traditional objectives of policing enshrined since 1829 in the words of Sir Richard Mayne one of the first Commissioners of the Metropolitan Police, viz:- "The primary objective of an efficient police force is the prevention of crime: the next is that of the detection and punishment of offenders if crime is committed. To these ends all efforts must be directed. The protection of life and property, the preservation of public tranquility and the absence of crime will alone prove whether those efforts have been successful and whether the objects for which the police were appointed have been attained." Mayne (1829)

The main recommendations of the review committee were to lengthen the initial

recruit course from a ten to fourteen week period and alter the syllabus to give a greater emphasis on interpersonal skills and a greater awareness of the police function in society. The period of attachment to a tutor constable was extended from a four week period to a ten week period. The resultant effect was that all recruits to all provincial forces in England and Wales will receive some 29 weeks of training before they are allowed to patrol unaccompanied by a more experienced constable.

Table 5.1
Comparison between the Initial Training Courses for Recruits before and after the Scarman Report and the Conclusions of the Training and Working Party

	1973-84		1984 onwards	
	10 weeks		14 weeks	
	No. of lessons	% of total course	No. of lessons	% of total course
General police duties (Law)	35	10.0	52	10.6
Crime (Law)	28	8.0	36	7.4
Traffic (Law)	26	7.4	35	7.2
Evidence and Procedure	7	2.0	8	1.6
Administration	20	5.7	26	5.3
Physicals	77	22.0	110	22.6
Associated Police Studies	33	9.4	61	12.5
General Police Duties (Practicals)	59	16.9	62	12.7
Crime (Practicals)	14	4.0	21	4.3
Traffic (Practicals)	30	8.5	35	7.2
Exams/Revision	21	6.0	40	8.23
Total	350		486*	

* Out of a possible total of 490

It will be seen in the comparisons above that although the number of lessons on crime has increased, the percentage of lessons on crime both theoretical, i.e. the

criminal law, and the practical applications have been marginally reduced from an overall 12% to 11.7% of the total training content. Similarly there is a 1.5% reduction in the time devoted to traffic legislation and practical training with general police duties also being reduced by 3.6%. The increases are most noticeable in physical training and although showing only a 0.6% increase this represents a massive 33 lesson increase. Associated Police Studies, which covers topics such as societal, ethnic and racial issues, is increased by 3.1% which relates to an additional 28 lessons.

Whatever the reasons that promoted the revised probationer training, it is difficult to refute the charge that they were merely cosmetic responses to a politically directed mandate. The increased length of recruit training and the extension of the attachment of a probationary constable to an experienced officer delayed until almost six months the crucial and testing time before a 'rookie' cop was exposed to a watchful and in some areas resentful public. It was some way to meeting the observations of the noble Lord Scarman, but within the acceptable and realistic financial constraints of governmental policy. Similarly, the greater emphasis on physical fitness and increased public order training in the use of riot equipment and shields fulfilled another of the recommendations of Lord Scarman.

At the time of writing the Stage 2 deliberations of a fundamental review (albeit not yet promulgated) are slowly emerging as controlled leaks with preliminary indications of more of the same, emphasis on sensitivity training and awareness skills. Meanwhile, as will be demonstrated later, basic skills deemed necessary by the author for the effective documentation and detection of crime remain untaught and unappreciated.

CHAPTER 6

DETECTIVE TRAINING

In any examination of the role of police in the process of criminal investigation, one must first distinguish between the duties performed by the generalist uniformed patrol officer and members of the Criminal Investigation Department the detective officers. In spite of much fictional representation and a certain amount of self seeking image-bolstering by the detectives themselves, the fact remains that analysis shows that generally between sixty-five and seventy-five per cent of all crimes reported by the public are exclusively dealt with by uniformed officers with no input at all from detective officers, whilst others would have some advisory input by detective officers. The following table shows the breakdown of investigative effect in a sample of 1,000 investigated crimes.

The crimes were selected on a random basis by taking an arbitrary date and recording in chronological order the next thousand crimes as they were reported to the police. The author then cross referenced the officer investigating the crime with personnel records to determine the department and function e.g. dog handler, CID. The frequency distribution was then calculated.

Table 6.1
Analysis of 1000 crimes by Investigating Officer

Uniform Patrol Officers	881
Motor patrol Division (Traffic)	13
Scenes of Crime Technical Officer	1
Dog Handler	7
Youth & Community Police Officer	2
Communications Officer	1
Detective Officer	94
Unknown	1
Total	1,000

It will be seen that the basic uniformed police patrol officer investigated 88% of crime that had occurred and the detectives investigated some 9.4%, the remainder being investigated by other branches of the force. In a management context the distinction can be less clear cut than figures of this kind could suggest. In many cases although the uniformed officer will be the investigating officer there is an element of advice and exchange of information and one detective constable could be advising in a formal and informal process a number of uniformed colleagues. On the other hand, because of a lack of effective case screening and case management systems little or no help could be forthcoming to the uniformed officer from his detective colleagues.

With the exception of certain cases of fraud and embezzlement, every crime from the most mundane to the most serious is initially reported to, and attended by, the uniformed response element of the Police Service who is responsible for the initial record and investigation. In spite of the role of the uniformed officer in the investigation of crime being universally known and recognised within the Police Service at both junior and senior level, some detective supervisory officers still persist in dividing the total numbers of reported crimes by the number of detective officers to achieve a seemingly impressive but totally unrealistic case load for members of the Criminal Investigation Department.

The majority of police forces utilise some form of demarcation to decide what reported crimes should be exclusively dealt with by uniformed officers and what crimes should be dealt with by detective officers. There is a very loose and subjective informal system based on an intuitive hierarchy of importance. However, in the thousand cases examined by the author, uniformed officers were regularly dealing with cases of house burglary which are of such seriousness and importance to warrant the assignment of a detective officer. Similarly from an examination of the crimes investigated the allocation of investigating officer could not be determined by any other criteria than who was available at that time to investigate. In some police forces it is specified that for the investigation of certain offences the investigating officer must be of the rank of detective sergeant or above.

In cases of murder where the identity of the perpetrator is not immediately known, usually an officer of the rank of Detective Superintendent will head an investigation team of tens or even hundreds of detectives and uniformed officers. Generally the level of investigative effort is usually related to the seriousness of the offence which can depend on the value of the property stolen or the impact of the crime on the community where it occurred.

All members of the Criminal Investigation Department are selected from applicants from the various uniformed branches of a police force. The usual pattern of selection is for the aspiring detective to be given a short period of attachment to a criminal investigation unit and then subsequently assessed on his or her suitability for a permanent appointment. If recommended, the police officer is then transferred to the criminal investigation department and sent on a ten week detective training course at one of the detective training centres located throughout the country. All the detective training schools operate under a standardised syllabus laid down by the Home Office and organised on similar lines to the recruit training centres.

In a similar method to that adopted in the analysis of subjects taught at basic training the syllabus and course teaching material was obtained from the six Home Office Detective Training Centres. There was little appreciable difference in the content of the courses, which, like the basic training schedule strictly followed the laid down Home Office curriculum. The analysis of course content shown is taken from the syllabus of the Metropolitan Police Detective Training School which trains the majority of detective officers in the Devon and Cornwall Constabulary.

Table 6.2
Analysis of subject matter in Detective Training

Total period of instruction - lessons of 50 minutes duration

Subject	Lesson allocation
Criminal law	110
Preparation of cases for court	43
Forensic Science (theory)	3
Forensic Science (visit Lab.)	4
Fingerprints	2
Drugs (behavioural syndrome)	2
Interviewing	3
Interviews (practical exercise)	4
Knowledge of work and liaison with other police agencies	42
Knowledge of work and liaison with other legal investigative agencies	30
Police administration	20
General recreation and sport	32
Misc. admin/private study	5
Total	300

The ten week residential course is dominated by instruction in criminal law, especially the criminal law referring to the rare and the exotic. An analysis of the six major detective training school manuals and course syllabus for detective training by the author revealed that in an average course of three hundred lessons each of fifty minutes duration, over 110 lessons are devoted to lectures on specialised aspects of the criminal law. The law of theft, for example, involves ten lessons and the various definitions and categories of theft, what elements are required to constitute the commission of the offence and what evidence is required to prove the offence in court and the method of adjudication, together with the various courts that can deal with specific sections.

In comparison only one lesson is devoted to the law on aliens and two lessons devoted to counterfeiting offences. The syllabus contains separate lectures on thirty six specific criminal offences. If one adds to this total general lectures on the criminal law dealing with the powers of arrest and detention, the granting of bail, interpretation of statutes, the Judges' Rules (or the requirements of the Police and Criminal Evidence Act that replaced the Judges' Rules), and the legal requirements for documenting evidence, then over half the course content is directly concerned with purely legal matters.

With an appreciable element of the course consisting of visiting speakers describing the work of agencies such as the Post Office Investigation Branch, the legal departments, the office of the Director of Public Prosecutions, regional crime squads and the like, the teaching of criminal law as such dominates the formal, instruction element of the course. The fictional skills of the detective of observation and deduction do not warrant specific lessons. Similarly, the importance of forensic science in relation to the examination of the scene of a crime consists of three lessons by a director of one of the Home Office Forensic Laboratories or his counterpart in the Metropolitan Police and a four period practical demonstration by laboratory staff. Scientific examination of firearms and documents are each allocated one and two lesson periods respectively.

The study of fingerprints warrants two periods of fifty minutes each and the effects and symptoms of drugs occupies a similar period in the syllabus. The technique of interviewing is allocated three periods of instruction and four periods of practical exercise. In contrast over twenty lesson periods are devoted to instruction in the preparation of cases for courts, the admissibility of evidence and the prosecutorial system of criminal justice in England and Wales.

The course is arguably one designed to equip the recipient to determine on the facts known, firstly whether a criminal offence has been committed according to law; secondly, to act as a adjudicator to determine if sufficient evidence is available in respect of an accused or suspect person to warrant that person being charged and brought before a court; thirdly, to be so equipped with a knowledge of the criminal law and the procedures operating in the various criminal courts to act as prosecutor in the

lower courts. A role in fact until the recent advent of the Crown Prosecution Service that was undertaken in many forces by the detective officer.

The additional skills taught to police officers to make them into detectives are certainly not the detective skills beloved of our fictional detectives such as observation, knowledge, forensic science, fingerprints and other forms of crime scene examination.

In the detective training courses examined which all follow a basic format and only vary slightly in detail, less than twenty hours in an average period of just under three hundred hours was devoted to those 'fictional' skills. In the examination of detective courses run by the Metropolitan Police referred to previously in this chapter, such skills constituted only 7.2% of the total instruction.

If one turns away from the relative importance of the fictional skills and examines the efficacy of certain factual skills then the detective training courses are equally disappointing. The importance of post arrest admissions, which have been referred to and will be referred to on a number of occasions throughout this study, and in particular the work of Mawby in Sheffield (1979), Lambert in Birmingham (1970) and Bottomley and Coleman in the North of England (1976, 1980) in what has been labelled the T.I.C. syndrome which is offences taken into consideration.

Such research into the importance of T.I.C. offences have revealed that in many cases the admission of such offences have accounted for nearly half the total of crimes cleared up or the total of detected crime (e.g. Lambert 1970; Mawby 1979). The reasons for such admissions often contain a mixture of pragmatism and absolutism in that the person in custody has been fingerprinted and incriminating corroborative evidence linking them with a hitherto undetected crime is now in the hands of the police. Another traditionally accepted reason is that now the criminal is caught, by declaring his other criminal involvements after sentence he can start afresh without the fear of detection for those crimes not yet proved against him. Whatever the reasons, and they are multifarious, the significance of the volume of crime detected by way of admissions known as T.I.C.'s is significant.

There is a considerable volume of opinion referred to in this study and others that the greatest contribution detectives can make to the process of detection of crime is by

the skillful interrogation of those persons already in custody either to establish conclusively whether they committed a specific crime or as is more generally the case, to ascertain from criminals already admitting the crime for which they have been arrested, other crimes for which they and others known to them have been responsible. It follows, therefore, that skills in interrogation, and the ability to persistently and persuasively create such a climate of admission is a sought after quality in a detective and should be a major feature of detective training.

In the detailed analysis of detective training conducted by the author there is no evidence to suggest that the architect of the course syllabus recognises the need for this element of skill that the academic researcher has so clearly and positively identified. Less than 1% of the total instruction time for police officers being trained as detectives was devoted to the topic of interrogation.

Police detective training is overwhelmingly dominated by studies of the criminal law giving the recipient the ability to distinguish between the legal requirements of evidence necessary to support a criminal charge. The training as previously stated reflect, one of the previously held main functions of detective officers, namely that of prosecutions by adjudicating in the police stations concerning the most appropriate charge to be preferred and then physically prosecuting that charge in a courtroom.

As was demonstrated in the unpublished Home Office Study by Crust (1975) a major part of detective work was concerned with the preparation of cases for court and the administrative aspect of detective work occupied the overwhelming majority of detective work. The arguable lack of a professional training either in failing to identify the necessary skills required by police detectives highlights the ambivalent attitudes of the detectives themselves who were subsequently interviewed by various methods in connection with this study. Indeed as will be seen in the following chapters more extensive knowledge of the law was not considered an investigative skill. The confusion and less than clear perception within the Police Service of what attributes or skills are required by police detectives illustrates how the training of police and police detectives has never addressed the fundamental question of what qualities are required to teach investigators and what further qualities are necessary for the training of police detectives.

CHAPTER 7
POLICE PERCEPTIONS OF INVESTIGATIVE SKILLS
BACKGROUND AND METHODOLOGY

All police officers, certainly in England and Wales, are 'investigators' to a greater or less extent, albeit in a generalised or specialised role. Ranging from the mundane to the most serious, a police officer upon notification of an allegation of an offence under criminal or common law is duty bound to investigate such matters brought to his or her attention.

It has long been accepted in England and Wales that the constable (and all officers are in law 'constables' irrespective of rank), does not have a master-servant relationship with either police superiors or politicians, unlike as do for example civil servants to politicians and in some circumstances members of the armed forces. Enshrined in common law and supported by Royal Commission and legal precedent, is the principle of the independence of the police to the executive. In the words of Lord Denning reiterating this principle: "No minister of the Crown can tell him (the constable) he must or must not keep observation on this place or that, he must or must not prosecute this man or that. Nor can any Police Authority tell him so. The responsibility lies on him. He is answerable to the law and the law alone". (R v. Commissioner of Police of the Metropolis, ex parte Blackburn 1973).

The generalist uniformed police officer will, as the designation implies, 'investigate' a wide variety of criminal and social cases. The majority of which will provide some form of legally enforceable sanction that the police investigator can exercise. With recourse to both formal and informal elements of discretion, the power, authority and independence of the office of constable is arguably constitutionally unique in the western world.

The uniformed officer in this context will therefore exclusively investigate somewhere between sixty and seventy five per cent of all crimes reported to the police. In general practice the uniformed officer will be the first police officer to attend the scene of nearly all crimes reported to police and in that role will carry out the preliminary

investigation, only handing over the investigation to a detective officer in the most serious cases.

All police forces in England and Wales have a system of interchange between the designated roles of detective and uniformed generalist and specialist departments. In the provincial forces in particular, the career development pattern of a police inspector with fifteen years service is generally likely to contain at least three or more years in a designated detective capacity usually as a constable or sergeant. Although patterns of career development vary, a general progression would be from uniformed constable to detective constable. On promotion to sergeant the detective constable would then become a uniform sergeant supervising patrol constables or being the custody or station sergeant at a police station. Career development could bring a transfer back into the Criminal Investigation Department as a Detective Sergeant which could be followed by promotion to another area usually as a uniformed patrol inspector. Further specialisation can occur after the rank of inspector and officers reaching the rank of detective superintendent who would normally be expected to lead the most serious criminal investigations, including difficult and protracted homicides, would normally have a preponderance of detective experience in the preceding ranks of their own particular career development path.

The proportion of police officers exclusively employed as detectives in a particular police force varies within the range of between twelve and fifteen per cent of local police strength for a medium sized force of around 2000 police officers. Police Almanac (1985).

A more detailed analysis of the number of detective posts and their proportion by rank was carried out by an examination of the personnel records of the Devon and Cornwall Constabulary. (See Table 7.1)

Table 7.1 showing number of detective posts in relation to the total police establishment

Devon and Cornwall Constabulary Establishment	2,827
Establishment of Criminal Investigation Department	343
Number of detective officers as percentage of force	12.1%

Distribution by Rank

Rank	No. in rank	No. of CID posts	% of CID in rank
Chief Constable	1	0	.0%
Deputy Chief Constable	1	0	.0%
Assistant Chief Constable	3	0*	.0%
Chief Superintendent	14	1	7.1%
Superintendent	39	5	12.8%
Chief Inspector	49	11	22.4%
Inspector	140	21	15.0%
Sergeant	454	70	15.4%
Constable	2161	240	11.0%

* One of the Assistant Chief Constables has overall responsibility for the policy and direction of the Criminal Investigation Department. Such responsibility is not an exclusive function of that post which also has responsibility for other departments (e.g. operations and traffic).

++ The strength and establishment of a Police Force will show a temporary variation in numbers as the force strength though retirement or recruitment could be above or below its authorised establishment.

Accepting the high degree of interchange between departments, however, especially on promotion, the total detective experience in any one force would be considerably higher. This assumes that 'detective experience' includes all those officers who have received 'specialist' training at one of the Home Office Approved Detective Training Schools and have been employed some time exclusively as 'detectives' during their careers. As so defined, then those possessing such 'detective' experience could amount to over a third of the total police complement of the force. To test this assumption the author examined the personnel record of each officer in the force. Each of the 2,827 records was examined to ascertain if at any time in the career pattern of the officer he or she had received specialist training at one of the Home Office approved Detective Training Courses.

Table 7.2 shows the results of this analysis with a significantly higher proportion of former detective experience amongst those officers of middle and senior management.

**Table 7.2 showing detective experience by rank
(included seconded personnel)
Devon and Cornwall Constabulary**

Rank	No. in rank	CID experience	% of total in rank
Chief Constable	1	0	0%
Deputy Chief Constable	1	1	100%
Assistant Chief Constable	3	2	66.6%
Chief Superintendent	14	8	57.0%
Superintendent	39	25	64.1%
Chief Inspector	49	35	71.4%
Inspector	140	76	54.3%
Sergeant	454	263	57.9%
Constable	2161	473	21.9%

Note - A typical pattern of career development in a provincial force is outlined in this chapter. In some metropolitan forces there would be less interchange especially on promotion and therefore the level of former CID experience as a percentage of holders of a particular rank would be expected to be less in some cases.

As demonstrated visibly in Table 7.2 the level of former detective experience in the supervisory ranks is overwhelmingly in the majority. A number of interesting managerial aspects are raised by analysis of this kind, for example the feeling of many people in the police service that crime is the most important and significant of all the police functions can be more readily understood when the former career patterns of the highest ranks are examined in this way. Affinity for the detective function amongst the most senior rank and arguably a resultant resistance to any change in that function can also be more readily understood. The advantage gained by detective officers in competing for promotion is also illustrated by the following tables showing the high success rate of detective officers in comparison with their uniformed colleagues.

In a police service where overall length of service and age are significant characteristics of a promotion system the figures show the better chances of promotion favouring the detective candidate. These findings support and explain the high proportion of senior officers in the force with previous detective experience.

Table 7.3
Sergeant to Inspector Promotion Boards

	1985				1986				1987			
	Uniform	CID	Total	Ratio	Uniform	CID	Total	Ratio	Uniform	CID	Total	Ratio
Applicants	127	38	165	2.8:1	114	41	155	2.8:1	85	29	114	2.9:1
Referrals	13	6	19	2.2:1	23	8	31	2.9:1	21	13	34	1.6:1
Final Board	44	21	65	2.3:1	55	24	79	2.3:1	46	26	72	1.8:1
Selected	16	9	25	2:1	16	8	24	2:1	10	16	26	0.6:1
Average Age	39	38.2			39	40.5			40.8	40.5		
Average Service	19	17.5			17	17.1			18.7	18.4		

The average age and length of service have been included to demonstrate that these are not influential factors.

Using the z test of proportions, the proportion of CID officers reaching the final board and being selected are significantly greater at the 1% level in 1985 and 1987, and at the 5% level for those selected in 1986.

The author would certainly put forward the hypothesis based on illustrative examples of this kind that the power, prestige and influence of the Criminal Investigation Department in a force exceeds what at face value the proportion of detective posts would normally lead an observer to expect. Additionally those officers who have not performed duties as exclusively designated detectives would have been attached to Criminal Investigation Departments sometime in their career. All police officers are so attached during the first two year probationary period. Similarly all officers would have worked alongside detectives on a day-to-day basis. In a similar capacity supervisory officers who may have little personal experience of detective work, will by virtue of the command structure, where the majority of detectives are co-located and form part of the overall geographical police complement, have experience of supervising those detectives under their direction and control.

It can therefore be stated quite categorically that knowledge or perception of what the members of the police organisation perceive to be the 'professional' or particular skills, if any, of the designated detectives are not confined to a particular elitist group or even the 'detectives' themselves. It was for this reason that the police officers interviewed in the various formats used, encompassed both past and present detectives together with those general police investigators who had an extensive knowledge from working with, and alongside, detectives or being responsible for their supervision.

In addition to the analysis of the training manuals and each syllabus analysed from the six major detective training establishments, it was felt that the perceptions of police officers themselves should be obtained to determine the additional skills, if any, they perceived as necessary for police officers to become police detectives. Accordingly, a series of interviews and group discussions were organised to achieve this aim.

It was agreed at the outset of this study that because of the possible inhibiting effect of the rank of the author on interviewees (Deputy Chief Constable), that some of the discussions although especially directed by the author would be conducted by the police personnel expected to be involved in similar exercises in the normal course of training. Such discussions with two regional inspectors' courses were tape recorded and subsequently analysed by the author. Similarly it was agreed by the University

Head of the Department and the Academic Supervisor that outside consultants would be better placed to conduct the direct interviews and analysis of generalist and detective officers, again being directed by the author in the range and format of the questions asked. The subsequent analysis was then conducted by the author on the data obtained from the questionnaires.

A total of fifty two police officers were interviewed by questionnaire and group discussions to allow both free ranging thoughts to be tapped as well as specific structured comments. The ranks ranged from constable to inspector and over a third of those interviewed were present or past detective officers and therefore provided a representative sample of the proportion of existing and former detectives that exist throughout the Force. Further analysis, comments and observations to those emanating from this series of interviews and discussions were added by the author in the light of his professional knowledge as a former junior and senior detective officer, and his findings from this and other research studies.

CHAPTER 8
HOW DOES CRIME GET SOLVED
THE PRACTITIONER'S VIEW POINT

In pursuit of the question "How are crimes actually solved?" it was necessary to discover what the investigators themselves thought was the answer to the question. Did they themselves believe in some special undefinable skills of "detection" or did they see training as playing a major role? While previously noting the interaction between the fictional image and the police perceptions of themselves, it was important to see the extent to which this continued and to see what insights the police had into the reasons for crimes being cleared-up.

To this end a series of interviews was conducted with a randomly selected group of sixteen uniformed officers whose ages ranged from 22 and 43 years and whose service ranged from 2 to 27 years. The questions concerned the most common and routine crimes, so that the unusual, bizarre and emotive crimes were not included. Other crimes not included were such things as theft from shops where the police are most often only involved when a suspect has already been detained, (usually by store detectives). What was sought was the opinion of the investigative officers regarding the skills required for run-of-the-mill crimes. It was important that the officers responded not in terms of a particular case, but in terms of the vast majority of routine cases with which they had to deal. Therefore it was decided to concentrate upon six types of crime, namely:

Theft (of vehicles)

Theft (from vehicles)

Theft (other types, excluding meters and shops) burglaries (all categories)

Assaults (not indecent)

Criminal damage

The types of crime which were specifically excluded, were such as robbery, indecency, fraud and serious assault. Nevertheless most notifiable crime was covered by the categories of offences which were included. For example in 1985 theft from a

vehicle represented 13.3% of notifiable offences recorded by the police, theft or unauthorised taking of a motor vehicle 10.2%, other theft and handling stolen goods (excluding shops) 17.9%, burglary 24.1% and criminal damage 14.8%. Thus over 80% of offences were covered by the six categories.

A list of five questions was drawn up, to which each officer was asked to respond. Each question asked about skills and tools needed to solve crime. Officers were asked to rank responses in order of importance. These questions with an analysis of the answers given are presented in the text below. As previously agreed, because of the difference in rank between the researcher and the sample of officers, two people from the University of Exeter were asked to administer the questionnaire (Appendix '1').

The results were a little disappointing because of the variability of the extent of response. Also, because of the variety of responses and small numbers involved, it proved impossible to compare the rankings of the importance of various factors in the solvability of crime, and the skills needed to do so. However, all the responses to each question were transcribed yielding a total of 398 statements. A content analysis was then performed on these statements. Potentially 480 statements could have been generated i.e. 16 respondents x 6 crimes x 5 questions. The police officers did not feel able to comment on all the questions.

The first question was "With reference to incidents of crime with which you are familiar and which have been solved, what do you think were the major factors which contributed to their solution?"

Eighty seven responses to this question were analysed. Over a quarter of the responses, the largest single category, cited information from victims, witnesses and members of the public. There were another six responses which put spadework and information as important, without being more specific. Therefore these two categories accounted for in total 27 out of all the responses. Knowledge of local criminals was put forward by eight officers and local knowledge by five. The importance of communicating information was mentioned six times and the personal qualities of the detectives seven. The Police National Computer (P.N.C.) and collators were only mentioned four times, perhaps reflecting the importance attached by detectives to information collected

directly from all involved and the importance of local knowledge. Interestingly, as well, in line with the actual use made of forensic services, only four mentioned forensic Scenes of Crime (S.O.C.) or fingerprints, with three actually saying that they were of little or no use. Nor was modus operandi given importance, since only two mentioned it. Time to pursue investigations and luck were both endorsed by four offices. The overwhelming impression is that information and local knowledge are believed to be the most important factors in solving crime, and that technical and scientific aids and presently available computerised information systems figure very little.

The second question asked "What skills are necessary for an investigator to solve crime?", for which there were eighty three responses. Perhaps it should not be surprising that an ability to communicate occurred in over a quarter of responses in view of the importance attached to getting information. The ability to communicate, or its more passive form, to be approachable, was often mentioned in relation to specific groups of people, such as victims, offenders, witnesses, as well as the general public, and also colleagues. Again knowledge of the local area and of local villains also featured, as did the qualities of patience, persistence and tenacity. Objectivity featured equally highly. However, time to pursue inquiries and to organise one's own time were mentioned on only five occasions. The somewhat less definable skills of "gut feeling", "intuition", "nose for it" and "common sense" were only mentioned on six occasions, perhaps by those who thought that luck played a large part in successful crime detection.

A question was asked in order to find out if officers regarded the C.I.D. as possessing any special skills as opposed to the uniformed officers, the third question put was "With reference to the investigation of crimes, do C.I.D. officers and uniformed officers possess different skills and abilities? Which additional skills are possessed by C.I.D. officers? Which additional skills are possessed by uniform officers?" There were fifty six responses to the first part of the question and only fifteen to the second part, reflecting the belief that the C.I.D. do have more skill, but not necessarily ability, but comments also revealed that there was some resentment and tension between the two branches, seen in comments such as "some C.I.D. officers are less competent than

uniformed officers because they were so specialised" and the special ability of the uniformed branch was "drinking tea". These comments were, however, isolated and did not reveal any widespread friction. The main reason for this lack of friction, which all too often does occur in other forces, being the policy of promotion, in the Devon and Cornwall force at least, which positively encourages transfer from C.I.D. to uniformed branch on several occasions during an officer's career.

There was an agreement that C.I.D. officers were more skilful than the uniformed branch, but this was attributed to training, the ability to specialise and the time to pursue inquiries. Experience was also a factor which received endorsement. In particular interpersonal and interviewing skills were most frequently mentioned. It was interesting that the skills aspect was emphasised by the replies and not some different kind of ability. Differences in ability were rarely mentioned, and then not always unambiguously as in "being as devious as the people you deal with" or "more ruthless personality" others, however, thought that "perception" or "blending into the scene" or "a natural gift for interviewing" were also relevant.

The particular and special skills mentioned in relation to the uniformed branch were a broader outlook and special local knowledge. Ironically, perhaps the C.I.D. lack of uniform was occasionally cited as an advantage in interviewing people, whereas the presence of a uniformed officer was cited as an advantage in making the officer more approachable.

Although officers were asked the fourth and fifth questions separately namely "What organisational facilities are needed to assist in the solution of crime?" and "What technical facilities are needed to assist in the solution of crime?" they have been analysed together because of the overlap in answers. For example the Police National Computer (P.N.C.) might be thought of as an organisational facility or technical one.

There were fifty five and thirty eight responses respectively to these two questions. Overwhelmingly the one area which was identified as not only presently useful but could be even more useful, was information from collators, the P.N.C., force and national Criminal Record Offices (C.R.O.s) and the future computerisation of records. There were distinct pleas for a better service from the collators in terms of

continual access and better information. There seemed to be a belief that computers could speed up access to information and hold more information, although one or two officers also noted the need to train officers more in the use of computers. There seemed a general awareness of the advantages of computers and the computerisation of records.

Despite the low evaluation of technical and scientific aids in the first question, such aids were endorsed as second only to the information data bases, and above specialist squads. This could be interpreted as an attitude that they may not always be useful or even relevant, but when they are needed they are indispensable. More equipment, very often of a specific nature, was mentioned, but there seemed to be no resistance to improved technology, rather the opposite, a belief that performance would improve with more and better access to information.

Finally, the officers were asked if they had any additional comments to make, to which there were sixty four responses. The variety of responses did not yield any significant categories other than the twelve respondents who cited the need for better co-operation with C.I.D. There were four calls for more men and three for less statistics and paperwork, but the other answers were far too diverse to meaningfully categorise.

From nearly four hundred statements made by officers there seems to be a general agreement that information collected from all people involved in a crime, local knowledge and access to this information were the most important factors in leading to a successful investigation. very few officers thought that luck or special abilities of officers played a part, rather they emphasised training in the development of skills.

Therefore the officers' own perceptions of what is needed to improve the detection rate is far removed from the gifted amateur world of fictional detectives with extraordinary powers. So too is their perception of the relevance of forensic work, at least as far as the solution to the vast majority of crime is concerned. While the officers recognised the importance of interviewing skills, and the need for these to be developed with training, the effects of the introduction of The Police and Criminal Evidence Act (P.A.C.E.) seems at present, to limit rather than enhance their use. Therefore, it is only in the area of greater data collection and improved processing, both in terms of access

to the information and the speed that it can be accessed and processed, that those actually responsible for solving crimes believe that more crimes will be solved.

Finally, it is interesting to note the extent to which the officers seem to be moving away from an image of themselves modelled on the fictional detectives and place more emphasis on professional skills which are developed through training, and the gathering and processing of information.

CHAPTER 9
HOW DOES CRIME GET SOLVED
MIDDLE MANAGER'S PERCEPTION

Group discussions were conducted with some twenty six police officers of Inspector rank attending two regional training courses, one in June 1984 and the other in July 1985. In the main the contributions were from the five police forces in the South West but the July course included two inspectors from the Royal Hong Kong Police, one from Singapore and one from the Ministry of Defence.

Both courses were asked to comment on factors that they considered were necessary and important skills required in the detection of crime or give their views on other elements that contributed to the success or otherwise of the investigation of crime by police. The sessions, each comprising some two hours of discussions were tape recorded with the proviso that no one individual would be identified as being attributable to any particular quote and that the record of the discussions was to be analysed only for research purposes. The author then analysed the transcripts of the discussions amounting to seventy two pages and the following comments, observations and quotes are taken from that analysis.

A detailed examination of the comments emanating from the June 1984 course revealed the following main points in connection with the investigation of crime.

1. Proliferation of paper work preventing officers more fully investigating crime.
2. No case screening.
3. No progress report and file chasing system.
4. Failure to identify trends and series.
5. Lack of crime management facilities.
6. Initial action (in the investigation of crime) vital, and yet given to inexperienced officers.
7. Information from the public significant in the successful detection of crime.
8. Obtaining evidence for prosecution an important aspect of the detective's function.

9. The importance of interviewing skills for all police officers
10. Need for better, more systematic capture of data, especially at the scene of a crime.
11. The pressure on police to write everything down, the self protection syndrome.
12. The need to strengthen the organisational approach to crime recording and investigation.
13. Need for practical computer systems in crime recording intelligence and investigation.
14. Need for some form of crime screening.
15. The importance of local knowledge in the detection of crime.
16. Lacking professionalism in the use of crime intelligence.

The comments reflected a high degree of awareness of the inadequacy and inefficiency of existing systems of criminal investigation together with some explanations usually made in the context of justifying or excusing present methods. Constraints on improving performance were possibly indicative of the middle management dilemma of being cognisant of poor performance yet incapable of the necessary organisational power to effect significant changes as exemplified by the following quote, "Supervisory officers lose track of the way in which we record our crimes at the moment, by that I mean that if I as the Duty Inspector were to be on leave for a few days, I would come back to work and I would have to thumb through the various crime complaints and it is very difficult to get a picture from the crime complaint as to what police action has been taken already and what action really ought to be in the future". (Inspector June 1984).

The sixteen points covering the main comments can be grouped to give the main areas and shortcomings identified. For example, the lack of an effective case screening system (2) results in a proliferation of paper work preventing officers more fully investigating crime (1). Accepting the qualification that having to investigate insignificant and trivial crimes will result in the generation of more paper work and leave less time for the more important and more significantly the more productive (from a success or failure point of view) cases. Similarly (14) and (11) would both be

accomplished with an adequate crime screening system. The difference between a crime and a case is generally one of emphasis in that a case usually refers to the process of investigation being conducted as a result of a crime being reported.

The lack of an effective case management system is strongly identified in (3), (5), (12) and (13) and in the following quote taken from the transcript: "...Supervisory officers cannot monitor the police action that has been taken. We have been notified that a crime has taken place but there is nothing at this stage for the supervisory officer to tell him or her what action has been taken". (Inspector June 1984).

An identifiable and understandable concern was the importance of initial action and investigation and the relative inexperience of the majority of police officers performing that task. The lack of an adequate system that captured the information available at the scene especially that given by members of the public and the need for the possession of interviewing skills, and a realisation of the importance of evidence gathering enables points (6), (7), (19), (15) and (8) and (9) to be collated in a category relating to the "initial investigation of a crime" and the need for a systematic and supportive (to the police officer) system to ensure better performance in that area. "... initial action is so vital - it can produce a lot of evidence or the thing really has no chance of anything." (Inspector June 1984). "...The detectives of crime are really the public and it is the information that they provide which leads to the detection." (Inspector June 1984). "I am an ex-CID officer, ninety per cent of the activities or more could be done in uniform". (Inspector June 1984).

The final main grouping in the comments of the 1984 course was concerned with the failure to identify trends and series (4) which would be covered by the suggestion at (16) of a failure to use intelligence adequately and in (13) where the provision of such a computerised system would ensure the identification of trends as well as ensuring case screening and case management.

The July 1985 course contained sixteen Inspectors as opposed to the ten on the 1984 course and contained three officers from overseas. The main points emanating from the discussions and talks from the transcript were as follows:-

1. No systematic evaluation of different reports of crime in order to establish a series

- of factors which would indicate commission by the same offender.
2. No early identification of trends or series.
 3. Little or no overall monitoring of crimes that have occurred over time.
 4. Lack of communication between detectives and uniformed officers.
 5. Inability to link crimes with possible offenders via the knowledge of the *modus operandi* of professional criminals.
 6. Lack of adequate local knowledge.
 7. Realisation that investigative skills are dependent on the information obtained.
 8. Multi-functional aspect of police work inhibits ability to concentrate on crime as a priority.
 9. Lack of systematic information and data gathering especially at the scene of an incident.
 10. Lack of considered approach on receipt of emergency calls, e.g. to keep the informan on the telephone as long as possible to secure the maximum information whilst having despatched a response vehicle to the scene in the interim period.
 11. Lack of adequate and professional training for control room staff.
 12. Lack of case screening.
 13. A realisation of merely recording rather than properly investigating crime.
 14. Failure to give sufficient information on *modus operandi* with the result that the details are so sparse that no meaningful comparisons can be made.
 15. Lack of communication.
 16. Inadequacy of training in interrogation techniques.
 17. Lack of consistency in detective attitude.
 18. Too much paperwork for detectives.
 19. The need with the future introduction of tape recording to think more about interrogation than hitherto.
 20. No clearly defined lines as to what a police constable will investigate as to what a detective will investigate.
 21. Lack of adequate intelligence system.

As probably one would expect with relatively homogeneous groups the Inspector's course of 1984 showed considerable similarities with 1985. The sense of managerial frustration identified from analysis on the 1984 course if anything was more forcibly and critically highlighted in 1985. Although the format was essentially the same with the argument that no single individual would be attributable to a specific quote and that the tape recordings and the transcripts would be looking for opinion and a degree of consensus, the 1985 group took a broader view of the police function in terms of criminal investigation and related that function more directly to the wider police function, see (8), (10), (11) and (15).

The need for an effective system of case screening was highlighted (12), (13), (18) and (20) as exemplified by the quote "We don't investigate crime do we? We just record it. You go along to the scene and fill out what you see on the bit of paper. You see M.O. (*modus operandi*) and say 'in through the back window', you don't actually describe the M.O., so with this you don't actually investigate crime. If you get about fifty jobs that are all done between 6 a.m. and 8 a.m. in the next morning, then you start looking at the M.O. That's the problem." (Inspector July 1985 course).

The inability to record sufficient details of a crime, especially crimes where there is evidence of distinctive patterns of behaviour such as burglary, will be a recurring theme of this study and further demonstrated in written and graphic form. Suffice it to say at this stage that if the *modus operandi* of the fifty crimes quoted above only read 'entered building and stole property', then from an investigative aspect there is nothing to indicate how many of those crimes were committed by the same individual or in the investigative sense 'is there one or fifty burglars operating in this area?' at that particular time. This lack of arguably essential knowledge in an investigative, resource, allocative and managerial sense is commonplace even in the fictionalised revered corridors of Scotland Yard. "When I was the Force Intelligence Officer I went up to the M.O. (*modus operandi*) section at the 'Yard' one day and I thought 'this is going to be quite good', but it was just as bad. The reason why it isn't very good and why it has changed in the last few years is because particularly with the 74's (The Home Office standard form Criminal Record Office Form 74 is submitted to the National

Records Office at Scotland Yard at the conclusion of every criminal conviction and contains a space to describe the M.O. used in the crime committed), people just don't put the M.O. on." (Inspector July 1985).

The lack of an effective case management system, that is the ability to monitor the progress of an investigation, who has done what, and when, in connection with the investigation, what stage has been reached and who is at any time actively engaged on the case, was identified more implicitly by the 1985 course in (1), (2), (3) and (4). Whereas the 1984 course recognised the lack of effective monitoring managerial systems as counter productive to the optimum use of scarce resources.

Although both courses highlighted the lack of an adequate intelligence system (basically the sightings and use of vehicles by known and active criminals and their associates), the 1985 course gave it greater emphasis (4), (5), (6), (7) and (21), "I think we play at intelligence generally, don't we. I mean we have got these local intelligence officers which is a modern name for collators and nominally to each one you have got attached one field intelligence officer, who is supposed to go out and gather any information. The best place he can gather information from is the beat bobbys and the beat bobby's eyes (Inspector July 1985).

The importance of the initial action at the scene of a crime was again recognised by the 1985 course as one aspect of the initial investigation that although crucial was not being effectively carried out by the individuals and by the lack of effective systems (2), (4), (7), (8), (9), (10), (11), (13) and (20).

The 1985 course gave greater emphasis and importance to the very first indication that a crime had occurred. The initial indication would in all probability be to civilian control room staff who would despatch a police officer by radio (almost universally an officer in a vehicle) to the scene. "Are we doing well or are we just grabbing the quick details. I'll tell you where that comes over a lot. If you get a report on a robbery or something like that and you are sent as the initial response vehicle and get the information from controllers They never keep anybody on control long enough and just say hold on a minute, yes I'll get a vehicle going and let me ask them some more information. You don't get 'Yes the offender is going backwards' in a car, they seem to

take the information put the phone down and then deploy the troops instead of just taking their time a little bit and getting the best information." (Inspector July 1985 course).

Unlike the previous chapter dealing with structured interviews of police officers, the Inspectors' sessions were much more free ranging and the discussions recorded contemporaneously and later transcribed and analysed. No attempt was made to direct attention to specific areas but the general theme of police performance in the area of criminal investigation was well covered especially from a managerial sense. The organisational knowledge of the participants was much greater and as demonstrated earlier a large number of the Inspectors (ranging from a third to half the total surveyed) would have previous detective experience in addition to present experience of supervising detectives.

The group discussions were valuable in clearly identifying points needing organisational attention and especially that of a management level higher than those surveyed. These points can be summarised as follows:-

1. The need for better data capture at the scene of a crime to include more information especially in the category of how the crime was committed, i.e. the *modus operandi* (M.O.).

An important qualification and comment in relation to this initial investigative function was a recognition of the need for more experienced officers to capture data at the scene. The two comments reflect the managerial frustration captured by the recording of the Inspector's discussions in that by basic deployment patterns the least experienced officers are those who inevitably will be despatched to the first reporting of the commission of a crime. (See later chapters on the proposed new Crime System and the Lap Computer experiment which seeks to ensure that less experienced officers effectively deal with initial investigation requirements).

2. The need for some form of case screening.

This was a consistently strong requirement according to the opinions of the Inspectors courses surveyed. Again something of a managerial paradox is highlighted here in that at the Inspector level of decision making the greatest organisational

freedom exists to terminate active investigation of a case and file. The inability to apply universally accepted criterion to those crimes that warrant investigation or not, results in officers of supervisory rank (mainly Sergeants and Inspectors) having to make subjective individual decisions on whether a certain crime should continue to be investigated and for how long.

3. The need for better analysis of data to determine trends and series and effective computer analysis and better crime management.

This need reflects the lack of systematic approach to the investigation of crime and is directly related to the lack of case screening. The problem raised is that without any established formula or criteria to determine importance and solvability factors, the relationship of those two elements to the allocation of other scarce resources available to investigate, can result in inconsistency, inefficiency and often confusion. Having decided which cases are to be actively investigated then as managers it was reasonable to expect that they wished an effective monitoring and supervisory system that would enable them to be more efficient in their supervisory role.

4. The need for better communication between departments.

The typical pattern of crime investigation has been already described in earlier chapters and will be referred to in later chapters on case screening and case management techniques. The lack of a systematic approach to crime screening means confusion and overlap concerning who does what and when and up to what point in an investigation, does the first uniformed officer (responsible for the initial investigation) hand over to the assigned detective who will take over the case. The relationship between the time, capture and exchange of information between the two elements is recognised within and without the Police Service, Greenwood *et al* (1975), Reiss (1971), Morgan (1980).

The difficulty with functional and shift patterns exacerbates the difficulty of adequate communication between essential elements of the Police Service highlighting yet again the need for a systematic approach to ensure that the information is collected, analysed, compared historically and communicated to elements within the organisation.

5. The need for a different more scientific approach to crime investigation.

The recognition of this need by the middle management of the Police Service illustrates not only frustration within the present investigative approach to the investigation of crime but a realisation that with the imposition of greater safeguards on the individual human rights of prisoners, old traditional methods of intimidation and coercion (see Chapter on Interrogation) need to be replaced by a more considered scientific approach. In that sense there is a recognition that the police can learn from researchers and aspects of psychological theory especially in respect of interrogation techniques. The significant understanding of the process of criminal investigation by the twenty six Inspectors surveyed gives support to other research in this study (see Chapter on Data Capture) that police performance in regard to the investigation of the majority of crimes reported (homicide and other most serious crimes excluded) is haphazard, unsystematic, unco-ordinated and managerially unsupervisable.

The individual interviews of police officers and detectives in the previous chapter showed little or no identification of discernible individual skills in the process of criminal investigation. Attributes identified were more concerned with organisational skills, the ability to seek and obtain information. The ability to communicate was the most frequently identifiable attribute of a detective. In an attempt to identify additional skills possessed by detectives over and above those possessed by ordinary police officers (who as previously demonstrated are all investigators), little of the skills beloved by fictional representation were revealed, but rather an emphasis on skills seen as common to both groups rather than some different or additional form of ability.

The interviews of the inspectors revealed, as one would expect from middle managers as opposed to the individual basic practitioners responses of the structured interviews, a greater recognition of the need for effective systems, not only for the investigation of crime but the supervision of such investigations. In the United Kingdom (unlike the majority of European Police Forces), all police officers start in the bottom rank of constable which means that all managers were at one time basic first level practitioners. Unlike the armed forces where arguably officer entry precludes a basic craft understanding of the lowest basic function of the organisation, every

Inspector of police in the United Kingdom has been a constable responsible for the initial investigation of a crime and can relate to personal experiences at that level in addition to their present experience as supervisors of those conducting initial and protracted investigations of crime.

The following chapters will show how by the examination of data collected, and the examination of case screening and case management techniques that the inadequacy of present systems prevents the collection of meaningful data especially in the field of *modus operandi*. Additionally it will be demonstrated how the present system restricts the potential efficacy of the initial and subsequent investigation processes.

The question of lack of essential experience by officers conducting initial investigations has also been addressed by seeking a method of data capture which compensates for their lack of experience by use of pre-programmed crime memoire and 'intelligent prompt' systems via the Lap computer experiment (see Chapter 19).

Completing the examination of the investigation process resulted in experiments (see chapter 18) in regard to those crimes such as burglary where the ability exists to compare behavioural characteristics identified at the scene of a crime with those of known and convicted criminals. The result was the concept and experimentation with a form of 'expert system' of detection based on the rules and craft practices of the best and most experienced practitioner police detectives.

This study therefore moves from an identification of the inadequacy of present systems and criminal investigation into the realms of experimentation and new improved systems comparing the old with the new and identifying the importance of data capture and investigative systems that hopefully will lay the foundations for a new and more scientific and managerially based police approach to the investigation of crime.

CHAPTER 10
CRIMINAL STATISTICS AND THE REPORTING
OF CRIME TO THE POLICE

In any examination of official statistics of known crime such as those published annually by H.M.S.O., it is now generally accepted that the figures so given reflect only that amount of crime either reported to the police and recorded by them, or discovered by the police themselves, rather than the amount of crime actually committed.

The so called 'dark figure' of crime or unreported crime is believed to vary in amount dependent on the classification and seriousness of the offence. Early studies in the United States by Ennis (1967) declared that some 35% of robberies and 68% of burglaries were not being reported to police.

A study in the United Kingdom by Sparks, Genn and Dodd (1977) of inhabitants in three London boroughs concluded that only 10% of crime that had occurred was reported to police. Unlike the study by Ennis, Sparks and his colleagues did not distinguish between offences of varying seriousness.

The reasons why those people surveyed did not report the crimes to police were, according to Ennis, because 41% of them felt that the crime was a private matter and police should not be involved. The main reason accounting for some 58% of those surveyed was the feeling on their part that the Police would not be effective in the circumstances.

The reasons why victims or witnesses to crimes that have occurred do not report the fact to police can vary enormously and can range from a legitimate fear of being involved in the criminal justice system to feeling the matter is too trivial to concern the Police.

In the author's own experience as a detective officer in London and the West Midlands, until recent changes in the law which preserved the anonymity of the victim, in cases of rape the victim was subjected to a cross examination in court where publicly her character and morality were questioned. Arguably the subsequent court experience was more traumatic and damaging to the victim than the crime itself.

In other cases the reporting of a crime may reveal unacceptable behavioural characteristics of the victim such as a homosexual importuning in public lavatories where he was beaten and robbed.

The desire of citizens to treat a crime against them as a private matter and therefore not trusting the police to be officially involved is understandable. The involvement of police would necessitate an unacceptable degree of publicity in that the neighbours would be contacted in a search for witnesses. Another reason is the victim may believe that if too much police time is spent investigating trivial offences then the police will not be able to successfully deal with major crime, thereby increasing the amount of major crime with the resultant fear of becoming a victim of such serious crime. Also the nature of the crime may reflect some criticism of the victim as in the case of the theft of valuables from an unlocked vehicle in spite of considerable police advertising and crime prevention campaigns to lock vehicles and secure valuables.

The British Crime Survey of 1981 (Hough and Mayhew 1983) were amongst the most major studies of crime victimisation ever conducted. One person aged 16 years or over was interviewed in each of about 10,905 households in England and Wales and 5,000 in Scotland. The respondents were screened and ascertained whether or not they had been victims of personal offences or offences which occurred in the household where they resided. The victims so identified were asked additional questions pertaining to the crimes involved and all victims and a significant amount of other samples completed a follow-up questionnaire which covered life styles and other tactics which could have affected their victimisation.

The figures obtained were then compared with the figures derived from the official government publication on Criminal Statistics for 1981.

A significant feature of the Survey was that only one category was similar between the figures obtained from the British Crime Survey and the officially published Criminal Statistics and that was the crime of theft of a motor vehicle. Generally the survey indicated much higher levels of crime that had occurred than those published in the official statistics, for example, twice as many burglaries, five times as much criminal damage or vandalism. The overall ratio for incidents which had been compared was

one in four. The explanation for the high rate of reporting the theft of motor vehicles was presumably that they looked to the police to get it back and without a report to the police the insurance company would not pay out on any claim.

The reasons given for not reporting crimes to the police was similar but more extensive and wider ranging than the studies of Ennis (1967), Sparks *et al* (1977) and Biderman *et al* (1967) and Hindelang (1976) and other pioneers of victimisation surveys.

The main reasons were that the offence was too trivial or that there was no appreciable loss or damage. In cases of personal crimes 38% of respondents gave this reason whereas in cases of crimes against households, as opposed to crimes against individuals, this figure rose to 49%.

The perceived fact that the police could do nothing accounted for 16% and 34% respectively of personal and household crimes. In the case of personal offences 13% felt the matter one that was inappropriate for police to deal with and wished to resolve any action themselves. The much lower corresponding figure of 5% for household crimes could mean that the decision not to involve the police was more of a collective one with the majority favouring non reporting. Again fear or dislike of police was the reason for some 6% of people who were the subject of personal crime for not reporting the crime officially, compared to only 1% of household crime respondents giving this as a reason for not involving the police.

The British Crime Survey although revealing a sizeable 'dark' figure of crime for 1981 which remained unreported to police and therefore unrecorded did make the point that in general those crimes not reported to the police were the less serious crimes. There are, however, important exceptions. The British Crime Surveys found one third of incidents involving theft of goods valued between £100 and £250 went unreported and nearly half of those cases of violence which required medical treatment and half the incidents about which the victims said that they were 'extremely upset' went unreported. However, the police also record a great many minor incidents, indeed one fifth of household burglaries in the 1981 Criminal Statistics involved no losses, most being merely attempts and unlike the British Crime Survey sometimes record milk

bottle thefts.

Another factor recognised by the British Crime Surveys of 1981 and 1983 was the question of classification of crime. By way of illustration if a lady reports the theft of a handbag and police after enquiry believe it was in all probability lost with no evidence of theft, the classification by police will be lost property. In a victimisation survey the fact that the matter is reported by the respondent as theft will inevitably ensure that it is recorded as a theft whereas had the matter been officially reported to police it would not necessarily have warranted a criminal classification. These 'no crime' rates may also be increased by the practice of 'cuffing' (a process whereby the police alter the original classification of an incident from that which they are obliged to officially record as a crime to another classification such as lost property which does not appear as the officially recorded 'crime' statistic) but seem to be consistent at around 11 %, both in England and the United States (see McCabe and Sutcliffe, 1978, Lambert 1970, Biderman 1967, Popinsky 1976, Skolnick 1966).

The 1983 British Crime Survey followed a similar pattern of general victimisation surveys to the 1981 study. The reasons for people not reporting crimes to police did not significantly differ from the 1981 findings with 55% giving triviality of the offence as the main reason for not reporting; with 16% feeling that police would not have been able to do anything and 10% felt it was not a matter for police and wanted to deal with the matter themselves.

The overriding conclusion was that whatever their conception of serious crime, most people would agree that a serious crime is one which by definition ought wherever possible to be dealt with by the police and the courts and if they were the victims of such crimes, they would feel they ought to notify the police.

In the 1983 survey again the theft of motor vehicles was the highest category of crime reported at 99%. The next highest category was burglary with loss which comprised 87%. The most poorly reported crimes were theft in a dwelling 23% and sexual offences only 10%.

Respondents were also asked to grade crimes in a seriousness scale. The theft of cars rated 7.6 on the seriousness scale yet was 99% reported to police. By contrast

sexual offences rated 9.1 on the seriousness scale yet was only reported to police in 10% of cases that such crimes occurred.

The main conclusions at the 1983 survey were that of an estimated twelve million incidents the vast majority were offences against property, 5% were crimes of violence and a further 12% were common assaults involving no or negligible injury.

For those crime categories which can be compared with police statistics the British Crime Survey showed an increase in crime of 10% between 1981 and 1983. The equivalent figure for official police criminal statistics was 12%.

Two thirds of incidents uncovered by the British Crime Survey went unreported to the police; crimes such as car theft and burglary involving loss were well reported while low value property crimes and minor assaults were not. Where people chose not to report incidents to the police was usually because they judged them to be too trivial or not amenable to effective police action.

It is now generally accepted that the public and especially the victims of crime are responsible for the initial reporting of that crime to the police, and the main reasons for not doing so have been previously explained and illustrated. The study by David Steer (1981) for the Royal Commission on Criminal Procedure reaffirmed earlier studies in the United States by Reiss (1971) and those commissioned by the Rand Corporation. In the United Kingdom Steer's work reinforced the findings of Bottomley and Coleman (1980) in particular.

Steer, in his study of crimes reported to the Police in Oxford 1974 concluded that over 70% of all crimes were reported to Police by the victim with the figure rising to nearly 75% in the more serious cases. Other witnesses, including store detectives, amounted for a further 10.5% in all cases and nearly 20% in serious cases. Direct discovery by uniformed police officers amounted to 2.2% and 2.3% respectively for all crimes and serious cases. Indirect discovery which could arise as the result of police intervention or cases admitted by persons in custody amounted to 5.2% for all offences and one half of one per cent in serious cases.

Detective officers only discovered less than 1% directly of all crimes and the records showed no discovery directly of serious crime. The figures for indirect discovery

of crime by detectives showed nearly 10% for all crimes and nearly 2.5% for serious crimes. The latter figure is attributed to the admission of other offences by persons being interviewed by detective officers whilst in custody. Steer concluded that between 75% and 80% of crime was reported to the police by ordinary members of the public as victims or witnesses. Other means of communication are by workers in occupations who come into contact with victims of crime, such as ambulance staff, staff of hospitals and fire brigades.

During the course of his research with the police at Oxford and in particular with the detectives that he accompanied, Steer had many informal discussions apart from his specific research into the recording and investigation of crime. In one such discussion described on page 71 of his research study, 'Uncovering Crime The Police Role', the discussion centred around the effectiveness of the Criminal Investigation Department in the investigation and detection of crime. The discussion centred around the premise put forward by one experienced detective that very little crime was detected as a result of some special expertise possessed by C.I.D. officers and in particular that their wealth of local knowledge contributed very little in practice to the overall detection rate.

The point was further made that any group of ordinary people familiar with the criminal law could achieve the same success. This statement is in fact almost identical to one of the main conclusions to the well documented Rand sponsored study 'The Criminal Investigation Process' (Greenwood, Chaiken and Petrasilia 1977).

Suffice to say that a spirited debate followed with many present defending the special skills possessed by detective officers. Steer concluded that as well as police playing only a small part in the discovery of indictable crime which in the main is reported by the victim, the admission of previously reported offences in the interview room and searches of the property of persons coming into police custody are, however, responsible for the discovery by police of an important minority of previously unreported crimes. Steer concludes that it follows in the circumstances that those are also important factors in the detection of crime but more often than not crimes are detected because the identity of the suspect is relatively clear from the outset.

The importance of the study by Steer was not that it confirmed how crime was reported to the police and by whom, the subject was previously researched by many, including the author Morgan (1980), Reiss (1973), Sellin and Wolfgang (1964), Black (1970), Bottomley and Coleman (1980), but that the public provided the vast amount of information that led to the detection of the crime.

Steer refers to the suspicion techniques as a strategy adopted by specialist squads of detectives who concentrate on the gathering of intelligence and maintaining movements of persons identified as 'professional criminals', thereby concentrating on the criminal rather than seeking information and evidence from the crime itself. In this context Steer, by describing this particular police strategy, would seem to give credence to the many sociological theories largely discredited by Steer himself. Such theories are those of Chapman, writing that attitudes including the stereotype of the criminal may determine whether or not the policeman when faced with certain behaviour will decide to inquire into it. Chapman goes on to say that this fact is less likely if the person is middle rather than working class and talks of police creating crime in that by their action crime and deviancy are defined. Chapman (1968).

Many other writers place a great deal of importance on the role of the police in defining crime and the role of the selectivity of the police as a determinant in how crimes come to notice. Bottomley and Coleman (1976) refer to the police as the gatekeepers of the criminal justice process, and by implication therefore police are deemed to decide which people are officially labelled as deviant. The implicit question and often the answer given is that police officers are uneven in their approach to people of different social classes, do carry with them a stereotype of the typical offender (whatever that may be) and when investigating crime attempt to seek the culprit from amongst those known to them as persons with previous convictions for similar offences. (See for example Piliavin and Briar 1964, Chambliss 1976, Matza 1964). It may be worth noting here that stereotyping is by no means confined to one section of the community, as demonstrated by Shoemaker *et al* (1973), Secord and Backman (1964), Gove (1970), Scott (1969).

Jerome Skolnick (1966) in the writing of discretion of police in the United States

and the use of informants in drugs cases then generalises from a few perceived styles of investigation that all investigations follow that pattern. Similarly, David Matza (1969) in his book "Becoming Deviant" talks of the "incidental" and "classic mode of suspicion". Apart from murder characterised as giving rise to the first kind of suspicion, most other crimes give rise to the classic mode of suspicion which in turn leads, according to Matza, to systematic harrassment of those previously known to the police. Matza does not produce enough evidence to support his assumptions that the use of informers and the classic bureaucratic mode of suspicion comprised the general strategy of police in the investigation of crime.

Having questioned the presumption of many writers of the 'police create the crime' school does not imply that many of the police characteristics they have observed do not exist. The criticism of them is not that events they describe are not readily observable amongst police officers, but that these are one or two or three of many strategies and should not be mistaken or misinterpreted as some great universal characteristic.

There are undoubtedly certain age groups, who, to the police officer's own knowledge, commit certain kinds of offences. Young men are identified especially between the ages of fifteen and twenty to be responsible for certain types of crime. Police officers would therefore not unnaturally be encouraged to focus more attention on that group than for example elderly people or females of that age group not accompanied by males. If by focussing special attention arrests are made then this strategy becomes a self fulfilling prophecy.

This strategy also becomes what Leslie Wilkins (1964) called a 'deviation amplifying system'. A characteristic described by Cohen (1972) in the context of Mods and Rockers motorcycle and scooter clashes in the middle sixties. Michael Chatterton reminds his fellow researchers "that they "ought to begin to treat police work as something which deserves far more research and theoretical attention than they have been prepared to allow. It is evident in the books written on the subject of crime and deviance that many 'authorities' in these fields have adopted an almost casual approach to a phenonemon which is of central relevance to their topic. If they have

alluded to the Police role in criminalisation they have been neglectful in terms of their own methodological commitments by presenting generalisations about police work without any serious attempt to provide supporting data (Chatterton 1976). Besides, recent researches and reviews of the literature do not seem to support the labelling perspective in this context. (Hirschi 1980, Tittle 1980, Black and Reiss 1970, Lundeman *et al* 1978).

The studies by Steer (1981), Bottomley and Coleman (1980), Zander (1979) and others have attempted to investigate actual reporting and recording practice which challenges some of the earlier statements of the labelling theorists. If there is discretion and degrees of priority on the part of police in deciding what crimes to officially investigate and what crimes to deal with by caution formally or informally, then it must be accepted that the public have the power and do exercise a similar discretion and prioritising of those offences they determine will or will not be reported to police.

A qualified assumption that can be made concerning the examination of criminal statistics between those that are officially recorded as compared with those that are known to have occurred, is generally the discrepancy diminishes as the seriousness of the offence increases.

If the vast majority of crime is not discovered by the police, it follows that, in regard to crime, the role of the police is overwhelmingly concerned with its detection. It is therefore necessary to look at those factors which, in myth at least, contribute most to the solving of crime; namely forensic science, interrogation and 'hunches', (that is knowledge based upon experience and information).

CHAPTER 11

THE ROLE OF FORENSIC SCIENCE IN THE INVESTIGATION OF CRIME

In the world of fiction, especially that of Sherlock Holmes, scientific and to a certain extent quasi scientific evidence played a prominent part in the discovery of the perpetrator of a crime. In more contemporary fiction, two television series 'The Expert' starring Marius Goring and 'Quincy' a transatlantic version starring Jack Klugman have exclusively focused on the scientific examination of a scene of a crime or the body of a victim as the start of a comparative and deductive process eventually leading to the discovery of the offender.

In real life many famous cases have centered around the crucial scientific evidence and the presence of blood and semen and the resultant match between offender and victim is still considered the classic proof positive in criminal justice systems throughout the world. Recent advances in forensic science have made it possible to further identify and classify blood groupings to associate them with a particular individual and the very recent discovery of an effective method of DNA 'fingerprinting' has been accepted by a criminal court in the United Kingdom, (R v Pitchfork 1988).

The study of fingerprints, ballistics, calligraphy, pathology, biology, explosive substances, blood, semen, human tissue, poisons, physical and scientific comparison and others, demonstrate the broad spectrum of scientific and quasi scientific examination and evidence available in the investigation of crime.

In many countries, such as the United States, all the facilities above would normally be provided either directly or through the local crime laboratory, the most famous of which are the various crime laboratories of the Federal Bureau of Investigation.

In the United Kingdom, especially England and Wales, there is a considerable demarcation between the provision of these various services. Fingerprint examination and expertise is in the main located within the various Police Forces and especially the

National Information Bureau of the Metropolitan Police which has, as the name implies, a national responsibility for maintaining criminal records. Similarly, there is a national pathology service which consists of a number of Home Office approved pathologists used by the police for the examination of victims of crime, or those bodies where the circumstances of death require such examination to establish whether or not death might have been caused by criminal action.

The police investigator has first line assistance from a Scenes of Crime officer who can either be a police officer or a civilian technician, specially trained in scenes of crime work predominantly seeking to discover fingerprint impressions, identifying suitable clothing or exhibits for subsequent forensic examination and carrying out photography, both still and video, to record the scene of the crime upon discovery.

It is the responsibility of the investigating officer, assisted by the scenes of crime officer, to determine what further scientific examination is required and to ensure that the various other scientific support agencies are activated and co-ordinated.

The fingerprint system fulfils two distinct and important roles in criminal investigation:

1. The tracing and positive identification of persons in custody by comparison with the fingerprint records of convicted persons on file.
2. The identification and comparison of marks found at the scene of a crime or on any vehicle or property so connected with a crime or other circumstances that establish a link between the owner of the fingerprint and the crime under investigation.

To be capable of positive identification a fingerprint must display a certain number of observable characteristics known as ridge marks or endings. The number of such characteristics necessary to prove positive similarity varies from country to country. In the United Kingdom sixteen such characteristics need to be shown as identical to prove conclusively that both sets of marks came from the same fingerprint. In the United States between ten and twelve such characteristics are required.

Fingerprints left at the scene of a crime can be developed by various techniques dependent on the type of surface involved. Such marks can be transferred to other

substances and photographed or photographed *in situ*. This task and the giving of expert fingerprint evidence at court is overwhelmingly a function of the police specialist whether a police officer or civilian employee.

In England and Wales the Home Office Forensic Science Service provides the bulk of forensic science expertise to Police Forces with the exception of the Metropolitan Police which has its own laboratory. The Service provides a number of regional laboratories together with a central research establishment. One of the guiding principles of forensic science is based on the early work of 'Locard' that "every contact leaves a trace". Not surprisingly therefore a great deal of the work of the Forensic Science Service is in the matching of various samples of hair, fibres, blood, semen found on the victim and found on the alleged offender. The staff of the Forensic Science Service consist of some four hundred or so scientists who are civil servants and when giving evidence at court do so as independent scientists, although invariably as the police are their largest customers they will be appearing for the prosecution.

The Forensic Science Service also provides an analysis service for blood/alcohol content and the determination of substances such as drugs, especially such illicit drugs as cannabis. Indeed when comparing the cases dealt with by the Forensic Service in 1984, of some 60,855 cases, over 68% were concerned with cases of driving under the influence of alcohol (48%) and possession of drugs, mainly cannabis (some 20%).

In analysing the 1984 figures, less than 1% of the time of the Forensic Service was spent on homicides and only 2% on sexual cases with 5% being spent on burglary which in case terms was the largest target group comprising some 3,030 cases out of a total of 60,855 (Home Office 1986). Serious crime comprised 18% of the workload for 1984 with 14% devoted to the examination of firearms, explosive documents, traffic accidents and the like.

The overwhelming volume of work of some 68% of the Forensic Science Service is arguably therefore concerned with the kind of routine analysis that can, and is, dealt with by mechanical and electronic devices, albeit operated by skilled and qualified scientific staff.

An even more illuminating statistic is the comparison between the eight key

categories of crime, namely homicide, woundings, sexual offences, burglary, robbery, theft, arson and criminal damage, submitted by the police to the Forensic Science Service in the years 1980 and 1984. In cases of homicide the percentage of cases submitted rose from 79% in 1980 with a case total of 415 to 92% in 1984 with a case total of 457. In all other cases, including wounding, sexual offences, burglary, robbery, theft, arson and damage, the percentage of cases submitted by the Police to the Forensic Science Service dropped from less than 1% in 1980 to 0.43% of cases that occurred in 1984 (Home Office 1986).

A further study conducted by the author on cases submitted by the Devon and Cornwall Constabulary to the Home Office Forensic Laboratory at Chepstow in the years 1984-1987 shows a similar downward trend.

Table 11.1
Cases submitted by the Devon & Cornwall Constabulary
to the Forensic Science Laboratory

1984

Category	Total Recorded Crimes	No. of cases to F.S.L.	% of cases to F.S.L.
Homicide	13	10	76.92
Woundings	2307	33	1.43
Sexual cases	553	31	5.60
Burglary	13247	106	0.80
Robbery	128	4	3.12
Theft (and handling)	34813	26	0.07
Arson	219	27	12.33
Damage	4993	66	1.32
TOTAL	56273	303	0.54

1985

Category	Total Recorded Crimes	No. of cases to F.S.L.	% of cases to F.S.L.
Homicide	11	10	90.91
Woundings	2552	20	0.78
Sexual cases	60535		5.78
Burglary	13362	88	0.66
Robbery	126	5	3.97
Theft (and handling)	38144	25	0.06
Arson	287	29	10.10
Damage	5809	40	0.69
TOTAL	60896	252	0.41

1986

Category	Total Recorded Crimes	No. of cases to F.S.L.	% of cases to F.S.L.
Homicide	12	8	66.66
Woundings	2622	23	0.88
Sexual cases	580	27	4.65
Burglary	15205	142	0.93
Robbery	165	2	1.21
Theft (and handling)	40792	26	0.06
Arson	279	21	7.53
Damage	6640	33	0.50
TOTAL	66295	282	0.42

1987

Category	Total Recorded Crimes	No. of cases to F.S.L.	% of cases to F.S.L.
Homicide	13	15*	100.00
Woundings	2897	37	1.28
Sexual cases	605	47	7.77
Burglary	15812	99	0.66
Robbery	172	4	2.32
Theft (and handling)	41004	11	0.03
Arson	258	14	5.43
Damage	7491	27	0.36
TOTAL	68252	254	0.37

* 2 cases from 1986

This table shows a steady decline from 0.54% in 1984 to 0.37% in 1987, as a percentage of cases sent to the laboratory of all cases that had been investigated. The hypothesis that apart from cases of homicide, the use of forensic science plays a minor role in the general process of the investigation of crime is supported.

In cases of wounding and sexual offences the low figure of cases where forensic evidence was sought must be viewed in the light of other scientific evidence that would normally be available. In both cases the victim would have been medically examined in a hospital or by a doctor either specifically to establish the commission of the offence such as rape, or in the course of treatment as in the case of woundings. Similarly in

other serious cases if there was positive evidence that a weapon was used by an individual there is little point in further forensic corroboration of that fact

Often as in the case of arson, only forensic examination of the scene will determine whether or not some form of accelerant such as petrol was used and if such evidence is found, form the basis and justification for the act to be classified as a crime.

In an examination of the seemingly incredibly low figure of 0.66% of some 15,812 cases of burglary, it must be pointed out as previously stated that fingerprint examination is not a function of the forensic science service in the United Kingdom, (unlike its crime laboratory counterparts in the United States).

Accordingly, the author looked at the corresponding figures for fingerprint examinations in connection with the investigation of crime with the following results.

Table 11.2
Devon and Cornwall Constabulary
Scene of Crime Examinations
1984 to 1987

	1984	1985	1986	1987
Scene of crime examinations	19589	17169	19956	19241
Total number of fingerprints found	6727	6455	6061	6971
Total number of identifications	971	943	987	1112
Percentage of identification in comparison with examinations conducted	4.96%	5.49%	4.94%	5.78%

The figures over this four year period show an increasing percentage of identifications for similar levels of examination, in 1987 over 19,000 crimes, some 7,000 marks were obtained which resulted in positive identification in 5.78% of all crimes investigated.

The relative importance of fingerprints to forensic science evidence in the process of criminal investigation needs to be viewed as two complimentary products of a scenes of crime examination. In a forensic examination of a crime where for example a tool was used to force entry, marks at the scene can be scientifically matched to characteristics

of the tool and microscopic examination could reveal traces of paint or other material found on the tool which can be proved to have come from the building forcibly entered. Further evidence is still additionally required to place the tool in the possession of the suspect at the time of the commission of the crime. The tool and the scientific evidence alone without direct corroborative evidence, that the suspect was the person responsible are not sufficient proof. If, however, a fingerprint belonging to the suspect is found at the scene of a crime, and he has no legitimate reason for being on those premises then normally that fingerprint evidence alone will be enough to establish the positive proof of guilt.

In some cases of scene of crime examination forensic and fingerprint examination will be exhaustively carried out as a first function, as in the cases of murder, but normally only those cases that indicate some possibility of fingerprints being found will be the subject of a detailed search for fingerprints by a specialist scenes of crime officer. The figure of 19,241 scene of crime examinations needs to be considered in the light of the total number of recorded crimes for 1987 in Devon and Cornwall which were 72,623, which means that such examinations were conducted in 26.51% of all criminal investigations. In many cases where fingerprint impressions are found, a series of additional fingerprints needs to be taken to eliminate those persons who would have normal access to the property, from those fingerprints which can be attributed to the offender. This factor accounts for the relatively high figures of fingerprints found after examination in relation to the actual number of identifications obtained.

The Police referral rate for forensic science examinations is not uniform or consistent and can vary throughout the country from a referral rate for Bedfordshire, in 1984 of 6.7 referrals per 1,000 cases to referral rate of 1.5 per 1,000 cases for Nottingham in that year. The submission of articles for forensic examination to the laboratory is left very much to the decision of the individual officer. A Government review of the Forensic Science Service in 1981, sometimes referred to as the Rayner Review, brought certain cost effective criteria to the workings of the laboratory with discouragement to police to submit cases with little anticipated pay off. Another danger was the over zealous officer who after, for example, an abortive drug raid, submitted

large quantities of clothing and substances as a form of 'forensic fishing expedition', in the hope of obtaining evidence from scientific examination that had not been obtained directly from the raid itself.

Apart from homicide where as subsequently explained a detailed scientific *post mortem* practically dictates complimentary forensic examination of the scene and possible suspects, the overall police use of forensic science as an aid to the investigation of serious criminal offences is less than one half of one percent.

Paradoxically the greatest use of the Forensic Science Service by police is in cases of drunken driving where the services of the laboratory are an essential ingredient in proving the offences because the Courts will only accept this evidence, and as stated comprise nearly half (48%) of all Forensic Service involvement with the police.

Table 11.3
Cases submitted by the Devon & Cornwall Constabulary
to the Forensic Science Laboratory

Category	Year	Total Recorded Crimes	No. of cases to F.S.L.	% of cases to F.S.L.
Drugs	1984	1415	654	46.22
	1985	1741	746	42.85
	1986	1753	584	33.32
	1987	2311	274	11.86

Category	Year	Test Given	Prosecutions	No. of cases to F.S.L.	% of cases to F.S.L.
Drink/ driving	1984	6554	2657	957	36.02
	1985	7533	2960	948	32.03
	1986	7555	2697	782	28.99
	1987	7830	3010	889	28.67

Again the national figures were related by the author to successive years of cases submitted by the Devon and Cornwall Constabulary to the Home Office Forensic Science Laboratory at Chepstow. A significant drop in drugs cases submitted between 1986 and 1987 is accounted for by the use of drug testing and recognition kits by the

police whereby fairly regularly found and identifiable substances can be identified without being formally submitted to the laboratory as previously.

The overwhelming amount of forensic science involvement with the police is still dominated by drug testing and blood alcohol cases occupying twice and three times respectively the amount of forensic cases examined in connection with the investigation of crime.

As will be reiterated throughout this work, the main successful strategies for the detection of crime centre around the information given by members of the public directly or indirectly and the elicitation of key factors by police available at the time and are closely allied to the reporting of crime (see for example the research of Morgan 1980, Steer 1981).

A similar situation with regard to the role of Forensic Science exists in the United States. The research of Peterson, Bender and Gilliard (1982) found that forensic evidence is only gathered in the small proportion of cases and used in even fewer instances. Fingerprints are in a different category as they not only provide an important causal link between the offender and the scene of a crime but more importantly serve as the only positive means of identification. The later study in the United States by Peterson *et al* (1983) included fingerprint cases as well as forensic ones and tended to reinforce an earlier study by Rosenthal and Travnicek (1974) which found that both forensic material and fingerprints were helpful in the prosecution sense of achieving guilty pleas.

The later Peterson study *et al* (1983) in comparing those cases with a high incidence of available physical evidence with those that did not, found in cases of robbery, assault and burglary, higher rates of clearance and conviction occurred where physical evidence was available.

Although not the subject of specific documented research, the importance of forensic science is most significant in cases of homicide. In such cases the presence of toxins or alcohol in the various organs is significant. The detailed pathologists examination itself raises other questions which necessitate an equally thorough and detailed forensic examination of the scene and the various suspects involved. In many

cases of murder especially those cases where the identity of the offender is not immediately known or suspected, the forensic evidence available is often the starting point which determines the course and outcome of the investigation.

Let us take, for example, a case of murder and robbery where an elderly person, living alone in a remote area is murdered, possibly raped and property stolen. All available evidence in the first stages of the investigation will be obtained from an examination of the scene of the crime and the body and clothing of the victim. The time of death, and the physical means of death, together with other crucial evidence will be provided by the pathologist in his detailed and painstaking examination. In such cases laboratory staff will in all probability attend the scene and conduct their examinations on site. The senior Scenes of Crime Officer together with his staff will thoroughly check the scene for fingerprints, blood and semen stains, points of contact with the victim and in securing entry to the premises. The most accurate record including photographic, both still and video, will be made of the scene together with a meticulous search for anything of interest or subsequent evidential value. After the *post mortem* the organs will be examined to determine what food and alcohol had been consumed and what evidence those factors could provide.

It is in such cases that the qualities so beloved by fictional writers of painstaking attention to detail, meticulous examination of the most minute and mundane objects, and the deductive process of reconstruction, opinion and theory merge with empirical practice. Later the turning point of the case is most likely to be the statement of a witness or a discovered prior relationship between victim and suspect. The importance of the forensic evidence then changes from one of an indicator of the type of person who could have been responsible for the crime to a corroborative mechanism that scientifically and conclusively provides physical evidence whereby the blood, hair, semen or fibres or other substances is matched between that of the offender and the victim.

A significant element of the use of forensic science by police in the investigation of crime is whether forensic science is being used in an attempt to discover the authorship of a crime or to provide scientific forensic evidence to indicate guilt or

corroborate other evidence either circumstantial or direct.

In the Home Office Research Study (1987) on cases submitted by the police to the laboratories, cases where the suspect had been identified at the time of referral accounted for nearly 80% of the total of cases submitted. The reason for submission was clearly therefore to corroborate by means of forensic evidence other evidence that had brought the suspect to initial police notice.

In an examination of some 593 cases submitted to one of the Forensic Science Laboratories, the key function in some 53% of such cases asked by police, was to link or match different substances or items to a common origin or source. A further 39% involved the identification of various items or substances, for example the analysis of fire debris to establish whether traces of petrol were present. These two functions accounted for 90% of the total samples submitted. Undirected examination of exhibits to look for possible clues accounted for only 7% of cases. The report concludes that "virtually every time the Forensic Science Service was asked to look for a link between items, a suspect had almost by definition been identified; this was also true of just over half the cases where the laboratories were simply requested to determine the nature of an item or substance" (Home Office 1986).

In conclusion, apart from cases of difficult homicide, i.e. where the identity of the offender is not immediately known, when considerable reliance is placed on the knowledge obtained by expert scientific forensic examination of the scene together with the *post mortem* and scientific examination of the victim, the use made by police of forensic science in the detection of crime is extremely small, being less than one half of one per cent in the eight key categories of crime. Furthermore, the use of forensic science by police investigators is overwhelmingly to confirm the case against suspects who have already been identified. In an important minority of such cases, some 7%, the suspect was fully absolved by the forensic report. The identification of blood/alcohol content and the scientific identification of drugs, such as cannabis, occupies over half the total time of forensic scientists.

The general lack of routine forensic examination of a scene of a crime, (indeed for cases of burglary in the Devon and Cornwall area less than 1% of all burglaries for 1984

to 1987), means that there is little or no forensic record kept of undetected crimes. The incidence of historical fingerprint evidence pertaining to a crime is more significant in volume and evidential value generally than forensic evidence of offenders in connection with the investigation of crime, but is still only applicable in less than 6% of all investigations. It will be seen in later chapters how similarly a failure to record meaningful data in the *modus operandi* of a crime means that little historical evidence of a physical or scientific nature is available to enable the characteristics of one crime to be distinguished from another.

CHAPTER 12

POLICE INTERROGATION, DETECTION AND ADMISSIONS OF GUILT

Although very little attention has been paid to interrogation in either basic or detective training, nevertheless there is a belief that when a criminal is apprehended skilled interrogation will yield an admission of guilt. Prior to the work of the Royal Commission on Criminal Procedure in 1978 whereby a number of studies were commissioned, there had been no published research into interrogations conducted by the British police.

Apart from a number of American studies and instructional handbooks referred to later, the standard work on interrogation and investigation generally was that translated and up-dated from the original writings of Dr. Hans Gross.

The original work was published at the turn of the Century as the "System der Kriminalistik" and the first edition in English, published in 1906, was by John Adam, M.A. Barrister at Law, sometime Crown and Public Prosecutor Madras, and J. Collyer Adam, Barrister at Law, previously Public Prosecutor Madras. The full title of the work in English was "Criminal Investigation. A practical Textbook for Magistrates, Police Officers and Lawyers". Editions were published in 1924, 1934, 1950 and the last in 1962 when R.L. Jackson, an Assistant Commissioner at New Scotland Yard, Metropolitan Police was the Editor.

In the preface to this 5th Edition Jackson drew attention to the new chapter on the work of the International Criminal Police Organisation, but emphasised that the general guidance given by Gross to the investigator "remains as important as ever". The text could almost be a sequel to the writings of Conan Doyle and there are similarities in the qualities essential to an investigator as portrayed by Gross and espoused by Sherlock Holmes. Gross writes, and it could just as easily be Conan Doyle, "It goes almost without saying that an investigator should be endowed with all those qualities which every man should desire to possess, indefatigable zeal and application, self denial and perseverance, swiftness in reading men and a thorough knowledge of

human nature, education and an agreeable manner, an iron constitution and encyclopaedic knowledge." (Page 15, 1962 edition).

The feeling of being involved in a victoriana melodrama is further strengthened by some of the original type casting expounded by Gross. He states "Offences against property are committed for the purpose of getting married or spending the proceeds on parties and prostitutes". (Page 10).

After exhorting the investigator to always keep in mind the old adage "Cherchez la femme", he goes on to say "It is almost always with the aid of a woman that criminals succeed in escaping and concealing themselves". (Page 10) The qualities highlighted by Gross for the perfect investigator centred on his objectivity, vast knowledge of life and people, zeal, thoroughness, energy, accuracy and attention to detail in all things pertaining to situations and people.

Gross details at great length the technique for the examination of witnesses and accused. Many of the pronouncements are logical and sound, but some need to be understood in the climate of knowledge prevalent at the turn of the century. Gross describes physiognomy thus:- "There are few sciences the value of which has been more exaggerated by its partisans and more unjustly deprecated by its adversaries. The balance seems to incline in favour of those who attribute to it considerable value. Certainly it is going too far to fix certain types of the human face and to pretend that one can deduce from certain features, structures, colours, and their relations with one another, definite mental and moral characteristics; but it is beyond doubt that the experienced critic can learn from the lines of the face and play of the features much more, and more satisfactorily than anyone could tell him. We cannot of course give here a precis of physiognomy, but we know enough to enable us to recommend strongly to an investigator the study of the subject both theoretically and practically." (Page 74).

The works of Lombroso are referred to by Gross as "Worthy of note but provide no ground for the criminal expert suspending his work and the yielding of his place to the medical man alone". (Page 75).

The remainder of the book is concerned with practical hints and the succession of 'dos' and 'don'ts' at the scene of a crime. The practical theme of the book as a guide

for investigators is reiterated in chapters on forensic science, (albeit in its early form), hand writing, footprints and firearms. The final phases of the book give the various known *modus operandi* of criminal behaviour ranging from cheating to types of fraud to arson.

The Royal Commission commissioned three studies, one by Irving and Hilgendorf, (1980) to review the literature on interrogation. This was followed by a study by Irving to observe police interrogations which he did in both 1979 and again in 1986 and these are referred to in later chapters; and two studies by Pauline Morris (1981) and Paul Softley (1980).

Morris (1981) noted there were few psychological writings on the subject and little overlap between the four main perspectives on interrogation; namely the police, legal, sociological and psychological perspectives. There were no published studies on police interrogation in Britain and she concluded that apart from those present during such interviews, no one knew exactly what went on between police officers and suspects. In fact the evidence that the Royal Commission on Criminal Procedure received from the Association of Chief Police Officers of England, Wales and Northern Ireland stated: "Police officers receive no formal training in the art of interrogation. They are given some advice, in addition to instruction on the law at training school and by colleagues, but by and large skills develop through experience" (ACPO Submission of Evidence to the Royal Commission 1982). (See also chapter 6 on Detective Training).

The study commissioned from Softley (1980) was the first observational study and witnessed the interviewing of a total of 218 suspects during the first half of 1979. The aim of the study was :-

1. To examine the operation of the Judges' Rules (a code of conduct governing the police interrogation of suspects) and Administrative Directions to the police, and
2. To assess the contribution of questioning to the detection of crime.

The conclusion was that if the power of the police to question suspects were curbed the numbers of offenders who escaped conviction would tend to increase and the detection rate would tend to fall.

Whilst concluding that interviewees kept close to the spirit (if not always to the

letter) of the Judges' Rules, Softley and his colleagues concluded that Confessions were often made because they were an easy and logical way out of the tense and uncomfortable situation. Softley commented that they considered the Rules were perhaps unrealistically strict.

Irving (1979) in his study of interrogations at a British police station in Brighton, concluded that the Judges' Rules were unrealistic in principle. In the United States there were four major studies in connection with police interrogation, Inbau and Reid (1967), O'Hara (1970), Royal and Schutt (1976) and Aubry and Caputo (1980), which were a mixture of good psychological knowledge and theory related to the best of accepted United States investigative techniques.

Typical of the flavour of the American studies is that of the example taken from Inbau and Reid where they suggest two separate interrogation techniques, (a) which they label 'inquisitorial' where the interviewer is unsure of the suspect's guilt or state of knowledge and is seeking information from him/her, both verbal and non verbal, sufficient to indicate where the truth lies, and (b) which they label 'persuasive', where, having satisfied himself that the suspect is, for whatever reason, resisting his questioning, the interrogator uses persuasive tactics to overcome this resistance. They talk about the interrogator "feeling his way around" until he arrives at a decision of guilty or innocence on the part of the suspect.

The most recent study on interrogation is that of Walkley (1983), then a Detective Inspector whose supervisor Irving (1979) subsequently re-visited the same Brighton police station. This latter study forms the subject of the chapter on the effects of the Police and Criminal Evidence Act on police interrogations in Chapter 13.

Walkley's research area centred around the task of investigating how police officers interview suspects and in particular how they assess a suspect's state of mind and attempt to influence his decision making in whether to deny or admit the offence. Walkley concentrated on the ability to read a suspect on behalf of the interrogator to assess whether the suspect is telling lies or is he telling the truth and whether the suspect has reached that critical stage of the interview where he is trying to make up his mind whether to admit or deny the offence about which he is being questioned.

Walkley then examined the ability to recognise, on behalf of police officers, verbal and non verbal communications from the suspects and conducted a series of interviews with 22 detectives from one particular police station and nearly 100 detectives undergoing training at a Police Detective Training School.

The early interviews conducted by Walkley established that when police officers were asked open ended questions about interviewing techniques they were extremely vague about the skills introduced and the replies tended to be bland in the extreme. Walkley conducted some structured interviews asking some 22 detectives to rate each other's competency levels in interviewing ability. He concluded that in the opinions of the detectives, none of the nine inexperienced detectives were rated as adequate in interviewing competency whereas eight out of ten experienced detectives were. Walkley concluded that as far as the detectives are concerned, competence and experience go hand in hand. The danger of placing too much reliance on these self-assessment techniques is born out by the evident group opinion norm because when Walkley found that the two experienced members of the group who were perceived by the others to be less competent, they were in fact the only female and in Walkley's words, "the least macho of the experienced male detectives." Obviously some different objective criteria other than peer rating needs to be employed. In the survey of 100 detectives, Walkley found that they experienced great difficulty in talking about interviewing on conceptual terms, and had received little or no training apart from being told to abide by the Judges' Rules.

In attempting to assess the awareness of the detectives to signals given off by the suspects, Walkley found that there was not a vocabulary which could be readily used. None of the sample had ever discussed manipulative techniques and they had never discussed how they decided whether or not a person was telling the truth or telling lies. These answers were given in spite of the fact that Walkley was a senior police officer, a detective inspector who had been given access and the blessing to his work by the Chief Constable of the Force concerned and the Commandant of the Detective Training School where the interviews were conducted.

Walkley comments on four basic tactics employed in police interrogation for

influencing the decision making of the suspect and observed that these basic techniques were designed to influence the decision making of the suspect whether to admit or continue to deny the alleged offence. They were:-

- (a) Increasing the positive value of the admission, e.g. 'If you admit this offence it will be better for you, because'
- (b) Decreasing the positive value of the denial, e.g. 'There is no point in denying this offence because
- (c) Increasing the negative value of the admission, e.g. 'If you admit this offence things will not be as bad as you think they will because ...'
- (d) Increasing the negative value of the denial, e.g. 'By denying this offence you are actually making things worse because ...'

Although Walkley points out that there can be a considerable degree of subtlety in which the alternatives are put to a suspect, the observational studies he conducted showed on many occasions the techniques were used in a crude and unambiguous way. Indeed, one of Walkley's main recommendations centred around the need for further training in psychological techniques to maximise proficiency in increasing interview success.

Softley, Irving and Walkley sat in on interviews conducted by police officers and in many ways must have been regarded as 'outsiders' by the officers conducting their interviews. Irving makes the contention that "For the suspects and the interviewing officers an interview is such a compelling event and requires such concentration and attention that everything outside the circle of interrogation between suspect and interviewer tends to be entirely ignored". Walkley was a Detective Inspector and again being senior in rank, albeit from another Police Force, to those conducting the interview it must have constrained the behaviour and introduced some element of artificiality. Walkley makes light of the rank differential saying that rank differential in the Criminal Investigation Department is less noticeable than in other branches of the Police Service. Nevertheless, a breach of the Judges' Rules, although not as clearly defined as a disciplinary offence as is a breach of the Code of Conduct of the P.A.C.E. Act of today, still remained in my view a powerful reminder of unacceptable behaviour on the part

of the officers conducting the interrogation.

In reading the suspect, Walkley cites Freud and quotes him "He that has eyes to see and ears to hear, may convince himself that no mortal can keep a secret. If his lips are silent he chatters with his fingertips: betrayal oozes out of him at every pore". Walkley also quotes Goffman (1959) who contends that when an individual is seeking to acquire information about another, his main source of information is in communications he receives from that individual. Goffman distinguishes between communications given and those given off by the individual, which is more commonly referred to as verbal and non verbal communication.

The most significant feature of Walkley's studies is his enquiry into attitudes and methods used and those that would be accepted by the large sample of almost 100 detectives from varying Forces that he was able to interview at the Detective Training School. For example, 92% of those interviewed stated that they would be prepared to put mental pressure on a suspect. Walkley further put to them two propositions, whether they would agree or disagree to the following statements:-

- (a) Personally I never use any force on a suspect except to restrain him if he is violent, and
- (b) I do on occasions hint to a suspect that I have the power to physically hurt him.

As a result of these interviews Walkley identified three sub-groups within his sample:

1. A group who were prepared to use physical force on certain occasions as part of the technique of interviewing which he classed, not unnaturally as "Dominant".
2. A group who implied that they would use the hint or the use of force as part of their interviewing technique, which he classified as 'Pseudo-Dominant'.
3. A group who disagreed with both propositions namely the use of force or threat of force and would not countenance the use of either, which he classified as 'Non-Dominant'.

From his sample of 100 detectives, the percentage breakdown was:-

'Dominant'	-	32%
'Pseudo-Dominant'	-	34%
'Non-Dominant'	-	34%

Walkley stated that the spread of dominant, pseudo-dominant and non-dominant was evenly distributed between the experienced and the inexperienced detectives in his sample.

Walkley concluded that it is an important and inevitable part of a police interview that the police officer assesses the truthfulness or otherwise of the suspect. He stated that police officers undoubtedly already performed this skill more or less intuitively as there is at present no training given in this subject in this country. Given the wealth of information available on communication and interviewing technique this is astounding.

An interesting feature of both Walkley's observations and Irving's were their interpretation of the best personal qualities or the most desirable personal qualities of police interviewers. Irving (1980) in his study stated that effective persuaders tend to be well dressed, well spoken, competent, well informed, assured, attractive, well groomed and well mannered. The police sample of detectives were asked by Walkley (1983) to put their top ten characteristics, those perceived as the ideal investigators possessed characteristics of experience, articulate, popular with peers, colourful, intelligent, out-going, polite, calm, flexible and well dressed. The comment is made by Walkley on the face of it that the image of the macho police investigator contrasts with Irving's ideal type, and the results of Walkley's survey, when the ideal persuader would seem to be well dressed and well groomed rather than the abrasive Barlow and Kojaks of modern police mythology. However, it is to be remembered that of the officers interviewed by Walkley, more than 64% of those stated they would use physical violence or the threat of it which does not conform with their perhaps romantic self image of themselves as cool, sophisticated, aloof, shrewd and intelligent interrogators.

Another significant feature of the Walkley study was that the most difficult suspects seen by detectives in terms of interrogation were those perceived to be tough

and fit and Walkley commented this was a constant theme throughout his interviews in assessing the difficulty of interviewing certain types of suspects. If one accepts this perception with their own high figure of 64% of detectives who would use force or certainly the threat of force as a means of interrogation, then obviously the tough and fit suspect would be clearly the least susceptible to such tactics and perhaps this was the reason that fit and tough suspects were considered the most difficult to interview by the detectives surveyed by Walkley.

Early research into forms of interrogation such as Benussi (1914) showed empirical connection between the telling of lies and breathing rates, and Larson (1932) who referred to changes in breathing rates as being indicative of deception. There are, in fact, a host of symptoms which interviewers are capable of observing during the course of an interrogation which can be used as aides to assessing the truthfulness or otherwise of a subject. The question of structuring and interviewing, including seating, was discussed by Inbau and Reid (1967) who made the point that there should be no psychological barriers between the interviewer and the interviewee and certainly the presence of a table can act as such a barrier and give comfort and protection and support to the suspect. Similarly, Royal and Schutt (1976) stated that the suspect should be seated in such a way that the whole of his body actions can be seen and Aubry and Caputo (1980) have strong views on the interview room layout and the importance of seating, suggesting various experimentations and certainly advocate side by side seating.

The extensive literature on interrogation indicates that anxiety and stress produce physiological effects which manifest themselves through the autonomic nervous system and the endocrine system. The physical changes vary, the heart beats faster, blood pressure may go up, pain in the chest may occur and respiration may increase. Digestion can be disturbed together with shaking, a feeling of weakness, and reactions may range from profuse sweating (as measured by galvanic skin response) to cold and clammy hands and feet. Like anxiety, guilt is also a possible reaction to frustration and conflict, guilty feelings can vary considerably and manifest themselves in different ways.

In the form of interrogation and indeed an examination of a crime, inductive reasoning is used to examine the evidence and particulars of a case as a basis for formulating a unifying and internally consistent explanation of the offence. Deductive reasoning begins with a formulation of an explanation of the crime which is then tested against the information available. The use of either process requires considerable ability as they are fraught with the dangers of untenable inferences, logical fallacies, the failure to consider all alternatives, persuasive but false analogies and the distortion of personal bias on the part of the investigator. Many of the American text books deal with the question of interrogation and interviewing similarity relying on nine basic questions - who, what, where, when, how, with what, why, with whom, how much?

As interrogation in England and Wales is governed by the former Judges' Rules and later the Codes of Conduct under the Police and Criminal Evidence Act, so interrogation in the United States tends to revolve around 6th Amendment provision which is a guarantee of the right to counsel as made obligatory by the 14th Amendment. In the United States there are two significant cases: firstly that of Escobedo (1964) where a confession was obtained which was subsequently rendered inadmissible by the fact that the person was denied access to a lawyer and this violated the Constitutional rights. The Supreme Court decided by a 5 - 4 majority that the evidence so obtained from this confession was inadmissible; secondly there was the famous case of Miranda versus the State of Arizona (1963) where, it was held that the 5th Amendment had been violated because the confession was obtained other than by voluntary means. Miranda went even further by requiring certain advice and guidance to be given whenever a person was arrested for a crime by a police officer in the United States and the so called Rights and Miranda rules remain certainly until this day. They are:-

- (1) The right to remain silent;
- (2) The right to be told that anything that the suspect does, says can and will be used against him in Court;
- (3) The right to consult an attorney prior to answering too many questions and the right to have an attorney present during interrogation, and

- (4) The right to counsel (Defence Attorney), if he cannot afford to pay for his own attorney the court will provide one to represent him (in effect free Legal Aid).

The waiver of such rights must be proved by the Prosecution and it is therefore preferable from both the point of view of the police and the courts, to get any such waiver in writing (see Appendix 2 for an example of the United States "Waiver Form"). Nevertheless in the United States the accused has the right of silence. In this way the Miranda regulations are very similar to the Caution under the Judges' Rules and even more so to the Caution under P.A.C.E. and the Notice of the Rights of the Individual which must be explained a written copy served on the suspect under the Codes of Conduct under P.A.C.E.).

Following the Brown versus Mississippi Supreme Court decision 1936 and subsequent cases, any kind of coercion, whether physical or psychological would be grounds for making a confession inadmissible. In 1943 the Supreme Court ruled that in the case of MacNamb versus the United States, there was an unnecessary delay in taking an arrested person before a court, this meant that a procedural violation could also render confessions inadmissible. This ruling was reinforced in 1957 by the supreme court in the case of Mallory v United States. Both these cases were Federal and did not bind the necessary various State legislation to similar lengths. In the last 20 - 30 years we have seen that by legislation and by stated cases in the courts of both the United States and the United Kingdom, police interrogations have become more and more rigidly controlled to prevent oppression and fear and unacceptable stress being inflicted on the suspect.

The imposition of fear and the physical dominance of the suspect by the interrogator and the unacceptability of police practices featuring these characteristics has led to the establishment of codes of conduct governing police behaviour in the interrogation process. Hand in hand with a desire to curtail what has been by those outside the police environment as reprehensible and unacceptable methods was the growing recognition that the individual rights and freedoms of a suspect needed to be protected by statute and police conduct governed by accountability to rules pertaining to interrogation.

In the United States the practice of 'third degree' which amounted to physical beatings of the suspect was not abolished until the case of *Brown v Mississippi* in 1936.

In the United Kingdom the most recent study by Walkley (1983) fully described in this chapter showed that 64% of those detectives interviewed would use physical violence and the threat of it to obtain confessions.

The following chapter will demonstrate how the ability to use physical violence or the threat of it, or inducement or stressful techniques has been severely curtailed not only by more vigorous and comprehensive safeguarding conditions but by placing a statutory obligation on supervising police officers other than the interrogator to ensure that such individual rights, freedoms and safeguards are clearly the responsibility of the custody officer, who is not the interrogator.

CHAPTER 13

THE POLICE AND CRIMINAL EVIDENCE ACT 1984

The Act which governs and regulates the operational conduct of police officers in England and Wales is arguably one of the most significant pieces of legislation in the history of modern policing.

The Act followed a Royal Commission on Criminal Procedure appointed in 1978 to examine inter alia "the powers and duties of the police in respect of the investigation of criminal offences and the rights and duties of suspect and accused persons, including the means by which these are secured".

The Commission reported within three years having received the advice from twelve research studies. It proposed that any new law governing the powers of police should meet the standards of fairness, openness and workability. The report advocated a simplifying of police powers of arrest and detention together with a new code of conduct to ensure and safeguard the rights of individuals detained or questioned by police. The other main recommendation involved taking the absolute power to prosecute away from police and creating an independent Crown Prosecution Service.

The first version of the Police and Criminal Evidence Bill was introduced into Parliament in November 1982. It consumed over four hundred hours of Parliamentary time and provoked considerable controversy and was interrupted by the dissolution of Parliament in May 1983 and the General Election.

At the time of Royal Assent on 31st October, 1984 the Act had been refined by amendments and defeats for the Government in the House of Lords. Parts of the Act (Section 9 dealing with complaints against Police) were operational from March 1985 with the remainder coming into force on 1st January 1986.

The Act incorporates Codes of Practice together with Administrative Directions, failure to comply with which renders the police officer liable to disciplinary proceedings.

These codes cover the exercise by police officers of statutory powers of stop and search together with the searching of premises and the seizure of property. Another Code of Practice covers the identification of persons by police officers and the code of

conduct that most concerns this study, namely the detention, treatment and questioning of persons by police officers. It is in connection with the detention and interrogation of suspects that the safeguards provided by the Police and Criminal Evidence Act can be directly related to the police function of interrogation. The change and indeed the abandonment of previously accepted and desired (Walkley 1983) interrogation tactics will need a fundamental change of tactical and strategic police philosophy towards the investigation of crime.

Before the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984 the law governing police powers for the investigation of crime was unclear and antiquated. Procedures had developed piecemeal ever since the establishment of professional police forces in the nineteenth century. Few statutes had been added to the common law principles.

The standard procedure governing the detention and investigation of suspects was governed by the Judges' Rules and Administrative Directions to Police. These were rules of practice rather than rules of law laid down by a Committee of Judges under direction of the Lord Chancellor in the early part of the twentieth century.

The Rules state the expectations of the conduct of police officers and others who have the duty of conducting investigations. The sanction for failure to adhere to the rules may be the exclusion of the whole or part of the evidence.

The Judges' Rules and the accompanying Administrative Directions were a comprehensive code of conduct laid down for the guidance and instruction of investigators and did incorporate safeguards for the accused as well as ensuring the admissibility of evidence established as a result of questioning and interrogation by the Police.

The overriding principles of the Judges' Rules laid down the fundamental requirements that:-

- (a) Citizens have a duty to help a police officer to discover and apprehend offenders;
- (b) That police officers otherwise than by arrest cannot compel any person against his will to come to or remain in any police station.
- (c) That every person at any stage of an investigation should be able to communicate and to consult privately with a solicitor. This is so even if he is in custody provided

that in such a case no unreasonable delay or hindrance is caused to the process of investigation or the administration of justice by his doing so.

- (d) That when a police officer who is making enquiries of any person about an offence has enough evidence to prefer a charge against that person for the offence he should without delay cause that person to be charged or informed that he may be prosecuted for the offence.
- (e) That it is a fundamental condition of the admissibility in evidence against any person, equally of any oral answer given by that person to a question put by a police officer and of any statement made by that person, that it shall have been voluntary in the sense that it has not been obtained from him by fear or prejudice or hope of advantage exercised or held out by a person in authority or oppression.

In the case of *R v. Gowan* (1982) - Criminal Law Review Volume 821 it was held that experienced professional criminals must expect interrogation by police officers to be vigorous and that detention in breach of Section 43(4) Magistrates' Courts Act 1980 (which states that a person taken into custody for an offence without a warrant shall be brought before a Magistrates' Court within 48 hours of arrest), and breaches of the Judges' Rules will not necessarily amount to oppression.

Oppression in this context imparts something which tends to sap or has sapped that freewill before a confession is voluntary.

These principles were to be the foundation to the rules put forward to police officers conducting investigations. Again the proviso was declared that non compliance with these rules may render answers and statements so obtained liable to be excluded from evidence in subsequent criminal procedures. The Judges' Rules in effect state that:

1. When a police officer is trying to discover whether, or by whom, an offence has been committed he is entitled to question any person whether suspected or not, from whom he thinks that useful information may be obtained. This is so whether or not the person in question has been taken into custody, so long as he has not been charged with the offence or informed that he may be prosecuted for it.

2. As soon as a police officer has evidence which would afford reasonable grounds for suspecting that a person has committed an offence, he shall 'caution' that person or cause him to be cautioned before putting to him any questions or further questions relating to that offence.

The caution shall be in the following terms: "You are not obliged to say anything unless you wish to do so but what you say may be put into writing and given in evidence".

The caution is also given after a person is charged or informed he may be prosecuted for an offence, in the following terms:-

"Do you wish to say anything? (in answer to the charge). You are not obliged to say anything unless you wish to do so, but whatever you say will be taken down in writing and may be given in evidence.

(Note the difference in the verbal caution on arrest in comparison with the formal recording of the reply to the charge which is invariably given in evidence at Court).

Further questions after a person has been charged must be prefixed by the caution and similarly any written statement must be prefixed by a written caution which has to be signed by the accused before any statement is made. In such written statements made under caution a postscript has to be added emphasising the voluntary nature of the statement. Accompanying the Judges' Rules were made Administrative Directions giving guidance and instructions and laying down procedures such as the wording of the various statements of safeguard and again emphasising the voluntary nature of the answers both verbal and written given by the accused under interrogation. Such directions also required the official recording of the time and start of such interrogations including any breaks or refreshment or other interval. In the case of juveniles a parent or responsible adult must be present. Similar safeguards applied to the interrogation of mentally handicapped persons and statements made in languages other than English.

The accused person was also entitled to a written notice specifying the charge against him together with the quoted section of the statute which created the offence. The written notice should also contain the caution reminding the person charged that

he is not obliged to say anything.

The Rules and Administrative Directions also gave entitlement to be able to communicate by telephone and letter to solicitor or friends, subject to the proviso that no hindrance is reasonably likely to be caused to the process of investigation or the administration of justice by doing so. (Home Office Circular No. 66/1976). The Judges' Rules also declared that persons in custody should be informed orally of the rights and facilities available to them. In addition notices should be displayed at convenient and conspicuous places at police stations and the attention of persons in custody should be drawn to these notices.

The Codes of Practice under P.A.C.E. came into force on 1st January 1986, and superseded and replaced the Judges' Rules and Administrative Directions.

Code C relates to the Treatment and Questioning of Persons by Police Officers.

The Codes reflect the views of the Royal Commission on Criminal Procedure together with the provisions of the Criminal Law Act of 1977 which granted a statutory right of an arrested person to inform a third party of his arrest (Section 62).

The Code does not affect the principle (enshrined in the original Judges' Rules) that all citizens have a duty to help police officers to prevent crime and discover offenders.

This is a civic rather than a legal duty, but when a police officer is trying to discover whether or not, or by whom, an offence has been committed, he is entitled to question any person from whom he thinks useful information can be obtained. Subject to the restrictions imposed by this code, the traditional right of silence is maintained and reinforced.

The Codes of Practice reinforce and extend the general principles of the Judges' Rules and the accompanying administrative directions.

The main principles to be upheld under the Codes of Practice are:-

1. The right to have someone informed of his arrest.
2. The right to consult a solicitor.
3. The right to be informed of the rights of detentions under the Codes of Practice.

4. The written explanation of those rights together with a copy of the custody record and details of any charge brought against the detainee.
5. The right not to be held incommunicado.
6. The right to writing materials.
7. The right to speak on the telephone.
8. The right of silence.

The Codes of Practice require the Caution to be given earlier in the process of interrogation than previously hitherto required under the Judges' Rules.

Under the Codes of Practice a person whom there are grounds to suspect of an offence must be cautioned before any questions about it (or further questions if it is his answers to previous questions that provide grounds for suspicion) are put to him for the purpose of obtaining evidence which may be given to a court in a prosecution. He therefore need not be cautioned if questions are put for other purposes, for example to establish his identity, his ownership of or responsibility for any vehicle, or the need to search him in the exercise of powers of stop and search.

When a person who is not under arrest is initially cautioned before or during an interview at a police station or other premises he must at the same time be told that he is not under arrest, is not obliged to remain with the officer but that if he does may obtain legal advice if he wishes.

A person must be cautioned upon arrest for an offence unless:-

- (a) It is impracticable to do so by reason of his condition or behaviour at the time,
- (b) or that he has already been cautioned immediately prior to arrest.

The caution under The Police and Criminal Evidence Act is in the following terms:-

"You do not have to say anything unless you wish to do so, but what you say may be given in evidence".

The Act points out that minor deviations of the specified formula does not constitute a breach of the Code provided that the sense of the caution is preserved.

In fact the wording is almost identical to the caution administered under the Judges' Rules (see previous text). Similarly, the caution administered after a person

has been charged is almost word for word the same format as laid down in the original Judges' Rules directions.

The crucial difference between the Codes of Conduct laid down by the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1964 and the Judges' Rules and Administrative Directions to police is not one of content but rather of rigid imposition and severe sanctions for non compliance under the Police and Criminal Evidence Act which the former Judges' Rules lacked.

The rigid imposition and sanctions are made manifest in the form of a new departure from previous practice, a police officer with the exclusive duty and designation of Custody Officer. This officer usually of Sergeant rank has clearly and rigidly defined duties under the Act, failure to comply with which renders the officer and others guilty of disciplinary offences, the punishment of which could result in dismissal from the Service.

The Act therefore creates an independent and supervisory element specifically concerned with the maintenance of the rights and freedoms of detained persons. Although in the past the station sergeant was in nominal receipt of detainees often he was subservient to the wishes and directions of the officer in charge of the investigation who may or may not have been of superior rank.

The Police and Criminal Evidence Act now gives total and non-discretionary power and obligation to the Custody Officer to decide whether or not persons should be detained and for recording all details pertaining to that detention together with a responsibility for ensuring that the rights of detainees are brought to their attention both verbally and by written notification.

The Custody Officer has to document and regulate the process of detention and interrogation and should a conflict arise between the custody officer and another officer of superior rank the Custody Officer has authority under the Act to demand consultation and ratification of his actions by the Superintendent in charge of the police station.

The Act states that "If a senior officer gives directions which are at variance with any decision action or duty of the custody officer then he (the custody officer) must refer

the matter to an officer of the rank of Superintendent who is responsible for the Police Station", PACE Section 39(6) and 40 (11).

The Custody Officer although responsible for the conduct of the detention and interrogation of prisoners cannot directly question the accused person about the alleged offence as this action would involve him in the investigation and thus compromise his independent status.

The fundamental right of persons detained in police stations, namely:-

1. To have someone informed of his arrest (14.14)
2. To have legal advice (14.06)
3. To consult the Codes of Practice which must be made available to him (Code DTQ 3.2) by virtue of written notification of those rights and the cornerstone of the safeguards built into the Act and enshrined in the duties of the Custody Officer.

Denials of the right to legal advice and the right to have someone informed of the detention of a person can only be undertaken by an officer of the rank of Superintendent and then only in cases of serious offences when there are reasonable grounds to believe that the exercise of the legal rights will interfere with the gathering of evidence, cause harm to persons, alert suspected persons or hinder the recovery of property.

In summary, therefore, following the Police and Criminal Evidence Act the conditions of detention and interrogation are much more strictly and rigidly controlled and documented, with an officer independent of the investigation designated the Custody Officer, performing a form of ombudsman role in preserving the rights and freedom of detained persons and regulating the conduct of the police officers in charge of the investigation of the case.

As has been demonstrated in this preceding chapter the provision of a safeguarding element within the police organisation itself was always enshrined in the principles of the Judges' Rules. The P.A.C.E. legislation gives that principle a more directly accountable element in that a specific police officer, i.e. the custody officer is so identified to carry out that role. Failure to fulfil his or her statutory obligations will also render that individual officer liable to disciplinary procedures. The organisational effects of this significant in-built safeguard provided under P.A.C.E. will now be examined.

CHAPTER 14
THE EFFECTS OF THE POLICE AND CRIMINAL EVIDENCE ACT
1984 ON THE INTERROGATION OF SUSPECTS AND THE
RESULTANT OBTAINING OF CONFESSIONS

One of the principle areas of enquiry of the Royal Commission on Criminal Procedure was into Police interrogations and the obtaining of confessions.

To this end a number of research studies were commenced to examine current police methods of interrogation and the amount and significance of the resultant confessions obtained. These studies were commenced against a backcloth of increasing public apprehension into the way a number of police confessions had been obtained.

Irving and Hilgendorf (1980) produced the first study, a survey of the psychological literature relevant to interrogation which was followed by an empirical study by Irving in 1979 observing the interrogation methods used at a Brighton Police Station (Irving 1980).

In June 1986 Barry Irving and Ian McKenzie, a fellow researcher and former police officer, commenced the first phase of a two year research project aimed to study the effect of the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984 on the nature and practice of police interrogation as previously observed by Irving in 1979.

The research observed in 1986 the police interrogation methods at the same police station that had been used by Irving in 1979 using a six phase model of the interrogation process, viz:-

- (a) The preparatory phase
- (b) First reconaissance
- (c) Serious questioning: interrogation
- (d) Interviews in the presence of third parties
- (e) The checking of TICs (offences Taken Into Consideration)
- (f) The taking of a caution statement

The observations of police interrogation in 1986 used the same event-orientated model.

Phase (a) - The preparatory phase

In 1979 Irving had noticed a tendency of the detective to prepare himself for the interview by drawing up a form of tactical plan based on knowledge of the suspect and possible weaknesses in the prosecution case. In 1986 the changed form of recording the interview from 'notes made at the time' or as soon after as is practicable (Judges' Rules) to a form of contemporaneous note taking required under the new Codes of Practice gave little opportunity for the officer to tactically manipulate the suspect into an admission of the alleged offence. Another factor noted in the 1986 study was that the Custody Officer (see previous chapter) would not allow casual visits to take place for the purpose of assessing possible strengths and weaknesses to one line of questioning as opposed to another.

Irving also noted the difference between the adoption of an appropriate persona or role akin to that of an actor by the interrogator in 1979 was replaced by an essentially mechanical form of interview burdened even more by the requirement of contemporaneous note taking.

Phase (b) - First Reconnaissance

In the 1979 study Irving described the process of "having a look at or a friendly chat with the suspect". This gave the interrogator an opportunity of preliminary assessment of the suspect's character, demeanour and mental and physical condition, together with how he was responding to the psychological pressures of his detention, for example is he anxious to go home or concerned about another matter.

In the 1986 study as in the preparatory stage the Custody Officer does not allow any contact save in the formal interrogative situation between suspect and investigating officer. The word 'interview' as noted by Irving and McKenzie has been given the widest possible definition in the Codes of Practice to be construed as meaning any face-to-face contact between suspect and investigating officer. The threat of disciplinary action was seen by Irving to exert a powerful control over any police willingness to test the boundary of definitions laid down by the Codes of Practice (Author's emphasis).

Phase (c) - Serious Questioning - Interrogation

Irving writing of his 1979 observations describes the process of serious questioning as being carried out with or without formal note taking and noted that "in the absence of note taking the interview was more intense in character", with rapid questioning and rapid change of topic. (This was of course permitted conduct under the Judges' Rules which required notes to be made at the time or as soon after as was practicable).

Irving noted that the behaviour of the suspect is watched closely by the interviewing officer and a continuous assessment is made by his or her reactions and the likelihood of guilt or innocence.

Irving comments that tenacity was a highly valued characteristic of the interviewer. Here we see the comparison by Irving between the professional and the image of police interrogation based on the fictional representations of Maitret, Sherlock Holmes, Charlie Barlow, Smiley or perhaps at the extreme Winston Smith's tormentor in '1984'. As McKenzie comments, "the image of tenacity and skill, effort, efficiency and effectiveness in Irving's graphic description does little to damage and probably enhances the popular view." (As noted earlier concerning the effects of fictional detectives on their real life counterparts). Although a participant observer one cannot discount the 'Hawthorne' effect of Irving himself on the admitted and observed 'persona' or 'actor' role adopted by the interviewer.

The requirements of the Codes of Practice state that the record (of the interview) must be made during the course of the interview, unless in the investigating officer's view this would not be practicable or would interfere with the conduct of the interview and must constitute either a verbatim record of what has been said or failing this an account of the interview which adequately summarises it. (Paragraph 11.3 Codes of Practice DTQ). Faced with challenge and possible exclusion of evidence if the codes of conduct are not adhered to, plus the threat of disciplinary action against the officer for failure to observe the codes, it is not surprising that the verbatim record consisting of one officer asking questions and the other officer making a contemporaneous written record of notes has become the standard practice of police interrogation under P.A.C.E.

Whatever method is used to contemporaneously record the interview, there is little continuity of speech and much of the free flow and rapid questioning of former techniques under the Judges' Rules has disappeared. In the forty three interrogations observed by Irving and McKenzie in 1986 the actual periods of silence ranged from 3 minutes 37 seconds to 47 minutes and 4 seconds. As a percentage of total interviewing the silence amounted to between 20% and 65%. The very mechanical process at inexpert longhand verbatim recording of interviews has indicated to Irving that interrogation tactics are no longer in evidence and that some people, including the detectives, simply 'want to get it over with'.

According to Irving and McKenzie, the experienced suspect, however, recognises consciously or sub-consciously that they - not the detectives - now hold the upper hand. If one adds to this advantage the right to legal advice and the right to silence, then few police tactics will seriously undermine the thinking and 'rights' conscious suspect.

Irving and McKenzie comment on the transformation of the interrogation process from a dynamic to a mechanical function. The lack of attention to non verbal communication was also considered a necessary by-product of the interviewer watching his colleague's pen rather than for signs of stress and anxiety on the part of the suspect.

Phase (d) - Interviews in the presence of third parties

Irving (1980) in his 1979 study described the nature of interviews by police officers with actively participating third parties (solicitors, social workers and parents, etc.) as dramatically changing the nature of the social interaction involved.

In 1986 Irving and McKenzie concluded that this can no longer be said to be true for nearly all interviews have become formal in nature.

Phase (e) The checking of other offences which may be taken into consideration

Irving and McKenzie also commented on the reluctance to question the suspect concerning TIC's further offences of a similar nature which may be taken into consideration by the courts. (The relevance of TIC's in providing a major contribution to the clear up rate of recorded crimes is referred to previously and later in this chapter).

Phase (f) Taking of caution statements

Another significant feature of the contemporaneous form of note taking at interviews was the decline or demise of the traditional written statement under caution which figured so prominently under the Judges' Rules. This follows again the Notes for Guidance in the Codes of Practice applicable to the Detention Treatment and Questioning (DTQ) which states that "Statements under caution should normally be taken in these circumstances only at the person's express wish. An officer may, however, ask him whether or not he wishes to make a statement". On the 32 occasions in the observed sample in 1986 at Brighton the opportunity was always refused usually with some such words as "You've already got it all down".

Irving and McKenzie in their conclusions state that the nature and practice of police interrogation has been entirely changed as a consequence of the requirement for handwritten contemporaneous record keeping without the benefit of tape recording. However, phase two of the Irving and McKenzie research will examine the effect on interrogation of tape recording a practice allowed under the Act but not yet compulsory.

The Royal Commission also received the benefit of a study by Baldwin and McConville on confessions in Crown Court trials (Research Study No. 5 1980 HMSO) which produced a confession rate of about 50% in both cities. This following the Judicial statistics for England and Wales in 1978 when 57% of all defendants pleaded guilty at the Crown Court.

In the Baldwin and McConville study for the Royal Commission, of an examination of the strength of the prosecution case, in 1,000 cases the assessor felt that in just half of all cases the accused's statement had no real bearing on the strength of the case as a whole but was of central importance in about 30% of cases.

Softley *et al* (1980) in another study for the Royal Commission concluded from his observations study in four police stations that police questioning fulfilled two objectives, namely to determine whether there was sufficient evidence to prosecute and to assemble as strong a case as possible for the prosecution. In most cases, however, there was highly incriminating evidence apart from that which was obtained by questioning and Softley concluded that interrogations were not usually crucial in the

detection of crime.

The Worcester study of Barry Mitchell (1983) found a 66% guilty plea with a variation in time spent in interrogation. Some 86% of defendants were questioned by police for less than two hours in total. Those accused of non sexual violence being interrogated less extensively with 89% being questioned for less than one hour. Mitchell concluded that the type of offence with which a person is charged may have a considerable bearing upon the length of time for which he is interrogated by the police.

Of the 400 cases examined by Mitchell, 70% of the suspects had confessed orally and/or in writing to some or all of the charges against them. Those who pleaded not guilty, about 28%, had made written or oral confessions whereas the proportion of guilty pleas who had made confessions, was more than 86%. The figures of Baldwin and McConville (1980) on a much larger and more urban sample (Brighton and London as against Worcester) showed 25% and 88%. The picture presented, is that a large proportion of defendants facing serious charges (the cases were being heard at the Crown Court) had some form of confession recorded against them.

Another interesting feature of the Mitchell study showed that of the 394 defendants who were finally questioned only 17 (4.3%) exercised their right of silence, a similar figure was found by Zander (1979) in his study of cases at the Old Bailey when he found 4% exercised their right of silence.

The Mitchell research showed that whether or not suspects are genuinely aware of their rights they rarely exercise them. Time will tell whether the compulsory notification of the rights enshrined in the Codes of Practice together with the easier and more frequent attendance of legal representatives added to the dysbenefit of contemporaneous record of interviews and 'mechanical questioning', will significantly alter the confessions rates produced in the studies commenced prior to the introduction of the Police and Criminal Evidence Act.

Offences Taken Into Consideration

If confession is good for the soul it is as infinitely welcome in the field of official criminal statistics. Offences taken into consideration or T.I.C. are as previously mentioned offences of a like nature to the offence with which the accused is charged

to appear at Court.

The reasons for such admissions often contain a mixture of pragmatism and absolutism in that the person charged and now in custody, has been fingerprinted and documented and incriminating corroborative evidence linking him to other crimes is now available to the police. The other traditionally accepted reason is that by declaring his other criminal involvements the accused can start with a clean record after his court appearance. Whatever the reasons and they are multifarious the significance of the volume of crime cleared or detected by way of TIC admissions has been considerable in the past.

Mawby (1979) in his study in Sheffield found that 40% of cleared up crimes came as a result of TIC admissions. Similarly Lambert (1970) in Birmingham examining over 2,000 offences produced a figure of 44% detected as a result of TIC admissions. Bottomley and Colman (1976) in a study in the North of England gave a figure of one in three of detected crimes being as a result of crimes taken into consideration by convicted persons.

Although it is too soon for definitive analysis of the effect of the strict and mechanical limitations on interviewing techniques imposed by P.A.C.E., Irving's comment on the reluctance of interrogators to press the interviewee on the question of TIC offences is to some extent reflected in the following figures:-

Table 14.1
TIC Offences 1985 - 1986
Avon & Somerset, Gloucestershire,
Wiltshire and Hampshire

		TICs	Total crimes Cleared-Up	TICs as % of total charges
Avon & Somerset	1985	6738	28365	23.75%
	1986	4641	26300	17.65%
Gloucestershire	1985	3081	9525	32.35%
	1986	2309	8502	27.16%
Wiltshire	1985	2209	10282	21.48%
	1986	1807	9724	18.58%
Hampshire	1985	6985	32462	21.52%
	1986	5664	30607	18.51%

Source - Irving (1986)

On a first and inevitably crude initial comparison it would appear that the prophecies of Irving drawn from his 1986 study in Brighton are borne out by the drop in the percentage of crimes being cleared as a result of TIC admissions.

It will be interesting to observe whether we see this fall in TIC admissions sustained over the years.

In the meantime the author examined the 1987 figures for the Avon and Somerset force whose 1985 and 1986 figures are illustrated above and when added to the previous years show the following pattern which may indicate that the drop in T.I.C. admissions proposed by Irving could be a temporary phenomena and that as police officers become more familiar and less threatened by the restrictions of P.A.C.E., admissions will increase.

Table 14.2
TIC Offences - Avon & Somerset
1985 - 1987

		T.I.C.	Total Crime Cleared up	T.I.C. as % of total charges
Avon & Somerset	1985	6738	28365	23.75%
	1986	4641	26300	17.65%
	1987	7283	29793	24.44%

A category of admission that has received little attention by researchers but is now a declared category in the Home Office required annual statistical returns is that of offences admitted as a result of interviews of convicted offenders in custody. The post conviction interviews have been a recognised police practice for many years. The significant difference between cases taken into consideration (T.I.C.) and the post conviction interview is that one is declared before sentence and taken into account at the court hearing whereas the other admissions, (given for whatever reason), do not carry with them the sanction of a more severe sentence or accept in the most serious of admitted previous crimes, another judicial hearing.

The benefit to police of obtaining a large amount of post conviction admissions of guilty to previous crimes is in the beneficial effect these added admissions will have to the overall detection or clear up rate. Arguably if the risk of increased severity of sentence which could occur in an admission of a significant number of offences taken into consideration at the court hearing is now removed by the sentence already having been passed, then post conviction confessions could be easier to obtain than T.I.C. admissions. Conversely in an effort to please or gain favourable treatment inside or outside the prison a convicted burglar could make claims to committing numerous offences which in the eagerness of acceptance would not receive the same degree of scrutiny as admissions in the T.I.C. category.

In the light of various reservations concerning the practice of post conviction interviews a number of police forces exercised a tighter control than hitherto governing the circumstances under which such interviews were to be conducted. The question was further considered at a national level and detailed and rigidly controlled guidelines were introduced to the Police Service in England and Wales in January 1987 by the Home Office (See Appendix '3').

Amongst greater control with a high level of authorisation required for such visits are the points that:-

1. An identifiable and provable offence has been established.
2. The person admits the crime and there is some corroborative evidence to connect him or her with it, e.g. matters within his or her own knowledge.
3. The admission was properly obtained within the requirements of the Police and Criminal Evidence Act.
4. In appropriate cases there is evidence that the person was at liberty at the time the offence was committed.
5. The view of the complainant has been sought and a record of that view obtained.

As few forces began to document and record such post conviction admissions until 1987, a general analysis of the overall effect of these new and stringent laid down procedures cannot at the time of writing be fully assessed. However, an examination of the Avon and Somerset records, which unlike the author's own force were kept before 1987, reveals a significant drop in the number of post conviction admissions with over half the number of such admissions in 1986 in comparison with the 1985 figures.

The culmulative effect of P.A.C.E. on both T.I.C. and post conviction interviews could be significant when their overall percentage is compared with the total volume of crime 'cleared up' by police.

**Table 14.3
Avon & Somerset
Interviews in Custody 1985 - 1987**

	TIC's	Interview in Custody	Total Crimes Cleared	TIC as % of Crimes Cleared	TIC + Interviews as % of Crimes cleared
1985	6758	1461	28365	23.7%	28.73%
1986	4641	648	26300	17.65%	20.11%
1987	7283	686	29793	24.44%	26.75%

A sample of some fifty detected cases of burglary that occurred in 1984 in the Devon and Cornwall area was compared by the author with a similar sample for the same police area in 1985 with the following results.

**Table 14.4
Devon & Cornwall
Figures showing comparisons 1984 - 1987
Interviews of Offenders in Custody**

Detected Burglaries 'D' Division 1984 (56 crimes)

Offender charged/ summoned	TIC Admission	Prison Interview Admission
34	12	10

Detected Burglaries 'D' Division 1988 (51 crimes)

38	13	0
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The comparatively recent introduction of the procedures governing the interviewing of suspects and prisoners under P.A.C.E. does not yet give sufficient statistical data to determine its long or short term effect on the ability of police to obtain confessions. Similarly although many unacceptable characteristics of the post

conviction interview procedure were recognised and rectified prior to 1987, it is only after the definitive and changed procedures directed by the Home Office that the effect on the level of post conviction interviews will be able to be fully assessed. Nevertheless, sufficient evidence has been produced to support the hypothesis that confessions and admissions of guilt by persons suspected of crimes especially those in custody will require the police to operate in a far more restricting environment and that this could have a significant effect on the detection or clear up rate for criminal offences. Similarly with the reinforcement of the right to legal advice and the right of silence being administered by an officer independent of the investigation, the results compared in later years with the previous studies of Baldwin, McConville, Mitchell and others will provide a more objective assessment of the effects of P.A.C.E. on confessions and admissions generally.

The conclusions so far have attempted to indicate the effect of increasing restrictions on the ability to freely interrogate suspects of crime by the police. The ability to obtain a significant number of confessions by police has, albeit in the context of the presentation of individual human and legal rights, been curtailed. The resultant effect is less confessions and less detections. In the light of the changing environment police need now to look at the policy of criminal investigation to see if the former procedures now criticised in the studies of interrogation can be achieved by a more comprehensive examination of the data collected with the investigator adopting a more analytical and deductive approach. To this end new developments in data capture and analysis together with development of Artificial Intelligence techniques to provide expert systems were examined. The knowledge and experience of the detectives were elicited to form a set of basic rules upon which the first experiments of a police expert system were derived.

CHAPTER 15

CRIME DATA CAPTURE FORMS

The forms currently in use within the Devon and Cornwall Constabulary for recording complaints of crime were introduced at around the time of the amalgamation of the constituent forces in June 1967. The form, known as a Form 41 has remained in use, virtually unchanged since that time.

The form records the bare facts of a complaint of crime and its value in the investigation of any crime is extremely limited. It does, however, record certain information required to be recorded by the Home Office for statistical purposes. Those details, and some others, are currently recorded on OMR (Optical Mark Reader) cards in divisional C.I.D. Admin. Offices. The cards are forwarded to the force statistical department, checked as well as they can be for obvious errors, and then passed on to Devon County Hall Computer Department to be read by an OMR (Optical Mark Reader) into the County IBM Mainframe computer, from which it is possible to extract only limited information. (See Appendix '4' for original Form 41).

Any investigations carried out on a complaint of crime are noted on a 'crime progress sheet', a Form 41(a), which is simply a foolscap sheet of lined paper with a date/time column where an investigating officer can record any actions taken in an attempt to solve the crime, in chronological order and in longhand, with varying degrees of legibility.

When a crime remains undetected, after a period of time, the investigating officer submits the crime complaint (Form 41), together with any statements of complaint of witness statements he/she may have felt it necessary to take, together with the crime progress sheet (Form 41(a)) showing his/her enquiries to date. If the investigating officer feels that the crime enquiries are complete, he/she asks for the crime to be filed as 'undetected'. As long as his supervisors agree, that is what happens. However, should the supervisors not agree, or, if the investigating officer requests more time to complete the enquiries it is returned to him, suitably endorsed by his supervisor(s) and the cycle continues.

There is little or no management of the crime enquiries being carried out in any particular section of the Force, even though there is a work control system. This is because the supervisor of a section will know only the position relating to his section, and no-one has a complete over view of crimes currently under investigation. Furthermore, a lot of trivial crime is under investigation at any one time where there is little or no evidence to enable the enquiry to progress. Thus the resources put to that investigation are rather wasted and could easily and properly be better directed towards dealing with other crimes where some progress was possible.

The current system in operation does permit the 'writing off', i.e. no investigative action, of undetectable minor crime at the outset, thereby merely recording the fact that the offence occurred, but making no investigation. In practice the system is seldom used. Supervisors, in the main, are loathe to make such decisions it seems for fear of criticism from a senior rank. This leads to unnecessary work loads being carried by operation officers, both uniform and C.I.D., when they could better spend their time on more solvable crime.

Naturally, all operational officers carry out some informal system of work screening. The sort of tasks, particularly in relation to complaints of crime into those crimes they feel they may be able to do something about and those they feel they cannot, to which a low priority will be attached. A further report is necessary to get the undetectable, minor crimes agreed by their supervisors to be filed as undetected. Police officers therefore adopt varying tactics to write up the progress sheet in a particular manner to suit (a) the offence and (b) the supervisor all, yet again, wasting valuable time to comply with a system which seems both archaic and unsystematic.

The form 41 as previously stated has evolved arguably to capture the minimum amount of information and satisfy Home Office statistical criteria. Historically, it has not been viewed as an essential record of the first preliminary investigation of the crime, neither has the relevance of comprehensive data capture, especially in the area of M.O. (*modus operandi*) to describe the essential elements of how a crime was committed.

Equally disturbing from a managerial, operational and analytical standpoint is the unstructured and unsystematic format of the form 41 as a data collection

instrument. Unfortunately no instructions are issued with the form and no specific training is given in respect of its completion. One of the most crucial elements in determining the relationship of one crime with another, especially if they both belong to the same category, such as house burglary, is the *modus operandi*. An examination of the original form 41 shows simply details of M.O. with no direction, instruction or indeed any indication to the police officer filling in the form what kind of details are relevant to the eventual process of classification and more importantly analysing the crime he is dealing with in relationship to others that have occurred. In fairness to the reporting officer it is hardly surprising that the vast majority of such forms will show 'entered building and stole property'. This is a meaningless piece of information when attempting to distinguish one particular crime from others which also show under item 15 *modus operandi* one column, 'entered building and stole property'.

Let us assume that in one crime entry was effected by skillfully cutting a pane of glass then entering via the kitchen and utilising the tools and other implements in the kitchen to secure entry to locked doors and cabinets in the house. Subsequently only stealing cash and small high value items of jewellery. In another burglary the rear door was crudely broken, food and drink consumed and pop records and a cassette player taken with jewellery and antique silver left behind. As indicated in the chapter on expert systems and crime analysis, accurate information on the *modus operandi* of a crime can give the most positive information as to the type or identity of probable offenders. In our first example a process of inference and deduction can be commenced in this case to probably indicate an experienced and calculating burglar who is careful not to carry any obviously incriminating evidence or tools of his trade. The other case would prima facie indicate little experience, probably a juvenile because of the type of property stolen and more significantly the type of property ignored. However productive such assessments can or cannot be is irrelevant if both crimes simply contain 'entered building and stole property', as their respective *modus operandi*.

The other difficulty found in examination of the original form 41 was that the same form was completed for the most serious and the most trivial crimes. Again equally disturbing from a managerial crime investigative stand point was that the form

made no allowance for the different characteristics of crimes. The reporting officer was left unguided to decide, presumably as best he or she could, what *modus operandi* factors were significant in the case of sexual assault as opposed to a case of fraud or criminal deception.

The redesigning and the restructuring of the initial crime report seemed a priority in this action research programme intending to change the character and purpose of existing police practices in relation to the recording and the investigation of crime. Instead of the minimum recording of questionable, and as demonstrated, organisationally worthless information, the new style format is the corner stone of the total investigative process. Instead of the old nomenclature of progress sheet to report the officer's actions, such steps now are classified as the initial investigation report.

The first stage, and probably the most important, was to redesign the current crime complaint form (Form 41) and to turn it into an effective crime data capture form - something that would be of use to investigating officers, crime intelligence officers and analysts. The intention was to try and provide information on current and past crime and criminals which could be useful for strategic and tactical deployment of that most value of resources, the operational officer. It was also intended to be able to provide information to easily detect trends and patterns of crime, throw up a 'series' quickly and provide an easily readable data set, rather than a lengthy, hand written, often difficult to read progress sheet, especially as far as the initial investigation and M.O. was concerned.

It was decided to write to the majority of U.K. Police Forces, and some in the U.S.A. to get samples of the forms used in those places for capturing crime data. The Forces contacted were also asked to provide details of any initiatives currently being used or researched in an attempt to combat crime or improve crime prevention techniques.

Not all Forces answered the request, a number of forms received were, in the opinion of the author and his staff, totally unsuitable and after sorting through the 26 replies received, 12 were selected which had some areas considered helpful in the design of the new format for the Devon and Cornwall Constabulary.

The forms were all listed, showing the information fields that each contained. In

all, there were 61 fields, but only 9 of them were common to all. Not unsurprisingly, those fields were for information required by the Home Office which is indicative of the lack of standard accepted techniques and requirements for data capture within the Police Service. (See Table 15.1)

**Table 15.1
Data Fields used by other
Police Forces**

Fields		Forms Numbers														Total Found
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	
1	Time and date of report	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	14
2	Crime Number	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	14
3	Officer reporting	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	14
4	Officer in case	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	12
5	Classification	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	14
6	Complainant details	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	14
7	Where committed	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	14
8	Date and time of offence	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	14
9	Reported by	*		*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	12
10	M.O. Details	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	14
11	Property stolen	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	14
12	Property recovered	*		*	*	*	*		*	*	*	*	*	*	*	11
13	Property damaged	*		*	*	*	*		*	*	*	*	*	*	*	12
14	Offenders	*	*	*				*	*			*		*	*	7
15	Status (det/Ud etc.)	*						*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	8
16	Circulations	*		*	*	*		*			*	*	*		*	9
17	Suspects etc.	*	*	*	*		*	*		*	*	*	*		*	11
18	Property list	*	*	*	*	*				*	*	*	*	*	*	10
19	Submission	*		*	*										*	4
20	Type of premises		*											*		2
21	Area (urban etc.)		*													1
22	Post codes		*													1
23	Map Refs.		*													1
24	Day of week		*					*		*	*	*	*	*	*	7
25	Daylight, Dark U/K		*													1

	Fields	Forms Numbers														Total Found
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	
26	Weather		.													1
27	M.O. type		.													1
28	Clues		.													1
29	Burglar alarm fitted Y / N				7
30	Property ident / nonident					5
31	Location of recovered property			.												1
32	Visits to scene by Rep. Officer CIID SÓCO					6
33	Initial report			7
34	Victim agrees to publicity				.											1
35	Firearm used stolen Y / N				.											1
36	If vehicle found exact location				.											1
37	Resubmission date				.											1
38	Injury to Victim = Fatal/Serious/Minor/ None	11
39	Supervisory officer attending						5
40	Crime Prevention officer attending						4
41	Dogs officer attending						5
42	Names, addresses witnesses						4
43	Enquiries made tick - box						7
44	Victim informed of result by letter/telephone/visit									4
45	Number of victims				.											1
46	Ident. code of victim				.				.							2
47	VICTIM CAN BE SEEN Location date time				.											1
48	Informant details N.A.S.H. / ID CODE				.											1
49	Beat Number						5
50	How Notified to Police						8
51	Additional property stolen / recovered				.											1

Fields		Forms Numbers														Total Found	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14		
52	Support service SOCO/OFO/ EXPLOSIVES /LAB Liaison					.											1
53	Number of prisoners					.											1
54	Time of arrival of OIC at scene									5
55	Time of arrival of OC at scene									5
56	Type of weapon used				7
57	Property book ref.								.								1
58	Separate amendment form showing method of arrest/offender												4
59	Drugs involved													.			1
60	How offence became known to aggrieved															.	1
61	Separate form for criminal damage															.	1

Whilst this exercise was going on, the opinion of Police Officers and detectives were sought in Devon and Cornwall, by talking to officers from all departments and of all ranks, asking what information people would like to be collected on crime and how the existing system could be improved. It proved to be a disappointing and almost totally fruitless exercise. The biggest disappointment probably being the fact that the Senior Detectives Conference, comprising twenty five senior C.I.D. officers representing each territorial division, could not come up with any real positive suggestions on how to improve our crime data collection forms. This is a strong indictment of present investigative management ability and a fatalist attitude of nothing can or needs to be done to change matters. This exercise affirmed the value of a serious research based approach to the problem.

The author concluded that all the information needed could not be collected on one A4 sheet of paper, even using both sides, nor could it be successfully collected on an A3 sheet, giving 4 sides of A4, although the idea was tested. The major difficulty was taking a copy. The decision was taken to try a 'modular system', using a number of separate sheets of A4 paper to collect different data - using only the appropriate sheets for any particular crime. For example, using one sheet to record the basic details of the complaint, containing all the information currently required by the Home Office Statistical Department, plus a little more to aid the investigating officer, should he and the initial reporting officer not be one and the same.

A second sheet was designed to record the initial investigation details, mostly by using a simple 'tick box' system. This would obviate the need for the crime progress sheet (Form 41a) to a great extent for all crime, and completely for minor crime which was not going to be investigated.

A 'case screening' system was incorporated on forms 1 and 2, showing details of the seriousness and solvability factors of the individual crime, and instructing a supervisor to 'screen out' from investigation any complaint of minor or trivial crime which did not reach a particular level of seriousness or solvability.

Other individual sheets were used to record the M.O. used for (a) burglary, (b) sexual offence or (c) fraud, forgery or deception where a good M.O. set could be

instrumental in identifying a likely suspect or offender; and yet another form to list stolen property where more than two items were stolen, thereby providing an easily readable list.

Two other sheets were discussed upon which the details of any suspect could be recorded, where all that was available was some description, or where similar information was available on a suspect's motor vehicle.

At this stage it was felt necessary to set up 'user groups' in 3 areas.

- (A) An H.Q. group, comprising officers from the authors staff, a representative of H.Q. C.I.D., being the department responsible for dealing with crime, H.Q. Computer department, to keep them apprised of ideas, which if computerised they would need to be aware of and a representative of the Police Federation, to represent the interests of the operational officers. (Later the NALGO representative was included into this group as any new recording system would affect the civilian staff in C.I.D. administration offices and Local Intelligence offices).
- (B) A user group from each of the two divisions where it was decided to experiment with the improved date capture format viz :- ('C' Division - North Devon and 'D' Division - Exeter). The divisional user groups included the Sub-Divisional Officer, a senior detective, uniformed officers and members of C.I.D. Administration, Crime Intelligence and Local Intelligence Offices.

Each of the user groups met under the Chairmanship of a member of the Crime Research project team working directly to the author. The main purpose of the H.Q. group was to keep both H.Q. C.I.D. and computer departments informed of what was being included in the experiment. It also gave the representatives from both of those departments the opportunity to suggest additions to, or deletions from the modular forms set.

The Police Federation representative on the H.Q. user group was there to look at and protect the interests of his members. It was also open to him to make suggestions for additions or deletions from the form set.

This group met on three occasions to discuss developments within the two

divisional user groups before the experimental form set for the first trial period was finalised. The group was also able to discuss the case screening part of the first trial, its content and system for operation and at what level such screening should take place.

The two divisional user groups met on a larger number of occasions. Again, the purpose of these groups, each chaired by a Crime Research project team member, was to decide on an agreed content and format for the experimental form set and to discuss the case screening arrangements and decision levels.

A good number of the suggestions from the three user groups have been implemented in the first trial set of forms and every attempt has been made to incorporate all of those suggestions agreed by a final meeting of all three user groups.

There is little doubt that the experimental forms captured more useful data in an easily readable form. The forms, when used operationally were found to need further amendment and after use in the two trial sections (in Wyvern Section, 'D' Division, and Barnstaple Section in 'C' Division) were further amended. The findings were then incorporated into a reprinted and updated form for the experiment to continue and spread within the two trial divisions. (See Appendices 5, 6 and 7 for comparison with accident recording techniques).

Case Screening

The debate into the question of how the investigative process can be better managed has occupied the attention of a number of distinguished American researchers for the past decade and beyond. The early work of Peter Greenwood (1970) was a modern milestone in an attempt to determine how crimes were solved. In the context of data obtained from the New York City Police Department, Greenwood in examining relationships between caseloads of detectives and arrest rates concluded that "the solution of any particular property crime is a chance event insensitive to the amount of investigation conducted." (Greenwood 1970).

In another attempt to describe the investigative process Joseph Frederick Folk (1971) defined investigations as a process in which the investigator selects activities that are likely to produce leads and invoke minimum costs. As new leads develop new activities are selected, this process continues until the case is solved or the time allowed

for the investigation is used up. The concept of activity producing leads which in turn produces more leads until the case is solved is of course one beloved by many fictional writers and dramatists. The work of Folk contrasts directly with early Greenwood in that Folk implies that detective actions are related to crime solutions whereas Greenwood implies that it is no more than chance.

The work of Wilmer (1970) brought into the equation the concept of information theory where he postulated that in the wake of every crime a trail of information was left by the offender, with the offender attempting to minimise the information available and the police attempting to maximise the extraction of available information. Both Wilmer and Folk proposed an analytical model of investigations whereby investigative effort contributes to crime detection as opposed to Greenwood's claim that crime detection is a chance event.

The sociological school of enquirers significantly identified by the works of Sanders (1977), Waegel (1979) and Ericson (1981), although observing detectives in their different jurisdictions in the United States and Canada found that detectives were allowed to operate with relatively little organisational control over their behaviour. A great deal of latitude was left to the detective to decide which cases would be pursued, what information was relevant and who would be arrested and charged.

In the context of management of police investigative resources, one of the most significant empirical studies was that conducted for the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice at the Institute of Defence Analysis, Issacs (1967). The study based on the records of the Los Angeles Police Department produced findings that have been generally confirmed by almost every successive study of criminal investigation.

The findings basically established that

- (a) the patrol force made most of the arrests although the detective force identified a substantial proportion of the offenders arrested.
- (b) information about the suspect provided by the victim to the first officer (patrolman) attending was one of the most important determinants of whether the crime was solved.

- (c) the ability to identify the suspect at the scene of the crime varied dramatically by crime type. (See significantly the work of Michael Zander (1979) in the United Kingdom into the prior relationship between victim and offender in the more serious cases).

To this new wave of examination of existing investigative techniques Greenwood added the observation that a large amount of detective time was wasted on the investigation of cases that could not be solved Greenwood (1970). The work of Richard Ward (1971) gave the indication of high caseloads, at times as much as one an hour, as the reason why detectives could not give adequate time to investigative performance, whereas Greenwood claimed that variations in caseload had no influence on investigative performance. Ward by virtue of the way he collected his data could have suffered from the 'British caseload disease' where all the crimes recorded are divided by the number of detectives giving an unrealistic and certainly unrepresentable workload accepting that at least 65% /70% of all crimes are investigated exclusively by the uniform branch (see previous chapters).

The research of Greenberg *et al* (1973) found *inter alia* that Information provided by patrol officers from their preliminary investigations was an extremely important determinant of whether a follow-up investigation of the burglary resulted in an arrest and that this information could be used to screen cases prior to assigning them to detectives so that only cases with a reasonable chance of solution would be assigned. The follow up study by the Stanford Research Institute explained the feasibility of constructing waited screening models for several other serious felonies (Greenwood *et al* 1975). The significance and most important factor which is being reinforced by the Rand Series of research studies, see Greenwood *et al* (1975), is that the preliminary investigation conducted by patrol officers comprise an extremely important part of the investigative function.

Case screening is one of the few police policies supported by a preponderance of research demonstrating the effectiveness in a wide variety of settings. It has been shown that case screening can reduce the amount of investigative effort wasted on cases that would not result in arrest (Eck 1979; Johnston and Healey 1978; Greenberg

et al 1979; Greenberg *et al* 1975, Greenberg *et al* 1973c). Research has also shown that the use of case screening improves the performance of investigative units (Bloch and Bell 1976; Graves 1971; Williams 1979). Finally the use of case screening models assigning points to cases based on the types of leads available is helpful in determining investigative priority of cases that are assigned to detectives (Brand and Koroloff 1976).

Case screening posed a different problem. Before any such system could be implemented it had to be decided whether or not the screening should be part of the experimental form set or be kept as a totally separate form, in the American style, developed originally in the early 1970's at Stanford Research Institute. The few U.K. Police Forces that currently use some form of case screening tend to follow the American pattern, which is basically a formalised points system, where offences are given a number of points for each item which would further an investigation, and that investigation is only continued if the requisite number of points are allocated to that offence. The original Stanford Research Institute model is reproduced at Table 15.2.

Table 15.2
Stanford Research Institute
(Case Screening Model)
Burglary Case Disposition Decision Rule

Information Element	Weighting Factor
Estimated range of time of occurrence	
Less than 1 hour	5
1 to 12 hours	1
12 to 24 hours	0.3
More than 24 hours	0
Witness's report of offence	7
On-view report of offence	1
Useable fingerprints	7
Suspect information developed description or name	9
Vehicle description	0.1
Other	0
Total score	

INSTRUCTIONS

1. Circle the weighting factor for each information element that is present in the incident report.
2. Total the circled factors.
3. If the sum is less than equal to 10, suspend the case; otherwise, follow up the case.

The project team, under the direction of the author, involved in the Devon and Cornwall case screening experiment sought to use the judgement of the operational officer as to the likelihood of a particular offence being positively resolved, but recognised the fact that certain offences would always have to be investigated. It was decided to combine a less restricting points system to case screening than the American

system, but one which took into consideration the seriousness of the crime and the solvability factors pertaining to that particular crime. The officer's judgement could be supplemented by answering some questions relating to both the seriousness and the solvability, ticking some boxes giving answers to those questions, and this information could be used by a supervisor to decide on whether a crime would be investigated further than the initial investigation or not.

The tables selected for the first trial were

Table 15.3
Devon and Cornwall
Case Screening Model

SERIOUSNESS	Pts.	SOLVABILITY	Pts.
Grave	10	Simple	10
Very serious	8	Straight forward	8
Serious	4	Complex	4
Common	3	Difficult	3
Minor	2	Very difficult	2
Trivial	1	(Almost) impossible	1

Using all the information from the initial investigation, the supervisor would decide on the seriousness, allocate the appropriate points, then decide on the solvability and again allocate the points. He would then multiply those two numbers together and, if the resultant 'score' was 8 points or more, the crime should be investigated further. By allocating the points in the manner shown in the two tables, it can be seen that any very serious crime will always be investigated. Similarly, lesser crimes, trivial or minor, which is relatively easy to resolve will also be investigated. However, lesser crimes which would be difficult to resolve, will not be investigated. The resources, therefore, that would have been applied to minor matters with little or no likelihood of solution, can be applied to those matters where some evidence is available with a resultant more likelihood of a more productive investigation. (See Appendix 8 for full details and instructions to officers).

The solvability aspects are similar to those identified in the Stanford screening model but the rationale allows more flexibility than the definitive laid down criteria of the Stanford model. For example in the Devon and Cornwall screening model, simple and straightforward categories in solvability terms will only be applied when there is suspect information or similar high weighted information. Equally difficult and very difficult solvability factors will reflect the absence of significant information and in the Stanford context have a low weighted score. The combination of improved data capture and thereby a more comprehensive and meaningful preliminary investigation at the time of the reporting and recording of a crime recognises the importance placed on this function in the successful investigation of crime by all the significant research conducted in this area.

The system is designed to be dynamic and adaptable and as will be seen from the appendix has been developed by the interactive method of field testing and then reevaluating and changing in the light of practitioner input and testing in an operational setting. The case screening element was added to fulfil another element of the on going managerial objective of this study, namely to see a more systematic and measurable way to examine the process of the investigation of crimes. Arguably without the introduction of some form of case screening the ultimate goal of progression towards effective management of criminal investigation in terms of case management, case load allocation and detective productivity could not commence.

CHAPTER 16

DATA COMPARISON

The organisational need to replace the existing crime recording and initial investigative system was apparent in the early stages of this study. Following an examination by the author of methods and techniques developed from research, mainly in the United States, together with the most significant findings of contemporary work in the United Kingdom, a concept of a new approach to the process of criminal investigation was devised.

The author was fortunate to be able to transform and translate his findings on the inadequacy of the old into an organisationally supported experiment with the new. Accordingly, a new experimental crime recording and initial investigation system known as 'Bayes' was introduced into two territorial police divisional command areas, viz. 'C' Division in North Devon and 'D' Division in East Devon. The term 'Bayes' was chosen to indicate the incremental nature of the experiment by adding information to existing knowledge, similar to the 'Bayesian estimation' of statistical decision theory.

The system is experimental and involves an interactive process with practitioners and middle management whereby improvements and alterations can be made in the light of practical user experience. The evolutionary nature of the work is documented in the preceding chapters and appendices to this study.

The new experimental systems commenced in the middle of 1987 and therefore only limited statistical and analytical comparisons are available at the time of writing. However, there is sufficient evidence available to show significant improvements in data collection, especially in relevance to the behavioural characteristics of a crime, the *modus operandi* or M.O.

Table 16.1
Use of Modus Operandi Codes
1.1.84 - 31.3.84
'D' Division

Crime Grouping	Total Recorded Crimes	% of category detected	Total No. of M.O. codes used	No. of Crimes where no M.O. code	Av. no. of M.O. codes used All recorded crimes	Crimes where M.O.
Sexual offences	22	72.72%	0	22	0	0
Burglaries	591	24.87%	1706	42	2.9	3.1
Robbery/ thefts	879	42.66%	549	368	0.6	1.1
Fraud/ forgery	193	79.79%	184	20	1.0	1.1
Thefts of/ from	397	16.88%	469	21	1.2	1.2
Damage inc. arson	249	34.14%	270	49	1.1	1.4

Table 16.2
Use of Modus Operandi Codes
1.1.88 - 31.3.88 (Bayes)
'D' Division

Crime Grouping	Total Recorded Crimes	% of category detected	Total No. of M.O. codes used	No. of Crimes where no M.O. code	Av. no. of M.O. codes used All recorded crimes	Crimes where M.O.
Sexual offences	11	81.81%	18	6	1.6	3.6
Burglaries	546	20.32%	3910	74	7.2	8.3
Robbery/ thefts	856	30.02%	707	358	0.8	1.4
Fraud/ forgery	203	71.92%	119	130	0.6	1.6
Thefts of/ from	598	19.89%	873	196	1.5	2.2
Damage inc. arson	400	28.00%	399	137	1.0	1.5

It is difficult at any level of managerial responsibility to explain why in the 1984 example in Table 16.1 not one behavioural characteristic was documented in twenty two sexual offences. By the very nature of the offence physical contact by the offender took place and knowledge of the offender by the victim either by name or description was also present. The 1988 figures, using the experimental Bayes system show a total of 18 M.O. codes used for 11 cases. The fact that there still remained 6 cases of the 11 where no M.O. codes were used shows that although showing a considerable improvement there is still a long way to go before every crime of this category receives an appropriate number of M.O. codes or characteristics.

The most significant improvement is in the category of burglary. This is not surprising in view of the concentration on this particular offence in relation to the elicitation of expert knowledge and the experiments in one of the two Bayes areas, (namely 'D' Division), with burglary offences, nevertheless, well over twice the amount

of data was collected on M.O. codes in a slightly smaller sample of 546 burglaries compared with the 1984 sample of 591.

As stated earlier, it is arguably too soon to make any meaningful conclusions concerning the increased amount of capture of *modus operandi* information in relation to 'clear up' rates for specific and general categories of crime. It will be advocated in the final chapter of this study that relationships between the amount of data collected on the *modus operandi* of a crime should be related to the 'clear up rate' in future research projects.

The most significant and dramatic results pertaining to this study so far are in the area of case screening, which like other applications of the 'new' experimental system are still in the infancy of development. Nevertheless the following tables show examples of the predictive capability of the case screening system in ensuring that only those cases that have a high expectation of being solved warrant the time and effort of investigation. It must be remembered from earlier discussions in this study that these examples are from the 'run of the mill' crime categories which, as previously demonstrated, comprise over 80% of all investigations. The most serious offences because of the crime screening requirements will always receive investigative effort despite the lack of other solvability factors. It was therefore decided to compare the effects of case screening with the former procedure whereby all reported crimes received investigative effort. Three hundred crimes that had received investigative effort in 1986 were retrospectively screened by using two experienced supervisors acting as judges and of the same ranks of Sergeant and Inspector as would perform the screening process in an operational setting after the introduction of the case screening procedure.

Table 16.3

**1986 September 'D' Division Crime Sample
(Pre-Screening)**

(Sample size 327
(11 No crimes)
Actual sample = 316

Dealt with by uniform officers = 264 (80.7%)
Dealt with by C.I.D. = 63 (19.3%)
Detected 113 (34.6%)
Undetected 203 (62.1%)
No crimes 11 - (3.4%)

Of the total crime there were 63 burglaries
Detected burglaries were 19 (30.2%)
Burglaries (63) = 19.3% of the crime sample
Undetected crime - total days 'live' for 203 crimes = 5449
(Average days live = 26.8)

(Live means the subject of active investigation as opposed to being 'filed' when active investigation ceases).

Number of undetected crime that would have been screened out using the Bayes case screening = 127.

127 crimes is 62.6% of the total undetected crime, and this could have saved 3391 'active' days.

Assuming 1 hour per day per crime that could have been screened out, gives a saving in time, using case screening of 141 man hours.

Number of crimes that would now been screened out that were subsequently detected = 6.

The man hour figure of one hour a day, decided by the judges in their historical examination, is extremely conservative and should be regarded as a minimum figure rather than a norm. The average day 'live' figure of 26.8 days for crimes that arguably should have not received full on-going investigation is further proof of absence of any form of effective case management system.

Table 16.4
1987 June 'D' Division Crime Sample
(Case Screening in operation for first month)

Sample size 302
(4 No crimes)
Actual sample = 298

Dealt with by uniform officers = 290 (96%)
Dealt with by C.I.D. = 12 (4%)
Detected 59 = 19.5%
Undetected 239 = 79.1%
No crime 4 = 1.3%

Of the total crime sampled there were 80 burglaries.
Detected burglaries were 5 (6.2%)
Burglaries (80) = 26.5% of the sample

No. of crimes screened out = 177 (58.6%)
No. of burglaries screened out = 41 (13.6% of all crime, 51.2% of burglaries).
No. of crimes screened out and later detected = 9.
No. of crimes screened in and eventually detected = 10.
No. of burglaries screened out and later detected = 0.
No. of crimes detected at the outset = 40.

The interesting aspect of the table is that it was in the first month of the screening experiment. The conclusion would seem to be that in this example the screening process does not seem to make a difference in the predictive ability to distinguish those cases that warrant investigation and those which do not.

Table 16.5
1987 November 'D' Division Crime Sample
(Case screening in operation for six months)

Sample size 350
(7 No crimes)
Actual sample = 343

Dealt with by uniform officers = 295 (84.3%)
Dealt with by C.I.D. = 55 (15.71%)
Detected 154 = 44%
Undetected 189 = 54%
No crime 7 = 2%

Of the total crime sampled there were 72 burglaries.
Detected burglaries were 24 (6.9%).
Burglaries (72) = 20.6% of the sample.

No. of crimes screened out = 126 (36%)
No. of burglaries screened out = 16 (4.6% of all crime, 22.2% of burglaries).
No. of crimes screened out and later detected = 4.
No. of crimes screened in and eventually detected = 34.
No. of burglaries screened out and later detected = 0.
No. of crimes detected at the outset = 117.

After six months experience with the system it will be noted that a much higher level of predictability has been obtained, for only four of the offences screened out were later detected. A similar exercise was carried out in the other police division, i.e. 'C' Division, where the Bayes experimental system had also been introduced, to see whether the same phenomenon would occur. Accordingly a similar sample was taken from the June and November figures in that area.

Table 16.6
1987 June 'C' Division Crime Sample
(Case Screening in operation for first month)

Sample size 323
 (8 No crimes)
 Actual sample = 315

Dealt with by uniform officers = 292 (90.4%)
 Dealt with by C.I.D. = 31 (9.6%)
 Detected 132 = 40.9%
 Undetected 183 = 56.7%
 No crime 8 = 2.5%

Of the total crime sampled there were 36 burglaries.
 Detected burglaries were 9 (25%).
 Burglaries (36) = 11.1% of the sample.

No. of crimes screened out = 133 (41.2%)
 No. of burglaries screened out = 6 (1.9% of all crime, 16.7% of burglaries).
 No. of crimes screened out and later detected = 9.
 No. of crimes screened in and eventually detected = 17.
 No. of burglaries screened out and later detected = 0.
 No. of crimes detected at the outset = 106.

Table 16.7
1987 November 'C' Division Crime Sample
(Case Screening in operation for six months)

Sample size 352
 (10 No crimes)
 Actual sample 342

Dealt with by uniform officers = 323 (91.8%)
 Dealt with by C.I.D. + 29 (8.24%)
 Detected = 131 (37.2%)
 Undetected = 211 (59.9%)
 No crime = 10 (2.9%)

Of the total crime sampled there were 51 burglaries.
 Detected burglaries were 9 (17.7%)
 Burglaries (51) = 14.5% of sample.

No. of crimes screened out = 123 (36%).
 Burglaries screened out = 8 (2.3% of all crime, 15.7% of burglaries).
 No. of crimes screened out and later detected = 6.
 No. of crimes screened in and eventually detected = 44.
 No. of burglaries screened out and later detected = 1.
 No. of crimes detected at the outset = 81.

These findings support those in the other police division, in that more experience of applying the crime screening technique appears to show a much higher predictability rate in assessing those crimes that will benefit from a full investigation and those who in terms of solvability will not.

It must be stressed that at this stage of development such examples are liable to fluctuate and the process needs time and the accumulation of considerably more data before more positive pronouncements can be made. The ability to control more rigorously the data capture of crucial information, available at the scene together with the application of a rule based analysis for preliminary and ongoing investigations will be the subject of further and more final comments in this study and needs to be viewed in the framework of the author's concept of a totally integrated approach to the investigation of crime.

CHAPTER 17

ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE AND EXPERT SYSTEMS

This chapter is not intended to produce a definitive or even comprehensive summary of the current research or thinking in the fields of artificial intelligence and expert systems but rather serve to give an insight into the thinking behind the formulation of the experimental rule based system subsequently devised for the investigation of crime.

The idea of mechanical calculating engines goes back as far as the seventeenth century when Pascal and Leibniz designed machines to perform fixed operations such as addition and multiplication. Charles Babbage (1792 - 1871) conceived the computing potential of machinery and is credited with the invention of many of the basic principles of modern computers. His concept of a 'Difference' engine to generate mathematical tables was followed by the concept of an 'Analytical Engine' which possessed both a 'store' (memory) and a 'mill' (calculating and decision making unit). These units were to be built of thousands of intricate geared cylinders interlocked in incredibly complex ways. The numbers swirling in and out of the mill were to be under the control of a program contained in punch cards. The idea came apparently from the 'Jaquard Loom' which was a card controlled loom that wove amazingly complex patterns. The Analytical Engine could not originate anything but could do whatever it was instructed to do.

In between the 1930's and 40's the first giant electronic computers were built and commenced a convergence of the study of mechanical computation with a theoretical application of axiomatic reasoning and some elements of the psychology of intelligence. One of the great innovators in the early field of what is today regarded as the study of Artificial Intelligence was Alan Turing (1912 - 1953). Turing invented a machine that processed the symbols on a tape and for each symbol the machine recognised, it performed a particular task. The machine moved the symbols according to rules - a program. For example, if the machine identified the symbol to be a yellow triangle it would move the tape three places to the right.

An early theory of Artificial Intelligence (A.I.) was that the world could be analysed in symbols and if the right rules were put in one could create a thinking machine. The search for A.I. then became the search for rules with people trying to put together long sets of rules in strict formation which tried in some way to capture what was thought of as the essence of intelligent behaviour.

Turing invented a computer program that could play chess and called it the 'Turochamp'. The computer would compute the various moves available and come up with the best option based on the rules contained in the program. The option was computed on two levels, the best for the computer and the worst for the opponent. Later editions used more sophisticated techniques with 'heuristic' rules. At the time of the invention of the 'Turochamp' it was expected that in ten years the computer would be the world champion. In spite of more sophisticated programs that vision is believed to be, if not impossible, certainly equally ten years away.

The proponents of the theory of A.I. that all human behaviour is rule based, maintained that because we consciously do not recognise this fact does not mean that there are not all sorts of rules at all sorts of levels. Some behaviour can be replicated by computer driven machinery as in the case of vehicle production and the development of other forms of robotic engineering. What is more difficult is establishing the borderline between non-intelligent and intelligent behaviour.

'Hofstadter' (1979) cites as the essential attributes of intelligence:-

1. To be able to respond very flexibly to changing situations.
2. To make sense out of ambiguous or contradictory messages.
3. To recognise the relative importance of different elements of a situation.
4. To find similarities between situations despite differences which may separate them.
5. To synthesise new concepts by taking old concepts and putting them together in new ways.
6. To come up with ideas that are novel.

A paradox is therefore seemingly created when we talk of 'intelligent' machines that by their very nature are inflexible, rule following, unemotional, unfeeling and

unconscious. It seems impossible that intelligent behaviour can be programmed because of the contrast between the human and the machine, the animate and the inanimate, the flexible and the inflexible, the predictable and the unpredictable.

There is evidence to show that the progress in computer science is related to the development of new computer languages. Such languages are developed in response to the stimulus and demand of a particular domain area. Each has a particular applicability for certain styles of useage. The language known as 'Prolog', for example, has powerful pattern matching facilities whereas the language known as 'LISP' has the ability to aggregate complex constructs and formulate data from one program to create another. In essence the development of increasingly high level languages gives greater flexibility than hitherto. The evaluation of some fundamental human abilities such as speech, perception, etc. have led to the use of multiple processors, linked in various architecture to simulate the detailed interaction within the human brain, breaking down complex processes to a large number of simple but interactive processes. Neural-networks utilise a large number of processors, each carrying out relatively trivial processes, to achieve power by interconnectivity and scale. In the absence of rules or formal programs the network of interconnected cells can exhibit a form of learning in response to training. The work of Rumelhart and McClelland (1986) on the past tense of verbs, showed that the computer was behaving just like children do when they learn the past tense of English.

Expert Systems

An expert system seeks to emulate the knowledge and problem solving ability of a human expert in a particular domain. In simple form an expert system is a particular style of computer programming. One expects to find a knowledge base, rules and an inference engine. The latter applies the rules to a combination of data and the knowledge base to reach the desired goal. The development of expert systems are the best known, even if accepted as rudimentary applications, of the ideas and concepts sponsored by research into artificial intelligence.

Practitioners in the field of expert systems face the task of encapsulating the knowledge of the human expert in a necessarily complex program. Attention has

focussed upon production rules as a convenient means to express aspects of this knowledge in a sufficiently formal way to support processing of data. However, critics of rule based systems have expressed the view that rules are the most primitive expression of an expert's knowledge. It may well prove to be the level at which he can express his understanding of his own thought processes, but his ability stems from far more complex blends of heuristic, procedural and factual knowledge which we often simply refer to as skill. It is suggested that experts draw their expertise from the experience of specific instances rather than a set of rules, however, the adherence to a basic set of rules as an operating framework should not be ignored. Driving a car is cited as such an example that we drive instinctively and not by rules. Nevertheless, if one is driving a car with a manual gear change and the clutch is not depressed when changing gear the reasoning for adherence to the basic rules of operation becomes self evident. Powerful expert systems depend on a successful division of knowledge across the available facilities to record and manipulate it. Deciding what should be expressed as a knowledge base, rather than within the rule base, and a truly effective supporting data base is the challenge which faces the knowledge engineer. It will often be in such cases that the completion of the first prototype will be a revelation in terms of the best way to map the problem onto the software tools available.

The knowledge engineering process leads to the creation of a raw untried system. validation of the efficacy of the rules and knowledge base can hone the raw system into a fully functional system. However, an important concept is the ability of the system to notify and improve itself in response to a comparison of its results with given performance criteria. Such creations can by simulation of the basic rules give rise to an expert novice, a beginner so powerful that it can become competent.

The development of expert systems are the best known, even if accepted as rudimentary, applications of the ideas and concepts of the research into artificial intelligence. Usually the systems are targetted to a specific problem or series of problems whereby the knowledge engineer mimics or replicates a fundamental aspect of human expertise.

The Expert systems are generally based on a series of rules derived from the

knowledge acquisition and knowledge elicitation sessions with the human expert. A process of determination is then established by applying 'if' and 'then' propositions to an inference engine which emulates the reasoning process. One of the early successful applications of an expert system was within the field of medical diagnosis. The computer was programmed with a set of diagnostic rules drawn from the best possible human medical expertise with the symptoms fed into the computer. The patient instead of being questioned by a doctor was questioned by the computer system containing the expert rules given to it by the best of human medical ability. The computer asks a series of questions, the sequence of the subsequent questions being dependent on the previous answers, until a comprehensive data base of information is acquired. The computer makes a diagnosis based on this information. The system is not designed to replace the human medical expert but rather assist the doctor in the early stages of diagnosis replicating by electronic means the preliminary steps the doctor would have taken.

In practical terms it means that the human expertise is optimised by the computer carrying out the preliminary fact finding stage. One doctor can therefore deal with many more patients in a given time or spend more time on the final and more crucial stages of diagnosis. In industrial applications computer aided design is now commonplace in projecting proposed shapes and forms of automobiles and buildings. The system can then test the design produced by being able to simulate stress and stability levels and load factors by comparing varying designs. In geological exploration, samples of mineral deposits are processed by a computer that contains expert rules to recognise the characteristics of various soil and mineral combinations that can most indicate the probability of oil or gas deposits.

In the area of criminal investigation 'expertise' is not as easily ascertained and identified as in the case of the medical practitioner or the geologist, and may take a less academic form. Proven methods of best practice and systematic procedures in the collection of available information may nevertheless, in combination with work experience and craft base knowledge, as will be demonstrated, still provide an expert system in computer terms. Similarly, in the process of investigation, especially the

more complex enquiries, such a system would not only need to contain the knowledge and expertise of the best detectives but also contain the elements of the best crime management systems to ensure the systematic checking of witnesses seen and the value and significance of evidence obtained.

CHAPTER 18

THE DESIGN OF THE KNOWLEDGE BASED CRIME SYSTEM

In applying the general principles of an expert system to the specific field of Criminal Investigation, as previously stated the expertise may take a less academic form and the question of best practice and systematic procedures may be of equal if not greater utility.

If, for example, one is examining the *modus operandi* of criminals who specialise in committing burglaries, an expert detective could from his personal experience and knowledge match some criminals to some crimes. To do this he would have needed to have investigated those crimes personally and have a detailed knowledge of similar crimes where his investigation had led to the apprehension of an offender whose pattern of behaviour was recognisable to the detective as a person most likely to have committed the crime under investigation. The more unique the *modus operandi* of the burglary, the more he would be associated with the commission of similar crimes by the detective investigating those crimes.

Any detective, however knowledgeable, experienced and expert has only a limited knowledge of the burglaries committed, (usually only those he has investigated personally), and a limited but greater knowledge of known, (usually by conviction) burglars operating in his area. The knowledge of known or professional criminals is part of the organisational training of police officers and detectives and is strengthened and reinforced by various circulations and intelligence reports from local intelligence officers, known as collators. In addition to the divisional, force, regional and national circulations of criminals suspected or wanted for the commission of various offences.

Instead of this human system of distributed information processing, let us imagine a computer program that contains all the details of convicted burglars, including a detailed analysis of their *modus operandi*, which if detailed enough could be viewed as a form of 'behavioural fingerprint'. If we then add to this data base of knowledge a set of rules derived from the distillation of knowledge from a number of the most experienced detectives, we get a greater width and scope to an indication of whom

the perpetrator of the crime (let us stick to burglary as an example) may be. As will be seen later, some of the rules will be of a general predictive nature, e.g. if large valuable items of property such as TV sets and video recorders are not stolen and if chocolates and sweets are taken yet alcohol ignored, the inference could be drawn that the perpetrator is possibly a juvenile; young enough for alcohol not to be a factor of choice and that because valuable but heavy items were not taken there was also no vehicle used. Yet another component of the knowledge base of the system is derived from the work of mainly academic researchers such as Dermot Walsh and others who have examined the behavioural characteristics of the various criminal groups. Emanating from such research are other behavioural patterns which can also form rules from which inferences can be drawn. Let us return to our burglary where from the data collected at the scene we have established the method of entry, the type of search and the nature of the property stolen. Our knowledge based rule system (which will be described in more detail later) has produced the inference that the crime was probably committed by a juvenile who is younger rather than older. The results of academic research tells the system that such young offenders seldom act alone and that it is equally probable that they have local knowledge. The time of the offence has indicated the probability of entry between 8 a.m. and 6 p.m. when the householder was at work. The system has now produced a 'Phantom' profile of our offender(s), indicating young, possibly more than one, possibly school children, possibly local. If of course the criminal records of convicted burglars contained a similar *modus operandi* of previously committed crimes then the system would be able to match known offenders with unsolved crimes.

The expert or knowledge based system being designed therefore, consists of a computer program which is an inference engine to emulate a form of reasoning process using data supplied from a variety of sources, with basically three sets of rules designed to match known offenders with unsolved crimes, in this particular case burglaries. At this stage of development it is intended that existing data bases will be used as an information source to feed two paths of inference, with the main source data bases being those holding conviction records and details of recorded crimes. The two

inference paths will lead to the creation of 'Real Person' profiles and 'Phantom Person profiles'. At any given time the real person profile will represent the current knowledge about a particular known offender. Such details will contain all recorded conviction records, all criminal intelligence, details of other characteristics such as *modus operandi* together with known associates and a record of vehicles owned or used by the offender and his associates.

Similarly the 'Phantom Person' profile will represent an identical structured profile concerning the current knowledge about the perpetrator of an unsolved burglary. These general rules also apply to the nature of the crime of residential burglary, of burglars in general and burglars in particular.

The rules seek to infer conclusions about attributes of the perpetrator(s) by using behavioural information drawn from working knowledge and the results of research, which have shown certain characteristics of burglars in respect of the type and value of property stolen, distance travelled and aspects of the *modus operandi*.

Two other sets of rules have been extracted from the mass of raw rules which originally formed the basis for the general rules. These are the decay rules and the matching rules. There is no difference in the way these rules are written but they need to be considered separately because of their place in the investigative process which the system is designed to support.

The 'decay' rules as the name suggests are only intended to be applied to the creation and maintenance of real person profiles, i.e. of known offenders (burglars). The necessity for decay rules is that the offender data base will become out of date. It is known that there is a high drop out rate for people who commit burglaries when they reach certain ages. Decay rules need to be framed to take account of this fact and linking that information with the lack or frequency of recent convictions. Similarly decay rules will need to take into account changes of a descriptive nature such as hair loss, change of colour and changes of build which are likely to be caused by the normal ageing process. Decay rules will also need to be considered in serious cases of unsolved crime when crimes of a similar *modus operandi* occur at an interval of several years and different descriptions of alleged offenders are not examined in the light of the

principle of the decay rule.

The creation and maintenance of the 'Real Person' profiles and the creation of the 'Phantom Person' profiles are processes which may run autonomously in a background mode. Subtle changes in profiles of both types will occur with the passage of time as new information is received and the principle of the decay rule is applied to physical descriptions.

The matching rules or processes must have the ability to test and re-test for potential matches in its profile data base. To ensure the most effective pattern of search there needs to be certain matching rules with a high degree of certainty which can therefore eliminate large numbers of potential profiles from the search. If, for example, a number of the 'Real Person' profiles show that the subject was in custody when the burglary was committed, that would give a high degree of certainty that they could not have committed the crime and they can therefore be eliminated from the detailed search. The rules can also highlight certain profiles for attention as to when the vehicle owned by the subject of a real person profile was seen in an area where a burglary was later committed. The rules also cater for knowledge of the sharing of vehicles between associates and the learning of criminal techniques. By utilising criminal convictions plus criminal intelligence, i.e. known current activities of the individual, 'Real Person' profiles of associates can be included in the search process in appropriate cases. Similarly characteristics of associates, specially in the fields of *modus operandi*, can be matched to certain characteristics of the 'Phantom Profile' derived from an analysis of the information obtained from the unsolved investigation.

As previously stated, the knowledge on which the various rules must be based is generally not as easily discernible as in other applications of expert systems where medical or hard scientific expertise is being elucidated. The main sources of knowledge available to the investigator of crime are crime statistics both nationally and local, mainly based on historical analysis, published studies on criminal offenders and behaviour and raw data on convicted persons. Criminal intelligence and the accumulated skill of the police 'expert' knowledge of experienced detectives plus the small group of police officers actively concerned with the implementation of the crime

system gives further input.

Knowledge elicitation from the 'Expert' detectives

Accepting the failure to identify positively the consistent and measurable 'expertise' of detectives by personal interviews and group discussions or an examination of taught skills at detective training schools, a form of knowledge elicitation was conducted. The knowledge was elucidated in an abstract rule based form which is particularly suitable for capturing the expertise of detectives whose knowledge is based upon personal experience of 'doing the job'. The task of knowledge elucidation was attempting to dig down beneath the personal experience of individuals and elicit the underlying rule base which displays common attributes.

Twelve experienced detectives considered by the divisional commanders to be the best and most experienced detective constables were selected to take part in a structured discussion specifically on the crime of residential burglary (rather than the more generalised attempts to previously elicit skills discussed in previous chapters).

By focusing on one particular crime, that of residential burglary, the detectives could relate their personal experience of investigating such crimes. The main reasons for selecting the crime of residential burglary was that it is a crime which almost universally is investigated by detectives and it provides significant data fields for *modus operandi* and behavioural knowledge of burglars by the detectives questioned.

Twelve elements concerning the crime of burglary and the known characteristics of burglars were identified by the detectives which covered areas of selectivity and specialisation, vulnerability of target, the agility and build of burglars, type of property taken and just as importantly not taken. Other elements covered the age group and experience of known burglars, the type of transport favoured and details of behaviour at the scene of the crime. The relevance of certain distinctive behaviour at the scene of the crime and the relevance of accomplices and the influence of drugs and alcohol were also identified as major elements.

A number of statements were then formulated under each element heading until a total of one hundred and nineteen statements were obtained. In a separate exercise (see Appendix 9) a questionnaire was devised containing the twelve headings and the

one hundred and nineteen statements and another twelve experienced detectives were selected as the next most experienced detective constables working in rural and city areas and they were asked to respond to the statements. Each respondent was asked to judge the relevance of the statements presented on a scale of 1 - 5 with one indicating strong agreement and five indicating strong disagreement with the statement presented.

Only six statements out of the one hundred and thirty nine failed to gain the majority endorsement, insofar as there were only six statements whose mean values equalled or exceeded the score of three. Obviously the vast majority of the statements were endorsed by most of the detectives.

Of the sixteen statements in the selectivity and specialisation section, there were four statements which were universally endorsed. These were:

"A high class burglar will only select premises likely to contain the type of property he is after."

"A burglar will repeat a successful M.O." "Selectivity of goods taken or ignored suggests knowledge of property", and

"Repeat breaks suggests knowledge of previous breaks or associates passing such knowledge."

In addition there were five statements where only one person disagreed with the others, made by four different people. These were:

"High class burglars know what property they are after and are not diverted into taking any other property."

"Climbing breaks are usually committed by loners."

"An opportunist burglar is likely to be deterred by an obvious alarm system."

"Preparation of exit or securing premises against disturbance indicates a lengthy criminal history", and

"An offender may adopt the successful M.O. of his associates."

There was in fact remarkably little disagreement, the most being five who disagreed that "Climbing was a very constant M.O." This response, however, may account for the very specialised M.O. of climbing burglars and the possible lack of the

experience of this particular criminal behaviour by the detectives. Three out of the twelve disagreeing with the others on the statements that "An experienced burglar will specialise in one type of premises" and "High class burglaries are usually committed in daylight."

Target vulnerability did not yield such a consistent response, with only two of the fourteen questions eliciting no disagreement. These were:

"Bedsits are extremely vulnerable" and "Ease of access increases vulnerability." There was, however, only one person disagreeing with the statement that "Seclusion makes property more vulnerable." Where disagreement did occur was over the statement:

"Council estates are NOT generally more vulnerable to offences committed by their residents."

"CROs do not burgle each other's property", and

"Older houses are more vulnerable."

In fact eight seven and seven respectively disagreed with these statements so the first two could, in their reverse form, be considered for the expert system.

There were only five statements generated under the heading "Agility and Build" and general agreement was found for three statements, with one person dissenting (not the same one) on each of the three. These three statements were:

"Burglars tend to be reasonably fit."

"Fat burglars are rare", and

"A small point of entry indicates either a juvenile or someone of considerable experience."

Looking at statements regarding the type of property taken, or not taken in certain cases, there was only one statement of the eight which received universal endorsement, which was "Quantity may indicate vehicle or/and accomplices." Two other statements had only one person in disagreement. These were:

"Property stolen selectively points to an offender with a criminal history", and

"Selected high value items indicate a high class offender."

Five people disagreed, five agreed and two were neutral over the statement that:
"In general juveniles do not take videos/TVs/high-class jewellery."

It is possible that this question included items which were too diverse. If a young person steals videos, they might not stop to look if there is jewellery around. If the jewellery is easily available then they might take it, but if not then they are only concerned with the video.

Under the heading, "Age group/Experience, History" there were eleven statements, of which two were endorsed by all and three only had one person disagreeing. These statements were respectively:

"Burglars are not first time offenders."

"A first time burglar is likely to commit a joint offence."

"Most burglars are unemployed."

"Burglars commit most other offences."

"Teenagers are opportunistic burglars."

Most officers disagreed with the statement that

"Teenagers are unlikely to commit breaks on good class property."

As far as the transport of the burglars is concerned, all supported the three statements, with another three being endorsed by eleven of the twelve officers. The consensus was reached on the following statements:

"High class burglars may obtain hired vehicles using a driving licence which is reported as stolen or accomplice's driving licence which is then reported as stolen."

"High class burglars use public transport (railway or taxi often used)."

"Burglars tend to have a rapid turnover of vehicles."

Three separate officers disagreed with one of the following statements, which were:

"Urban burglars feel safer on foot."

"If a taxi is used the offender is likely to know the driver", and

"Hire vans are often used to transport property out of the area."

The remaining three statements in this category did not receive sufficient support, one because it was perhaps too specific to a geographic region, namely that

"Plymouth offenders use taxis to commit burglaries", and therefore not within the experience of most officers.

The ten statements on the sophistication of entry resulted in complete agreement in only one case, that being:

"Well planned or unusual entry indicates a good class offender."

One disagreement occurred on the following two statements:

"An 'excuse' entry by children usually indicates gypsies", and

"Deception involving local charity suggests local offender."

It was interesting to note that there was a complete split of opinion concerning "Clumsy form of entry indicates drink."

There were seven items under the heading "type of search", of which two were endorsed by all, and another had only two disagreements registered against them. Those supported by all were:

"A regulated search, looking for specific items is unlikely to be committed by a novice", and

"Expertise in methodical searching is quickly gained."

The statements where there was only one disagreement were:"

"A tidy search may indicate a good professional criminal" and,

"Wanton damage may indicate juveniles." Interestingly, there were two statements which produced completely dichotomous responses, which were:

"An extensive search suggests offender could not find specific property" and,

"Untidy search indicates inexperience or nervousness."

There were also seven statements relating to the extent of search. Again, only two statements received total support. These were:

"The type of property stolen from a specific place with minimal search indicates the offender had knowledge of the premises", and

"The extent of a lengthy search may indicate the length of time spent on the premises."

However, there were a further two where there was only one officer disagreeing, which were:

"Property stolen from a specific place with minimal search indicates the offender had knowledge of the premises", and

"Search of bedroom only, suggests jewellery or cash as the object."

Nevertheless, there was one statement which generated more disagreement than support, being:

"A full search suggests lack of knowledge of premises."

Items relating to accomplice yielded five instances of complete agreement. These statements were:

"Accomplices tend to spend leisure time together." "Accomplices are normally the same sex, ethnic background and age group."

"Juveniles seldom commit burglaries alone."

"Juveniles tend to swap or recruit new accomplices", and

"Lone offenders are more proficient."

In addition there were another five statements where one person disagreed. These were:

"Lone offenders normally continue to offend alone."

"Offenders who use accomplices do not turn into lone offenders",

"If more than two accomplices, one acts as 'look out'",

"A team of three or more will use a vehicle", and

"Bulky items missing usually involves a team."

The one statement which demonstrated completely split opinion was:

"Offenders keep the same accomplices."

There were five statements relating to obnoxious behaviour, but only one where there was complete agreement, namely:

"Any obnoxious behaviour may simply be due to drink/drugs, nervousness or unstable character."

There was also another statement where only one officer disagreed with the others, which was:

"Obnoxious behaviour towards the aggrieved may indicate knowledge of aggrieved."

There was least agreement on statements in the last section relating to drugs and drink. In fact only one out of fifteen questions was endorsed by all. This was:

"Offender sleeping on the premises indicates alcohol."

"Drug users committing crime are usually under 30 years of age" had only one officer disagreeing with this statement.

These responses indicated a degree of uncertainty regarding the effects of drink/drugs on crime and criminals, and particularly in relation to drugs, indicating, perhaps, a lack of experience in dealing with drug using and drug dependent offenders.

As a result of this exercise it was possible to select statements to be incorporated into the rule set, and to form the nucleus of the rules for the expert system.

Knowledge elicitation from other sources

The exercise conducted with the detectives clearly demonstrated that their expert knowledge is constrained by personal experience of those crimes they have investigated. Such knowledge is not formalised and therefore difficult to capture in terms of definitive rules. (A similar exercise conducted with twelve scientists on a less behaviourally fluctuating subject than burglars would be expected to show a high consensus of expert opinion based on a degree of scientific knowledge common to all the participants.)

It is argued in this study that with the adoption of a much increased volume of statistically and analytically useable data captured at the scene of a crime by the improved Bayes experimental system, further organisational knowledge will be added to that contributed by the investigator's personal experiences.

Statistical information in terms of the results of various studies of juvenile offenders, for example, have revealed information from which rules can be derived. The fact that juveniles are more likely to be involved in offences where the value of the property stolen is low can be added to the knowledge from surveys that juvenile

offenders, in seventy per cent of cases examined, travel less than one mile from their home to the scene of the crime.

Detailed studies have revealed that where gratuitous damage occurs at the scene of a crime there is a high probability that the offender was a juvenile. Using these three elements of statistical information the following rule could be formulated.

- IF** - the value of property stolen is low and gratuitous damage present,
THEN - there is a high probability that the offender is a juvenile,
AND - an equally high probability that the offender lives no further than one mile from the scene of the crime.

To this first pass rule we can now add other specific or general rules derived from other organisational sources. If we return to the knowledge elicitation study conducted with detectives, referred to earlier in this chapter, it will be noted that two of the statements which received a high degree of agreement were:- juveniles seldom commit burglaries alone, and juveniles tend to swap or recruit new accomplices. By adding the rules obtained from the detectives to others formulated from statistical information we can draw more precise inferences about the offender or offender types, as in this case, of being a number of juveniles who probably live locally.

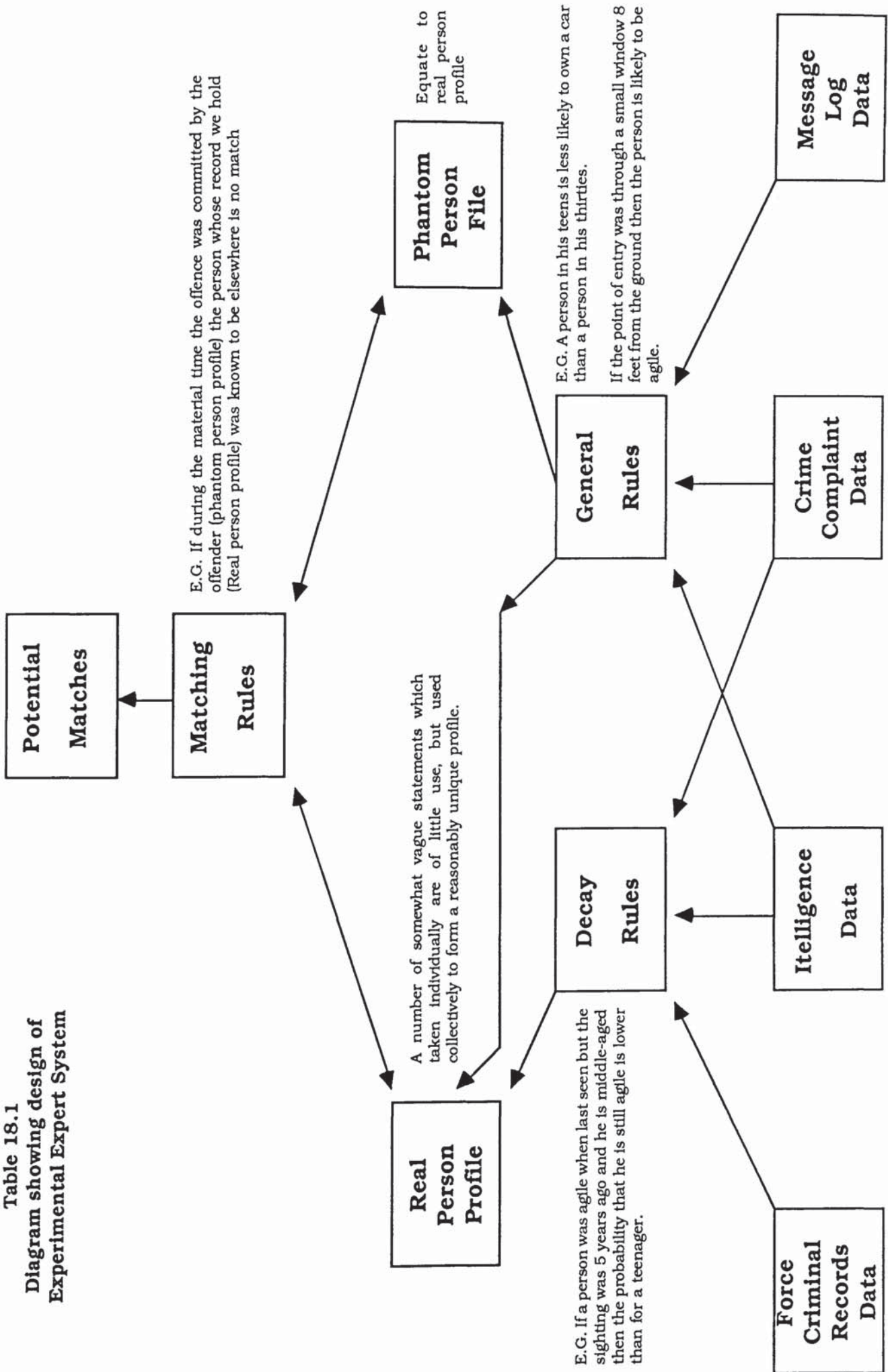
In a similar way various elements of the working knowledge of the police organisation can form the basis of rules. If a number of sightings of a known burglar, for instance, are reported in one particular locality, a rule can be formulated that he frequents that particular area. If the burglar does not work or reside in that area and crimes are being committed there, then there is a degree of probability, albeit not necessarily significant, that the crimes could have been committed by the known burglar. The next step in the process would be use of the matching rules compare the 'phantom profile' generated from the information obtained from the initial investigation of those crimes with the 'real person profile' of our known formerly convicted burglar.

To achieve a significant capability of the matching rules enough information on the *modus operandi* of the crimes that have occurred must be obtained to be able to compare the characteristics of the unsolved crimes with the known and equally essentially well documented favourite *modus operandi* characteristics of our known

and convicted burglar. A factor which illustrates yet again the importance and relevance of the action of the first police officer attending the scene of a crime and the equally important factor of ensuring that sufficient data, especially concerning the *modus operandi* of the crime is obtained during this initial investigation stage.

The rules derived from the knowledge elicitation of detectives conducted in this study together with rules derived from the statistical and organisational information previously described were then translated into rules for the computer system by computer specialists. The diagram (at Table 18.1) illustrates the various elements and components of the experimental 'expert' system which as a result of this research is undergoing operational trials.

Table 18.1
Diagram showing design of
Experimental Expert System



CHAPTER 19

THE LAP COMPUTER

One of the most crucial elements in the investigation of crime and one that has been a constant theme of this study is the amount and quality of information received by police at the time of reporting. The most comprehensive study of the crime reporting and subsequent investigative organisational response in the United States was the Rand Study (Greenwood *et al* 1976). The main finding of that study was that the single most important determinant of whether a case will be solved is in the amount of information the victim supplies to the first police officer attending.

In the United States and in the United Kingdom as has been demonstrated in earlier chapters, the initial response to a report of a crime is inevitably made by a uniformed patrol officer, many of which will have less police experience than those officers in the specialised and detective branches of the Force. We can therefore conclude that if sufficient information is not obtained by the reporting officer then key evidentiary facts may be omitted or not even obtained because of a variety of factors ranging from inexperience or disinterest to the lack of adequate organisational directives. Previous chapters have highlighted the inadequacies of present systems and described the introduction of new data gathering procedures.

Similarly crime screening and crime management cannot effectively function if the 'considered' necessary amounts of minimum information are not collected at the scene of the crime.

The concept of the use of Lap computers for police reporting generally and crime reporting in particular emanated in the United States from commercial developments in this area. The production of small and light portable computers (about the size of an average sized hard backed text book) and weighing around three pounds made their possible use for police purpose a practical reality.

The St. Petersburg Police Department and in particular the efforts of Sergeant Maurice G. McGough, were the first to explore seriously the potential of the Lap (so called because it fits on your lap) computer for police applications in 1984. The

pioneering work of McGough soon attracted the attention of the National Institute of Justice who funded the PISTOL project (Paperless Information System Totally On Line). In the latter part of 1987 some 400 portable Lap computers were in use being issued on a personal basis to all uniformed patrol officers and a number of detectives. A total of 140,000 police reports are being written annually on the Radio Shack TRS 80 model 100 and the Tandy 102 computers. The original capacity of 24k Ram was found to be inadequate to allow the completion of several police reports during the course of a shift and now all Lap Computers used by St. Petersburg are being expanded to provide a total of 32k Ram which gives approximately 32,000 characters of user memory.

The Lap computer at present in use at St. Petersburg has excellent communication facilities in that reports can be transmitted from officers in the field to Headquarters via ordinary telephone lines using the built-in modem in the computer or via the cellular mobile telephone technology. Although the present machines used have a capability of interfacing with other police computer systems the PISTOL project is being assessed as a stand alone system but its potential for further expansion into an intergrated part of the existing crime and accident reporting systems is well recognised. (Smith and McGough 1987).

The Devon and Cornwall Lap Computer Project

The concept of using a Lap computer device to capture the information at the scene of a crime would reduce many of the difficulties and errors of present crime reporting. The increase in the amount of data needed to be gathered and the reasons why, have been discussed previously. In addition by gathering the initial data on the report of the occurrence of a crime electronically the data so gathered can be transferred to other computer systems to provide the information for case screening, case management and case closure. The data so held could also be subjected to the matching processes and other applications developed and described earlier in connection with the experimental use of an expert system in the investigation of crime.

The belief in the enormous potential of the Lap computer as a form of electronic notebook for police officers generally and investigations of crime in particular, had to be channelled into an acceptable demonstrable form in the light of the differences

between policing systems in the United Kingdom and the United States of America. A limited range of Lap computer machines were available in the United Kingdom including machines almost identical to the St. Petersburg models. The intention was not merely to replicate the success of St. Petersburg but improve and integrate the use of the Lap computer into the concept of a totally integrated approach to the investigation of crime and in the long term to other police applications.

The communicative ability so enjoyed by the Americans was not available in this country by a lack of ability to transmit data over the police radio network, and the limited coverage of the cellular telephone system in the Force area. The newly devised increased data capture of the crime reporting system (Bayes) required a machine with greater capacity than the one favoured in the United States and therefore a machine with considerably more memory was required.

The concept was relatively simple in that instead of attending the initial reporting of a crime armed with a notebook or the new Form 41 (Crime Reporting form) the police officer would key in the appropriate information, and on the screen of the Lap computer would appear the headings of the new Form 41. The officer would then enter the details as if he/she was completing the form. To achieve accuracy and also assist the officer prompts and checks are built into the system. The checks ensure that no data field is missed by reminding the officer that he has not completed a section of the format appearing before him on the screen.

The report of the crime is contained in the memory of the Lap computer and on return to the police station the Lap is connected to another computer which enables case screening by the supervisor and the despatch of the data to other computerised record keeping and investigative systems. Suffice to say at this stage that the data so obtained is comprehensive, accurate and can be transmitted electronically. As such it is neither subjected to the possible errors of retransmission or the time delay in replicating the information so gathered by manual effort.

In 1987, following a proposal for research into this area the Devon and Cornwall Constabulary was awarded a grant by the Home Office to examine the feasibility of the use of Lap computers for police work generally and in the first instance to record all the

information needed at the scene of a crime.

The sum awarded necessitated a more limited initial application than planned and accordingly some fifteen 'Investigator' machines together with the crime recording software were installed for use by uniformed mobile patrolling officers at Exmouth Police Station. The project was launched in November 1987 and the officers receive both technical and operational help in a continuing support role.

The concept of paperless policing, the electronic notebook and the possibility of significant resultant savings in police and civilian support staff time, could legitimately be a considerable study in its own right. Suffice to say that in connection with this study the Lap computer provided a means of rectifying unsatisfactory and unproductive police practices in connection with the reporting of crime and provided an electronic data gathering option for the new improved crime recording system.

In connection with this study, when the Lap computer was experimentally introduced in Exmouth, it was decided to see if the attitudes of the officers implementing this project would hinder or support its introduction, and also whether, over time, after experience with the computer, their attitudes changed in any way towards its use. To this end the force organisation and methods officer was asked to construct and administer a questionnaire on attitudes towards the lap computer (see Appendix '10') and administered it to fifty one officers prior to the introduction of the computer, and to thirty officers after it had been in operation for some months. The raw data was subsequently analysed by the author and a chi-squared test of significance calculated for each question by the two samples. The results are shown in the following tables. However, the small numbers must be viewed as indicative only, and not definitive of attitudes towards the introduction of computers into the force. Although answers to three questions, numbers five, six and nine, were significant at the 0.1% level, and question 16 at the 1% level, the number of calls where the expected frequency was less than five was too large. Therefore the data was recorded and the scales collapsed, so that the "strongly agreed" category was collapsed into the "agree" category, and the "strongly disagree" responses added to the "disagree" replies. Thus a response of one was recorded as two, and a response of five was recorded as four and

TABLE 19.1 - QUESTIONS 1 to 5

	PRE AND POST LAP COMPUTER SAMPLES				Total	
	Pre-Computer Sample		Post-Computer Sample			
Less paper-work						
Strongly agree	4	7.8%	2	6.9%	6	7.5%
Agree	30	58.8%	12	41.4%	42	52.5%
Unsure	11	21.6%	3	10.3%	14	17.5%
Disagree	5	9.8%	6	20.7%	11	13.8%
Strongly disagree	1	2.0%	6	20.7%	7	8.8%
Total	51	100.0%	29	100.0%	80	100.0%

Computers are cumbersome						
Strongly agree	2	4.0%	2	6.7%	4	5.0%
Agree	16	32.0%	19	63.3%	35	43.8%
Unsure	3	6.0%	2	6.7%	5	6.3%
Disagree	22	44.0%	5	16.7%	27	33.8%
Strongly disagree	7	14.0%	2	6.7%	9	11.3%
Total	50	100.0%	30	100.0%	80	100.0%

Worried it may be lost						
Strongly agree	9	17.6%			9	11.1%
Agree	22	43.1%	9	30.0%	31	38.3%
Unsure	2	3.9%	2	6.7%	4	4.9%
Disagree	17	33.3%	17	56.7%	34	42.0%
Strongly disagree	1	2.0%	2	6.7%	3	3.7%
Total	51	100.0%	30	100.0%	81	100.0%

Accuracy improved						
Strongly agree	3	5.9%	1	3.3%	4	4.9%
Agree	22	43.1%	18	60.0%	40	49.4%
Unsure	18	35.3%	5	16.7%	23	28.4%
Disagree	6	11.8%	6	20.0%	12	14.8%
Strongly disagree	2	3.9%			2	2.5%
Total	51	100.0%	30	100.0%	81	100.0%

Impractical for police						
Strongly agree	3	5.9%	2	6.7%	5	6.2%
Agree	22	43.1%	2	6.7%	24	29.6%
Unsure	18	35.3%	10	33.3%	28	34.6%
Disagree	8	15.7%	13	43.3%	21	25.9%
Strongly disagree			3	10.0%	3	3.7%
Total	51	100.0%	30	100.0%	81	100.0%

TABLE 19.2 - QUESTIONS 6 to 10

	PRE AND POST LAP COMPUTER SAMPLES				Total	
	Pre-Computer Sample		Post-Computer Sample			
Too time consuming						
Strongly agree			3	10.0%	3	3.8%
Agree	24	48.0%	5	16.7%	29	36.3%
Unsure	20	40.0%	8	26.7%	28	35.0%
Disagree	6	12.0%	14	46.7%	20	25.0%
Total	50	100.0%	30	100.0%	80	100.0%

Improve image						
Strongly agree	3	5.9%	1	3.3%	4	4.9%
Agree	22	43.1%	12	40.0%	34	42.0%
Unsure	17	33.3%	9	30.0%	26	32.1%
Disagree	8	15.7%	7	23.3%	15	18.5%
Strongly disagree	1	2.0%	1	3.3%	2	2.5%
Total	51	100.0%	30	100.0%	81	100.0%

Needs written back-up						
Strongly agree	2	3.9%			2	2.5%
Agree	4	7.8%	5	16.7%	9	11.1%
Unsure	14	27.5%	5	16.7%	19	23.5%
Disagree	28	54.9%	16	53.3%	44	54.3%
Strongly disagree	3	5.9%	4	13.3%	7	8.6%
Total	51	100.0%	30	100.0%	81	100.0%

Errors will increase						
Strongly agree	1	2.0%			1	1.2%
Agree	27	52.9%	2	6.7%	29	35.8%
Unsure	15	29.4%	6	20.0%	21	25.9%
Disagree	7	13.7%	21	70.0%	28	34.6%
Strongly disagree	1	2.0%	1	3.3%	2	2.5%
Total	51	100.0%	30	100.0%	81	100.0%

Improve efficiency						
Strongly agree	2	3.9%			2	2.5%
Agree	31	60.8%	16	53.3%	47	58.0%
Unsure	13	25.5%	11	36.7%	24	29.6%
Disagree	4	7.8%	3	10.0%	7	8.6%
Strongly disagree	1	2.0%			1	1.2%
Total	51	100.0%	30	100.0%	81	100.0%

TABLE 19.3 - QUESTIONS 11 to 15

	PRE AND POST LAP COMPUTER SAMPLES				Total	
	Pre-Computer Sample		Post-Computer Sample			
Simplify crime reports						
Strongly agree	3	6.0%	1	3.3%	4	5.0%
Agree	21	42.3%	13	43.3%	34	42.5%
Unsure	18	36.0%	6	20.0%	24	30.0%
Disagree	7	14.0%	9	30.0%	16	20.0%
Strongly disagree	1	2.0%	1	3.3%	2	2.5%
Total	50	100.0%	30	100.0%	80	100.0%
Improve morale						
Agree	4	7.8%	2	6.7%	6	7.4%
Unsure	26	51.0%	10	33.3%	36	44.4%
Disagree	18	35.3%	16	53.3%	34	42.0%
Strongly disagree	3	5.9%	2	6.7%	5	6.2%
Total	51	100.0%	30	100.0%	81	100.0%
Improve legibility						
Strongly agree	14	28.0%	7	23.3%	21	26.3%
Agree	29	58.0%	16	53.3%	45	56.3%
Unsure	1	2.0%	3	10.0%	4	5.0%
Disagree	5	10.0%	2	6.7%	7	8.8%
Strongly disagree	1	2.0%	2	6.7%	3	3.8%
Total	50	100.0%	30	100.0%	80	100.0%
Police not computer buffs						
Strongly agree	5	10.4%			5	6.4%
Agree	19	39.6%	6	20.0%	25	32.1%
Unsure	6	12.5%	7	23.3%	13	16.7%
Disagree	15	31.3%	14	46.7%	29	37.2%
Strongly disagree	3	6.3%	3	10.0%	6	7.7%
Total	48	100.0%	30	100.0%	78	100.0%
Problem lack of keyboard skills						
Strongly agree	9	17.6%	3	10.0%	12	14.8%
Agree	15	29.4%	6	20.0%	21	25.9%
Unsure	4	7.8%	1	3.3%	5	6.2%
Disagree	19	37.3%	16	53.3%	35	43.2%
Strongly disagree	4	7.8%	4	13.3%	8	9.9%
Total	51	100.0%	30	100.0%	81	100.0%

TABLE 19.4 - QUESTIONS 16 to 20

	PRE AND POST LAP COMPUTER SAMPLES				Total	
	Pre-Computer Sample		Post-Computer Sample			
Computers are too impersonal						
Strongly agree	1	2.0%	8	26.7%	9	11.3%
Agree	19	38.0%	10	33.3%	29	36.3%
Unsure	14	28.0%	9	30.0%	23	28.8%
Disagree	11	22.0%	3	10.0%	14	17.5%
Strongly disagree	5	10.0%			5	6.3%
Total	50	100.0%	30	100.0%	80	100.0%

Should include form 72e (RTA)						
Strongly agree	14	28.0%	7	23.3%	21	26.3%
Agree	25	50.0%	12	40.0%	37	46.3%
Unsure	3	6.0%	1	3.3%	4	5.0%
Disagree	5	10.0%	8	26.7%	13	16.3%
Strongly disagree	3	6.0%	2	6.7%	5	6.3%
Total	50	100.0%	30	100.0%	80	100.0%

Should cover most forms						
Strongly agree	11	22.0%	9	30.0%	20	25.0%
Agree	31	62.0%	16	53.3%	47	58.8%
Unsure	3	6.0%	4	13.3%	7	8.8%
Disagree	2	4.0%			2	2.5%
Strongly disagree	3	6.0%	1	3.3%	4	5.0%
Total	50	100.0%	30	100.0%	80	100.0%

Needs built-in printer						
Strongly agree	2	4.0%			2	2.5%
Agree	8	16.0%	3	10.0%	11	13.8%
Unsure	16	32.0%	4	13.3%	20	25.0%
Disagree	19	38.0%	15	50.0%	34	42.5%
Strongly disagree	5	10.0%	8	26.7%	13	16.3%
Total	50	100.0%	30	100.0%	80	100.0%

Prompt screen major advantage						
Strongly agree	5	9.8%	1	3.3%	6	7.4%
Agree	32	62.7%	18	60.0%	50	61.7%
Unsure	10	19.6%	6	20.0%	16	19.8%
Disagree	3	5.9%	5	16.7%	8	9.9%
Strongly disagree	1	2.0%			1	1.2%
Total	51	100.0%	30	100.0%	81	100.0%

The belief that there would be less paperwork was obviously not sustained by experience, which is a reflection upon the implementation of the project, rather than the goals that the project was intended to achieve. This result was significant at the 1% level.

From a practical point of view, more officers viewed the Lap as cumbersome, (also significant at the 1% level) and yet the question on its impracticality yielded the opposite response. Significantly more officers disagreed with this question, indicating their support for its practicality (significant at the 0.1% level) fewer officers were concerned that the computer could be lost or stolen (significant at the 5% level).

There was a positive move in attitude over whether the use of the Lap was too time consuming, more officers disagreeing that it was (significant at the 1% level) and a positive response to the question on increased errors, for, again more officers disagreed with this (significant at the 0.1% level). The level of this significance would indicate that officers were beginning to trust the computer to a greater extent. This in turn was again demonstrated in answers to question nineteen, for significantly less officers thought the computer should have a built-in printer. (Significant at the 5% level).

The attitude shifts can perhaps be exemplified by the answers to question fourteen, where more officers disagreed with the statement that "The trouble is, most policemen are not computer buffs". These replies were significant at the 5% level.

No other replies showed statistically significant differences, although, again, it must be pointed out that this was probably due to the small sample size.

Given the small number of officers involved in the second sample and the lack of direct matching of the first sample with the second, one can only draw tentative conclusions about attitudes towards the introduction of the Lap computer. Nevertheless there were statistically significant seven more positive responses in the second sample as opposed to the first, and only one negative one, which was that the computer was cumbersome. In fact the main problem found was one not originally envisaged. This was the fact that the Bayes system was not operational in Exmouth, and that changes made to the Bayes format of data capture during its first few months

necessitated changes to the format of the programme in the Lap computer which considerably affected attitudes. It is interesting that officers surveyed remained as positive despite all the implementation problems.

The new crime reporting and recording forms certainly increase the amount of information being collected and do so in a more systematic manner. By putting that information directly into the computer, the number of transcription errors falls dramatically because the information is only keyed in once. This also considerably speeds up the time that it takes for the information to get onto the main computer and into the Bayes system.

One of the significant facts emerging from the St. Petersburg experience with the Lap computer was the realisation that if the computer was given to each officer as a personal issue they would become accustomed to it and become more confident in the fundamental use. The lack of sufficient funding from the Home Office prevented the author from following this important St. Petersburg finding. In spite of this significant limitation the attitude survey has indicated a willingness on the part of the police officers to use new technology. Unlike the introduction of technology in other work situations there was no significant resistance to its introduction. Therefore the Lap computer can be viewed as a viable, more accurate and cost effective alternative to traditional data gathering procedures. The managerial implications are that with adequate training and support new technology can be introduced with significant benefits in data capture and resultant processing into other computerised systems. Such initiatives can achieve significant benefits in efficiency and unnecessary duplication of data transfer.

CHAPTER 20

THE TOTALLY INTEGRATED APPROACH TO THE INVESTIGATION OF CRIME

"No area of law enforcement is in greater need of improvement than criminal investigation. The management of criminal investigation, moreover, is less effective on the whole than the management of other police activities". (Wilson and McLaren 1977).

In the final chapter of this study the author is more conscious than before he started of the scope and proliferation of crime in Britain today. It was of course partly for that reason and as a progression of previous professional interest and research that the decision was made to concentrate on a number of elements concerned with 'The investigation of crime, the myths surrounding it and the relevance of current practice. To that end the concentration has been on the relevant processes by police that start with the report of a crime and end sometimes with the apprehension of the offender either within a short space of time as the result of the investigation into that particular crime, or sometime later usually as a result of coming into custody for another crime and admitting previous offences, and how these processes have been affected by legislative restrictions on former police practice.

In many cases and increasingly more often in cases of crime where there is no physical contact between victim and perpetrator, the crime is not solved and becomes a statistic capable of being manipulated to create fear or to sell protection devices or insurance or both.

The prevention of crime except its relationship to the capture of career criminals who if not incarcerated would have been committing crime, has not been explored in this study. Neither has the causes of crime and criminality which are multitudinous and multilayered. Practitioners generally accept that there are many different kinds of crime and criminals, and each may result from a different set of causal factors and prevailing circumstances.

Likewise practitioners (certainly the best of them) accept there is no panacea, no quick or indeed single solution to the crime problem, indeed the more enlightened

American commentators talk of 'Crime Control'. Despite increased understanding amongst the police and public alike, public policy making and debate about crime, its causes and its control remain within the straight-jacket of political, almost child-like simplistic solutions. The Police Service certainly in England and Wales has made some attempt to explore scientifically and professionally its own problems and possible solutions, yet remains dependent on political favour and preference. The comforting words of the Police Act of 1964 granting operational independence to the Chief of Police are simply constitutional rhetoric if funds for essential equipment and manpower are denied. The maxim of 'He who pays the piper calls the tune' needs to be examined in the light of the ever increasing influence of Central Government on the style and format of policing today and indeed the priorities within that framework.

The development of police research can also be examined by the same token whereby fundamental aspects of the police function are ignored in favour of esoteric and often politically motivated concentration on peripheral aspects of police practice and administration. It is not therefore surprising against this background that the Police and Criminal Evidence Act and the Prosecution of Offences Act which established the Crown Prosecution Service have occupied the attention of the political hierarchy far more than questions of police efficiency and effectiveness.

The Police Service, if one can call forty three separate police forces within England and Wales, eight in Scotland (with a different legal system) and one in Northern Ireland with a continuous terrorist problem, a Service, has shown neither the will or the inclination to tackle fundamental basic problems of function, performance and purpose. The obsession with management training, higher management training and management by objectives, has only revealed to a limited degree what the police do, not how and why they do it.

Herbert Simon observed in his classic work on Administrative Behaviour (Simon 1945) that the organisation should be focussed on the operator. Egon Bittner, one of the most revered commentators on policing in the United States has repeatedly observed how we have failed to give adequate attention to the 'craft' of policing the end product of any police organisation. Bittner draws an analogy with medicine asking

whether hospitals have improved over the past two centuries as a result of interest in hospital administration or of advances in the practices of medicine. "For me the work of the cop on the beat has always made up for 95% of the picture. The rest stands to policing like hospital administration stands to medicine" (Egon Bittner 1978 letter quoted in Crime Control by David Fewer 1984).

As the author knows from personal experience one only has to look at the reorganisation, re-reorganisation and again back to the reorganisation of the Metropolitan Police command structure over the last twenty years to see the analogy of Bittner exemplified in Britain.

In this context of a failure to examine the essential functional elements of police practice by neither the governments of the day nor the police hierarchy themselves, we find that amazingly in a Police Service with Home Office central government supervised basic training, detective training and higher command training; there are startling omissions in the standardisation and common practices in relation to the general investigation of crime.

Unlike police procedures in respect of the reporting and investigation of road traffic accidents where government departmental influence is evident, there is no standard national crime reporting document. A fact which means in practice a police force can collect as little or as much information about a crime as it decides providing it can provide the Home Office with its annual specified statistical information.

Similarly there is no system of crime screening or crime management operating throughout England and Wales. A few forces are employing certain screening tactics of their own and have in the past applied much criticised criteria based solely on the value of the item stolen rather than the social impact of the crime. (For example crimes where the value of property stolen is below a certain sum do not get any investigative attention). In such cases a multi-national company reporting a theft, perhaps for insurance purposes, has a detective assigned to the case, whereas an old lady living alone whose life savings are stolen gets no investigative effort from Police. The decision on who investigates what in terms of uniformed officers or a detective being assigned varies extensively from Force to Force and within Forces, again without any discernible

criteria. In short police practices which are equally fundamental to the "end product of the organisation" in Bittner's terms, have received little attention in the past and continue to be ignored.

A pertinent example of the pre-occupation with management styles and techniques and an almost naive failure to recognise unproductive or unacceptable basic police practices was in the case of the BBC TV series on the Thames Valley Police some five years ago (Police 82). The Producer Roger Graeff was given carte blanche to produce some five documentary episodes on the work of the Thames Valley Police by the then Chief Constable Peter Imbert, now the Commissioner of the Metropolitan Police.

The series was fairly uneventful apart from some questionable operational practices of a minor nature until an episode involving the treatment of a rape victim was shown. The unsympathetic and unbelieving treatment of the victim by male officers, one of whom was seemingly more concerned with attempting to discredit the victim's account rather than elicit and act upon crucial evidence leading to the apprehension of the perpetrator, led to universal condemnation by media and the public alike.

As a result of the furore police procedures were changed and instructions and guidelines issued to all police forces by Central Government (Home Office Circular 69/1986). Female officers were to be used specially trained in sympathetic counselling and interrogation together with 'Rape Suites' providing suitable accommodation and surroundings to calm and encourage the trust and co-operation of the victim.

The example is one well worth quoting because it made more graphically and universally the fundamental premise which concerns this thesis - that the police for various reasons of familiarity, convention and perhaps apathy do not themselves examine basic but vitally important procedures in the investigation of crime.

In such cases the myths portrayed by the media and fiction can support and almost defend even by not exposing, inept, inefficient and unacceptable practices by police. If the police themselves and particularly the detectives believe the myths of the inspired hunch, the gifted detective, the almost super human 'Holmes' like qualities, then perhaps it is not surprising to find little internal encouragement for systematic

evaluative studies of how police do their work and in particular how they record and investigate crime. Similarly if when attempting to analyse the characteristics of a number of crimes the paucity of the information gathered is so little as to make the *modus operandi* of all such crimes indistinguishable, police feel that analysis is meaningless, which it is, no attempt to produce patterns or characteristics of criminal behaviour will be attempted. Equally disturbing is the failure to examine existing procedures in the light of findings of academic researchers which could and have been of immense benefit to the improvement of police performance.

This study after an examination of police practice, skills, lack of skills, knowledge, training, and lack of both in some instances, coupled with an examination of the work of others who have addressed themselves to investigation of various elements of the police function in the investigation of crime, comes to the inescapable conclusion that an organisational rather than an individual response is needed. To that end a comprehensive integrated system of recording, evaluating and managing the investigation of crime is required.

The crucial phase of the initial report of a crime and the attendant preliminary initial investigation must ensure the comprehensive capture of information which is vitally necessary to the successful investigation of that crime. The amendment of the old Form 41 (Crime Complaint and Report) together with the other descriptive forms covering information on people, vehicles and different types of crime such as burglary, will ensure that sufficient information is gathered for short and long term necessary police investigative action. In the future following the evaluation of the Lap computer experiment it is envisaged that the initial crime complaint and report will be captured electronically. It is hoped that the evidence produced in this study will give renewed attention to the first stage of the investigative process, that is the initial investigation conducted by the first police officer attending. The recognition of the role of the uniformed officer in this stage hopefully will reinforce in police minds the importance and relevance of such data capture to the successful outcome of an investigation.

The second crucial phase identified by this study is the requirement for some form of case screening to ensure that police investigative resources are utilised to

maximum effect. The screening out of extraneous and non-productive cases from the investigative process does not mean that no organisational response is forthcoming. The response, albeit not an immediate investigative action, could either be one of advice on crime prevention to the victim or any other organisational response or support deemed most suitable by the supervisor.

The crime screened out is not active in the investigation sense but should continually be compared electronically with other reported crimes of both screened in and screened out categories. In this sense the crime is capable of being matched and related to other crimes and would be automatically reviewed if new factors came to light.

The investigative function whether allocated to a detective or uniformed officer should depend on the seriousness and solvability of a crime. Intelligence and analysis will be provided by the crime management system, that will by nature of its interactive computerised data base give a number of hitherto unavailable but managerially essential features.

Crimes need to be electronically recorded and as such can be retrieved wholly or in part with the facility to search on any persons, vehicles or property recorded in the system. Additionally pattern matching and crime analysis with an automatic feature of the system searching for similar *modus operandi* or property stolen or like characteristics in all areas in the system. Forensic and other evidential information such as fingerprints or marks found should also be available as a retrievable comparator.

The application of Expert System techniques (already pioneered experimentally in respect of the burglary system) need to be extended to the total crime investigative system. The application of rules (previously described in the chapter on 'the design of the knowledge based system') will give guidance and direction to all investigating officers by producing 'phantom' and real profiles of suspected offenders.

The totally integrated system will be capable of monitoring the investigative process on each crime under investigation until active investigation ceases. Unlike existing manual systems the details of the crime and especially the *modus operandi* of the offender will be stored and capable of being matched with past and future crimes

thus ensuring that all available information on crimes past and present is available for comparison. 'Expert' analysis utilising a rule based system previously described will provide indications to the investigating officer of profiles of probable offenders.

In some cases the *modus operandi* will indicate juvenile offenders. Other rules in the system will allow a process of inference utilising a knowledge of juvenile criminality to indicate a profile of probable offenders and a starting point to an investigation. A possible route can be ascertained and checked for witnesses during the times it was believed the offence took place. Similarly reports of other incidents involving juveniles or other crimes with a similar pattern can be compared to extract the maximum amount of relevant information.

The research work undertaken by this thesis has attempted to place the police function in regard to the investigation of crime in its proper organisational context yet also demonstrating the amount of importance attached fictionally by government and the police themselves to the investigative role. The fictional and factual have been compared in perceptions of skills and work actually performed and instruction given.

The work has been undertaken from a managerial hypothesis that police work and in particular the investigation of crime is a function that can be examined, measured and analysed in a similar way to any function of any organisation. To test such a hypothesis it was found necessary to destroy and explain myths and shibboleths, to explore indefinable skills, sixth sense and intuitive skills in the understanding that impenetrability of an organisation can protect and sustain such protectionist practices.

The author recognises that by virtue of his position within the organisation and his former experience as an investigator, he has obtained access to information that would be difficult if not impossible for someone outside the police service to obtain. Hopefully the recognition within the police service that protectionism is no substitute for professional competence will cause others to look objectively at other areas of police activity.

The prevention and detection of crime is a primary function of the police yet this study has shown *inter alia* how little emphasis or indeed instruction is given to these

functions in the basic training of both police and the additional training of detectives. The next generation of police officers will have emerged from an education system that looks to the acquisition of information as a fundamental element in decision making and problem solving. The potential of modern communication, information giving and analytical systems needs to be appreciated by police management not only for record keeping and archiving but for problem solving, communication and the improvement of efficiency and effectiveness.

Further research is needed into the processes of improved data gathering, case screening and management of investigations. These have been the significant findings of this study. Considerable potential is offered by the Lap computer for a new form of electronic notebook capable of giving information to the officer as well as recording details of crime, accidents and the multiplicity of police functions. The ability to link information so collected electronically gives a credible and cost effective way of getting rid of the paper mountain of report writing, transcribing, re-typing, coding and input that now creates the bureaucratic administrative master.

The experiments in knowledge elicitation in connection with this study have paralleled other work both in the United Kingdom and the United States where moves to create expert systems in the field of criminal investigation are experimental realities. The pioneering work on crime profiling should not only be confined to those rare cases concerning the bizarre and sensational but should recognise its value as a descriptive mechanism that can stand alone or be matched with known criminal profiles.

Not surprisingly the most illuminating contribution to this study came from the middle managers. The readiness to identify, if not all, but certainly most of what was wrong with existing procedures was both significant and sad. The frustration at that level of feeling that they were incapable of putting right a system, or rather recognising that no system of effective supervision and management exists and not being able to change things, reveals a lack of communication between middle and senior management that deserves urgent and top level attention.

In cases where the *modus operandi* and type of crime committed indicates a more mature and professional criminal the 'behavioural fingerprint' of the phantom profile

derived from the information obtained can be compared to the known characteristics of previously convicted persons thus providing a possible list of suspects whose whereabouts and alibis will need to be checked by the investigating officer. The totally integrated approach to the investigation of crime should ensure that no case should fail because of an inability to locate information that is held within the police organisation.

Finally (and the applications so far described are not exhaustive) the integrated system so outlined in this study provides statistical information that can help and improve the effectiveness of police patrols by providing the police officer, whether mobile or on foot, with the knowledge of the prevalence and type of crimes being committed, in particular neighbourhoods and producing 'real' or phantom profiles of who or what types of offenders may be responsible.

Over time police will be able to analyse crimes to a much greater depth and level of interpretation than hitherto, by recourse to a data base of information that examines the present whilst remembering the past, with some elements of being able to predict the future.

The systems that have been developed and are still being developed as a result of this research will provide an information based system which hopefully should become the cornerstone of the police investigation of crime. In five years the author has seen scepticism and suspicion turn to appreciation and an awareness of the possibility of a new form of professionalism. Alas much scepticism, hostility and resistance remains especially amongst those at the top of the organisation who see a preservation of the 'status quo' as a necessary pre-requisite of avoidance of criticism for ineptitude, lack of awareness and inaction in the past. Nevertheless by building a demonstrable example of a systematic totally integrated system of crime recording and investigation, the police themselves will be able to accept the concept and hopefully follow the practice.

Overwhelmingly the conclusions of this study have revealed the existence of craft and managerial practices that cannot and do not provide an efficient and effective organisational system to investigate crime.

The value of academic attention at this level on a subject as basic and relevant

as the investigation of crime hopefully ensures that all commentators are heard and other options to convention are explored. If crime is too important a topic to be left exclusively to be dealt with by the police then impenetrability of that organisation can hinder the acquisition of new knowledge and new ideas. The value of this study and hopefully others like it will enable organisations to see the benefit of opening organisational doors to the kind of scrutiny whose findings can only improve current practice. In this way the academic voyage of discovery should lead to better organisational performance.

APPENDIX 1

QUESTIONNAIRE

POLICE PRACTITIONERS

Q1 With reference to incidents of crime with which you are familiar and which have been solved, what do you think were the major factors which contributed to their solution?

A	
B	
C	
D	
E	
F	

Are these factors different from different types of crime? If, 'Yes', explain.

List of crime categories

Theft (of vehicles)
Theft (from vehicles)
Theft (other)
Burglaries (all categories, i.e. Home, Shop, Office, School, Other)
Criminal Damage

Q2 What skills does an investigator need to solve crime?*

	SKILLS	RANK	CRIME TYPE
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
7			
8			

* Please rank in order of importance.

Are different skills required for the solution of different categories of crime?
Please specify.

Q3 With reference to the investigation of crimes, do C.I.D. officers and uniformed officers possess different skills and abilities?

YES/NO

Which skills are possessed by C.I.D. officers?

Additional skills

	SKILLS	RANK	CRIME TYPE

Q3 (Cont'd ..)

Which skills are possessed by uniformed officers?

Additional skills

	SKILLS	RANK	CRIME TYPE

Q4 What organisational facilities are needed to assist in the solution of crime?

(a)	
(b)	
(c)	
(d)	
(e)	

Are different facilities needed for different crime categories?

Q5 What technical facilities are needed to assist in the solution of crime?

(i)	
(ii)	
(iii)	
(iv)	
(v)	

Are different facilities needed for different crime categories?

Q6 Have you any further comments regarding the skills of individuals and facilities needed to solve crime?

APPENDIX 2

Sample Waiver Form

Place

Date

Time

Your Rights

"Before we ask you any questions you must understand your rights. You have the right to remain silent. Anything you say can and will be used against you in Court. You have the right to talk to a lawyer for advice before we ask you any questions and to have the lawyer with you during questioning. You have the same right to the advice and presence of a lawyer even if you cannot afford to hire one. We cannot ourselves furnish you a lawyer, but one will be appointed for you, if you wish, by the Court. If you wish to answer questions now without a lawyer present, you have the right to stop answering questions at any time. You also have the right to stop answering at any time until you talk to a lawyer."

APPENDIX 3

Letter from Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Constabulary dated 30.1.87 - Crimes 'Written Off' as detected as the result of visits to persons serving custodial sentences.

Pages removed for copyright restrictions.

APPENDIX 4

ORIGINAL FORM 41

DEVON & CORNWALL CONSTABULARY
CRIME COMPLAINT REPORT

Type 01

1

1.	Officer Reporting	2. Date of Report									
	Officer in Case	3. Report Number	Sect Sub Div Crime No.								
		4. Associated Crime No.									
5.	Classification of Offence	6. Class of Offence									
7.	Where Committed (address and description of premises)										
8.	Date and Time of Offence	on/between	(use 24 hour clock)								
9.	Aggrieved Person (name and address)										
10.	Tel. No.	10. Age	11. Sex, etc.								
11.	Injury	13. Weapon	<table border="1" style="float: right; text-align: center; font-size: small;"> <tr><td colspan="4">Tick Appropriate Box</td></tr> <tr><td>M</td><td>F</td><td>Co</td><td>Regina</td></tr> </table>	Tick Appropriate Box				M	F	Co	Regina
Tick Appropriate Box											
M	F	Co	Regina								
12.	Reported by Name and Address										
13.	Tel. No.										
14.	Details of M.O.										
15.	Property Stolen (with values)										
16.	Total Value										
17.	Property Recovered (with values)										
18.	Total Value										
19.	Details of Offenders	Name	Age								
20.	Date of Birth	Sex	Nationality								
21.	1	2	3								
22.	Status undetected	detected	no crime								
23.	Tick Appropriate Box										
24.	DELETION FROM RECORDS										
25.	Revised 4/81										

22. CIRCULATIONS	D.C.I.	P.N.C.	P.G.	Property Index	Method Index	Intelligence Bulletin
Date circulated						
Date cancelled						
Telephone/Telex circulation to						
Cancellation to						

23. PERSONS WANTED OR SUSPECTED (If more than one person—attach 41 d)

.1 Name	
Maiden Name..... Alias(es).....	
.2 Date of birth.....	.3 Sex.....
.4 Identity Code— <i>Tick where appropriate</i>	
.5 Height.....	.6 Place of birth.....
.7 Marks, Scars	<input type="checkbox"/> 1. White Skinned, European <input type="checkbox"/> 2. Dark Skinned, European <input type="checkbox"/> 3. Negroid <input type="checkbox"/> 4. Asian <input type="checkbox"/> 5. Oriental <input type="checkbox"/> 6. Arabian <input type="checkbox"/> 7. Half Caste <input type="checkbox"/> 8. Unknown
.8 Dress	
.9 Colour of Eyes10 Build
.11 Hair	
(Colour, Wig)	
.12 Accent13 Type of Personality e.g. excitable, brash, arrogant effeminate, a liar, etc.
.14 (C.R.O. No.) C.N. Result	.15 W.M. No.

24. DETAILS OF PROPERTY STOLEN

..... Signature Rank and No.

Submitted19.....

APPENDIX 5

FIRST HANDWRITTEN DRAFT

NEW FORM 41

Crime complaint and report

Reference number _____

Date reported <input type="text"/>	Crime report no. <input type="text"/>	<table border="1" style="font-size: small;"> <tr> <td>section</td> <td>sub</td> <td>d/w crime number</td> </tr> <tr> <td><input type="text"/></td> <td><input type="text"/></td> <td><input type="text"/></td> </tr> </table>	section	sub	d/w crime number	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	Case screening (Indicate in box if description is appropriate)
section	sub	d/w crime number							
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>							
Officer initiating _____	Officer investigating _____		Offence is serious in itself <input type="checkbox"/> there is local public concern <input type="checkbox"/> there is local public distaste <input type="checkbox"/> public uninterested <input type="checkbox"/>						
Classification of offence (original) _____	<input type="checkbox"/> attempt only		Offence reported immediately <input type="checkbox"/> within a day <input type="checkbox"/> within a week <input type="checkbox"/> within a month <input type="checkbox"/> over a month <input type="checkbox"/>						
Classification of offence (final) _____	<input type="checkbox"/> attempt only								
Where committed (address, postcode and description of premises)			Loser; not interested <input type="checkbox"/> lives alone <input type="checkbox"/> vulnerable <input type="checkbox"/> elderly <input type="checkbox"/> previous victim <input type="checkbox"/> child <input type="checkbox"/> <u>has pre-cons</u> <input type="checkbox"/> frightened <input type="checkbox"/> prominent person <input type="checkbox"/> unreliable <input type="checkbox"/>						
Postcode _____	grid ref. _____	map no. <input type="text"/>							
When committed, on / between			M.O. unusual <input type="checkbox"/> useful detail <input type="checkbox"/> series? <input type="checkbox"/> of little use <input type="checkbox"/>						
Day _____ at (time) <input type="text"/>	on (date) <input type="text"/>	Day _____ at (time) <input type="text"/>							
Aggrieved person (name, address and postcode)			Property High value <input type="checkbox"/> Unusual <input type="checkbox"/> Sentimental value <input type="checkbox"/> High value to loser <input type="checkbox"/> Insurance purposes <input type="checkbox"/> Potentially dangerous <input type="checkbox"/>						
Tel. no. _____	Age _____	Sex etc. (tick box) <input type="checkbox"/> M <input type="checkbox"/> F <input type="checkbox"/> Co <input type="checkbox"/> Regina <input type="checkbox"/> Not known <input type="checkbox"/>							
Injury <input type="checkbox"/>	Weapon <input type="checkbox"/>		Other information media interested <input type="checkbox"/>						
Person reporting (if different) (name, address and postcode)									
How reported; telephone <input type="checkbox"/> Message switch <input type="checkbox"/> crimeline <input type="checkbox"/> written <input type="checkbox"/>									
personal <input type="checkbox"/> police enquiries <input type="checkbox"/> alarm <input type="checkbox"/> 999 call <input type="checkbox"/>									
Details of M.O. (Use separate form for burglary and sexual offences)									
Property stolen (Use property sheet for full list - brief details only here)									
Total value _____		type <input type="text"/>							
Property recovered									
Total value _____		type <input type="text"/>							
Property damaged									
Total value _____		type <input type="text"/>							
Status; detected <input type="checkbox"/> undetected <input type="checkbox"/> no crime <input type="checkbox"/>	How cleared up (use appropriate code) <input type="text"/>								
Entered on computer by _____ date _____	Finally filed by _____ date _____								

Scene attended by ; officer initiating report (time) _____ (date) _____ officer investigating crime (time) _____ (date) _____ supervisor, yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> (name) _____ (time) _____ (date) _____ SOC officer, yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> (time) _____ (date) _____ VSS contacted, yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> (time) _____ (date) _____		Case screening (indicate in box if description is appropriate) fingerprints <input type="checkbox"/> footmarks <input type="checkbox"/> instrument marks <input type="checkbox"/> fibres <input type="checkbox"/> forensic material <input type="checkbox"/> nothing useful <input type="checkbox"/>
Statement taken from complainant, yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> Neighbourhood enquiries completed, yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> Were there any known witnesses to the offence yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> (attach statements if taken) Are there any potential witnesses still to be seen, yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> If 'yes', how long will it take to see them all, _____ Is there any other form of evidence available, yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> briefly describe _____ _____ _____		<u>Loser's statement:</u> Complaint only <input type="checkbox"/> useful evidence <input type="checkbox"/> <u>Witnesses:</u> good evidence <input type="checkbox"/> reliable <input type="checkbox"/> unreliable <input type="checkbox"/> <u>Other evidence</u> Useful <input type="checkbox"/> Limited value <input type="checkbox"/>
Is the stolen property identifiable, yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> (ensure that the correct circulations are made) local <input type="checkbox"/> divisional <input type="checkbox"/> forcewide <input type="checkbox"/> other forces (specify) <input type="checkbox"/> SWC10 <input type="checkbox"/> NSY <input type="checkbox"/> _____ Is there a named suspect or person wanted, yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> (if 'yes', complete form 415 and ensure circulations are made) If the suspect is not named, is there a description, yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> Can the suspect be identified by the witness, yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> Was a vehicle involved in the offence, yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> Is the reg. mark or a description available, yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> (ensure form 41V is completed) Is the offence thought to form part of a series, yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/>		<u>Property</u> For personal use <input type="checkbox"/> Disposal Likely <input type="checkbox"/> disposal easy <input type="checkbox"/> hard to trace <input type="checkbox"/> Could be traced <input type="checkbox"/> <u>Suspect</u> Description good <input type="checkbox"/> fair <input type="checkbox"/> poor <input type="checkbox"/> <u>Vehicle</u> VRM available <input type="checkbox"/> Make only <input type="checkbox"/> description good <input type="checkbox"/> fair <input type="checkbox"/> poor <input type="checkbox"/>
Has the crime been discussed with the Community constable for the area, yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> Have the descriptions (if available) of persons and vehicles been searched in the available indices, yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> Result _____ _____		<u>Detection potential</u> good <input type="checkbox"/> fair <input type="checkbox"/> poor <input type="checkbox"/> negligible <input type="checkbox"/> <u>Weight of evidence</u> Evidence sufficient to prosecute if offender traced <input type="checkbox"/> Further evidence necessary <input type="checkbox"/>
Decision of crime manager. Initials _____ Rank _____ No. _____ Date _____		

M.O. - burglary

(Complete in duplicate, original to remain with file, copy submitted to crime manager)

<h3>A - area</h3> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Urban, private residential <input type="checkbox"/> 100 council residential <input type="checkbox"/> 101 commercial <input type="checkbox"/> 102 industrial <input type="checkbox"/> 103 mixed <input type="checkbox"/> 104 Rural, town/village private <input type="checkbox"/> 105 town/village council <input type="checkbox"/> 106 isolated dwelling <input type="checkbox"/> 107 industrial/commercial <input type="checkbox"/> 108 isolated ind/com. <input type="checkbox"/> 109 	<h3>D - (cont.)</h3> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Glass, adhesive used <input type="checkbox"/> 24 punch hole (sp. equip) <input type="checkbox"/> 25 Hand/instrument inserted <input type="checkbox"/> 26 Concealed on premises <input type="checkbox"/> 27 Premises insecure <input type="checkbox"/> 28 Duplicate key <input type="checkbox"/> 29 Key found <input type="checkbox"/> 30 Padlock forced <input type="checkbox"/> 32 Slates removed <input type="checkbox"/> 33 Catch/lock slipped <input type="checkbox"/> 34 Smash and grab <input type="checkbox"/> 35 Through adjoining premises (different owners) <input type="checkbox"/> 39 Trick or artifice <input type="checkbox"/> 40 Other (describe) <input type="checkbox"/> 128 	<h3>E - (cont.)</h3> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Telephone disconnected <input type="checkbox"/> 64 Toilet used <input type="checkbox"/> 65 Antique dealer called <input type="checkbox"/> 129 Vehicle used <input type="checkbox"/> 130 Assault on person <input type="checkbox"/> 181
<h3>B - Location of premises</h3> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Main road <input type="checkbox"/> 110 Side road <input type="checkbox"/> 111 Cul de sac <input type="checkbox"/> 112 Overlooked, front <input type="checkbox"/> 113 back <input type="checkbox"/> 114 sides <input type="checkbox"/> 115 secluded <input type="checkbox"/> 116 	<h3>F - property stolen</h3> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Controlled drug <input type="checkbox"/> 73 Credit card <input type="checkbox"/> 76 Cheque book <input type="checkbox"/> 77 Cheque guarantee/cashpoint <input type="checkbox"/> 78 	<h3>G - theft from</h3> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Amusement machine <input type="checkbox"/> 80 Cash dispenser <input type="checkbox"/> 81 Collecting box <input type="checkbox"/> 82 Desks, drawers, cupboards <input type="checkbox"/> 84 Gaming machine <input type="checkbox"/> 86 Handbag/shopping bag <input type="checkbox"/> 87 Meter, gas/electricity <input type="checkbox"/> 88 Cash in transit <input type="checkbox"/> 89 Meter - TV <input type="checkbox"/> 91 Safe - opened/removed <input type="checkbox"/> 92 Safe attacked <input type="checkbox"/> 93 Telephone coin box <input type="checkbox"/> 94 Ticket machine <input type="checkbox"/> 95 Till - cash drawer <input type="checkbox"/> 96 Vending machine <input type="checkbox"/> 97
<h3>C - point of entry</h3> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Basement or cellar <input type="checkbox"/> 01 Door, patio <input type="checkbox"/> 03 front <input type="checkbox"/> 04 back <input type="checkbox"/> 02 side <input type="checkbox"/> 117 Window, front <input type="checkbox"/> 119 back <input type="checkbox"/> 119 side <input type="checkbox"/> 120 skylight <input type="checkbox"/> 09 Floor, ground <input type="checkbox"/> 05 first <input type="checkbox"/> 06 higher <input type="checkbox"/> 121 Roof <input type="checkbox"/> 08 Car flap <input type="checkbox"/> 79 Adjoining premises <input type="checkbox"/> 122 Not known <input type="checkbox"/> 123 Other (describe) <input type="checkbox"/> 124 	<h3>E - special features</h3> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Acetylene/thermic lance <input type="checkbox"/> 42 Alarm disconnected <input type="checkbox"/> 43 Curtains drawn <input type="checkbox"/> 44 Deliberate damage caused <input type="checkbox"/> 45 Doors wedged/secured <input type="checkbox"/> 46 Executed on premises <input type="checkbox"/> 47 Exit prepared <input type="checkbox"/> 48 Exit unusual (describe) <input type="checkbox"/> 49 	<h3>H - miscellaneous</h3> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Premises occupied at time of offence <input type="checkbox"/> 182 Crime prevention measures taken by occupant <input type="checkbox"/> 155 Crime prevention advice given <input type="checkbox"/> 157 daylight <input type="checkbox"/> 155 darkness <input type="checkbox"/> 156 Unknown <input type="checkbox"/> 157 Visible signs of absence (describe) <input type="checkbox"/> 159
<h3>D - method of entry</h3> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Bolt cutters/wire cutters <input type="checkbox"/> 12 Boring holes <input type="checkbox"/> 13 Climbing, Ladder <input type="checkbox"/> 31 domestic <input type="checkbox"/> 125 firescape <input type="checkbox"/> 126 other <input type="checkbox"/> 127 Bodily pressure <input type="checkbox"/> 19 Instrument used <input type="checkbox"/> 20 Garden tool used <input type="checkbox"/> 21 Glass, broken/cub <input type="checkbox"/> 22 frame removed <input type="checkbox"/> 23 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Matches used <input type="checkbox"/> 50 Food consumed <input type="checkbox"/> 51 Message left (walls etc) <input type="checkbox"/> 52 Masturbated on premises <input type="checkbox"/> 53 Occupants on holiday <input type="checkbox"/> 54 Occupants absent (means any well publicised event - wedding/funeral etc) <input type="checkbox"/> 55 Previous phone call <input type="checkbox"/> 56 Prior publicity <input type="checkbox"/> 57 Pillowcases (cushions etc. used to remove property) <input type="checkbox"/> 58 Offenders property left <input type="checkbox"/> 59 Search, tidy <input type="checkbox"/> 60 untidy <input type="checkbox"/> 61 Soft drinks consumed <input type="checkbox"/> 62 Alcohol consumed <input type="checkbox"/> 63 	

Form completed by (name) _____ rank _____ no. _____ date _____

Entered on computer by (name) _____ date _____

M.O. - sexual offences

(complete in duplicate, original to remain with file, copy to crime manager)

<h2>A - method of approach</h2> <p>Entry to premises gained by force/fear <input type="checkbox"/> 05</p> <p>Offender - motorist <input type="checkbox"/> 07</p> <p>Fondles from behind <input type="checkbox"/> 17</p> <p>Ambush - hi-jacking <input type="checkbox"/> 41</p> <p>Asks directions <input type="checkbox"/> 43</p> <p>Asks time <input type="checkbox"/> 44</p> <p>Asks for assistance <input type="checkbox"/> 201</p> <p>Attacks suddenly from behind <input type="checkbox"/> 45</p> <p>Bogus official</p> <p> Government / local authority <input type="checkbox"/> 47</p> <p> Public utility <input type="checkbox"/> 48</p> <p> Other (describe) <input type="checkbox"/> 49</p> <p>_____ Collects child from school <input type="checkbox"/> 52</p> <p>False message / errand <input type="checkbox"/> 57</p> <p>Group of children approached <input type="checkbox"/> 61</p> <p>Offers money / sweets etc. <input type="checkbox"/> 67</p> <p>Offers lift in vehicle <input type="checkbox"/> 68</p> <p>Poses as (specify) <input type="checkbox"/> 69</p> <p>_____ Search for animal etc. <input type="checkbox"/> 71</p> <p>Travel to relative <input type="checkbox"/> 76</p> <p>False story told <input type="checkbox"/> 202</p>		<h2>B - (cont.)</h2> <p>Offender known to victim <input type="checkbox"/> 203</p> <p>Relationship (specify)</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>
<h2>B - victim</h2> <p>Known prostitute <input type="checkbox"/> 06</p> <p>Cyclist <input type="checkbox"/> 14</p> <p>Motorist <input type="checkbox"/> 15</p> <p>Pedestrian - hitch-hiker <input type="checkbox"/> 16</p> <p>Vehicle broken down <input type="checkbox"/> 77</p> <p>Visitor to area / country <input type="checkbox"/> 78</p>		<h2>C - special features</h2> <p>Apologies <input type="checkbox"/> 01</p> <p>Offender - body odour <input type="checkbox"/> 02</p> <p>Offender - clothing odour <input type="checkbox"/> 03</p> <p>Clothing removed <input type="checkbox"/> 04</p> <p>Steals from victim <input type="checkbox"/> 09</p> <p>Ties up / gags victim <input type="checkbox"/> 10</p> <p>Threatens violence to self / others <input type="checkbox"/> 11</p> <p>Uses violence <input type="checkbox"/> 12</p> <p>Uses profanities <input type="checkbox"/> 13</p> <p>Masturbates / forces masturbation <input type="checkbox"/> 18</p> <p>Oral sex <input type="checkbox"/> 19</p> <p>Places foreign object in private parts <input type="checkbox"/> 20</p> <p>Sexual intercourse from rear <input type="checkbox"/> 21</p> <p>Unable to complete sexual act <input type="checkbox"/> 22</p> <p>Face covered / masked <input type="checkbox"/> 56</p> <p>Has injury / illness <input type="checkbox"/> 62</p> <p>Impersonates other sex <input type="checkbox"/> 63</p> <p>Searches person of victim <input type="checkbox"/> 72</p> <p>Shows indecent / porno pictures <input type="checkbox"/> 74</p> <p>Speaks of (specify) <input type="checkbox"/> 75</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>Plies victim with drink / drugs <input type="checkbox"/> 204</p> <p>Blindfolds victim <input type="checkbox"/> 205</p>

Form completed by (name) _____ rank _____ no. _____ date _____

Entered on computer by (name) _____ date _____

M.O - fraud, forgery and deception.

(Complete in duplicate, original to stay with file, copy to crime manager) Ref.no. _____

A - False stories		B - Means employed and documents used (if any)	
Bogus art/antiques dealer	<input type="checkbox"/> 46	Accounts/account books	<input type="checkbox"/> 10
Bogus official - Government/Local Authority	<input type="checkbox"/> 47	Advertising	<input type="checkbox"/> 11
- Public utility	<input type="checkbox"/> 48	Credit card stolen	<input type="checkbox"/> 76
- other (specify)	<input type="checkbox"/> 49	Cheque card stolen	<input type="checkbox"/> 77
<hr/>		Cheque guarantee/cashpoint card stolen	<input type="checkbox"/> 78
Canvasser/collector etc.	<input type="checkbox"/> 50	Building Society documents	<input type="checkbox"/> 13
Charity collector	<input type="checkbox"/> 51	Cheques stolen/insufficient funds/no account	<input type="checkbox"/> 14
Competition	<input type="checkbox"/> 53	Agency cards	<input type="checkbox"/> 15
Company representative	<input type="checkbox"/> 54	Forged treasury notes/coins	<input type="checkbox"/> 16
Customer, purchaser, hirer	<input type="checkbox"/> 55	Forged foreign banknotes/coins	<input type="checkbox"/> 17
Fees, deposits, goods	<input type="checkbox"/> 58	H.P. agreement	<input type="checkbox"/> 18
Friend of husband, son, relative	<input type="checkbox"/> 59	Headed notepaper, forms etc.	<input type="checkbox"/> 19
Friend of neighbour	<input type="checkbox"/> 60	Identity card	<input type="checkbox"/> 20
Has illness, injury	<input type="checkbox"/> 62	Licence - drivers, vehicle etc	<input type="checkbox"/> 21
Involved in accident	<input type="checkbox"/> 64	Licences - other (specify)	<input type="checkbox"/> 22
Lodger, guest etc.	<input type="checkbox"/> 65	<hr/>	
Lost cash, wallet etc.	<input type="checkbox"/> 66	OHSS (Social Security payments)	<input type="checkbox"/> 23
Poses as (specify)	<input type="checkbox"/> 69	Postal draft, money order	<input type="checkbox"/> 24
<hr/>		Prescriptions - controlled drugs involved	<input type="checkbox"/> 25
Property for sale	<input type="checkbox"/> 70	- other drugs	<input type="checkbox"/> 26
Service in H.M. Forces	<input type="checkbox"/> 73	Receipts	<input type="checkbox"/> 27
Speaks of (specify)	<input type="checkbox"/> 75	References, qualifications	<input type="checkbox"/> 28
<hr/>		Tickets, coupons etc.	<input type="checkbox"/> 29
Travel to relative	<input type="checkbox"/> 76	Trustee S.B. documents	<input type="checkbox"/> 30
Vehicle broken down	<input type="checkbox"/> 77	Post Office S.B. documents	<input type="checkbox"/> 31
Visitor to area, town, country etc.	<input type="checkbox"/> 78	Reverse charge call to public telephone	<input type="checkbox"/> 99

Form completed by (name) _____ rank _____ no. _____ date _____

Entered on computer by (name) _____ date _____

Stolen property record sheet

(Complete in duplicate, original to stay with file, copy to crime manager

Ref. no _____

Item no.	Description of property (Include any serial numbers and/or other identifying features)	Value		
		Stolen	Recovered	Damaged
Total values				

/

Submitted by (name) _____ Rank _____ No. _____ Date _____

Entered on computer by (name) _____ Date _____

Personal descriptive form - detected suspected wanted

(Complete in duplicate, original to stay with file, copy to crime manager) Ref. no. _____

For suspected and wanted categories complete as many fields as possible.

Surname _____ Forename(s) _____

Any alias(es) _____

Nickname(s) _____ Sex: M F

White European Dark European Afro-Carib Oriental Indian Arabian

Ht; under 5' 5'1" to 5'3" 5'4" to 5'6" 5'7" to 5'9" 5'10" to 6'0" Over 6'

Age; under 17 18 to 29 30 to 39 40 to 49 50 - 59 Over 60

Date of birth (if known) ? _____ Place of birth (if known) ? _____

Hair colour _____ style/length _____

Clean shaven Unshaven Moustache beard full beard sideboards

Build _____ Voice/accnt _____

Clothing (indicate if wearing and describe, with colour(s))

Overcoat/outer coat _____

Anorak / jacket _____

Pullover / cardigan _____

Shirt _____ T-shirt _____

Trous _____ Trousers _____

Hat _____ Shoes _____

Additional features (indicate if wearing and describe)

Spectacles _____ Sunglasses _____

Scarf _____ Gloves _____

Watch _____ Necklace _____

Badges/motif on clothing _____

Earring(s)/studs _____

Tattoes on hands/arms _____

Tattoes elsewhere _____

Any additional information (scars etc) _____

Vehicle descriptive form - suspect hit and run offenders

(Complete in duplicate, original to stay with file, copy to crime manager) Ref. no. _____

Regd. no. Make _____ Model _____

Body type _____ Main colour _____

Secondary colour (include part of vehicle where colour differs) _____

Previous colour(s), if any (give reason if known) _____

No. of doors _____ Upholstery colour _____

Special features

(If any of the features were present, indicate in box with comments where necessary)

Radio/cassette player (Location) _____

Radio aerial (Location) _____

Exterior mirrors (Location) _____

Dents/scratches/repairs (Location and description) _____

Badges/stickers (Location and description) _____

Flashes/stripes (Location and description) _____

Dangling toys/mascots (Location and description) _____

Speakers in rear window (describe) _____

Additional front lights (describe) _____

Writing on doors/sides (describe) _____

Rear window wiper <input type="checkbox"/>	Headlamp wipers <input type="checkbox"/>	Additional rear lights <input type="checkbox"/>
Tinted glass <input type="checkbox"/>	Heated rear window <input type="checkbox"/>	Concealed headlights <input type="checkbox"/>
Front spoiler <input type="checkbox"/>	Rear spoiler <input type="checkbox"/>	Roof rack <input type="checkbox"/>
Sun roof <input type="checkbox"/>	Tow bar fixture <input type="checkbox"/>	Left hand drive vehicle <input type="checkbox"/>

Windscreen sun strip (describe) _____

Wheel type (hubcaps etc. - description) _____

Additional information _____

Motorcycles only

Fairing fitted <input type="checkbox"/>	Pannier(s) fitted <input type="checkbox"/>	Moulded type wheels <input type="checkbox"/>
Twin headlamps <input type="checkbox"/>	Handlebar mirrors <input type="checkbox"/>	No. of silencers/exhausts _____

APPENDIX 6

FINAL DRAFT NEW FORM

AS AMENDED BY USER

GROUP INPUT

Crime complaint and report

Crime report no.

Section Sub Div. crime number Form 41

Crime recorded

Date

Time

Section

Assoc. crime no.

Officer initiating

Officer investigating

Classification of offence

attempt only

Case screening (indicate in the box if the description is appropriate)

Where committed (description of premises)

Address:- Location Name

No.:

Road

District

Town

County

Post code

Grid reference

Map no.

When committed

Time (1)

Date (1)

Time (2)

Date (2)

M T W Th F S Su

Aggrieved person (name, address and post code)

Phone no.

Age

Sex etc. (tick box)

M F Co Regina Not known

Injury

Weapon

Person reporting (name and address if different from aggrieved person)

Phone no.

Brief MO details (complete separate form additionally)

There is public concern

- a) Locally
- b) Generally
- c) None apparent
- Offence occurred in a sensitive area
- Likely short-term effect only
- Possible long-term effect(s)
 - a) to public
 - b) to police
- Politically sensitive offence/area
 - a) Locally
 - b) Generally
- Concern for re-occurrence
- Media interested
- none applicable

Injury

- threats only
- minor
- serious
- potentially fatal
- none applicable

Aggravating factors

- weapon used
- firearm used
- none applicable

Loser

- elderly 1
- lives alone 2
- vulnerable 3
- child 4
- previous victim 5
- frightened 6
- prominent person 7
- persistent complainer 8
- unreliable 9
- none applicable 10

Property

- high intrinsic value 1
- unusual 2
- sentimental value 3
- high value to loser 4
- insurance purposes 5
- potentially dangerous 6
- severe inconvenience 7
- none applicable 8

VSS required

- VSS called
- Crime prevention measures taken
- Crime prevention advice given
- N/Watch Scheme
- Co-Ordinator Informed
- Press book entry made

Seriousness

Solvability

Total Score

Property stolen (use stolen property record sheet if insufficient room here) (include property handled, services obtained etc.)

Status	Description	Value	Type Code
Stolen			
Recovered (if veh. give location)			
Damaged			

Details of offender(s)

Surname	Forename(s)	Age	Date of birth	Sex	Nationality

Status (Detected)

Clear - up code

undetected

no crime

Relationship to aggrieved person

Decision of case screener

File Allocate for investigation Recommend record as 'no crime' (give reason on reverse of 41(2))

Signature

Date

Name

Rank

No.

Record as 'no crime'

Signature

Name

ACC(BY)DIV.CH.SUPT.

Initial investigation report
(To be completed in every case)

Crime number _____

<p>Scene attended by: Not attended <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Officer initiating report (time) _____ (date) _____</p> <p>Officer investigating crime (if different from above) (time) _____ (date) _____</p> <p>Supervisor Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/> (time) _____ (date) _____</p> <p>SOC officer Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/> (time) _____ (date) _____ requested <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<p align="center">Case screening</p> <p align="center"><i>(indicate in the box if the description is appropriate)</i></p>
<p>Statement taken from complainant, Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Neighbourhood enquiries, (give details overleaf)</p> <p>Are there any known witnesses to the offence (attach statements if taken) Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>How many potential witnesses are there to be seen, (give details overleaf) None <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Is there any other form of evidence available Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/> briefly describe _____</p>	<p>M.O.</p> <p>unusual <input type="checkbox"/> useful detail <input type="checkbox"/> series ? <input type="checkbox"/> of little use <input type="checkbox"/></p>
<p>Is the stolen property identifiable or unique? n/a <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Circulations made, not applicable <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>local dealers <input type="checkbox"/> sub-div <input type="checkbox"/> div <input type="checkbox"/> force <input type="checkbox"/> other forces (specify) <input type="checkbox"/> RCIO <input type="checkbox"/> NSY <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<p>SOC evidence</p> <p>fingerprints 1 <input type="checkbox"/> footmarks 2 <input type="checkbox"/> instrument marks 3 <input type="checkbox"/> fibres 4 <input type="checkbox"/> forensic material 5 <input type="checkbox"/> none 6 <input type="checkbox"/></p>
<p>If vehicle stolen, complete and submit form 150 <input type="checkbox"/> ensure details sent to PNC <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Is there a named suspect or person wanted, (if yes circulate to PNC) <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>If a suspect is not named, is there a description n/a <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Can the suspect be identified by a witness n/a <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Was a vehicle involved in the offence (if yes complete 41V) not known <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Is the reg. mark or a description available n/a <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Have the description (if any) of persons and/or vehicles been searched on the divisional crime computer n/a <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/> Result _____</p>	<p>Losers statement</p> <p>complaint only <input type="checkbox"/> useful evidence <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Witnesses</p> <p>good evidence <input type="checkbox"/> reliable <input type="checkbox"/> unreliable <input type="checkbox"/> none <input type="checkbox"/></p>
<p>Is the offence thought to form part of a series (if yes - reasons overleaf) not known <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Is the complainant expecting a second visit by a police officer Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Has the community constable for the area been informed of this crime or seen the file n/a <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/> Noted by community P.C. (if applicable) _____ Date _____</p>	<p>Other evidence</p> <p>useful <input type="checkbox"/> limited value <input type="checkbox"/></p>
<p>Additional Information (continue overleaf if necessary)</p> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	<p>Property</p> <p>for personal use 1 <input type="checkbox"/> disposal likely 2 <input type="checkbox"/> disposal easy 3 <input type="checkbox"/> hard to trace 4 <input type="checkbox"/> could be traced 5 <input type="checkbox"/></p>
<p>Use reverse of form to record any other information thought necessary for case screener or the investigation</p>	<p>Suspect</p> <p>description good <input type="checkbox"/> fair <input type="checkbox"/> poor <input type="checkbox"/> none <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Vehicle</p> <p>VRM available <input type="checkbox"/> make only <input type="checkbox"/> description good <input type="checkbox"/> fair <input type="checkbox"/> poor <input type="checkbox"/> none <input type="checkbox"/></p>
	<p>Detection potential</p> <p>good <input type="checkbox"/> fair <input type="checkbox"/> poor <input type="checkbox"/> negligible <input type="checkbox"/></p>
	<p align="center">Work control</p> <p>P.C. _____ No. _____ Sheet No. _____ Completion date _____</p>

M.O. - Burglary

(Green copy to stay with file, pink copy to CID admin)

Crime No. _____

Circle number corresponding to any appropriate description

A - Area and type		D - (cont.)		E - (cont.)	
Urban, residential private	001			Toilet used	101
residential council	002	Garden tool used	054	Caller, antique dealer	102
commercial	003	Glass, broken	055	other (describe)	103
industrial	004	cut	056	_____	
mixed	005	frameremoved	057	_____	
school	126	adhesive used	058	Vehicle used	104
Rural, town/village, private	006	hole punched (sp. equip)	059	Assault on person	105
town/village, council	007	Hand/instrument inserted	060		
industrial/commercial	008	Concealed on premises	061	F - theft from	
isolated ind/commercial	009	Duplicate key	062	Amusement machine	106
school	127	Key found on/near premises	063	Cash dispenser	107
Isolated dwelling	010	Padlock forced	064	Collecting box	108
Detached house	011	Slates removed	065	Desks/drawers/cupboards	109
Semi - detached	012	Catch/lock slipped	066	Gaming machine	110
End terrace	013	Smash and grab	067	Handbag/shopping bag	111
Mid terrace	014	Through adjoining premises		Meter, gas/electricity	112
Bungalow	015	(different owners)	068	Cash in transit	113
Flat/apartment	016	Trick or artifice	069	TV meter	114
Bed-sit	017	other (describe)	070	safe opened	115
		_____		removed	116
		_____		attacked	117
		_____		Telephone coin box	118
		_____		Ticket machine	119
		_____		Till/cash drawer	120
		_____		Vending machine	121
B - location of premises		E - special features		G - miscellaneous	
Main road	018	Acetylene/thermic lance	071	Daylight	122
Side road	019	Alarm fitted	072	Darkness	123
Cul de sac	020	Disconnected	073	Visible signs of absence (describe)	124
Overlooked, front	021	Wires cut	074	_____	
back	022	Expanded foam	075	_____	
side(s)	023	Box buried	076	_____	
Secluded	024	Other (describe)	077	_____	
		_____		_____	
C - point of entry		_____		_____	
Basement or cellar	025	Curtains drawn	078	Other important/unusual feature	125
Door, patio	026	Deliberate damage caused	079	_____	
front	027	Doors wedged/secured	080	_____	
back	028	Excreted on premises	081	_____	
side	029	Exit prepared	082	_____	
Window, front	030	Matches used	083	_____	
back	031	Exit unusual (describe)	084	_____	
side	032	_____		_____	
skylight	033	Food consumed	085	_____	
Floor, ground	034	Message left (on walls etc.)	086	_____	
first	035	Masturbated on premises	087	_____	
higher	036	Occupants on holiday	088	_____	
Roof	037	Premises occupied	089	_____	
Catflap	038	Previous phone call	090	_____	
Notknown	039	Occupants absent	091	_____	
Flatroof	040	(means any well-publicised event - wedding/funeral etc.)		_____	
Other (describe)	041	Prior publicity	092	_____	
		Pillowcase etc. used to remove property	093	_____	
D - method of entry		Offenders property left	094	_____	
Bolt croppers/wirecutters	042	Search, tidy	095	_____	
Boring holes	043	untidy	096	_____	
Bodily pressure	044	ransacked	097	_____	
Instrument used	045	Soft drink consumed	098	_____	
Door open	046	Alcohol consumed	099	_____	
Window open	047	Telephone disconnected	100	_____	
Closed but unlocked	048			_____	
Window locks fitted	049			_____	
Climbing, ladder	050			_____	
drainpipe	051			_____	
fire escape	052			_____	
other	053			_____	

M.O. - Sexual offences**Fraud and forgery**

(Green copy to stay with file, pink copy to CID admin)

Circle the number corresponding to any appropriate description

Crime No. _____

Sexual offences

A - Method of approach		B - Victim		C - Special features	
Entry to premises gained by force/fear	200	Search for animal etc.	219	Apologies	233
Offender - motorist	201	Travel to relative	220	Offender - body odour	234
Fondles from behind	202	False story told	221	- clothing odour	235
Ambush /hi-jacking	203	Other method (<i>describe</i>)	222	Clothing removed	236
Asks directions	204	_____	_____	Records sexual action on film/tape	237
Asks time	205	_____	_____	Steals from victim	238
Asks for help	206	_____	_____	Ties up/gags victim	239
Attacks suddenly from behind	207	Known prostitute	223	Threatens violence to self/others	240
Bogus official - Government/LA	208	Cyclist	224	Uses violence	241
- Public utility	209	Motorist	225	Uses profanities	242
- Other (<i>specify</i>)	210	Pedestrian	226	Masturbates/forces masturbation	243
Collects child from school	211	Hitch-hiker	227	Oral sex	244
False message/errands	212	Vehicle broken down	228	Normal intercourse	245
Group of children approached	213	Visitor to area/country	229	Places foreign object in private parts	246
- near school	214	Child	230	Intercourse from rear	247
- near a play area	215	Previous victim	231	Unable to complete sexual act	248
Offers money/sweets	216	Other feature (<i>describe</i>)	232	Face covered/masked	249
Offers lift in vehicle	217	_____	_____	Impersonates other sex	250
Poses as (<i>specify</i>)	218	_____	_____	Searches person of victim	251
_____	_____	_____	_____	Shows pornographic pictures	252
_____	_____	_____	_____	Plies victim with drink/drugs	253
_____	_____	_____	_____	Blindfolds or hoods victim	254
_____	_____	_____	_____	Weapon used	255
_____	_____	_____	_____	Speaks of (<i>specify</i>)	256
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Fraud, forgery and deception

A - False stories		B - Means employed and documents used		C - Receipts	
Bogus art/antiques dealer	300	Speaks of (<i>specify</i>)	324	Receipts	346
Bogus official - Government/LA	301	_____	_____	References/qualifications	347
- Public utility	302	_____	_____	Tickets/coupons	348
- Other (<i>specify</i>)	303	Accounts/account book	325	TSB documents	349
Canvasser, collector, agent	304	Advertising	326	P.O.S.B. documents	350
Charity collector	305	Credit card stolen	327	Reverse charge call to public telephone	351
Competition	306	Cheque guarantee card stolen	328	Mail Order agency	352
Company representative	307	Cashpoint card stolen	329	Selling stolen property	353
Customer/purchaser/hirer	308	Building society documents	330	Other deception (<i>specify</i>)	354
Fees/deposits/goods	309	Cheque - stolen	331	_____	_____
Friend of family member	310	- insufficient funds	332	_____	_____
Friend of neighbour	311	- no account	333	_____	_____
Has illness/injury	312	Counterfeit currency - British	334	_____	_____
Involved in accident	313	-Foreign	335	Computer software	355
Lodger/guest etc.	314	Agency cards	336	printout	356
Lost money/wallets etc.	315	H.P./loan agreement	337	_____	_____
Poses as (<i>specify</i>)	316	Headed note paper/forms etc.	338	_____	_____
Property for sale	317	False identity card	339	_____	_____
Professional - doctor/priest etc.	318	False licence - drivers/veh. etc.	340	_____	_____
Service in HM Forces	319	- other (<i>specify</i>)	341	_____	_____
Travelling to relatives	320	DHSS/social security payment	342	_____	_____
Investments/insurance	321	Postal draft, money order	343	_____	_____
Vehicle broken down	322	Prescription - controlled drugs	344	_____	_____
Visitor to area/country	323	- other drugs	345	_____	_____

M.O. - Theft **Robbery** **Criminal damage**

(Green copy to stay with file, pink copy to CID admin)

Circle the number corresponding to any appropriate description

Crime No. _____

Theft					
Bolt croppers/wire cutters used	400	Ambush, hi - jacking	427	Theft from	
Currency - false or foreign	401	Attacks suddenly from behind	428	Amusement machine	441
Distract attention -	402	Bogus art/antiques dealer	429	Cash dispenser	442
- accomplice	403	Bogus official - Government/LA	430	Collecting box	443
Examine goods - steal same	404	- public utility	431	Clothing	444
Force open - bodily pressure	405	- other (specify)	432	Desks, drawers, cupboards	445
- instrument	406			Doorstep, entrance	446
Garden tools used	407			Gaming machine	447
Glass broken	408	Canvasser, collector etc.	433	Handbag, shopping bag	448
Glass cut	409	Customer, purchaser, hirer	434	Meter - gas/electricity	449
Handbag snatched	410	Face covered, masked	435	Cash in transit	450
Hand/instrument inserted	411	Lodger, guest	436	Meter - parking	451
Hide on premises	412	Offers lift in vehicle	437	-TV	452
Insecure	413	Poses as (specify)	438	Safe - opened/removed	453
Duplicate key	414			- attacked	454
Key found	415			Telephone coin box	455
Ladder used	416	Searching person of victim	439	Ticket machine	456
Padlock forced	417	Speaks of (specify)	440	Till, cash drawer	457
Slipping lock or catch	418			Vending machine	458
Switching goods	419			Broken off or forcibly removed	459
Switching price labels	420			Washing line	460
Through adjoining premises	421				
Trick or artifice	422				
Walk - in theft	423				
Shoplifter	424				
Asks directions	425				
Asks time	426				

Vehicles (theft and/or damage)		Criminal damage			
Means of entry		Type of vehicle			
Bonnet	500	Car - convertible	516	Candle	600
Boot	501	- estate	517	Chemicals	601
Door	502	- saloon	518	Combustible material in letter box	602
Quarterlight	503	- sports	519	Cutting/slashing	603
Roof	504	- hatchback	520	Electrical appliance (describe)	604
Sunroof	505	Light pick-up truck	521	Explosive (inc. fireworks)	605
Tailgate/hatchback	506	Motor caravan	522	Fire	606
Window	507	Van	523	Gas container/appliance	607
Forced open - bodily pressure	508	Motorcycle	524	Matches	608
- instrument	509	Motorcycle combination	525	Oil/paraffin	609
Glass broken	510	Moped	526	Paint applied	610
Glass cut	511	Scooter	527	Paint stripper applied	611
Hand/instrument inserted	512	Articulated vehicle	528	Scraping/scoring/denting	612
Insecure	513	Lorry with trailer	529	Tampering with fixtures	613
Duplicate key	514	Rigid lorry	530	Water damage	614
Spare key found on vehicle	515	Coach	531	Broken off/forcibly removed	615
Unknown	541	Bus/minibus	532	Aerosol spray paint	616
		Agricultural vehicle	533	Graffiti (describe words/slogans etc.)	617
		Construction vehicle	534		
		Car trailer	535		
		Boats/Yachts	536		
		Other conveyance (specify)	537		
		Make _____	538	Petrol	618
		Model _____	539	Glass broken, object/instrument	619
		VRM _____	540	Glass broken, physical force	620

Suspect descriptive form

(Green copy to stay with file, pink copy to CID admin)

Complete with as much detail as is available

Crime No. _____

Information on this form **MUST** be factual and supported by the evidence of a witness. The witness details at the bottom of this form **MUST** be completed. Unsupported information should only be written on the crime progress sheet.

Personal details

Surname _____ Forename(s) _____

Any alias(es) _____

Nickname(s) _____ Sex: M F

Address _____

Places frequented (e.g. pubs, betting shops etc.) _____

1. White European 2. Dark European 3. Afro-Carib 4. Oriental 5. Indian 6. Arabian

Ht: under 5' 5'0" - 5'3" 5'4" - 5'6" 5'7" - 5'9" 5'10" - 6'0" over 6'

1. Age: under 18 2. 18-29 3. 30-39 4. 40-49 5. 50-59 6. over 60

Hair colour _____ Style/length _____

Clean shaven Unshaven Moustache Sideboards Beard Full set

Build _____ Voice/accent _____

Clothing *(indicate if wearing and describe, with colour(s))*

Overcoat/outer coat _____

Anorak/jacket _____

Jumper/sweatshirt/cardigan _____

Shirt /Blouse _____ T - shirt _____

Jeans _____ Trousers/skirt _____

Headgear _____ Shoes/boots _____

Additional features *(indicate if wearing and describe)*

Spectacles/sunglasses _____ Earring(s) _____

Badges/motifs on clothing _____

Tattoos *(give position)* _____

Jewellery *(inc. watch)* _____

Additional info. *(scars etc.)* _____

Referred to in statement

of *(name of witness)* _____

Suspect vehicle descriptive form

(Green copy to stay with file, pink copy to CID admin)

Crime No. _____

Information on this form MUST be factual and supported by the evidence of a witness. The witness details at the bottom of this form MUST be completed. Unsupported information should only be written on the crime progress sheet.

Reg. no.	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 100%; height: 20px; display: flex; justify-content: space-around;"></div>	Make _____	Model _____
Body type _____	Main colour _____		
Secondary colour (include part where colour differs) _____			
Previous colour(s) if any (give reason if known) _____			
No. of doors _____	Upholstery colour _____		
Special features (indicate if any of the features are present with comments where necessary)			
Radio/cassette player/CB	<input type="checkbox"/>	(location) _____	
Radioaerial	<input type="checkbox"/>	(location) _____	
Exterior mirrors	<input type="checkbox"/>	(location) _____	
Dents/scratches/repairs	<input type="checkbox"/>	(location and description) _____	
Badges/stickers	<input type="checkbox"/>	(location and description) _____	
Flashes/stripes	<input type="checkbox"/>	(location and description) _____	
Dangling toys/mascots	<input type="checkbox"/>	(location and description) _____	
Speakers in rear window	<input type="checkbox"/>	(describe) _____	
Additional front lights	<input type="checkbox"/>	(describe) _____	
Rear window wiper	<input type="checkbox"/>	Headlamp wipers	<input type="checkbox"/>
Head rests	<input type="checkbox"/>	GB plate	<input type="checkbox"/>
Roofrack	<input type="checkbox"/>	'L' plates	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sunroof	<input type="checkbox"/>	Tow bar fixture	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Tinted glass	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Anti-theft alarm	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Front spoiler	<input type="checkbox"/>
		LHD vehicle	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Additional rear lights	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Concealed headlights	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Rear spoiler	<input type="checkbox"/>
Windscreen sun strip (describe) _____			
Wheel type (hubcaps etc. - describe) _____			
Number of occupants (include description if known) _____			
Circumstances in which seen _____			
Additional information (i.e. overall condition, dirty, noisy etc.) _____			
Motorcycles only (additional information)			
Fairing fitted	<input type="checkbox"/>	Panniers/top box fitted	<input type="checkbox"/>
Twin headlamps	<input type="checkbox"/>	Handlebar mirrors	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Moulded type wheels	<input type="checkbox"/>
		No. of exhausts/silencers	_____
Referred to in statement			
of (name of witness) _____			

Stolen property record sheet

(Green copy to stay with file, pink copy to CID admin)

Reference No. _____

Item no.	Description of Property <i>(include serial numbers and any other identifying feature(s) applicable)</i>	Code	Value		
			Stolen	Recovered	Damaged
Total value					

NOTE - If additional property recorded on this sheet ensure that the total value includes

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THE EVOLUTION OF THE FORM 41

(CRIME COMPLAINT) SET

Once the decision had been taken in policy to try and improve our crime data collection forms, user groups were set up in 'C' & 'D' divisions and at H.Q.

The two divisions had been selected for the crime project trial by Policy.

The user groups contained Police Officers, from all Police depts. and at various levels and civilians from the L.I.O. and CID Admin depts. The HQ group was made up of representatives from ORD, Computer Dept., HQ CID, The Police Federation and NALGO.

After initial user group discussions, a written draft (App A) of the proposed Form 41 set was drawn up, circulated and amended until a final written (App B) draft was agreed.

The changes incorporated into the final written draft were:-

FORM 41 (1) Time a crime was reported was added.
(2) Grid/map reference boxes added.
(3) Case screening factors altered to suit users.

FORM 41(2)
(1) Minor wording improvements.
(2) Seriousness/Solvability "score" boxes added for case screening.
(3) Case screening decision area improved.

FORM 41 M.O.B.
(1) Type of house added.
(2) "Alarm fitted" area added.
(3) Minor free text areas added.

FORM 41 MOS
(1) Areas for free text added to cope with an occurrence otherwise not catered for.
(2) In victim area, three additions were made, CHILD, PREVIOUS VICTIM, OTHER SIGNIFICANT FEATURE.
(3) In SPECIAL FEATURES area, two additions were made, NORMAL INTERCOURSE and WEAPON USED.

FORM 41 MOF
(1) Minor text changes for clarity.
(2) Under Section B, three additions were made; MAIL ORDER AGENCY, SELLING STOLEN PROPERTY and OTHER DECEPTION (Specify)

FORM 41 PS No change.

FORM 41S (1) Format change re offender to be in line

- with current force procedures.
- (2) Minor text changes for clarity.
- (3) SUSPECT section - date & place of birth removed.
- (4) Added to bottom of form - who completed it and added the information to the computer.

FORM 41V (1) As at (4) above.

The final written draft was then typeset and became the first form actually used in divisions. It was introduced into the WYVERN section of "D" division and BARNSTAPLE section of the "C" division on 1/6/87 for the first trial period. The first printed set of Forms are at App. "C".

During the trial period, regular meetings were held with the users to discuss any problems that were occurring. During the 1st week of July, the user groups agreed on an update of the form prior to its going live in the whole of EXETER CITY Sub Division and the NORTH DEVON Sub Division which was scheduled to take place on 1/8/87.

The update MKII of the printed form is at App "D" and the changes made are listed below. The recommendations for amendment were made by different people, amendments made relate to (P) = Police officer requests, (A) = CID Admin request, (ORD) for changes instigated by the department, (SD) for changes requested by the senior detectives and (LIO) for changes requested by Collators. Amendments were:-

F. 41

(1)(A) Reference No area removed and replaced by divisional crime report number. The number is easier to find at top right of the form when searching through paper files.

(2)(ORD) Instruction re case screening removed from top left of form.

(3)(ORD) Area from which crime report number removed to its new location utilised for 'SECTION' to try and encourage officers to fill in the proper section references.

(4)(ORD) Format change to property section to gain space.

(5)(A) Offenders returned to this page for ease of checking detected crime.

(6)(P) MO section removed to 41(2) for case screening.

(7)(SD) Case screening scores from 41(2) to F.41.

(8)(SD) Decision of case screening from 41(2) to F.41.

FORM 41(2)

- (1)(P) Changed to be a single sheet, no pink copy.
- (2)(P) Word "none" added to S.O.C. screening area.
- (3) Minor text changes.
- (4)(P) Written M.O. moved from F.41 .
- (5)(P) Work control box included.

FORM 41 MOD

- (1)(ORD) Completely change codes from Home Office system to our own logical system.
- (2)(P) Under Section A add FLAT/APARTMENT and BED SIT.
- (3)(P) Split terraced house into MID TERRACE and END TERRACE.
- (4) Section B, only number changes.
- (5)(P) Section C, add FLAT
- (6)(P) Section D, add DOOR OPEN
WINDOW OPEN
CLOSED BUT UNLOCKED
WINDOW LOCKS FITTED
Remove PREMISES INSECURE
- (7)(A)(P) Remove Section E.
- (8)(ORD) Section G re-labelled F.
- (9) Section H re-labelled G. with more space for free text.

FORMS 41MOS and 41MOF

- (1)(ORD) Combined onto 1 sheet now labelled FORM 41 MOSF
Sexual offences top half of form
Fraud offences bottom half of form.
- (2)(ORD) Code number changed into our logical sequence, which provides unique searchable M.O. codes.
- (3)(ORD) Minor text changes for clarity.
- (4)(ORD) "Form completed/entered on computer" section removed.

NEW FORM ADDED F.41 MOTD

Covers all required M.O codes for Robbery, Theft and Criminal Damage on a single form, using unique numbers and completes M.O. coded system for all our current requirements.

FORM 41 PS

- (1)(ORD) Form completion/entered on computer, details removed.

FORM 41S

- (1)(A) Offender details to F.41.
Now a "suspect" only form.
- (2)(ORD) Format improved
- (3)(ORD) "Form completed/entered on Computer"
removed.
- (4)(ORD) Instructions at top left altered re
offenders.

FORM 41V

- (1)(ORD) Format improved
- (2)(P) ANTI THEFT ALARM added
- (3)(P) NO. OF OCCUPANTS added with free text
- (4)(P) CIRCUMSTANCES SEEN " " " "

The field trial continued in the two Sub Divisions with more feed back being received. The form amendments were indexed and incorporated in the MKIII form (App 'E') which went division wide in 'C' and 'D' divisions on 1/9/87.

Changes made to MKIII of the F.41 set were:-

- (1)(A) - All areas for use only by CID admin were shaded on the relevant forms in the set.

FORM 41

- (1)(P) Detected, U/D and NO Crime put into the order required by the users.
- (2)(A) For NO CRIME signature required altered to ACC B/DIV CH.SUPT.
- (3)(P) To case screening areas, "NONE APPLICABLE" added to necessary areas.
- (4)(A) Associated Crime number space added.

FORM 41(2)

- (1)(ORD,P) Made into a double sided single sheet for progress notes to be written as necessary during initial investigation.
- (2)(P) POTENTIAL WITNESS area altered, to be given in writing on progress area.

F 41 MOB No change.

F 41 MOSF No change.

F 41 MOTD

- (1)(P) MEANS OF ENTRY - "UNKNOWN" added.
- (2)(P) TYPE OF VEHICLE - "MAKE", "MODEL" "VRN" added.
- (3)(P) CRIMINAL DAMAGE section, 3 additions
"PETROL"
GLASS BROKEN - OBJECT/INSTRUMENT

GLASS BROKEN - PHYSICAL FORCE.

F 41 PS No change.

F 41S " "

F 41V " "

The division trials were allowed to run until the end of 1987. During this time, regular meetings were held with users and the HQ group. Requests and suggestions for further change were noted and discussed in early December, 1987 to be consolidated into the final amendments ready for the 1988 series of Forms to be printed. The MkIV of the form went into general use in "C" and "D" divisions on 1/1/88.

The following changes were made to the MkIII of the form in creating the MkIV.(App 'F')

FORM 41

- (1)(ORD) Format changed for "WHEN COMMITTED" to gain space on the form for (2) below.
- (2)(P)(A) Written brief details of MO returned to this form.
- (3)(ORD) How reported removed completely. Found to be of little value and the space was needed.
- (4)(ORD) STATUS location moved - better design.
- (5)(A) DETECTED box altered to clear up code box to ensure that when a crime is detected, the clear up details must be completed.

FORM 41(2)

- (1)(P)(A) MO written details to F41, thus creating more space for written progress sheet detail.
- (2)(ORD) Instructions for user added to foot of first side of this form.

F41 MOB

- (1)(P) Code 127 school added for Urban and Rural.

F41 MOSF

- (1)(F) Codes 355, Computer software and 356 Computer print-out added.

F41 MOTD

- (1)(P) Add Code 460 - Washing line

F41 PS No change.

F41 S Add at top of form data protection warnings

F41 V

Add at top of form data protection warnings.
No further major changes are anticipated at
this time.

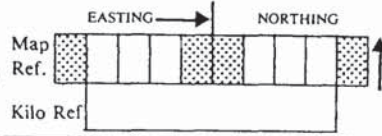
APPENDIX 7

ACCIDENT REPORT FORM 72e

(FOR COMPARISON)

DEVON AND CORNWALL CONSTABULARY

FATAL/SERIOUS/SLIGHT/DAMAGE ONLY/HIT AND RUN

Day and date _____ Time (24-hour clock)
 Exact location _____
 Road Classn. & No. 1st 2nd _____
 Local Authority _____ Parish _____
 _____ Officer reporting
 _____ Station
 { Witness Yes/No
 Visited scene: Yes/No
 Map Ref. 
 Kilo Ref. _____
 Time reported to Police By whom _____

VEHICLE 1

Regd. No. _____ Make _____ Type _____ HP/CC _____
 Driven by _____ DOB _____ Occupation _____
 Address _____
 Owned by _____
 D/Licence correct - Yes/No No. _____
 Insurance correct - Yes/No Policy No. _____ Expiry date _____
 Company _____
 Veh. Lic. - Yes/No/N.A. Test Cert. - Yes/No/N.A. Write-off - Yes/No (V23 submitted)
 Vehicle removed to _____ PSV seat capacity _____
 Vehicle examined - Yes/No By whom _____ Did vehicle skid - Yes/No - Before/After
 Jack-knife - Yes/No - Before/After Overturn - Yes/No Towing - Yes/No - Artic/Single/Double/Multiple/Caravan/Other

GOODS VEHICLES
 No. of axles (goods only) _____
 Gross Weight _____ tonnes
 Plating Cert. - Yes/No/N.A. Operator's Lic. - Yes/No/N.A.
 Tachograph Records Checked Yes/No/N.A. H.G.V. Licence correct - Yes/No/N.A.

LEARNER DRIVERS
 D. Instructor's authority - Yes/No/N.A.
 Learner Driver - Yes/No
 'L' Plates - Yes/No
 Accompanied - Yes/No

VEHICLE 2

Regd. No. _____ Make _____ Type _____ HP/CC _____
 Driven by _____ DOB _____ Occupation _____
 Address _____
 Owned by _____
 D/Licence correct - Yes/No No. _____
 Insurance correct - Yes/No Policy No. _____ Expiry date _____
 Company _____
 Veh. Lic. - Yes/No/N.A. Test Cert. - Yes/No/N.A. Write-off - Yes/No (V23 submitted)
 Vehicle removed to _____ PSV seat capacity _____
 Vehicle examined - Yes/No By whom _____ Did vehicle skid - Yes/No - Before/After
 Jack-knife - Yes/No - Before/After Overturn - Yes/No Towing - Yes/No - Artic/Single/Double/Multiple/Caravan/Other

GOODS VEHICLES
 No. of axles (goods only) _____
 Gross Weight _____ tonnes
 Plating Cert. - Yes/No/N.A. Operator's Lic. - Yes/No/N.A.
 Tachograph Records Checked Yes/No/N.A. H.G.V. Licence correct - Yes/No/N.A.

LEARNER DRIVERS
 D. Instructor's authority - Yes/No/N.A.
 Learner Driver - Yes/No
 'L' Plates - Yes/No
 Accompanied - Yes/No

Regd. No. _____ Make _____ Type _____ HP/CC _____
 Driven by _____ DOB _____ Occupation _____
 Address _____
 Owned by _____

D/Licence correct - Yes/No No. _____
 Insurance correct -Yes/No Policy No. _____ Expiry date _____
 Company _____

Veh. Lic. - Yes/No/N.A. Test Cert. - Yes/No/N.A. Write-off - Yes/No (V23 submitted)
 Vehicle removed to _____ PSV seat capacity _____
 Vehicle examined -Yes/No By whom _____ Did vehicle skid - Yes/No - Before/After
 Jack-knife - Yes/No - Before/After Overturn - Yes/No Towing - Yes/No - Artic/Single/Double/Multiple/Caravan/Other

GOODS VEHICLES
 No. of axles (goods only) _____
 Gross Weight _____ tonnes
 Plating Cert. - Yes/No/N.A. Operator's Lic. - Yes/No/N.A.
 Tachograph Records Checked Yes/No/N.A. H.G.V. Licence correct - Yes/No/N.A.

LEARNER DRIVERS
 D. Instructor's authority - Yes/No/N.A.
 Learner Driver - Yes/No
 'L' Plates - Yes/No
 Accompanied - Yes/No

CASUALTIES

No.1 Name and Address (Mr./Mrs./Miss) _____ Age _____ (Officer estimate if necessary)
 Whether: driver/rider/passenger/in Veh. No. _____ Regd. No. _____
 Pedestrian - Yes/No School pupil - Yes/No Travelling To or From School - Yes/No
 Injuries _____ Fatal/Serious/Slight
 Hospital _____ Detained - Yes/No Relatives informed - Yes/No
 Seat Occupied - Front/Rear Seat Belts/Child Harness/Child belt fitted -Yes/No In use - Yes/No/Unknown
 P.S.V. Passenger: Boarding/Alighting/Seated/Standing

No.2 Name and Address (Mr./Mrs./Miss) _____ Age _____ (Officer estimate if necessary)
 Whether: driver/rider/passenger/in Veh. No. _____ Regd. No. _____
 Pedestrian - Yes/No School pupil - Yes/No Travelling To or From School - Yes/No
 Injuries _____ Fatal/Serious/Slight
 Hospital _____ Detained - Yes/No Relatives informed - Yes/No
 Seat Occupied - Front/Rear Seat Belts/Child Harness/Child belt fitted -Yes/No In use - Yes/No/Unknown
 P.S.V. Passenger: Boarding/Alighting/Seated/Standing

No.3 Name and Address (Mr./Mrs./Miss) _____ Age _____ (Officer estimate if necessary)
 Whether: driver/rider/passenger/in Veh. No. _____ Regd. No. _____
 Pedestrian - Yes/No School pupil - Yes/No Travelling To or From School - Yes/No
 Injuries _____ Fatal/Serious/Slight
 Hospital _____ Detained - Yes/No Relatives informed - Yes/No
 Seat Occupied - Front/Rear Seat Belts/Child Harness/Child belt fitted -Yes/No In use - Yes/No/Unknown
 P.S.V. Passenger: Boarding/Alighting/Seated/Standing

No.4 Name and Address (Mr./Mrs./Miss) _____ Age _____ (Officer estimate if necessary)
 Whether: driver/rider/passenger/in Veh. No. _____ Regd. No. _____
 Pedestrian - Yes/No School pupil - Yes/No Travelling To or From School - Yes/No
 Injuries _____ Fatal/Serious/Slight
 Hospital _____ Detained - Yes/No Relatives informed - Yes/No
 Seat Occupied - Front/Rear Seat Belts/Child Harness/Child belt fitted -Yes/No In use - Yes/No/Unknown
 P.S.V. Passenger: Boarding/Alighting/Seated/Standing

Damage to property _____ Value _____

Owner _____

Carrageway

Type

Roundabout	1
One-way street	2
Dual crg'way-2 lanes	3
Dual crg'way-3 or more lanes	4
Single crg'way-single track road	5
Single crg'way-2 lanes (one each direction)	6
Single crg'way-3 lanes	7
Single crg'way-4 or more lanes	8
Unknown	9

Speed Limit

30 or less	
40	
50	
60	
70	

Pedestrian Crossing Facilities

None within 50 metres	0
Zebra	1
Zebra by school patrol	2
Zebra by authorised person	3
Pelican	4
Other light controlled	5
Other sites/school patrol	6
Other sites/auth. person	7
Central refuge (no other control)	8
Footbridge/Subway	9

Street light

DAYLIGHT	
7 metres or more high	1
Under 7 metres high	2
No street lighting	3
Unknown	4
DARKNESS	
7 metres or more high lit	5
Under 7 metres high lit	6
No street lighting	7
Streets lights unlit	8
Unknown	9

WITHOUT HIGH WINDS

Fine	1
Raining	2
Snowing	3

WITH HIGH WINDS

Fine	4
Raining	5
Snowing	6
Fog	7
Other	8
Unknown	9

Road surface

Dry	1
Wet/Damp	2
Snow	3
Frost/Ice	4
Flood (Over 3 cms deep)	5

Line of road

Straight	1
Bend to right for 1st veh.	2
S Bend	3
Bend to left for 1st veh.	4

Slope of road

No slope	1
Hill up for 1st veh.	2
Hilltop or hump bridge	3
Hill down for 1st veh.	4

Junction details

Not at or within 20m of junction	0
Roundabout	1
Mini roundabout	2
'T' or staggered junction	3
'Y' junction	4
Slip road	5
Crossroads	6
Multiple junction	7
Private drive/entrance	8
Other junction	9

Junction control

Not applicable	0
Auth. person	1
Traffic lights	2
Stop sign	3
Give way sign/markings	4
Uncontrolled	5

Junction location on impact

Not at junction (within 20mtrs)	0
Approaching junction /Parked on approach	1
Middle of junction	2
Cleared junction /Parked at exit	3
No impact	4

Vehicle location on impact

Leaving main road	1
Entering main road	2
On main road	3
On minor road	4
On service road	5
On layby or hard shoulder	6
Enter layby	7
Leave layby	8
Cycleway	9
Not on road	10

Hit object on carriageway

None	0
Previous RTA	1
Road works	2
Parked vehicle lit	3
Parked vehicle unlit	4
Bridge (roof)	5
Bridge (side)	6
Bollard/refuge	7
Open door of vehicle	8
Centre island of r'about	9
Kerb	10
Other	11

Vehicle left carriageway

Did not leave	0
On nearside	1
Nearside and rebounded	2
Straight ahead at junction	3
Offside onto cen.res.	4
Offside onto cen.res. and rebounded	5
Offside cross cen. res.	6
Offside	7
Offside and rebounded	8

Hit object off carriageway

None	0
Road/Traffic sign	1
Lamp post	2
Telegraph/electric pole	3
Tree	4
Bus stop/shelter	5
Central crash barrier	6
N/side or o/side	7
Submerged completely in water	8
Ditch	9
Other permanent object	10

First impact point

Did not	0
Front	1
Back	2
Offside	3
Nearside	4

Parts damaged

None	0
Front	1
Back	2
Offside	3
Nearside	4
Roof	5
Underside	6
All four sides	7

Pedestrian location

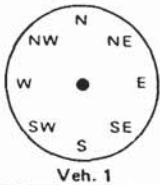
Crossing on ped. crossing	1
Crossing on zig-zag approach lines	2
Crossing on zig-zag exit lines	3
Crossing within 50m of crossing	4
Crossing elsewhere	5
On footway/verge	6
On refuge/cent.isl./reserv.	7
In centre of road (No isl.ref.)	8
In road not crossing	9
Unknown	10

Pedestrian movement

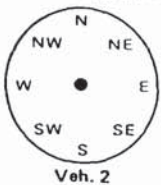
Crossing from drivers n/side	1
Crossing from drivers n/side - Masked by vehicle	2
Crossing from drivers o/side	3
Crossing from drivers o/side - Masked by vehicle	4
In road stationary/playing	5
In road stationary/playing - Masked by vehicle	6
Walking face to traffic	7
Walking back to traffic	8
Unknown	9

Witnesses _____

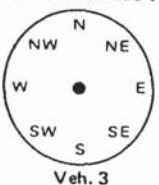
	(1)	RESULT OF PROCEEDINGS	(2)
Defendant:			
Court:			
Date:			
Offences:			
Result:			



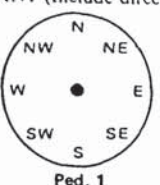
Veh. 1



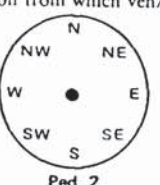
Veh. 2



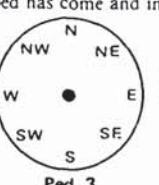
Veh. 3



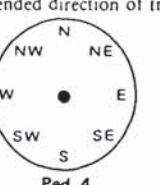
Ped. 1



Ped. 2



Ped. 3



Ped. 4

Special Conditions at Site:

- None 0
- Traffic lights out 1
- Traffic lights, other defect 2
- Permanent road sign defect 3
- or obscured 3
- Road works 4
- Road surface defect 5

Hazards in carriageway:

- None 0
- Dislodged vehicle load 1
- Other object 2
- Previous R.T.A. 3
- Dog 4
- Other animal 5

Breath Test:

	1	2	3	
Not applicable	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	0
Positive	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	1
Negative	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	2
Not requested	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	3
Failed to provide	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	4
Driver not seen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	5

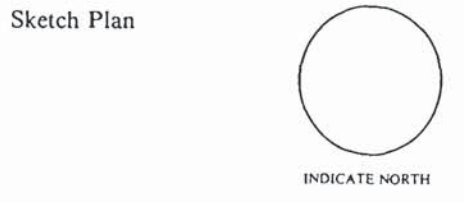
Vehicle Manoeuvres:

	1	2	3	
Reversing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	1
Parked	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	2
Held up waiting to go ahead	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	3
Stopping	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	4
Starting	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	5
'U' Turn	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	6
Turning left	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	7
Waiting to turn left	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	8
Turning right	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	9
Waiting to turn right	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	10
Change lane to left	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	11
Change lane to right	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	12
O/take moving veh. on its o/side	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	13
O/take stat'ary veh. on its o/side	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	14
O/take on n/side	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	15
Going ahead left-hand bend	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	16
Going ahead right-hand bend	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	17
Going ahead other	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	18

Causation numbers

Primary		Secondary	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

In addition to primary number you may select up to three additional secondary causes.



SUMMARY (To include direction of travel. Items under special conditions at site to be elaborated on)

WORK CONTROL	_____
PC	_____
No.	_____
SHEET No.	_____
COMP. DATE	_____

ROUTEING	Date/Initials	RECOMMENDATIONS
ACC. STATS/ Initial Record		_____
ACC. STATS/ Decision Record		_____
PROCESS		_____
ACC. STATS. Final Record		_____

APPENDIX 8

FORCE INSTRUCTIONS TO

POLICE OFFICERS IN

CASE SCREENING

The following is an extract of Force Instructions to police officers on case screening

10. **Case screening**

- 10.1 It has long been accepted that officers are spending a disproportionate amount of their available time dealing with crimes that do not warrant such attention for a variety of reasons. Most operational officers carry out case screening already - but informally, by putting the less serious but more unsolvable crimes to the bottom of an increasing pile of Form 41's.
- 10.2 The basic aim of case screening is, therefore, to eliminate from the investigative process those crimes which are considered to be undetectable. In the majority of cases this can be decided upon once the initial investigation has been conducted and will, hopefully, result in officers only being required to investigate crimes where there is a realistic potential for detection.
- 10.3 The screening decision will be based upon the assessment of the "seriousness" of the offence and the "solvability factors" pertaining to the particular crime.
- 10.4 It must be remembered, however, that there will always be a number of crimes which should be investigated, even though the initial analysis of the seriousness and solvability does not seem to warrant it. To do this successfully we will need some additional information recorded. This is the purpose of the right hand column of the Crime Complaint and Initial Investigation Report. This will allow officers to draw certain factors to the attention of the case screener which may not be otherwise apparent. As an example, a petty burglary where nothing was stolen may, at first glance, appear suitable for screening out, but, the fact that the loser was elderly and lived on his/her own, would show the crime in a different light and we could be obliged to carry out an investigation irrespective of the initial seriousness/solvability score. We have a social responsibility to the public which can override the basic criteria of whether or not we can solve the crime.

11. **Case - screening scoring**

- 11.1 Case screeners are asked to give a numerical value to (a) the seriousness of the crime and (b) its solvability using the following list :

SERIOUSNESS		SOLVABILITY	
Grave	10	10	Simple
Very serious	8	8	Straightforward
Serious	4	4	Complex
Common	3	3	Difficult
Minor	2	2	Very difficult
Trivial	1	1	(Almost) impossible

12. **Seriousness**

- 12.1 The seriousness of a crime should be fitted within one of the following categories and given the corresponding score (see paragraph 11.1)

GRAVE: Crimes generally to be of an extremely serious nature within the everyday meaning of the term and which rise to great public concern (e.g. homicides, rape, armed robberies where shots are fired).

VERY SERIOUS: Crimes that fall into the "Serious" category, but with aggravating factors and where there is substantial loss, damage or very serious injury caused (e.g. use of weapon to cause wounds, robberies, aggravated burglaries, exceptional frauds, indecency/sexual abuse of children).

SERIOUS: Crimes causing considerable inconvenience, loss, damage or injury to any person. The majority of burglaries of dwellings will fall into this category, as would woundings, some ABH's, larger scale frauds, high value thefts, assaults on children/vulnerable person and some indecency offences.

COMMON: Everyday crime such as thefts of and from vehicles, some ABH's, lesser fraud and thefts. Burglaries or attempts could be included in this category depending upon the type of premises and the type of value of property stolen.

MINOR: Crime causing some inconvenience, loss or damage to any person and including low value thefts, minor damage, etc.

TRIVIAL: Crimes causing little or no inconvenience, minimal or no loss or damage to any person.

ALL CATEGORIES CAN BE RAISED BY SPECIAL FACTORS APPLICABLE TO THAT PARTICULAR CRIME OR COMPLAINT

13. **Solvability**

13.1 The solvability of the crime will be dependant upon a large number of factors, but should be given a score appropriate to one of the following categories (see also paragraph 11.1).

13.2 **SIMPLE:** Offender(s) obvious, known or named.

STRAIGHTFORWARD: Positive lines of enquiry which should yield a definite result without too much effort. Would include whether fingerprint evidence or a vehicle registration make is available, etc.

COMPLEX: Positive lines of enquiry, but where the investigation could be protracted, and there is a better than even chance of detecting the offender (e.g. where there is a good description of a suspect or vehicle available).

DIFFICULT: Speculative lines of enquiry, whereby the chances of identifying the offender are not good, but there is evidence which needs pursuing, which could advance the investigation.

VERY DIFFICULT: Very little useable evidence, lines of enquiry restricted with little chance of detecting the offender.

(ALMOST) No evidence, other than the complaint of detecting
IMPOSSIBLE: the offender.

14. The 'case screening' decision

14.1 The figures should be multiplied and if the resulting score is 8 or over an investigation should result. Many of the categories will apply to reported crimes without difficulty when analysed in conjunction with the case screening factors shown in the right hand column of the Crime Complaint and initial investigation report. Where the appropriate score is not apparent, the professional judgement of the case screener is important, and it is here that the additional factors will be useful. Factors such as the status of the loser may increase or decrease the seriousness score.

Any crime that scores less than 8 will be screened out unless there are good reasons for continuing the enquiry upon the opinion of either the investigating officer or the case screener.

14.2 It is appreciated that the exercise may appear to be a difficult one. The rationale we should follow is to be objective, and take account of the intuitive feelings we have today about report crime and test them against the seriousness and solvability factors. We know that nobody is a Sherlock Holmes, and neither are they expected to be so. The object is to prevent the unnecessary use of valuable resources, and maximise them where their utility will best be realised. Finally, but not least, as with any investigation the victim of the crime must, as always, be afforded the courtesy and assurances that we have always endeavoured to provide.

15. Who case-screens ?

15.1 The case-screening will be carried out by the reporting officer's immediate supervisor and this can include acting ranks. The vast majority of screening decisions will be made by Sergeants. A Patrol Sergeant, for example, will be responsible for the screening of crimes being dealt with by officers of his section. A Detective Sergeant will be responsible for screening those crimes initially attended by his Detective Constable. The screening can only take place after the initial enquiries have been completed. The Sergeant WILL decide whether to continue and investigate or to file a crime as undetected.

15.2 There will be occasions when a Senior Officer disagrees with the decision of the case screener. This is a part of normal supervision and the Bayes Crime Project should not affect this normal aspect of the way the Force operates, particularly where the senior officer requires clarification of some of the investigation (e.g. to discuss whether some particular line of enquiry has been considered).

16. Miscellaneous

16.1 The success or otherwise of the whole project depends upon the correct completion of the correct forms. When the computer is installed its usefulness will be negated by poor information. Officers are asked to approach the project with an open mind and do what they can to evaluate its usefulness by ensuring that the data is relevant and complete.

It is very important that we get the paper system right, with the help of all users in the trial Divisions, before the computers are introduced in September/October 1987.

The computers will only be available in Divisional Headquarters, in limited locations (CID Admin, L.I.O. and Crime Intelligence) for the duration of the experiment. The success or otherwise of the experiment will shape future developments.

APPENDIX 9

DETECTIVES - QUESTIONNAIRE

The attached questionnaire is concerned solely with the crime of residential burglary. It is being distributed on a forcewide basis with the purpose of pooling detectives' expert knowledge of the crime.

The questionnaire consists of a series of statements concerning the main elements of the crime of residential burglary. The statements have been formulated by a small group of detective constables and sergeants drawn from all divisions of the force. You are asked to circle your agreement or disagreement with each statement using a scale of 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree).

The questionnaire should be worked through quickly as it is an immediate reaction to each statement which is required.

Comments on particular statements, or any other additional points you may wish to make, are welcome.

Questionnaires should be returned by 15th August 1987.

SELECTIVITY AND SPECIALISATION

1	A high class burglar will only select premises likely to contain the type of property he is after.	1	2	3	4	5
2	High class burglars know what property they are after and are not diverted into taking any other property.	1	2	3	4	5
3	A burglar will repeat a successful M.O.	1	2	3	4	5
4	A unique MO may be altered following detection	1	2	3	4	5
5	Climbing breaks are usually committed by loners.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Climbing is a very constant MO.	1	2	3	4	5
7	An opportunist burglar is likely to be deterred by an obvious alarm system.	1	2	3	4	5
8	An alarm system may advertise high value property.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Preparation of exit or securing premises against disturbance indicates a lengthy criminal history.	1	2	3	4	5
10	TVs and videos stolen suggests thefts to order.	1	2	3	4	5
11	An experienced burglar will specialise in one type of premises.	1	2	3	4	5
12	High class burglaries are usually committed in daylight.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Planned and early disposal of property indicates good class travelling criminals	1	2	3	4	5
14	An offender may adopt the successful MO of his associates.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Selectivity of goods taken or ignored suggests knowledge of property.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Repeat breaks suggest knowledge of previous breaks or associates passing such knowledge.	1	2	3	4	5

VULNERABILITY OF TARGET

1	In the daytime, urban premises are as vulnerable as detached rural premises.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Council estates are NOT generally more vulnerable to offences committed by their residents.	1	2	3	4	5
3	House burglaries normally occur in the mid afternoon onwards.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Few burglaries occur after 10 pm	1	2	3	4	5
5	Mid to good class houses are most vulnerable	1	2	3	4	5
6	Houses without cover are less vulnerable	1	2	3	4	5
7	Bedsits are extremely vulnerable	1	2	3	4	5
8	Good class burglars do not attack bedsits	1	2	3	4	5
9	Ease of access increases vulnerability	1	2	3	4	5
10	The quality of the premises indicates the quality of the burglar	1	2	3	4	5
11	Older houses are more vulnerable	1	2	3	4	5
12	Houses with elderly occupants are more vulnerable	1	2	3	4	5
13	CROs do not burgle each others' property	1	2	3	4	5
14	Seclusion makes property more vulnerable	1	2	3	4	5

AGILITY AND BUILD

1	Burglars tend to be reasonably fit	1	2	3	4	5
2	Fat burglars are rare	1	2	3	4	5
3	A small point of entry indicates either a juvenile or someone of considerable experience	1	2	3	4	5
4	Agile offenders tend to do more difficult burglaries	1	2	3	4	5
5	Climbers come from the younger age group	1	2	3	4	5

TYPE OF PROPERTY TAKEN (NOT TAKEN)

1	In general, juveniles do not take videos/ TV/high-class jewellery.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Juveniles tend to take 'shiny' objects of no real value.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Property stolen selectively points to an offender with a criminal history.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Burglars who steal items at random have not planned the burglary	1	2	3	4	5
5	Selected high value items indicate a high class offender.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Antiques are taken by good class travelling criminals.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Quantity may indicate vehicle or/and accomplices.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Bulky items are normally taken on night-time offences.	1	2	3	4	5

AGE GROUP/EXPERIENCE, HISTORY

1	Most burglars are unemployed	1	2	3	4	5
2	The majority of burglars are teenagers	1	2	3	4	5
3	Burglars are not first time offenders	1	2	3	4	5
4	Burglars tend to copy the MO of other family members	1	2	3	4	5
5	Teenagers are unlikely to commit breaks on good class property	1	2	3	4	5
6	Burglars seldom commit public order offences	1	2	3	4	5
7	Burglars commit most other offences	1	2	3	4	5
8	Burglars usually have a history of traffic offences	1	2	3	4	5
9	A first time burglar is likely to commit a joint offence	1	2	3	4	5
10	Teenagers are opportunist burglars	1	2	3	4	5
11	Young offenders do not tend to travel	1	2	3	4	5

TYPE OF TRANSPORT

1	Stolen vehicles are seldom used in burglaries	1	2	3	4	5
2	High class burglars may obtain hired vehicles using a driving licence which is reported as stolen or accomplice's driving licence which is then reported as lost or stolen.	1	2	3	4	5
3	High class burglars use public transport (railway or taxi often used).	1	2	3	4	5
4	Burglars tend to have a rapid turnover of vehicles	1	2	3	4	5
5	Urban burglars feel safer on foot	1	2	3	4	5
6	If a taxi is used the offender is likely to know the driver.	1	2	3	4	5
7	CROs tend to like Fords	1	2	3	4	5
8	Plymouth offenders use taxis to commit burglaries.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Hire vans are often used to transport property out of the area.	1	2	3	4	5

SOPHISTICATION OF ENTRY

1	Well planned or unusual entry indicates a good class offender.	1	2	3	4	5
2	It is rare for the entry point to be used for the exit.	1	2	3	4	5
3	More than one entry point suggests more than one offender.	1	2	3	4	5
4	An 'excuse' entry by children usually indicates gypsies	1	2	3	4	5
5	All burglars use the easiest route for entry	1	2	3	4	5
6	Clumsy form of entry indicates drink	1	2	3	4	5
7	More than one entry point suggests a lack of experience	1	2	3	4	5
8	Deception of householder points to a travelling criminal	1	2	3	4	5
9	Deception involving local charity suggests local offender	1	2	3	4	5
10	An offender entering premises by deception of householder is likely to be a travelling criminal.	1	2	3	4	5

TYPE OF SEARCH

1	A tidy search may indicate a good professional criminal	1	2	3	4	5
2	A regulated search, looking for specific items is unlikely to be committed by a novice	1	2	3	4	5
3	An extensive search suggests offender could not find specific property	1	2	3	4	5
4	Untidy search indicates inexperience or nervousness	1	2	3	4	5
5	Ransacking indicates juveniles	1	2	3	4	5
6	Expertise in methodical searching is quickly gained	1	2	3	4	5
7	Wanton damage may indicate juveniles	1	2	3	4	5

EXTENT OF SEARCH

1	Property stolen from a specific place with minimal search indicates the offender had knowledge of the premises	1	2	3	4	5
2	The type of property stolen is a better indicator of offender than extent of search	1	2	3	4	5
3	A very thorough search may suggest more than one offender	1	2	3	4	5
4	A full search suggests lack of knowledge of premises	1	2	3	4	5
5	Search of bedroom only, suggests jewellery or cash as the object	1	2	3	4	5
6	The extent of a lengthy search may indicate the length of time spent on the premises	1	2	3	4	5
7	The extent of the search may indicate the time of day that the offence was committed.	1	2	3	4	5

ACCOMPLICES

1	Lone offenders normally continue to offend alone	1	2	3	4	5
2	Offenders who use accomplices do not turn into lone offenders	1	2	3	4	5
3	Offenders keep the same accomplices	1	2	3	4	5
4	Accomplices tend to spend leisure time together	1	2	3	4	5
5	Accomplices are normally of the same sex, ethnic background and age group	1	2	3	4	5
6	Juveniles seldom commit burglaries alone	1	2	3	4	5
7	Juveniles tend to swap or recruit new accomplices	1	2	3	4	5
8	Lone offenders are more proficient	1	2	3	4	5
9	If more than two accomplices, one acts as 'look out'	1	2	3	4	5
10	A team of three or more will use a vehicle	1	2	3	4	5
11	Bulky items missing usually involves a team	1	2	3	4	5
12	The main recruiting grounds for accomplices are pubs, schools and prison	1	2	3	4	5

OBNOXIOUS BEHAVIOUR

1	Defecating on premises is a constant M.O.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Graffiti is often a good clue in identifying offender(s)	1	2	3	4	5
3	Obnoxious behaviour towards aggrieved may indicate knowledge of aggrieved	1	2	3	4	5
4	An offender who sorts through knickers or masturbates or looks for personal items may have previous for sexual offences or knowledge of occupant	1	2	3	4	5
5	Any obnoxious behaviour may simply be due to drink/drugs, nervousness or unstable character	1	2	3	4	5

DRINK/DRUGS

1	Drug users do not travel far to commit burglaries	1	2	3	4	5
2	Drug users tend to travel to dispose of property	1	2	3	4	5
3	Drug users are likely to dispose of property through fences	1	2	3	4	5
4	Unnecessary violence indicates drink or drugs	1	2	3	4	5
5	Illogical MO or unnecessary bravado may indicate drink or drugs	1	2	3	4	5
6	Drug users tend to commit burglaries alone	1	2	3	4	5
7	Drug users committing crime are usually under 30 years of age	1	2	3	4	5
8	Offender injuring himself during break may indicate the influence of drink or drugs	1	2	3	4	5
9	Drug users are less predictable in their MO than other groups	1	2	3	4	5
10	Drug dependency is a major cause of crime	1	2	3	4	5
11	Offender sleeping on premises indicates alcohol	1	2	3	4	5
12	Urinating on premises may indicate drunkenness	1	2	3	4	5
13	Drinking on premises may point to dependency	1	2	3	4	5
14	Burglars frequently drink before committing crime	1	2	3	4	5
15	Drug users commit crime in the early hours of the morning	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX 10

LAP COMPUTER EXPERIMENT - QUESTIONNAIRE

ORAL QUESTION

Briefly, judging by what you've heard so far, what do you think of the lap computer experiment?

ANSWER - tape recorded, salient comments for colouring report.

EXPLANATION - Read to officer

During the experiment, area car drivers will use small computers (approx. 3 1/2 lbs. weight) instead of forms (previously notebooks) for reporting and recording crime.

The machine will prompt the officer for the information required and will only accept suitable responses keyed in by the officer. On return to the station the information will be unloaded from the lap machine to the station computer, which will generate any necessary paperwork and record offence details.

QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Lap computer introduction should mean less paperwork
2. Computers are cumbersome objects to carry around
3. I am concerned that the computer may be lost, stolen or damaged
4. Accuracy will be improved with computers
5. Lap computers are impractical for police work
6. Crime reporting using a computer keyboard is too time consuming
7. Computer use will improve the professional image of police work
8. Computers cannot be trusted for crime reporting without written back-up
9. Errors will increase with computer use
10. Lap computers can improve efficiency
11. The computers will simplify the preparation of crime reports
12. Field use of computers will improve police morale
13. The legibility of reports will improve with computer use
14. The problem is, most policemen are not computer buffs
15. Policemen's lack of keyboard skills is a major problem
16. Using a computer during an interview situation will be too impersonal
17. The Lap should be programmed to cover the form 72e (RTA) function
18. To be of real practical use the Lap should eventually cover most frequently used forms
19. The Lap computer should include a built-in printer
20. A major advantage of the Lap is the screen prompt/reminder feature

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Police 82 (BBC TV)
Professionals (ITV)
Quincy (ITV)
Rockcliffe's Babies (BBC TV)
Softly Softly (BBC TV)
Starsky and Hutch (BBC TV)
Sweeney (Thames Television, ITV)
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