

A Critical Analysis of the Professionalisation of Investigation Programme at Investigative Level 2 in North West of England Police Forces

by

Stephen J. RILEY

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment for the requirements for the degree of
Master of Philosophy, at the University of Central Lancashire

August 2020

STUDENT DECLARATION FORM

Type of Award

MPhil

School

Forensic and Applied Sciences

*Sections marked * delete as appropriate*

1. Concurrent registration for two or more academic awards

Either *I declare that while registered as a candidate for the research degree, I have not been a registered candidate or enrolled student for another award of the University or other academic or professional institution

2. Material submitted for another award

Either *I declare that no material contained in the thesis has been used in any other submission for an academic award and is solely my own work

3. Collaboration

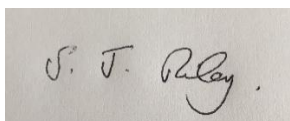
Where a candidate's research programme is part of a collaborative project, the thesis must indicate in addition clearly the candidate's individual contribution and the extent of the collaboration. Please state below:

N/A

4. Use of a Proof-reader

*No proof-reading service was used in the compilation of this thesis.

Signature of Candidate

A rectangular box containing a handwritten signature in dark ink. The signature appears to be "S. J. Riley" written in a cursive, slightly stylized script.

Print name:

Stephen J. RILEY

Abstract

In 2004, the Association of Chief Police Officers (ACPO) and the Home Office were faced with a large body of evidence proving it was necessary to improve the way in which the police conduct criminal investigations in England and Wales. In an attempt to professionalise investigations, the Professionalising Investigation (PIP) was commissioned. PIP comprises four distinct investigative levels from PIP 1, the investigation of volume crime through to PIP 4, the strategic management of complex crime. This thesis explores the effectiveness of PIP at Investigative Level 2. The route for an investigator to becoming qualified to operate at PIP Investigative level 2 is the Initial Criminal Investigators Development Programme (ICIDP). To date, investigative training programmes including ICIDP are poorly researched. This programme of research deployed a qualitative methodology to give voice to senior police managers as to their understanding of ICIDP and to ascertain the effectiveness of ICIDP from the perception of the trainee investigators undertaking the PIP 2 qualification. The study selected two cohorts of respondents, namely a cohort of senior police officers in two North West police forces and a cohort of trainee investigators in the process of completing PIP at Investigative level 2. The collected data was analysed by way of thematic analysis. The programme of research adds insight to the subject. The study suggests that the PIP Level 2 programme is effective in the context of the trainee investigator operating in an overt generalised reactive context. The study recognises research limitations in the context of ostensibly small sample sizes and potential for researcher bias. The programme of research recommends that the police service considers a more modular approach to PIP Level 2 to take account of covert and specialised investigative roles.

Table of Contents

Abstract		4
Table of Contents		5
Acknowledgements		6
List of Figures		7
Glossary of Terms		8
Chapter 1.	Introduction	10
Chapter 2.	Literature Review	18
	Section 1.	19
	Section 2.	25
	Section 3.	28
	Section 4.	43
	Section 5.	52
	Section 6.	55
Chapter 3.	Methodology	91
	Section 1.	91
	Section 2.	100
	Section 3.	102
	Section 4.	111
	Section 5.	114
Chapter 4.	Results	119
	Section 1.	119
	Section 2.	129
Chapter 5.	Discussion	140
Chapter 6.	Recommendations	154
	Section 1.	154
	Section 2.	157
References		163
Appendix 1.	Overview of ICIDP Process	183
Appendix 2.	Ethical Approval Letter	192
Appendix 3.	Participant Information and Consent	193

Acknowledgements

This programme of research would not have been possible without the cooperation and patience over several years of the Investigative Training Departments of Greater Manchester Police and Merseyside Police.

Thanks are due to my primary supervisor Dr. Jo Bryce who, despite unforeseen adversity did her best to advise and guide me.

The project would not have taken place without the unfaltering support of my wife and children. My wife Brenda having nursed me through the trauma suffered in a road traffic accident in 2016; kept me motivated to complete the project in the face of a series of complicated personal challenges.

List of Figures

Figure 1. Criminal Act Continuum – The Proactive and Reactive Position.	
Adapted from Kuykendall, 1982	23
Figure 2. Brodeur Typologies of Investigation – (adapted by O’Neill, 2018)	24
Figure 3. O’Neill’s Dimensions of Criminal Investigation. (O’Neill, 2018: 9)	24
Figure 4. Process of Investigation Diagram (College of Policing, 2017) Developed From: The Stages of Criminal Investigation (ACPO, 2005)	30
Figure 5. Basic Gap Analysis – (ACPO, 2012)	36
Figure 6. National Decision Model. College of Policing, 2014	42
Figure 7. Constable Progression 1975 – 1990: Adapted from (Merseyside Police Archive)	62
Figure. 8. Kolb Learning Cycle - Processing and Perception Continuums.	68
Figure 9. Adapted from Honey and Mumford Learning Styles.	70
Figure 10. Residential Investigator Training Initial Investigators Course Plan: Adapted from National Crime Faculty /Central Planning Unit (1995)	73
Figure 11. Trainer Selection and Progress Description, adapted from CPU /NPT	74
Figure 12. ISP Timescales	88
Figure 13. Rank and Disposition of Participants Sample 1.	105
Figure 14. Rank and Disposition of Sample 2	108
Figure 15. Adapted from Gallais (2008) Relevant dates and Researcher Change in Stance	113
Figure 16. Adapted from Gallais (2008) Insider / Outside Research Continuum	113
Figure 17. Example of Code from Data Extract Sample 2	117
Figure 18. Themes and Sub-themes: Sample 2.	130
Figure 19. Themes emerging from the two strands of research.	139
Figure 20. Overarching or Metathemes	140

Glossary of Terms

ACPO	Association of Chief Police Officers
APCC	Association of Police and Crime Commissioners
APP	Authorised Professional Practice
CID	Criminal Investigation Department
CPU	Central Planning Unit
CI	Cognitive Interview
CoP	College of Policing
CPIA	Criminal Procedure and Investigation Act 1996
CPS	Crown Prosecution Service
CPU	Central Planning Unit
ECHR	European Court of Human Rights
HMIC	Her Majesty's Inspector of Constabulary
HMICFRS	Her Majesty's Inspector of Constabulary Fire and Rescue Service
ICF	Integrated Competency Framework
ICIDP	Initial Crime Investigators Development Programme
IPCC	Independent Police Complaints Commission
ISP	Implementation Support Plan
LSI	Learning Styles Inventory
LSQ	Learning Styles Questionnaire
NCA	National Crime Agency
NCPE	National Centre for Policing Excellence
NDM	National Decision Model
NIE	National Investigators Examination
NPCC	National Police Chiefs Council
NPIA	National Policing Improvement Agency
NPT	National Police Training
PACE	Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984
PCC	Police and Crime Commissioner
PEQF	Police Education Qualifications Framework

PIP	Professionalising Investigation Programme
PPF	Policing Professional Framework
PSSO	Police Skills and Standards Organisation
RIPA	Regulation of Investigatory Powers Act 2000
SIO	Senior Investigating Officer
TA	Thematic Analysis

Chapter 1: Introduction

The literature in the context of the effectiveness of Professionalising Investigation Programme (PIP) at Investigative Level 2 whilst sparse, offers a rationale for the development of PIP in the context of professionalisation (Stelfox, 2007:2009). There is little or no data within the extant literature analysing the level of understanding of senior police officers in the context of the effectiveness of PIP at Investigative Level 2. There is also no data analysing the understanding of senior police officers in the context of the effectiveness of the Initial Crime Investigators Development Programme (ICIDP). Similarly there is little or no data as to the perceptions of trainee investigators undertaking the ICIDP in order to gain the qualification to operate at PIP Investigative level 2. James & Mills (2012) in examining PIP as a template for police professionalisation conclude that much more research is needed to satisfy an objective observer that PIP in the broader sense has proved its worth or has changed policing in a meaningful way.

The aim of this chapter is to provide the introductory context to the more detailed narrative and analysis provided in the thesis. This chapter will explain the nature of Professionalising Investigation Programme PIP and the detail of PIP at Investigative Level 2. Following an explanation of the aim and objectives of the programme of research, the chapter will conclude with an overview of the forthcoming chapters within the thesis.

The overarching aim of this thesis is to determine the effectiveness of the Initial Crime Investigators Development Programme (ICIDP) in providing the knowledge and skills required by the investigator in the context of serious and complex crime investigation in two northwest police forces. In essence, the thesis will explore the question; is the programme fit for purpose? In order to achieve the aim, the thesis aims to examine the following objectives:

1. Critically analyse the perceptions and understandings of senior police officers in two North West police forces in the context of PIP at Investigative level 2.
2. Critically analyse the perceptions of candidates for PIP at Investigative level 2 in two North West police forces in the context of the level of knowledge and skills required by investigators within the investigative framework.

During this study, the policing landscape has undergone wide and varied change and government driven austerity measures have resulted in swingeing cuts to the public sector. In 2017/2018, net expenditure on police services in England and Wales has seen a reduction of 18% since 2009 / 2010 (Institute for Government, 2018). Police forces have been responsible for the implementation of spending reductions with no single approach mandated by government (Institute for Government, 2018). At the end of March 2018, there were 15% fewer police officers than in March 2010 (Institute for Government, 2018). The decline in police numbers has reversed the expansion of police forces during the 2000's. This means that by 2016, there were fewer police officers in England and Wales than there were in the late 1990's. Her Majesty's Inspector of Constabulary Fire and Rescue Service, (HMICFRS 2017) for the first time warned of a national crisis in the shortage of detectives and investigators in many forces. Despite major change in the context of legislation and policing procedure, PIP has undergone little in the way of change for almost 15 years (PIP Policy, 2017). In order to make sense of the many changes in policing in England and Wales, the programme of research visits each theme and seeks to provide insight and explanation of the reported changes in policing in the context of PIP at Investigative Level 2.

Having obtained full ethical approval for the programme of research, arrangements were made to recruit research participants within two North West of England Police forces. A detailed explanation of the recruitment process for participants is provided in Chapter 3. Participants were recruited by

way of a broker, namely an Assistant Chief Constable of one of the two police forces. The police forces were selected as they were within manageable travelling distance for researcher, this was important as the researcher was balancing the part time programme of research with a full-time workload in higher education. In order to meet the objectives of the programme of research, it was necessary to arrange research access to dedicated investigators and senior officers. The programme of research was considered as both interesting and useful to both police forces. It was agreed that access be afforded to a sample group of senior officers responsible for the strategic direction of investigation, and a larger group of dedicated investigators operating at PIP Investigative Level 2. All of the dedicated investigators were within the Initial Crime Investigators Development Programme (ICIDP). The programme of research used a qualitative methodology to obtain a deeper insight into the thoughts and feelings of the participants in the context of PIP Investigative Level 2. The researcher completed a series of semi-structured interviews. Following transcription, the resultant themes of research were coded and thematically analysed.

Emerging themes from the current programme of research illustrate several contexts, the understanding of the investigative mind-set, the validity of training materials, shortfalls in the PIP Level 2 process and the generalist nature of the Initial Crime Investigators Development Programme (ICIDP). The aim of the programme of research was to qualitatively evaluate the effectiveness of the PIP Level 2 programme in two police forces. The programme of research gave a voice to trainees who undertook the programme rather than those tasked with delivering the programme and will provide an evaluation and analysis of ICIDP which underpins PIP at Investigative Level 2.

What is the Professionalising of Investigation Programme (PIP).

The performance of the police around investigation is continually under scrutiny by government, the criminal justice system, and the media. There is widespread recognition within the police service that there is a need to improve the professionalism of the investigative response. To be effective, the investigator must develop the ability to make reliable and accountable decisions. This may often be under pressure or in difficult circumstances.

(PIP Implementation Support Plan 2006:7)

The above quote is taken from the preface of Practice Advice on Core Investigative Doctrine (Second Edition) originally drafted in 2005. It is important to note, that at the outset of the programme of research, trainees would use hard copy editions of the Core Investigative Doctrine. The development by the College of Policing of Authorised Professional Practice (APP) provides the facility for trainees to access interactive online versions all investigative doctrine and procedural documents (College of Policing 2013). The publication provided definitive national guidance for all investigators as defined by the Professionalising Investigation Programme PIP on the key principles of criminal investigation. The Police Reform Act 2002 and the Police Reform White Paper (2001) highlighted the need for the Police Service in England and Wales to professionalise all aspects of police investigations to address issues such as inconsistent standards of investigation, failing community confidence in the police, high attrition rates, and the lack of benchmarked standards in policing. The Professionalising Investigation Programme was the response of the Association of Chief Police Officers and the Home Office to this challenge (McGrory & Treacy, 2009). From its introduction, in 2003, PIP was led by the National Policing Crime Business Area, and had as its vision:

“To deliver a professional, ethical and effective investigation capability for policing in the 21st Century providing robust national bench marked standards maintained and overseen by a Professional Policing Institute”

(College of Policing, 2017:1)

The overarching aim of PIP is that the relevant registration, examination training, workplace assessment and accreditation is delivered to a national standard at each level of investigative practice. Through the PIP process, the individual must achieve the experience, skills, and accreditation before being able to progress to the next level (NPIA, 2008). Simply arranging attendance by an individual on a training course does not give them the knowledge, understanding or skills to be an investigator (College of Policing, 2014). PIP has ensured that the investigative discipline has been at the forefront of professionalism within policing, leading to improvement in the overall quality of investigation (O’Neill, 2011). PIP was developed not simply as a training programme; PIP is in effect a structured

framework running through every aspect of investigation to improve the professional competence of all police officers and staff (College of Policing 2014)

Criminal investigation figures extensively in government policy, in the media, and in the public imagination (Newburn 2009). Police training, specifically, detective, or investigative training has not been subject to any significant independent research (Tong, 2009). The most recent evaluation of PIP included an evaluation of the Initial Crime Investigators Programme, [the development of this programme is detailed in Chapter 2 and Appendix 1]. One of the strategic principles of the evaluation was to analyse the consistency of training and learning. The training programme was deemed sound and fit for purpose (College of Policing, 2014). Police training has remained an insular practice until relatively recently, and the literature on the subject is scarce (Allard, 1997; O'Neill, 2011). The paucity of scholarly research around PIP (James & Mills, 2012) provides an opportunity to bring forward further evidence as to the effectiveness of the PIP programme in the context of improving the skills and knowledge of the investigator of serious and complex crime. The literature in the context of investigative skills training and investigative management training is limited. Procedural literature in the context of investigation is no longer published by ACPO. All procedural literature is published and managed by the College of Policing knowledge repository; within Approved Professional Practice (APP). The development of the College of Policing and Approved Professional Practice is outlined in Chapter 2 of the thesis.

Confusion can arise with the terms; professionalise investigation programme and professionalisation of policing (Stelfox, 2009). The Professionalising Investigation Programme, PIP is distinct from the professionalisation of policing debate. The professionalisation of policing debate explores a professional body for policing providing a single source for definition and dissemination of policing standards (Neyroud, 2011). Professionalisation of policing has been in a state of flux for over twenty years (Neyroud, 2011). However, PIP was not designed as a programme to bring about police

professionalisation. PIP is the improvement of the competence of police officers and staff who are tasked with conducting investigations (NPIA, 2008). Stelfox (2009) observed that there was disagreement on the general meaning of the terms professional and professionalism in the general literature, and that the phrases in policing were usually 'shorthand' for training and development of staff. Chatterton (2008:104) argued that although the programme was considered a key feature of the Home Office police reform agenda, PIP was in danger of becoming a 'rhetorical device' suggesting a commitment to change that in reality was absent. PIP may be useful for persuading the Government that radical steps are being made by the service to improve investigative methods and outcomes, but it will fail to deliver the scale of change required to ensure significant improvements in criminal investigation (Chatterton 2008:83-84). However, it must be noted that Chatterton's findings in the context of PIP were published in January 2008, whilst ACPO had agreed that PIP was to be a three-phase process to be completed by March 2009 (ACPO, 2006).

The lack of independent scrutiny of the PIP project is not surprising given its scope, size and complexity (James and Mills, 2012). The lack of independent research limits the analysis of the impact of PIP on contemporary investigative practice (Tong, 2009). The paucity of scholarly research on PIP resulted in speculation as to the effectiveness of the PIP programme in the overall context of police change (James and Mills, 2012).

Programme of Research – Thesis Overview and Structure

Chapter 2. Literature Review

The aim of the literature review is to set the context and the baseline from which the performance of ICIDP underpinning PIP Level 2 will be judged. This chapter will be in six sections. The first section defines criminal investigation to establish what it is and whether the concept has changed over time. In this it will examine conceptual models of investigation. The second section examines the theoretical framework of criminal investigation in the light of contemporary research. The third section commences with an examination of the investigative process as laid down by the College of Policing and discusses initial investigation and investigative and evidential evaluation. Once this understanding of criminal investigation is provided, the fourth section looks at the historical context of criminal investigation in England and Wales. The fifth section provides an analysis of current discussion surrounding the disclosure of investigative material and looks more closely at the critical stages of investigation to give the reader an understanding as to what standards need to be established. The final section examines developments in the context of investigative training, introduces PIP and explain its purpose.

Chapter 3. Methodology

The aim of this chapter is to explain the research design and data collection methods that were adopted during the programme of research. This chapter is in four sections. The first section of the chapter restates the research objectives and following a discussion regarding the strengths and weaknesses of several approaches to research, explains why a particular methodology was chosen for the thesis. The second section of the chapter provides a detailed outline as to the sampling strategy to select the participants in the study and highlights the uniqueness of the participant

sample. The third section provides a reflective exploration of insider - outsider distinctions in the context of the researcher and participants potential biases and particular researcher experiences in the researched area. The final section of the chapter examines the collection of the data and the mechanics of the thematic analysis.

Chapter 4. Results

The aim of this chapter is to articulate the findings of the thematic analysis of the data generated by a series of qualitative research interviews. The chapter is in two sections. The first section presents the data generated from Sample 1 which comprised a group of senior police officers. The second section presents the data generated by Sample 2 which comprised a group of trainee investigators undertaking the ICIDP process. The data in this chapter are presented within the categories of the themes. The themes resulting from the analysis of the data are articulated and then supported by a series of quotations taken from the results of the analysis of the themes. The chapter concludes with a distillation of themes resulting from the analytical process into meta or overarching themes.

Chapter 5. Discussion

The purpose of this chapter to examine the significance of the programme of research in the light of the previous literature. In order to achieve the purpose, the chapter will discuss the four metathemes or overarching themes distilled from the emerging themes from the two strands of research. Each of the overarching themes together when necessary with the associated themes are discussed in turn.

Chapter 6. Recommendations

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the limitations of the study and put forward a series of recommendations for the college of Policing and future research.

Chapter 2. Literature Review

Introduction

Professionalising investigations conducted by the police service in England and Wales is fundamental to a safer society. It affects public confidence in policing agencies and determines their effectiveness in tackling crime once it has been committed. Investigators require the knowledge and skills appropriate to the requirements of their role. In order to evaluate the effectiveness of a programme intended to bring about the professionalising of investigation, it is necessary to examine criminal investigation and investigative training.

The aim of this literature review is to set the context and the baseline from which the performance of ICIDP underpinning PIP Level 2 will be judged. This chapter will be in six sections. The first section will define criminal investigation to establish what it is and whether the concept has changed over time. This section will examine conceptual models of investigation. The second section will examine the theoretical framework of criminal investigation in the light of contemporary research. The third section will commence with an examination of the investigative process as laid down by the College of Policing, discussing initial investigation and investigative and evidential evaluation. Once this understanding of criminal investigation is provided, the fourth section will look at the historical context of criminal investigation in England and Wales. This will establish a context and baseline in relation to standards of investigation and examine historical concerns associated with the investigation of serious and complex crime. The fifth section will provide an analysis of the current discussions surrounding the disclosure of investigative material and look more closely at the critical stages of investigation to give the reader an understanding as to what standards need to be established. The final section will examine developments in the context of investigative training, introduce PIP and explain its purpose. This section will comprise several sub-sections.

Section 1. Criminal Investigation – Definition

Defining the term criminal investigation is not straightforward. Contributors to the body of literature compete to arrive at a cogent definition. O'Neill, (2018) identifies different perspectives in attempts to define the term, criminal investigation, arguing that; "some attempt to describe it in terms of what it is, and others as to what it ought to be" (O'Neill, 2018:10). McBarnet (1981) stated that as soon as someone is suspected of being responsible for a crime, the investigation becomes a search for information to support that suspicion rather than an objective investigation. Eck (1983) points out general patterns common to investigations outlining a shift of investigative focus from victim to suspect as information became available. Moreover, Maguire and Norris (1992) assert that criminal investigations are characterised by case construction rather than truth finding. Brown (2001) argues that criminal investigation is the most complex area of law enforcement requiring highly trained investigators with the relevant skills and abilities to build a case that may be successfully prosecuted. Emsley and Shpayer-Makov (2006) argue that an investigation takes place when police officers gathers information and evidence about offences against the law, detect and apprehend the offenders and present this to the courts. Stelfox (2008) states criminal investigation is "an information processing activity involving the application of a range of techniques to identify offenders, gather the evidence needed to bring them to justice" (Stelfox, 2008:303). However, the legislative context of criminal investigation for England and Wales is laid out in the Criminal Procedure and Investigations Act 1996 (CPIA, 1996).

Within the associated Code of Practice, a criminal investigation is defined as:

"An investigation conducted by police officers with a view to it being ascertained whether a person should be charged with an offence, or whether a person charged with an offence is guilty of it" (Criminal Procedure and Investigations Act, 1996) (CPIA, 1996): Section 23(1):4.

The legislative definition of criminal investigation comprises three distinct areas. Firstly, investigations into crimes that have been committed. Secondly, investigations whose purpose is to ascertain

whether a crime has been committed. Thirdly, investigations, which begin in the belief that a crime may be committed (CPIA, 1996). All investigations are pursued with a view to the possible institution of criminal proceedings. While the legislative definition refers specifically to criminal investigations, the principles set out apply equally to other types of investigations, e.g. road traffic matters, antisocial behaviour, professional standards enquiries, or investigations (CPIA, 1996). An investigation commences when an allegation of an offence is made or is suspected (ACPO, 2005). In addition, PIP recognises that investigations support risk management, safeguard the public, disrupt criminality, and reduce reoffending (College of Policing 2017). Brodeur (2010) argues that criminal investigation is a quest for information that can be used as court evidence to secure a conviction. Brodeur (2010) further argues that this orientation of criminal investigation, namely that which proceeds 'from the commission of a crime' as the most unquestioned assumption of investigative research.

CPIA (1996) sets the standard for the conduct of criminal investigations and the recording and disclosure of evidence (ACPO, 2005; ACPO, 2012; O'Neill, 2018). In addition to any enquiry being fair, CPIA is clear that evidentially gathered material must be available to all sides of the criminal justice process. CPIA (1996) is centred on the belief of staged disclosure of investigative material (Langdon-Down, 1999). CPIA Code of Practice under Part II the Criminal Procedure and Investigations Act, (CPIA) 1996 defines material as:

"Material is material of any kind, including information and objects which is obtained during a criminal investigation and may be relevant to the investigation which appears to have some bearing on any offence under investigation or any person being investigated or on the surrounding circumstances..." (CPIA 1996 Code of Practice Part II)

The definition of material is a little vague in the context of the use of the phrase "...may be..." (Tong, 2009). In effect, almost anything obtained during a criminal investigation may be considered as material (CPIA Training Notes, 1996). The gathering of investigative material is key to any investigation (ACPO, 2005). Prior to the enactment of CPIA, there was little formal regulation of the subject of unused material (Niblett, 1997). Unused material may be relevant to the investigation but does not

form part of the prosecution case. Since the enactment of CPIA, the disclosure of material has become and remains a contentious area of the criminal justice system (Phillips,2002).

CPIA Code of Practice under Part II the Criminal Procedure and Investigations Act, (CPIA) 1996 defined three distinct investigator roles and outlined the role of the prosecutor.

“...an investigator is any police officer involved in the conduct of a criminal investigation. All investigators have a responsibility for carrying out the duties imposed on them under this code, including in particular recording information, and retaining records of information and other material...” (CPIA 1996 Code of Practice Part II)

“...the officer in charge of an investigation is the police officer responsible for directing a criminal investigation. He is also responsible for ensuring that proper procedures are in place for recording information, and retaining records of information and other material, in the investigation...” (CPIA 1996 Code of Practice Part II)

“... the disclosure officer is the person responsible for examining material retained by the police during the investigation; revealing material to the prosecutor during the investigation and any criminal proceedings resulting from it, and certifying that he has done this; and disclosing material to the accused at the request of the prosecutor...”

(CPIA 1996 Code of Practice Part II)

“...the prosecutor is the authority responsible for the conduct, on behalf of the Crown, of criminal proceedings resulting from a specific criminal investigation...”

(CPIA 1996 Code of Practice Part II)

The Code of Practice (CPIA, 1996) was not without its critics. Corker (1999), provides a defence lawyers perspective of the disclosure regime created by (CPIA, 1996); labelling the legislation as an avowed attempt in the area of disclosure to sway the pendulum from the favour of the defence to the prosecution. Given the role of non-disclosure in many of the reported miscarriages of justice (Taylor,

2002), asserts it came as no surprise that the legislative context of investigative practice addressed this issue. (CPIA 1996 Code of Practice Part II) introduced a scheme of advanced disclosure which appeared at odds with the operational practices of police officers, the Crown Prosecution Service, (CPS) and defence solicitors, (Taylor, 2001). Prior to the enactment of CPIA (1996) any materials that did not assist the prosecution case would not be recorded retained or revealed to the defence (CPIA 1996 Code of Practice Part II).

(CPIA 1996 Code of Practice Part II) places an imposition upon the investigator to investigate all reasonable lines of enquiry, whether these tend to support or weaken the prosecution case (Corker, 1999). The effectiveness of the Code of Practice depends upon the integrity, ability, and conscientiousness of an investigator (Corker, 1999). Taylor (2001) poses the question, is it realistic to expect an investigator to be assiduous in carrying out the gamut of tasks of the disclosure officer, which are at their heart, pro defence orientated. Legislatively, all reasonable inquiries, whether for or against the suspect must be pursued (Home Office, 2005).

Stelfox (2009) outlines two methods of criminal investigation, reactive and proactive. The reactive method starts with the discovery of a crime and seeks to bring the offenders to justice. Whereas the proactive method usually commences with an intelligence analysis that highlights that a group or an individual is involved in criminal behaviour. The two methods of investigation may overlap as a reactive investigation may utilise proactive techniques as part of the overall investigative strategy. The two methods of investigation should not be considered as being mutually exclusive (ACPO, 2012). However, Kuykendall (1982 cited in Brodeur (2010) makes an important distinction between the proactive and reactive investigative ... '*sub-processes*'... Brodeur (2010: 187). Kuykendall, (1982) outlines a criminal act continuum to explain the proactive and reactive contexts of investigation. See Figure 1.

Figure 1. Criminal Act Continuum – The Proactive and Reactive Position.

Adapted from Kuykendall, 1982

Phase /Cycle of Criminal Act	Detail	Investigative Context
Concept & Planning Phase	Perpetrator forms the idea of a crime and commences planning	Proactive
Act, Escape and Fugitive Phase	Actual commission of a crime and usual escape of the perpetrator	Reactive
Disposal & Repeat Cycle	Disposal of fruits of the crime formation of a new criminal concept.	Reactive

Brodeur (2010) points out that there are many types of criminal investigation. Based upon empirical research conducted in Canada over a period of fourteen years to 2004, Brodeur proposes a typology of investigation introducing retrospective investigation in addition to standard reactive and proactive investigation. O'Neill (2018) provides an overview of the research conducted by Brodeur and comprehensively explains the different perspectives of investigation together with the associated characterisations of investigation. Brodeur states that the debate in the context of proactive and investigative methods neglects the context of “...*retrospective investigation*...” (Brodeur, 2010:199). The retrospective investigation aims to assess in general terms whether a past or a current event matter that is usually perceived as being innocent was in fact of a criminal nature. O'Neill (2018) considers Operation Yew Tree, the investigation into the conduct of prominent individuals as an example of a retrospective investigation (see HMIC, 2013). However, O'Neill asks the question as to whether enquiries of an historic context where the potential is offender is known merit a separate investigative label. Or are they in fact another reactive enquiry, (O'Neill, 2010: 7).

O'Neill (2018) adapts the Brodeur typology (See Figure 2). The adaption adds the category of integration. Brodeur suggests that the addition of integrated investigative method makes the typology complete

(Brodeur, 2010: 203). Integrated investigations essentially focus on a similar or the same pattern of offending behaviours where the suspicion is that of perpetration by the same suspect, or the same group of suspects.

Figure 2. Brodeur Typologies of Investigation – adapted by O’Neill, 2018

METHOD /TYPE	SUSPECT CENTRED	EVENT CENTRED	HYBRID – STATUS CENTRED
PROACTIVE	Preventative	Specific high security events	Instigation
REACTIVE	Individual	Current case solving	Post case Processing
RETROSPECTIVE	Security clearance	Assessment of suspicious events	High Profile suspect
INTEGRATED	High Profile serial investigation. Suspect known.	High Profile serial investigation.	

O’Neill (2018) analysing the U.K. context of crime categorisation in the context of Brodeur’s typologies concludes that each level of crime designation should bring a proportionate response to the level of crime being investigated. Outlining the levels of seriousness of crime, namely, volume, serious and complex and major (See Figure 3), O’Neill states that each of the dimensions illustrated in the model are reinforced with a series of practices, policies and considerations assisting in the conceptualisation of investigative practice.

Figure 3. O’Neill’s Dimensions of Criminal Investigation. (O’Neill, 2018: 9)

Method	Perspective	Seriousness
Proactive	Suspect centred	Volume
Reactive	Event Centred	Serious and complex
Retrospective	Hybrid	Major

Section 2. Criminal Investigation – Theoretical Framework

This section of the literature review will examine how recent research theorises criminal investigation. Bryant (2009) maintains that investigative models suffer a general lack of theoretical frameworks. Hallenberg (2012) agreeing with (Innes 2003 and Foster 2003) develops the perception of the public and the police service of criminal investigation as real policing carried out only by detectives, resulting in detective work being afforded high status. Barret (2009) drawing on a number of commentators states that detective work has been considered a craft or art practiced by experienced detectives who use a combination of skills learnt on the job (Hobbs, 1988; Innes, 2007; Tong & Bowling, 2006). Tong & Bowling (2006 cited in Carson, 2009) note that limited research had taken place as to how crimes were investigated. Carson (2009) examines the context of the detective, the investigator as scientist building on the assertions of the investigation being art and craft.

Criminal investigation poses a series of strategic and tactical challenges. Barrett, (2009) explores the diverse nature of detective work ranging from the investigation of volume crimes through to more serious crimes often investigated by a team of investigators in the context of major enquiries (Innes, 2002). Barrett (2009) concludes that cases that investigators are called upon to solve do not involve cognitively demanding investigative strategies and complex problem solving, but a series of straightforward procedures. Commentators in the context of criminal investigation (Reiner, 2010; Brodeur, 2010; Stelfox, 2009; Tong, 2009; Newburn et al, 2007) consider Greenwood (1979) as one of the earliest examples of cogent research in investigative practice. Greenwood (1979) undertook a nationwide study of criminal investigation practices of major metropolitan police agencies in the USA and argued that a significant number of crimes are solved with relatively little investigative effort. Maguire (2003) suggested that most detective work is routine case building against an already identified suspect. However, regardless of the routine nature of case building, the evidential case against a suspect must satisfy prosecutors and eventually a jury that the suspect did commit the offence, therefore, the detectives must be effective searchers for and receivers of information (Innes,

2003; Stelfox, 2006). However, Stelfox, (2006) stated that the work of detectives needs to be thorough, although often tortuous, such activities are not necessarily complex.

As can be seen in the previous paragraphs, research into criminal investigation theory tends to examine serious crime. However lower levels of crime are considered as volume crime. Volume crime is any crime which through its sheer volume has a significant impact on the community (ACPO, 2009).

O'Neill (2011) examines the small body of research at the level of volume crime investigation, into both the investigative task and the investigators themselves. Burrows (2008 cited in O' Neill 2011) reportedly echoes the findings of previous studies (Greenwood et al, 1979; Maguire et al 1991) stating that volume crime detection is determined by resources available to investigators. The notion that criminal investigation is solely the remit of the detective is incorrect, in fact a myth, (Stelfox 2009). Criminal offences from the least to the most serious require a range of investigative ability, therefore uniformed police officers in many instances will be the designated investigator, of volume crime (O'Neill, 2011). Innes (2002) explains that investigators are unable to use complete discretion when involved in a case. Investigative methodologies together with various investigative procedures and tactical strategies are themselves influenced by the law and legal system.

In England and Wales, police and policy makers increasingly focussed on the need to professionalise criminal investigation (Flanagan, 2008; Savage & Milne, 2007; Stelfox, 2007). The Code of Practice under part two of the legislation (CPIA, 1996, Section 23(1) revised as of March 2015) explains and codifies the way police officers are to record, retain and reveal to the prosecutor material obtained in a criminal investigation and which may be relevant to the investigation and related matters. CPIA (1996) arose from the Royal Commission on Criminal Justice in the aftermath of notorious miscarriages of justice. In 1991, Commissioners were appointed with the aim of determining the effectiveness of the criminal justice system in England and Wales. The primary objective of the Commissioners was to examine the conduct of police investigations and their supervision by senior police officers. The supervision of investigators will be examined further in the next section of the chapter. The Royal

Commission were struck by the 'disquieting' lack of professional competence in many parts of the criminal justice system and that widely publicised miscarriages of justice had created the need to restore public confidence. Runciman (1993) stated that the way criminal investigations are conducted is of critical importance to the criminal justice system. Runciman further asserted that police officers conducting investigations must be properly trained and supervised. [This area of the Royal Commission's findings in the context of investigative training will be examined in detail in the final section of this chapter]. In the context of police investigations, the Royal Commission made thirty-seven recommendations and paved the way for (CPIA 1996) and the associated Code of Practice.

The professionalisation agenda had several drivers. The flawed investigation into the murder of Stephen Lawrence in 1993 and the delays in investigating the 218 offences of murder perpetrated by Harold Shipman between 1975 and 1998 provide two examples (Barrett, 2009). Tong and Bowling (2006) highlight a series of investigative errors resulting in the collapse of criminal trials. Developments in legislation, Police and Criminal Evidence Act (PACE, 1984), the Criminal Procedure and Investigation Act (CPIA, 1996), the Human Rights Act (HRA, 1998), the Regulation of Investigatory Powers Act (RIPA, 2000) provided a solid legislative platform for investigation to take place within statutory frameworks (Stelfox, 2009). Increased scrutiny by the courts together with the professionalisation of defence solicitors (Jones, Grieve & Milne, 2008), served to raise the standard of investigation required of investigators (Barrett, 2009). To date, there appears to be little agreement on what constitutes standardised investigative practice and existing and emerging literature offers contradictory findings in the investigative context. Opinions as to the definition of criminal investigation and the skills of the investigator are wide and varied. Core Investigative Doctrine defined criminal investigation as an effective search for material to bring an offender to justice (ACPO, Centrex, 2005). However, Stelfox (2008) asserts that criminal investigation is an information processing activity and involves distinct techniques to identify an offender and bring the offender to justice. As can be seen, some instances within the literature offer subtle shades of meaning which may be of interest in the context of

semantic analysis, however, can this be accepted as being helpful in the search for a useful and workable investigative definition?

Section 3. Criminal Investigation – Process

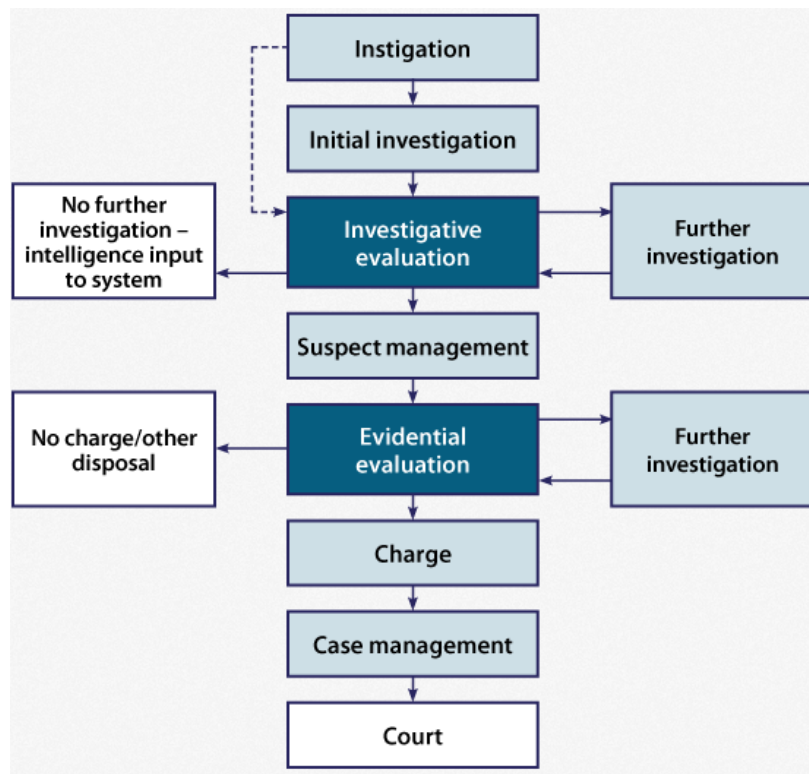
Having considered the legislative definition of criminal investigation and looked at types of investigation, it is important to make sense of the process of criminal investigation. Criminal investigation is one of the key functions of the police service, contributing to the achievement of a wide range of activities at every level of policing (Stelfox, 2008). Surprisingly, there is little academic literature regarding the investigation of serious and complex crime (Stelfox, 2006:2). A recurring concern within this literature review is the lack of cogent literature within the investigative praxis. However, criminal investigations and investigative work are frequently examined by the media, especially those resulting in failed investigation (Macpherson, 1999), and miscarriages of justice (Tong & Bowling, 2006). Commentators state that the bulk of the literature in the context of criminal investigation comprises textbooks outlining procedural issues not paying full cognisance to the theoretical context of investigative process (Palmiotto, 1994; Osterberg and Ward 2000; and Bennet and Hess (2001 cited in Brodeur 2010). Tong and Bowling (2006) in discussing public concern as to investigative errors analyse the notion of the art, craft and science of detective (Repetto, 1978; Hobbs, 1998; inter alia). Attempts have been made to contextualise criminal investigation in various narratives and forms. Despite its wide appeal and fascination spawning a plethora of documentaries, docudrama and fiction, empirical study of praxis in the context of investigation is generally limited. Exceptions to this include, Innes (1999; 2002; 2003); Brookman (2005); Brookman and Innes (2013) and Stelfox (2006).

In 2005, in an attempt to standardise investigative practice and provide useful practice advice, the Home Office produced Core Investigative Doctrine (ACPO, Centrex, 2005; Neyroud and Disley, 2007; ACPO, NPIA 2012; College of Policing, 2012). This heralded a new debate on the subject. Core

Investigative Doctrine was subsumed together with many ACPO publications into the College of Policing and the Authorised Professional Practice. Authorised Professional Practice (APP) is developed and owned by the College of Policing (the professional body for policing) and can be accessed online. APP is authorised by the College of Policing as the official source of professional practice on policing. Police officers and staff are expected to have regard to APP in discharging their responsibilities. There may, however, be circumstances when it is perfectly legitimate to deviate from (APP), provided there is a clear rationale for doing so (College of Policing, 2015). The principles detailed in (APP) on investigation and the Policing Code of Ethics should form the basis of all investigative activity, regardless of the level of seriousness or complexity. They are used as the foundation of current investigation training and development programmes (College of Policing, 2017).

Sanders (1977) considered criminal investigation in progressive pragmatic linear stages, from the establishment of a case through to disposal of a case. The key to any investigation is the early gathering of evidence (Cooke and Tattersall, 2010). A criminal investigation can be instigated using a reactive or proactive approach (Stelfox, 2009; Brodeur, 2010). Investigation can be considered as a process focussed on a search for the truth and not just the identifying of an offender (Kirby, 2013). Reactive investigation can start with reports from the public, intelligence links to a series of other crimes, reinvestigation into an existing investigation because of new information being received or because of other police actions (College of Policing, 2013). The investigative process can be outlined as several distinct elements (College of Policing, 2017a). Figure 1 provides an overview of the investigative process (ACPO, 2005; ACPO, 2012; College of Policing, 2017a). The process comprises a series of elements of investigation from the instigation of any investigation following a report, through to the charging procedure and court context. There had been little empirical research as to how and maybe more importantly why individual investigators approach the task of investigating crime, (Stelfox and Pease, 2005). This section will now focus on initial investigation, investigative evaluation and evidential evaluation.

**Figure 4. Process of Investigation Diagram (College of Policing, 2017) developed from
The Stages of Criminal Investigation (ACPO, 2005)**



The lightly shaded areas represent activities from investigative strategies, the heavily shaded areas represent the main decision points and the white sections are the outcomes that can be achieved.

The Initial Investigation

The initial investigation of the incident, giving rise to the report of a crime, requires knowledge and skill. Specific police force policy guides call takers, enquiry counter officers and patrol officers on the information they must gather and the subsequent action to take, (HMIC, 2016; HMICFRS, 2018).

When receiving reports that an offence has been committed, staff should ensure that they record, retain, and reveal all material and pass it to the investigating officer. An investigator when faced with an investigative issue has three interrelated problems to solve; what crime (if any) has been

committed; identifying and apprehending the offender; and collecting and preserving evidence in such a way that it satisfies the needs of a prosecution (Stelfox and Pease, 2005). However, cases that investigators are called upon to solve do not involve cognitively demanding investigative strategies and complex problem solving, but rather a series of uncomplicated reasonably straight forward procedures (Barrett, 2009). However, Carson (2009) argues that whilst the investigator within the science model emphasises the knowledge and skills investigators can gain, the craft model emphasises the 'distinctiveness of practical policing' (Carson, 2009:216). Kirby (2013) concurs with Carson (2009) stating that adherence to a strict investigative framework may not result in an effective investigation, as a considerable amount of expertise is needed. Knowledge, skills, and structured experience will be discussed in the final section of this chapter.

Investigators must be familiar with the investigative strategies relating to victims and witnesses as this enables them to exploit early opportunities to gather material by questioning the person reporting the crime (College of Policing (2017a). Proactive investigations can start from an intelligence report identifying groups or individuals who are assessed as being involved in ongoing criminal activity. The intelligence report will be developed into a detailed intelligence often generated following a tasking and a coordination process and allocated for further investigation (Innes, 2003). Each police force and law enforcement agency develop detailed strategic and tactical tasking and coordination group (T&CG) processes based upon the strategic assessment of all intelligence reports College of Policing (2019). The quality of an investigation, whether it be carried out in person or over the telephone, is a significant factor. There may be limited opportunities to locate and gather investigative material that leads to the detection of a crime. It is vital that those who conduct the initial investigation ensure that material is not lost (Innes and Clark, 2009). Investigations should be conducted thoroughly, and investigators should not assume that a crime cannot be solved or that someone else will carry out the investigation (ACPO, 2005).

Most crimes reported to the police are not major incidents and usually the officer who attends the scene in the first instance is the only resource that is required. This officer may be the investigator throughout the enquiry (Innes & Clark, 2009). Initial investigation may not be necessary in every report of crime, however poor initial investigation may result in adverse impact in public confidence of policing. If the investigating officer does not carry out their duty to a high standard, the victim or witnesses may feel that the officer is not interested in their concerns. Recent developments in the context of public sector funding measures have resulted in the Metropolitan Police Service (MPS) stopping the investigation of many low-level crimes; [Low Level Crimes to go uninvestigated in Met police spending cuts] (Rawlinson, 2017). In complex investigations, it is unlikely there will be a clear distinction between the initial investigation and further investigation. In practice, the initial investigation continues to its conclusion (Newburn, 2008). In cases where it appears that a major crime may have been committed, e.g. murder or rape, roles of officers attending specific scenes of crime are detailed (ACPO, 2008). The Senior Investigating Officer (SIO) must ensure the investigative team comprises investigators with the relevant skills and abilities Cook and Tattersall (2010).

Investigative and Evidential Evaluation

Investigative evaluation and evidential evaluation are distinct processes and are considered the main decision points in the investigative process (College of Policing, 2019). Investigative and evidential evaluation enables investigators to step back in terms of speed, from the rush of investigative action and consider the investigation in a measured reflective way (ACPO, 2012). Notwithstanding the potentially straight forward nature of an investigative context, investigators are always encouraged to formally evaluate investigative material, exploring whether any additional lines of enquiry can be identified and ensuring that all existing lines of enquiry and investigative actions have been pursued and completed (Innes, 2003). Investigative evaluation should identify the three distinct contexts, namely, what is known, inconsistencies, and conflicts (ACPO, 2012). Evidential evaluation should

consider the overall strength of the case, and whether enough evidence exists against an offender to proceed to charge (ACPO, 2012). The perennial question to be answered is, is the gathered material evidentially admissible? (Cook and Tattersall, 2010). Detailed investigative evaluation in the context of major crime is undertaken in liaison with the Crown Prosecution Service, (CPS). The stage of investigative evaluation links to the context argued by Innes (2002), namely the determination that a crime has taken place, the identification of a suspect and the gathering of evidence to support a prosecution.

An investigator must be clear about the objective that is to be achieved when carrying out an evaluation. As the investigation progresses, these objectives will narrow (Cook & Tattersall, 2010). During the investigation various objectives will be achieved but not reviewed every time an investigative or evidential evaluation is carried out (Innes, 2003). For example, establishing whether a crime has been committed and the type of crime, are likely to be established early in the investigation, therefore, the objective may narrow to consider the placement of a suspect and alibi corroboration (Cook & Tattersall, 2010). The investigative objective will vary depending on the crime, the available material, and the stage of the investigation. The evaluation process developed by the College of Policing (2013), is sufficiently flexible to accommodate such changes in the objectives. When carrying out an investigative or evidential evaluation, the relevance, reliability, and admissibility of the material gathered should be established first (CPIA, Code of Practice, 1996). The CPIA Code of Practice states that:

Material may be relevant to an investigation if it appears to an investigator, the officer in charge of an investigation, or to the disclosure officer, that it has some bearing on any offence under investigation or any person being investigated, or on the surrounding circumstances of the case, unless it is incapable of having an impact on the case.

(CPIA 1996 Section 23(1) Code of Practice:4)

A wide view should be taken of the term relevance and as much material as possible should be used in the evaluation process (College of Policing, 2013). Investigators should only exclude material as irrelevant after careful consideration or consultation with the disclosure officer (CPIA, 1996). A

crown prosecutor has ultimate responsibility to decide what material will be used in the case (Criminal Justice Act, 2003). Investigators should always err on the side of caution as a decision to exclude material as irrelevant may later be called into question in any subsequent proceedings. (Joint Operational Instructions for the Disclosure of Unused Material, 2004). The reliability of investigative material should be adduced by using the investigative mindset (ACPO, 2012). The investigative mindset is an investigative technique that detectives are encouraged to adopt to remain open minded throughout the process of an investigation. (Cook and Tattersall, 2010). An open-minded approach to criminal investigation can heighten the overall standard of detective work and lower the risk of investigative errors (Cook & Tattersall, 2010). The review of material must be dynamic and fluid.

The reliability of material should be reviewed during the evaluation process to ensure that any potential problems have not been overlooked (CPIA, 1996). Where sources of material are victims, witnesses or suspects, investigators must avoid making judgements about the reliability of the material they produce based on factors such as lifestyle, previous offending history or associates, as these may not be relevant to the investigation in hand (Tong, 2010). Such factors clearly have the potential to adversely affect the quality of the evaluation. Investigators must examine the context of independent corroboration of the account provided by the source of information (Innes, 2003). Where the source of material is a suspect, investigators should keep in mind the revised rules on bad character introduced by the Criminal Justice Act 2003, whereby in certain circumstances previous offending behaviour may be relevant to the current investigation. If a victim or witness account cannot be independently corroborated, the prosecution or the defence may challenge the reliability of their evidence when it is presented in court (Attorney Generals Guidelines, 2013).

Investigators must anticipate challenges and consider providing alternative material which may help the court to assess the reliability of the source (HMIC, 2009). This may include evidence that the

source has been consistent in their account. Investigators should have a clear understanding of the impact the reliability of material may have on the investigation and the strength of the prosecution case. If they are in any doubt, they should consult a crown prosecutor for advice. A clear understanding of the reliability of the material should enable investigators to determine the weight they should give to it in the evaluation (College of Policing, 2012)

Material gathered by investigators provides knowledge of the incident subject of investigation. The evaluation process facilitates the organisation of investigative knowledge assisting in the identification of what action is required next. In the first instance the objective is likely to be broad and concerned with establishing what information there is, what type of incident is being investigated, whether a crime has been committed and if there is a suspect. The 5WH formula (Who – What – When – Where – Why – How) has found to be a highly effective way in which investigators can organise their knowledge in the early stages of an investigation (Stelfox, 2009; Shepherd, 2013). Identifying gaps in their knowledge of an offence and potential lines of enquiry may be a reasonably straight forward matter for the experienced investigator. Gaps may also flow naturally from the initial investigation by applying the investigative mindset. It may not always be clear, however, exactly what the investigator is missing. By applying the 5WH formula to the material, investigators can pinpoint specific gaps in the case which may suggest potential lines of enquiry (Kirby, 2013). A basic gap analysis matrix (see Figure 5.) may assist and investigator in investigative and evidential evaluation requires systematic questioning of the investigative material. A list of evaluative questions is suggested by (ACPO 2012) and illustrates the 5WH process. The list is not exhaustive.

Figure 5. Basic Gap Analysis – (ACPO, 2012)

	Known	Not Known	Conflicts	Consistencies
Who				
What				
Where				
Why				
How				

*“Who are the victim(s), witnesses and suspect(s)? Is there a physical description or other evidence which may assist in identifying the suspect? Are there any characteristics of the victim which suggest a possible offender, race, age, and vulnerabilities?
Where did the offence take place? Is there evidence of selectivity? Does there appear to be an element of planning or does either the location and/or the victim appears to be random? Are there characteristics of the location that may be significant, e.g., sheltered housing or vulnerable commercial premises?”
(ACPO, 2012:98)*

*“What has occurred – (It is important to establish what happened. This may be immediately obvious, but in some cases the investigator will have to piece together the available material by locating witnesses, interviewing victims, and suspects, developing intelligence or building reasonable hypothesis.) what was stolen? Were any tools or special techniques used? When did the offence and other significant events take place?
Why was this offence committed in this location against this victim at this time?
How was the offence committed? Assess the use of skills or knowledge used by the offender.”
(ACPO, 2012:99)*

Subjecting material to a process of thorough evaluation will identify what is known and what is not known (Stelfox, 2009). Investigative decision making may have to be based on or guided by hypothesis to attempt to discover a logical reason for what may have happened (Barrett, 2009; ACPO, 2012). All decision making must be secured in sound reasoning with cogent supportive argument. Any investigative theory or hypothesis must be evaluated and challenged. Assume nothing, believe nobody, check everything (Cook and Tattersall, 2010 :463) The ABC of investigation

appears to be rooted heavily in investigative autobiography and biography, (Herridge, 1993; Taylor, 2012). The phrase is found in detective fiction (Craven, 2015) and similarly in journalism (Hitchens, 2017). Flawed decision making may result in failed investigations and miscarriages of justice ACPO (2005). Irving and Dunningham (1992 cited in ACPO, 2005) state that the Royal Commission on Criminal Justice in 1992 concluded that the most common type of error in crime investigation was that of decision making. However, limitations in decision making are not specific to crime investigators, they are due to the limitations of all human decision makers (Keppens and Schafer, 2005).

O'Neill (2018) states that the series of stages within Figure 1 attempt to provide some tangible points within the investigative process where decision making has been applied in a reflective manner. O'Neill further argues that decision making is a distinct area in the academic literature, and together with problem solving reasoning and critical thinking has its own set of theoretical perspectives. Research in the context of investigative decision making is weighted in favour of the strategic decision once it is confirmed that the crime has taken place (Mullins, Alison and Crego, 2008). The decisions made in the early stages of any investigation may determine choices made by the investigator (O'Neill and Milne, 2014).

ACPO (2005) attempts to put forward a set of principles in relation to policing, and in particular crime investigation and refers to the use of hypotheses within the context of the investigation of crime. Decision making is central to any investigation (ACPO, 2005). Brandl (1993) argued that little research focussed on the discretionary decisions of investigators. Investigators tend to rely on a set of working rules (heuristics) derived from personal investigatory experience and colleagues (ACPO, 2005). Research raises a concern that the use of hypotheses within a crime investigation should be avoided as the investigator could fall foul to the principles of '*case construction*' (Sanders and Young,

2003; Henneberg and Loveday, 2015). Case construction is where the investigator adopts a hypothesis as to what has happened and identifies evidence to support that hypothesis to the exclusion of evidence which does not support or even contradicts that hypothesis (Sanders and Young 2003). The opposite to case construction is case denial where the investigator forms an early view that no crime has been committed, consequently, the process may be limited to proving that no criminal offence has taken place. ACPO (2005) describes reasons for flawed decision making and accepts that it may not be possible for the investigator to rid the mind of ingrained flaws. However, Hammond et al (1998: 47 -58) argue, if one is aware of the flaws which effect decision making, the individual may be able to compensate for them. Hammond et al (1998) describe four common decision-making traps as; over-confidence; over-cautiousness; memory interference or recalability and what he describes as 'anchoring' which is described as a reliance on the first accounts available to the investigator to the exclusion of further and perhaps more accurate information. Hammond et al (1998) describe the tactics to overcome these flaws as; view a problem from different perspectives; thinking a problem through alone prior to consultation with others thus avoiding being *anchored* by their ideas and to be open-minded and seek views from a variety of others to widen the frame of reference.

Barrett (2008) states that studies which treat investigative work as decision making focussing on decisions and decisions outcomes cannot capture the complex cognition underpinning investigative work. Barret further suggests that cyclical problem solving (Pretz, Naples & Sternberg, 2003) may be a more fruitful perspective for understanding the cognitive processes underlying the investigative context (Stelfox & Pease, 2005) highlight three interrelated problems in any investigation; establishing what crime has been committed; the identification and apprehension of the offender and collecting and preserving evidence. Defining investigation and the process as problem-solving and breaking it down into core problems brings into focus two important cognitive operations:

making sense of the information available to determine what crime may have been committed, who the likely offender is and where evidence may be found; and deciding what actions *to take* to collect and preserve further information and evidence. The cycle of sense-making and action-taking continues until the crime has been solved, that is, until either the incident can be proven not to have been a crime, or the offender has been identified and located and enough evidence exists to charge him or her with a specific crime and to convince a jury of their guilt.

Sense-making is the “deliberate effort to understand events” (Klein et al., 2007:114) and a model of investigative sense-making should therefore describe the cognitive processes underpinning a detective’s effort to find meaning in an investigative situation. Investigative sense-making activity includes explaining events that caused the data, speculating about what other events might have been associated with the situation and inferring what investigative opportunities are latent in the situation. Despite the paucity of empirical research examining how sense-making occurs in detective work, the psychological processes by which individuals use expertise to make sense of ambiguous information has been studied more extensively. Barrett (2008) suggests that investigative sense making is likely to focus on the most uncertain of the three core investigative problems; that is, what crime has been committed (Stelfox & Pease, 2005). Investigative effort is focused on establishing whether there is a criminal explanation for the situation. If it is clear a crime has been committed but the offender is unknown, sense-making effort is focused on identifying, tracing, and eliminating plausible suspects until only the true offender is left. If an offender is known and the crime is clear, then effort is focused mainly on identifying, collecting, and preserving evidence. The most troublesome cases occur when a detective is faced with challenges in all three tasks: an ambiguous scenario, multiple or no potential suspects and difficulties in gathering evidence (Barrett, 2008). Real world decisions are examined commencing with what was done, rather than what should have been done, labelled as ‘naturalistic decision making’. Researching real world brings into play factors which

may not be present in laboratory based experimentation, such as time constraints, stress, ambiguity, emotion, fear of criticism and organisational culture which can lead an operational decision maker to miss or ignore vital information causing 'premature closure' of an incident (Eyre and Alison, 2007: 220). Conversely the failure to make a decision, described as decision avoidance (Eyre and Alison, 2007) may account for failure to act in investigative contexts resulting in tragedy. Anderson (2003) defines decision avoidance as 'a tendency to avoid making a choice by postponing it or by seeking an easy way out that involves no action or no change'. This leads to the bias effects of; maintaining the status quo, omission to act and deferring the decision (Anderson, 2003:146).

The application of the investigative mindset that the investigator must acquire over time and experience broken down into five principles (ACPO 2012).

- Understanding the source of material
- Planning and preparation
- Examination
- Recording and collation
- Evaluation

ACPO (2005:2012) suggests that applying the investigative mindset to the examination of all sources of material will ensure that relevant actions are taken with the correct investigative material at the correct time. However, ACPO (2012:89) seeks to remind investigators that during the process of application of the investigative mindset to be mindful of limitations in decision making. Over the past three decades, several decision-making models have been developed to assist with decision making in policing. For example, the SARA model in the context of problem-oriented policing (Eck and Spelman 1987), and the Conflict Management Model, in the context of operational guidance and personal safety (ACPO, Centrex 2004). However, in 2011, ACPO approved the use of a single national decision model (NDM) for the police service (ACPO, 2011; COP, 2013). It was noted that police decision making is often complex and the adoption of the NDM was part of a concerted drive to ensure focus on the delivery of the policing mission.

Ethical Issues in Criminal Investigation giving rise to the Policing Code of Ethics

An area of police investigation or investigative practice largely hidden from public view is that of undercover operations. In 2010, the Observer newspaper published a series of articles regarding the role of a police officer within the Metropolitan Police Special Demonstration Unit (SDS) (Observer, 2010). In 2011, the Guardian newspaper published a series of articles in the context of undercover policing stating that the source of the information giving rise to the series of articles was a retired police officer. In 2013, Peter Francis a former Special Demonstration Squad undercover officer appeared on a national television programme, Dispatches broadcast on Channel 4. Francis made many allegations about his role including that he had been deployed to gather evidence to discredit the family of Stephen Lawrence. In 2013, *Undercover – The True Story of Britain's Secret Police* was released for sale (Lewis and Evans 2013). The book and newspaper reports made a series of allegations about the tactics deployed by SDS officers.

...who infiltrated radical movements in Britain in the 1990s and 2000s, with new names (often taken from dead children, in case anyone checked the registry of births), long hair and beards (they called themselves "The Hairies"), and lots of sleeping around, to preserve credibility. They simply liked the thrill... The Guardian (2011)

In 2011, the Metropolitan Police Commissioner asked for an outside police force (Operation Herne) to complete a detailed investigation into the claims of Peter Francis. In 2012, the Home Secretary had commissioned Mark Ellis QC to conduct a review examining allegations of corruption surrounding the initial and deeply flawed investigation into the murder of Stephen Lawrence. Operation Herne was heavily criticized as its head Michael Creedon the then Chief Constable of Derbyshire Police had overseen and supervised undercover operations in the past. In 2014, the Home Secretary informed parliament that after the criminal investigation undertaken by Operation Herne, a public enquiry would be set up. The allegations and outcomes of the Ellison Review and Operation Herne were considered as deeply concerning. The Home Secretary stated that it was imperative that public trust and confidence in the police is maintained.

The NDM since 2014 has centred on the Code of Ethics (College of Policing, 2014), and as such is considered to provide a framework in which decisions can be subjected to examination and challenge whilst ensuring that decisions are lawful and proportionate in accordance with the principles of human rights.

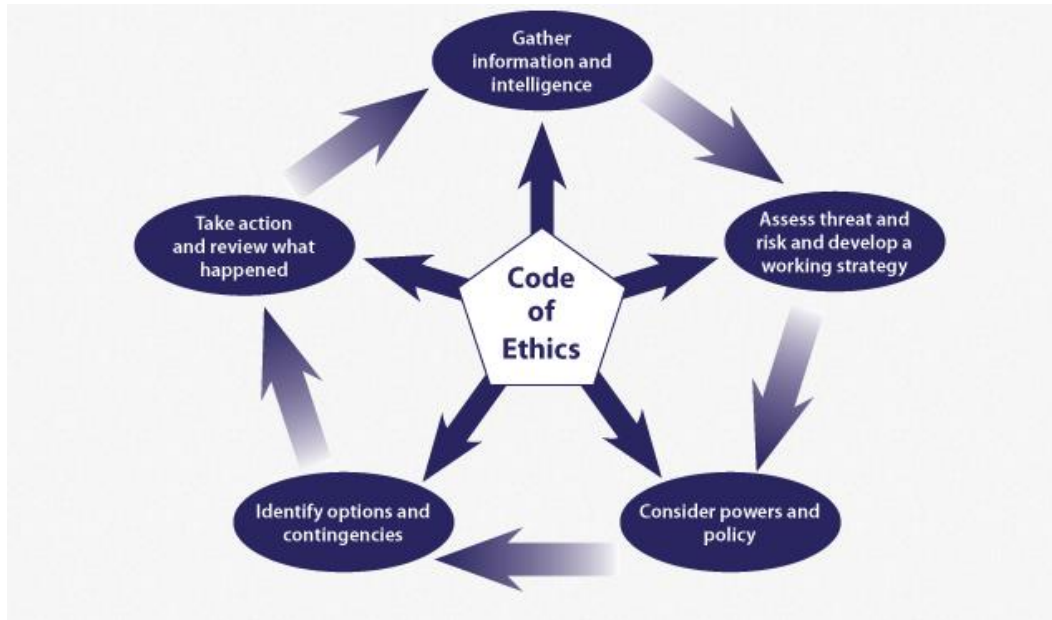


Figure 6. National Decision Model. College of Policing, 2014

Regardless of the complexity and seriousness of the crime under investigation, the principles detailed in Authorised Professional Practice (APP) on investigation, the Code of Ethics and use of the National Decision Model, should form the basis of all investigative activity (College of Policing, 2017). The Code of Ethics is a Code of Practice for the Principles and Standards of Professional Behaviour for the Policing Profession of England and Wales (College of Policing, 2014). The Code of Ethics sets and defines the exemplary standards of behaviour for everyone who works in policing. However, the Code of Ethics extends beyond a statutory scope as a basis as code of practice (Code of Ethics Summary, College of Policing, 2014). The expectation of the College of Policing as the professional body for policing is that every person working policing will adopt the Code of Ethics, A Code of Practice for the Principles and Standards of Professional Behaviour for the Policing Profession of England and Wales. Published in 2014, the Code of Ethics sets out the principles and standards of behaviour that will

promote, reinforce, and support the highest standards from everyone who works in policing in England and Wales (Code of Ethics 2014). Developed from the Principles of Public Life (Nolan, 1995), the Code of Ethics outlines nine specific principles of policing at the centre of the National Decision Model which consolidates information from 57 decommissioned ACPO documents. The National Decision Model is considered the required standard for police decision making in England and Wales. The overarching aim of using of the model model being to encourage officers and staff to act in accordance with the Code of Ethics (College of Policing, 2014).

Section 4. Historical Context of Criminal Investigation

Morris (2007) argues that the understanding of criminal investigation cannot be realised without having some sense of the historical context. Therefore, this section will commence with a brief overview of investigative practice in the eighteenth century, and then onto investigative practice from the inception of the New police in 1829. It will then attempt to explain current investigative practice and the professionalisation debate.

The English policing system is traceable back to Anglo Saxon times (Dixon, 1929). Historically, crime detection and prosecution were the responsibility of the victim. Occasionally third parties, (yeomen, justices of peace, parish constables, the watch, and bystanders) might intervene or be asked to assist (Rawlings, 2002). Most offenders were simply caught in the act, near the crime scene or when attempting to sell property obtained by theft or fraud (King, 2000). Statutory rewards motivated fellow citizens to help in detection; the wealthy relied on their servants to do their footwork while prisons, inns, and informants acted as inroads to the criminal underworld and the ability to recover stolen goods (Rawlings, 2002). The involvement of constables and watchmen were usually limited to making an arrest or searching the suspect, and only if requested to do so by the victim or Justices of Peace. Active crime detection was time-consuming and sometimes dangerous, and, most importantly, not part of their regular duties (King, 2000;

Beattie, 2006). Should an offender be caught, prosecution was more of an exception than a rule with victims being satisfied with the return of property and an apology. The cost, inconvenience and harshness of penalties would deter most from taking the matter into court (King 2000).

Prior to the appointment of detectives, detection of crime had mainly been conducted by 'thief takers' whose methods were frequently crude and financially motivated. The concern over crime heightened in the mid eighteenth century and public dissatisfaction with the thief takers craft as well as the vision of the novelist and chief magistrate Henry Fielding saw the creation of the Bow Street Runners (Gaskill, 2000; King, 2000; Rawlings, 2002; Shpayer-Makov, 2011) [Henry Fielding was chief magistrate at Bow Street, Office 1754 – 1780]. The Bow Street runners offered a more coordinated and structured approach to policing (Osterburg and Ward, 2000). The aim was to create an effective, bureaucratic system that managed and disseminated information to professional officers (Rawlings, 2002). Fielding wanted to establish crime detection as a legitimate employment opportunity, discarding the outdated and corruption-prone reward system. The government provided some financial support though reliable long-term funding was not available (Beattie, 2006). However, the combination of state payment and private rewards allowed for some level of income security, encouraging continuous and permanent service among the Runners (Beattie, 2006).

The method deployed by the 'Runners' was rapid pursuit and arrest of suspects indicated by information of any crime and the use of information from petty criminals (Fido and Skinner, 1999). Morris (2007) argues that this traditional suspect centred approach to investigation has only recently been challenged by a more scientific approach to investigation. Tong (2009 citing Greenwood et al, 1977 and Repetto, 1978) states that a suspect centred approach to investigation is more likely to be successful if a witness or informant is prepared to name a suspect. Beattie (2006) argues that the

Runners were only involved with a fraction of the crime detected in London. Nevertheless, the Runners were considered as one of the initial organised attempts at policing and provided the basis of the original detective branch of the Metropolitan Police. The deployment of information management, proactive strategic awareness and intelligence gathering reflected a scientific approach to investigation (Tong, 2009). The experience and expertise of the Bow Street runners brought with it a growing respectability (Beattie, 2006) and potentially the first indications of investigative professionalism. Prior to the creation of the New Police or Reformed Police (Morris, 2007), seven Public Detectives also referred to as Police offices were formed, modelled on the Bow Street Office (Middlesex Justices Act, 1792).

The appointment of Robert Peel in 1822 as Home Secretary and the consequent Metropolitan Police Act 1829 saw the development of a new era of policing. Morris (2007) charts the history of criminal investigations from this point onwards, referring to the following fifty years (1829-1878) as the 'heroic period', when individualised expertise gradually turned into a more systematic approach to investigation (Morris, 2007). At the time, there were no plans for a detective branch within the Metropolitan Police (Emsley & Shpayer-Makov, 2006), although Morris (2007) argues that the expertise of the Runners was retained to a degree and there is some evidence of informal investigative specialisation when the situation called for it. Tong (2009) states that Peel's reforms, introducing the New police, was based on a preventative context rather than a plain-clothes investigative entity. Newburn (2009) explains that the introduction of the New police was met with considerable public scepticism and resistance. Shpayer-Makov (2016) argues that to assuage concern that 'un-English' systems of spying and a threat to purportedly traditional liberties would be imposed; the goal of prevention rather than detection was emphasised. The commissioners of the Metropolitan Police, Charles Rowan and Richard Mayne agreed with Peel that the main task of the New Police would be crime prevention (Tong, 2009). The first instruction book issued to Metropolitan Police Officers contained no instruction in the investigation of crime and

made little or no reference to crime detection (Moss and Skinner, 2006). Significantly, the first instruction book declared that prevention would better effect security of person and property than the detection and punishment of the offender (Shpayer-Makov, 2016). Clutteurbuck (2002) argues that Peel headed a system performing three discrete functions: preventive patrol; control of the public via the Metropolitan police; and the detection of offenders by the agents of the magistracy (Bow Street runners). Therefore, as pointed out by Morris (2007), it is correct to assume that until the explicit establishment of detective departments there were no public officials undertaking investigative work after 1829. Morris, (2007) argues that the establishment of a discrete detective force in 1842, represented the bureaucratisation and professionalisation of the function rather its invention. In 1842, the Metropolitan Police formed a small detective branch and adopted an investigative approach to crime. This change of emphasis was a radical departure from the traditional role of the patrolling constable. Initially, only two inspectors and six sergeants were appointed to work from the famous Scotland Yard address, and two decades later, the department was still only fifteen men strong, out of the total of eight thousand officers (Ericson, 1993; Rawlings, 2002). However, a reorganisation came in 1869 following Commissioner Mayne's death and the high-profile failure of the police to prevent the bombing of Clerkenwell Prison by the Irish Revolutionary Brotherhood in 1867 (Rawlings, 2002; Morris, 2006). The main result of the subsequent inquiry was the increase of detectives in both the central force and in the divisions (Petrow, 1993; Morris, 2006). Forces outside London followed its example, and by 1859, at least Birmingham, Middleborough, Leeds, Bradford, and Sheffield had specifically appointed detectives among their ranks (Petrow, 1993; Morris, 2006). Reiner (2010) states that there was an idea at this time that policing could become a career. The new branch provided a more disciplined approach and by 1878 a Criminal Investigation Department (CID) served the whole of London. This system quickly became established as an effective tool in crime control and within a short period each force had formed its own CID (Maguire 2003).

Investigative practice comprised pragmatism. There was no formal training with the rule being one of informal apprenticeship. The pervading context was that no special training was justified, and investigation was an intuitively learned craft (Tong & Bowling, 2006). In 1877, Metropolitan Police Commissioner Henderson stated, 'the real practical fact is that in ninety-nine cases out of one hundred cases of crime, the detection is most humdrum work, and it only requires just ordinary care and intelligence. You do not want a high-class mind to do it all.' (Metropolitan Police, 1878a: Q 5251 in Morris, 2007:32). Indeed Dilnot (1928) argued if higher intellectual standards had been required, they were not to be found within the generality of early detectives. The Turf Trials in 1877 arose from a horse racing fraud. Those accused of perpetrating the fraud alleged that they were paying senior ranking detectives to keep them out of trouble. The trial resulted in the conviction of several senior officers from the Detective Department for corruption offences and clearly evidenced a lack of supervision (Griffin 2014).

In 1878, Charles Howard Vincent a barrister and former soldier was appointed to the role of Director in charge of the new Criminal Investigation Department (CID), to remove any associations with the word detective which had been recently discredited (Jeyes, 1912). Vincent reported directly to the Home Secretary over the head of the Commissioner, therefore at this time, a politician rather than the police chief was in control of the CID (Fido and Skinner, 1999). Vincent was associated with many innovations in investigation. Vincent published *A Police Code and Manual of Criminal Law* (Vincent, 1881) which was used as a basic textbook for police forces in Britain and throughout the British Empire (Emsley, 2006). It is regarded as a nineteenth century equivalent to investigative doctrine (ACPO, 2005). Vincent improved the circulation of police criminal intelligence, also, Vincent would not wait for a complaint from a victim before launching an investigation. It is argued that in the six years he held the post, Vincent's influence on detective work in London was immense (Emsley, 2006). Stead (1888) stated that Vincent had succeeded in establishing cosmos out of chaos. However, an unintended consequence of Vincent's reforms was that the CID became distanced from the uniform branch as they were resented for their superior pay and conditions (Howe, 1965). In

1883, Vincent established the forerunner of the Special Irish Branch which when developed as the Special Branch became the first specialised squad from the CID (Wade, 2007). Wade (2007) further asserts that the development of the squad heralded a significant split between the ordinary detective and those tasked with dealing with events on a world stage. Morris (2006) points out that in revised editions of Vincent's code long after his death, senior officers expressed continuing concern about detective control. Concern as to the control and supervision of investigators and detective work in the context of influence over the prosecution of offenders is a recurring theme (Morris, 2006).

The history of the uniformed police in Britain during the Victorian and Edwardian period has been subjected to considerable research, whereas the study of criminal investigation has been largely neglected (Shpayer-Makov, 2004). Tong (2009) states that as detective work attracts less attention than other policing groups, credible sources of research do not exist. Charles Dickens published interviews with early detectives in his journal 'Household Words'. He praised their talent for catching criminals, writing, "If thieving be an art...thief-taking is a science" (Wills and Dickens, 1850:36). Furthermore, in the novel *Bleak House*, Dickens based the character Inspector Bucket on real life Detective Inspector Charles Frederick Field. Another author of the time, Wilkie Collins also included a Metropolitan police detective in one of his novels. Sergeant Cuff in *The Moonstone* was based upon Detective Inspector Jonathan Whicher. Both detectives are portrayed as intelligent, thoughtful, and judicious men, albeit with a touch of mystery about them. The positive portrayal of police detectives by Dickens and Collins was a sea change in the way educated Britons perceived centralized policing (Griffin, 2014). However, the reality of this dimension of policing at that time, bears little resemblance to popular cultural, media and political representation (Rowe, 2014).

Morris (2007) states that the courts had little influence or advice in the context of investigative practice and although much discussed, the Savidge Report, 1928 and the Royal Commission on Police Powers and Procedures, 1929 made no significant changes to the law. In 1919, the

Desborough Committee reported that detective training was not required as any learning requirement would be acquired through experience and practical work. Morris (2007) argues that this recommendation resulted in investigation remaining an “artisan craft devoid of any higher intellectual content” (Morris, 2007:24 in Tong, 2009:5). Tong (2009) asserts that the lack of status afforded to detectives at this time brings the competence of detectives into question.

A significant inquiry in 1938 establishing the pattern for detective work in the 20th Century became known as the Dixon Committee (James, 2011). The committee largely comprising Home Office officials demonstrated the Home Office’s continued influence over the investigative context. The committee considered legal and judicial difficulties encountered in investigations, the relationship between detectives and uniform branches, and how this cooperation could be improved in respect of the prevention and detection of crime. The committee clarified the role of the detective and established a definition; “a police officer who forms part of the detective organisation of a force which is engaged in specialised crime work and not routine police duties other than crime” (cited in James, 2013:294). The work of the committee will be further discussed in the next section of the chapter.

The latter half of the 20th century saw the increasing centralisation and specialisation in the landscape of policing and criminal investigations. Loveday (1996) charts the growth of specialised crime detection during the post-war period resulting from the redirecting of resources away from public safety objectives. Detectives from Staffordshire, Warwickshire and Worcestershire formed the first regional crime squad in 1956, working closely with the Birmingham Crime Squad (Rawlings, 2002). However, it was the Police Act of 1964 that instigated the official creation of nine Regional Crime Squads as a response to the increasing number of crimes crossing individual force boundaries (Johnston, 2000; Leong, 2007). The conclusions of the 1962 Royal Commission on the Police (Rolph, 1962) emphasised the drift of power from the local police authorities to the Home Office and chief officers, while emphasising the need for research and the development of new

methods, techniques and equipment (Rawlings, 2002). Scotland Yard was regarded as the policing elite and the specialist squads as a solution to the rising crime problem. Hallenberg (2012) argues that a series of dramatic and highly publicised successful cases served to bolster the CID's reputation and hide the special relationship based on exchange of information and favours that the detectives cultivated with criminals. Tong (2009) explains that police reform during the 20th Century points to such changes in policing. However, repeated criticisms of investigative practice and several major miscarriages of justice such as; Guildford Four (1975); Birmingham Six (1975); Yorkshire Ripper (1978) Stephen Lawrence (1993) Ian Huntley (2003) [this list is not exhaustive], together with more recent widespread condemnation of multi-agency failings in the context of child sexual exploitation reveal flaws in investigative decision making and overall supervision.

[Investigative decision making and sense making is discussed in the earlier section of this chapter].

Tong (2009) drawing on Morris (2007) and Stelfox (2008) expresses concern that investigative failure may be brought on by the failure to develop investigative practices and reliance on dated methods.

Investigator development will be discussed at length in the next section of this chapter.

The Police and Criminal Evidence (PACE) Act of 1984 finally formalised many of the procedures relating to criminal investigations providing increased protection for the suspect and clarification of the process of evidence collection (Kirby, 2013). The impact of (PACE) resonated to the 1990s, (Hallenberg, 2012), which were characterised by a more open approach to investigation, prosecution and defence, a shift of focus from getting the confession to gathering accurate and reliable information (Williamson, 1996). Loveday (1996) argued that for the government, the main police function was to deal with crime and criminal activity and that non-crime-related tasks serve only to distract the police from their primary purpose. This rediscovery of crime fighting was reinforced in the 1993 White Paper on Police Reform and the subsequent Police and Magistrates Court Act 1994 (Hallenberg, 2012). It introduced policing plans and centralised performance targets; crime rate being one of the core indicators of effectiveness. Leishman, Loveday, and Savage (1996) argued that central government gained power, while the local government mainly gained

responsibilities.

Overall, the last few decades of the twentieth century witnessed an accelerating trend to establish specialist regional and national units dealing with drug trafficking, terrorism, money laundering, art theft, football hooliganism, international and organised crime (Sheptycki, 1995). The trend of centralisation continued with the establishment of National Criminal Intelligence Service in 1992 and National Crime Squad in 1998, both of which were amalgamated into the Serious Organised Crime Agency in 2006. In 2011, in the face of increasing national threats in the context of serious organised crime and a recognition that the government had interfered too much in local policing, need for change was accepted Home Office (2011a). The Home Secretary set the police one simple mission, to cut crime (Home Office (2011a:7). The report introduced the National Crime Agency (NCA) comprising a series of operational commands to tackle serious and organised crime across England and Wales. This shift in the policing landscape saw the Home Office ceasing to encroach and intervene in local matters allowing advent of the Police and Crime Commissioners.

Whilst forensic science is not within the remit of this thesis, it is important to recognise its development. Ambage, (1987) states that although there was body of forensic science knowledge and technique available in the early 1930's within England and Wales, there was a lack of organization to meet police needs. The phrase forensic science was in effect sanctioned in 1936 (Ward, 1993). There was open hostility to forensic science and forensic scientists by Scotland Yard. Ambage (1987) states that at the time a forensic scientist quoted a detective officer as saying if I need science, I will be a failure. Over time, the central hub of forensic science was the original Metropolitan Police laboratory at Hendon. This was eventually supported by the development of regional laboratories. Developments in the context of forensic science provided investigators with a series of powerful new tools for identifying perpetrators of crime. From fingerprint analysis in the early twentieth century, to DNA profiling in the 1980's and more recently digital forensics (Morris,

2007). In 2016, a forensic science strategy was published (Home Office, 2016), which points out that the proliferation of digital enabled devices is an increasingly common feature of investigations. The strategy makes it clear that the development of digital technology creates new and unique challenges in the context of the sheer quantity of digital data as increasingly new techniques and methods become open to abuse.

Section 5. Contemporary Challenges Associated with Criminal Investigation.

This section of the chapter aims to highlight contemporary concerns as to investigative decision making within the procedural and legislative context shining a spotlight on a contemporary challenge to investigative practice. Reiner (2010) and Kirby (2013) argue that all criminal investigations must take place within a legal and ethical framework and that investigators are not permitted to abuse human rights or introduce flawed evidence. However, Kirby further asserts that considerable experience and ethical judgement is required to ensure operational implementation of a defined investigative framework (Kirby, 2013).

A case study highlighting concerns in the context of contemporary investigative decision making arises from the case of R v Allen. In 2017, the case which involved allegations that a woman was raped and sexually assaulted was dropped by the CPS. The subsequent joint review of the matter by the police and the CPS restated the role of the police and the CPS. In stating the responsibility of the police to detect crime, the review states inter alia that the police have a duty to pursue all reasonable lines of enquiry, whether these point towards or away from the suspect (CPIA - Code of Practice, 2015). The case giving rise to the review was based on an allegation that the defendant in the matter had raped and sexually assaulted the complainant on several occasions. As part of the subsequent investigation the complainant's phone was retained by the police. The defendant maintained that the sexual relationship was consensual and that the allegations were untrue. A decision was taken to submit the complainant's mobile telephone for examination to the MPS digital forensic laboratory.

The telephone contained over 57,000 lines of message data. A search of the telephone was undertaken to identify any relevant material (CPIA, 1996). The method used to conduct the search was not recorded. The matter was submitted to the CPS in September 2016. It was confirmed that the police considered there to be a case against the defendant and stated that no material which could reasonably be expected to be capable of undermining the prosecution or assisting the case for the defendant had been identified. A decision by the CPS to charge the defendant was taken in February 2017. In May 2017, the CPS recorded that any unused material had been reviewed and that there was no undermining evidence that can be disclosed to the defence. In November 2017, prosecution counsel asked if a full download of the telephone was available. Following an exchange of emails between the officer in charge of the investigation and prosecution counsel it was agreed that the phone download did not have to be served on the defence as the officer in charge of the investigation had said that there was nothing relevant on it. At the beginning of the subsequent trial, a copy of the phone download was given to the defence solicitor. Undermining material was discovered on the phone download. No evidence was offered against the defendant. It is reported that there were several thousand messages from the complainant to the defendant and that these messages profoundly undermined the prosecution case. No evidence was offered against the defendant. Prosecution counsel and the prosecutor had relied on the officer in charge of the investigation mistakenly stating that the data on the phone download did not impact on the case. It was clear that there was significant material that could undermine the prosecution case and may assist the defence case. In this case, the investigation was flawed.

The statutory framework for criminal investigations and disclosure is contained in CPIA, 1996 and the CPIA Code of Practice, 2015. Rafferty, (2017) states that there is a fear unconscious bias stops the police and the CPS impartially and thoroughly investigating crime, especially sexual offence cases. In replying to criticism, the senior police officer with responsibility to oversee MPS rape investigations stated that rape investigations are by their nature very complex, and often hinge on the contradictory accounts of the alleged suspect and the complainant about what has taken place. MPS

announced a review of all relevant investigations, and discussion with the CPS, to ensure that disclosure obligations were being met in an acceptable timescale. In January 2018 it was reported that in 2016-2017, charges against 916 potential defendants had been dropped as a result of failure to disclose relevant material by the prosecution to the defence, an increase of 70% from the previous year (Weaver & Grierson, 2018). Both the police and the CPS stated that there are systemic disclosure issues across the criminal justice system (Weaver & Grierson, 2018). The review of the case of R v Allan blamed the disclosure issues on a combination of error, lack of challenge to investigative practice in a supervisory context and lack of knowledge of the relevant legal framework.

HMIC inspected 26 of the 43 police forces to assess the overall ability to investigate crime. In 2017, HMIC reported that in 2016, that the shortage of qualified investigators was critical. It was also discovered that overall, the standard of investigations was varied, it was noted that the supervision of investigations into less-serious crime was all too often poor. Inspection the following year found that there was a national shortfall of 5,000 investigator positions. The shortfall reduced investigative capacity. Inspection revealed that there were several reasons as to why the police service has struggled to keep pace with investigative capacity (HMICFRS, 2018).

- Officers are reluctant to specialise as investigators because of: high workloads; a lack of experienced mentors to support them during training; unsociable working hours, which are not rewarded with pay increments; and the intense scrutiny they come under if there is some form of investigative failure (in the next chapter, we also consider some of the pressures detectives in public protection roles experience).
- It takes time to gain investigative skills and experience. To become qualified as a detective takes several years and involves examinations and work-based assessment. By contrast, other career opportunities in the police service may seem more attractive.
- difficulty in retaining detectives. Investigative skills are becoming increasingly attractive to the commercial sector. For example, a number of highly trained financial investigators have

been lost to banks and other financial institutions, which offer greater personal rewards.

- To balance budgets, some forces have cut back on programmes to introduce more police staff investigators. This has increased the pressure on detectives.

NPCC has embarked upon a series of actions to meet the shortcomings of investigator retention and are developing schemes of work in conjunction with COP to improve investigative supervision. At the time of writing, several police forces including MPS have embarked on a direct entry detective recruitment process. To date this process has not been evaluated and there is no evidence-based research available to discuss the effectiveness of the schemes. However, there is anecdotal evidence that the schemes may create tensions between investigators who have chosen the traditional route into investigation; (investigator development will be discussed at length in the final section of this chapter) and the new group. There is precedent for direct entry schemes into the police service and it must be remembered that the influential first head of CID, Sir Howard Vincent was a direct entrant in 1871, a soldier and a barrister, with no police experience (Jeyes, 1912). The recent debate in the context of compliance with law namely disclosure of investigative material means that despite a period of one hundred and eighty-four years, there remain serious concerns as to the competence, supervision, and control of investigators.

Section 6. The Role of Training within Criminal Investigation.

The aim of this section is to discuss the development of investigative training and the development of the investigator. Following a detailed account of the development of investigative training since the Victorian era, this section will discuss the theoretical framework underpinning the transformation in police education in 1981 from a pedagogical to an andragogical learning environment. In order to illustrate certain contexts of the section, the researcher will provide a narrative description of personal experiences as a trainee, trainer, and training manager.

An issue worthy of consideration in the context of investigative training is the competing chronologies of the development of police training strategies, the development and change of police training governance bodies, and development of policing skills. To assist with this, the chapter will deploy a series of sub-sections.

- Development of investigative training from the Victorian Era to the establishment of the Home Office Junior Initial CID Course
- Significant Changes to Police Training
- Theoretical Frameworks of Police Training
- The Training of Trainers
- Transformation of ACPO and Changes in the Governance of Police Training
- Transition from Centrex to College of Policing
- Implementation of Professionalising Investigation Programme

From the Victorian Era to the Junior Initial CID course

In the Victorian era, the policy of internal police recruitment was a component of the overall employment strategy devised by police decision-makers (Tong, 2009). In effect, no central body made organisational decisions about police selection, rather, local authorities had the discretion to adopt policies suitable to them (Emsley 1999). Central to police ideology was the notion that detectives should be superior in intelligence and more competent than the uniform branches of the police. Detectives were expected to be shrewd and sharp (Shapayer-Makov, 2011). At no stage in the process of selection for investigative duty during the Victorian period, were candidates required to complete any special course of study. All round policing skills learned on the job were considered to serve as the best educational basis for investigative work (Morris, 2007). As assistant commissioner (MPS) responsible for detective matters, Edward Henry established a detective training programme in 1902 and as commissioner in 1913, Henry extended the curriculum to include legislative and procedural lectures (Shapayer-Makov, 2011). Moore and Rubin (2014) state that there is potential evidence from a number of historic sources that detective training was taking place

within the Metropolitan Police area from as early as 1901. However, Fido & Skinner, (1999 cited in Moore and Rubin, 2014) states that the world's first specialised training programme for detectives was offered in 1936 at the Hendon Police College estate in the Metropolitan Police area.

In 1919 as an adjunct to a major review of policing and policing conditions, the Desborough committee denounced the need for specialist training for detectives, recommending that their requirements should be met by experience and practical work (Tong, 2009). Morris (2007) argues that the effect of the Desborough verdict was to keep investigation as an artisan craft devoid of any intellectual content (Morris, 2007:24). However, Shapayer-Makov (2011) states the training delivered at the MPS detective training school resulted in officers acquiring better know how of both practical and theoretical skills. Shapayer- Makov (2011) points out that there was no other detective training school in England and despite the assertions of the Desborough committee, detective candidates from other forces continued to attend the MPS six-week training programme at Scotland Yard. Shapayer-Makov, (2011) concludes that a focus on work experience was deemed as the best source of professional expertise and that this was the most effective for trainees who did not excel at absorbing theoretical material or passing formal examinations.

In 1933, the secretary to the Desborough committee, A.L. Dixon. (Assistant Under Secretary of State to Home Office and later Chairman of the Home Office), was appointed by the Home Secretary to chair a committee to inquire and report upon the organisation and procedure of the police forces in England and Wales for the purposes of the detection of crime (The Police Journal, 1939; Morris, 2007). The committee advocated an organised system of detective training (Moore and Rubin, 2014). Dixon (1938) reported that although MPS detectives had had some formal training, the men in the counties were spread too thin and detective instruction would be gained by new to role detectives working with a more experienced officer. Moore and Rubin (2014) explain that many of the recommendations of Dixon's committee were not made available. Some detail of the findings of

Dixon's committee was found within a series of Home Office circulars. Some clarity was obtained in 1966 with Dixons publication of an account of the Home Office and Police between World War One and World War Two. The committee was keen to emphasise cooperation between uniform and investigative branches as being important (Morris, 2007; Tong, 2009; Shapayer-Makov, 2011). However, prior to the formal recommendations of the report of the committee being published, many of its recommendations had been implemented (Moore and Rubin, 2014). Eight-week detective training programmes were being delivered in Hendon and Wakefield from May 1936. Moore and Rubin (2014) report that the training recommendations of the committee were dualist in that methods of criminal investigation were an integral part of initial training for police recruits. A specialist course would then follow for trainee detectives. Owing to demand, the centres established originally in Hendon and Wakefield were followed by the establishment of centres at Liverpool and Birmingham (Moore and Rubin, 2014). Despite the detailed findings of the committee, there was no Home Office authorised comprehensive manual setting out detective doctrine. The report of the departmental committee comprised five volumes, volume 2 of the report and its associated appendices outline the nature of the syllabus for investigative training (Moore and Rubin, 2014). Moore and Rubin (2014) explain that the breakdown of the training comprised approximately 60% investigative technique and associated scientific techniques, 30% evidential and legal definition and approximately 10% records and reports. The report of the committee emphasised that that trainee was not be overloaded with too much detail stressing the important of practical training.

The specialist content of the programme was intended to be both comprehensive and practical aimed to provide the trainee with sufficient theoretical and practical knowledge to take on the role of investigator (Moore and Rubin, 2014). However, the new series of the Police Journal began in 1933 with an introduction from A.L. Dixon promising more emphasis on future investigative instruction. A certain Detective Chief Inspector Reginald Morrish suggested to the Home Office that he could write a textbook on detection, the official response was that this was something that the officer could do on retirement without any official blessing (Emsley, 2017). In 1940, Morrish

published the first textbook authored by a Scotland Yard detective. The training programme over time became known as initial CID training.

At the time of the Second World War there were considerably more police forces than there are today. Policing was a pre-dominantly male profession and the training of the officers was a haphazard affair dependent on which force an officer belonged to (Home Office, 1944; Critchley, 1967; Villiers, 1998). The second world war meant that a substantial number of officers were called up to military service leaving auxiliary staff and women to cover the role in their absence. In readiness for the end of the war a committee was established to consider the reconstitution of police forces during the immediate post war period. The committee was established in 1943. It had the remit of exploring the impact of officers returning from military service, the retention of auxiliary staff, whether this was desirable and if so how this might be managed, the rate at which recruitment could be established and the methods for doing this and finally the training requirements of those new officers (Critchley, 1967). In addition to the need to recruit to address shortfalls in staff, there was recognition that whilst away fighting in the war, those who had been officers and would be returning to their profession, would have become de-skilled and would need a period of readjustment to continue their duties. Those involved in training would have an increased workload in order to achieve this. There was also a balancing act to be completed in managing the needs and expectations of those who had been carrying out an auxiliary role during the war and the returning staff resuming their role (Peacock, 2010)

The Royal Commission on the Police 1962 reported the poor educational standards and the lack of graduates within the police and that training was considered as not being adequate for the complex and changing social context of police work (Reiner 2012). The Royal Commission noted that police officers considered as 'good' were leaving the police service in large numbers to pursue jobs with much greater remuneration in industry. An example is that in Liverpool in 1950, the Dunlop factory opened. The starting pay available was almost double that of a full-time police constable. (Liverpool

Factories Abound, 1961). In its interim report in November 1960, the Royal Commission recommended a pay rise of 40% for police officers to help boost morale and retain good officers. In 1961, with the Royal Commission underway, a report on police training in England and Wales (HMSO, 1961) stated that arrangements were working well and no change in them was proposed. Recommendations were being made to Higher Police Training, as the Royal expressed concern that the police service was not attracting recruits suitable to become leaders. (Royal Commission on the Police, 1962). Whilst so much organisational change was underway, the development of investigative and general police training was further down the pecking order (Critchley 1967).

Police training instructors had always received their training locally. In 1968 a working party was introduced to centralise instructor training, and this led to the formation of the Central Planning Unit (CPU). The unit became a permanent feature in 1970. All police Instructors regardless of role were trained at the CPU. Despite major reviews and regular changes to police probationer training, detective or investigative training was largely untouched.

Having been adopted by military forces and in particular the Royal Navy, a method of training was considered that was developed based on the principles of training by objectives, also known as systems approach training (Home Office 1971). The systems approach was a problem-solving methodology employed by educationalists across the world of academia and the workplace (Romiszowski, 1970, Rowntree, 1974). The principle behind the approach was that before you could plan any training you really needed to research the required outcome of that training. Training should be designed and developed in order to assist the trainee to carry out their role more effectively Mager (1962). As an example, the process would look in detail at the job description of the mechanic. The process discovered that the job description was insufficiently detailed, which required the Royal Navy write a further job description in objective terms (Romiszowski, 1970).

Mager (1962) outlines the need to work out the goals which are to be gained through a period of instruction before selecting the methods to achieve those goals. Having determined a detailed job description, analysis was undertaken to ascertain what tasks were required to fulfil the job. The complexity of each task, and indeed how the tasks interlinked, were charted to establish which elements of those tasks were essential knowledge, and which were 'nice to know' or could be gained by experience.

From that analysis, it was possible to determine the objectives for the training course and identify objectives which could be met from experience. Using the objectives, the team could develop the training method and appropriate teaching aids, designing the programmes and lesson plans. The learning models were incorporated into police probationer training, however, investigative training appeared to have stood still.

The initial CID training course comprised several weeks of largely didactic lectures concentrating on legislation, policy, and procedure. The main area of training for detectives was the Junior Initial CID Training Course, as stated the training was delivered in the 'training schools' of the larger provincial police forces. The style of instruction and learning of the day consisted of students taking rough notes during the day and then spending the evening writing them up into a book to enable students to retain the information (Randles 2006).

The selection process to attend the Junior CID Training course was typical of the day and affected the pervading culture of the police service at the time. Studies in the context of police culture tend to examine, sexism, racism, and homophobia (Rowe 2014). Initial ethnographies in the context of police culture tend to portray a police service that no longer exists (O'Neill & Singh, 2007). The pervading culture was a typically sexist and institutionally racist (Macpherson, 1999). As a large organisation, the police service would contain anything that was existing in society itself. Following successful completion of the police probationary period, a police constable would be permanently appointed. The officer would continue uniform patrol duties and depending on the specific

development programme by each police force would undertake driver training, having gained experience, and built a reputation as a 'thief taker'. Not to be mistaken for the professional thief takers in the sixteenth century onwards, the phrase thief taker in the context of policing in England and Wales in 1960's and 1970's was almost a police slang phrase for a police officer who was considered by colleagues and supervisors to be good at arresting those responsible for theft, burglary, robbery and kindred offences. Prior to the development of occupational standards and specific skills sets, the officer would make an application to undertake a six-month CID attachment. If the officer worked hard and sufficiently impressed his or her colleagues and supervisors, the officer would be considered for a full time posting to CID when a vacancy became available. The yardstick for the officer to be recommended for the full-time post would often be influenced by other members of the team. Therefore, it could be considered that if your face did not fit, you were out. Police forces and in some cases divisions within police forces had different methods of selection. Over time a more rationalised process was put in place. Figure 7 indicates how a probationary uniform police constable may progress to the role of Detective Constable.

Figure 7. Constable Progression 1975 – 1990; Adapted from Merseyside Police Training Archive

Experience	Outcome
Complete Two Years Police Probation	Permanent Appointment
Gain more experience	Driver Training
Sub-Divisional Crime Team	Crime Investigation Low Level
Divisional Plain Clothes work	Drugs and Vice Investigation
Six Month CID Attachment	Six-month File Building
Posting to CID	Junior CID Course

The course was a ten-week residential programme delivered at Bishopgarth, Wakefield (West Yorkshire Police), Mather Avenue, Liverpool (Merseyside Police), Hutton Hall, Preston (Lancashire Constabulary), Tally Ho, Birmingham (West Midlands Police), Ryton-on-Dunsmore (Gloucestershire) and King Western House, Bristol, (Avon & Somerset Police). Comprising a series of lectures, each week of the ten-week programme commenced with a criminal law examination. This method of training, namely the transmitting of factual information to an audience was deemed economical,

however there was no guarantee that effective learning resulted from the process (Walkin, 2000). The ten-week course remained in place until 1992. The pass or fail element of the Junior Initial CID Course was used by some forces as a selection process. Other forces, if the officer failed the course examination (which as was very rare) would revisit the context of, is this officer a good thief taker. The delivery of the training courses alluded to earlier were residential and the venues were known as Home Office Detective Training Schools, over time the names changed to Investigative Skills Centres and latterly Academies (Merseyside, Police 2007)

Significant Changes to Police Training

A significant change to training occurred in 1981, when large scale civil disturbances took place in London, Liverpool, Birmingham, and Bristol, associated with a failure in policing. The Scarman enquiry was ordered by the then Home Secretary, William Whitelaw two days after these riots in April 1981 and given added urgency by their repetition in July the same year (Bowling 1998). To meet the recommendations of the Scarman Report in 1982, a wholesale review of police recruitment and training was conducted by the 'Stage 11 Review Team'. This was led by Professor John Elliot from the University of East Anglia. The Team explored the concept of softer interpersonal skills such as communication and empathy. Elliot (1987) stated that the ability to self-monitor was crucial and the intention of the team was to create a culture in which the development of the ability to monitor one's own performance and behaviour in dealing with people could be achieved. The phrase reflective practice was adopted. The incumbent director of the Central Planning Unit resigned and the then director of Hendon Police Training Centre, Leslie Poole was appointed, (NPT Archive, 1990). Poole embraced the philosophy of person-centred learning with great enthusiasm. The Stage 11 Review Team had provided detailed advice and guidance as to what the training context should look like, however, the team was not responsible for the implementation of the training. (Elliot, 1988)

The concept of case study was introduced into training programmes as part of the process of encouraging trainees to reflect on the own performance. Poole ensured that instructing staff were trained in evaluation methods to provide a consistent evaluative approach to the training so that this could be developed in real time and prevent the need for periodical full-scale reviews. This new concept of training attracted the label as being pink and fluffy (Field-Smith 1997). The concept was also viewed as an off shoot of new trends in management training and the experimentation of facilitation where training staff were no longer to direct, observe and report, but to facilitate the learning of the group (Villiers 1998). The training of Instructors ceased and the training of trainers commenced. Trainers and staff responsible for the training of trainers misunderstood the real use and purpose of case study (Warner 1991). The training team in addition to misunderstanding the concept of case study, often appeared confused in the context of learning theory with complicated theoretical frameworks of learning and understanding expected to be learned and understood in a manner of weeks Villiers (1998).

Theoretical Frameworks of Police Training

At this juncture, it is useful to consider the overarching theoretical framework of police training or police education. This sub section will provide an outline of the preferred police training framework namely, the humanist context of work-based learning and will then discuss an overview of experiential learning theory. The concept of work-based learning draws on Dewey (1916, 1933, 1938), particularly in terms of discussions of experience and reflection in relation to learning and the notion of democratic reconceptualization of vocational learning. These themes have been taken up in the context of professional and vocational learning by a variety of theorists (Knowles, 1970; Kolb, 1984; Schon 1983;) who have been influential in the development of models for adult and professional learning over the last two decades. Along with Schon's reflective practitioner philosophy, work-based learning draws heavily on the idea of action research (Lewin, 1946; Carr &

Kemmis, 1986) and to an extent participative enquiry (Reason & Rowan, 1981) which is concerned with changing situations as much as researching them, and they are also essentially collaborative. Another influence that is evident in some work-based programmes is the action learning model where learners develop insights through tackling real-world issues (Revans, 1980). Key individuals associated with the development of humanism, and who impacted the course of police preparation, are Abraham Maslow, Carl Rogers, and, as mentioned above, Malcolm Knowles (Birzer, 2004; Birzer, 2003; Birzer & Tennehill, 2001; Owens & Valesky, 2010). Humanist education theorists argue that people learn by making their own discoveries, at their own pace and direction, with appropriate support. They envision teachers as facilitators of student-centred learning. It is based on the Socratic discursive approach where teachers discuss, thereby assisting the development of critical thinking. Learning is viewed as coming from experience and self-discovery, which is followed by some form of reflection on that experience with students at the centre of the learning experience. Autonomous learning is advocated, that is the student taking ownership of the new insights (Patterson, 2011).

A further influence on police training at the time came from Maslow. He believed that individuals have an internal motivation to achieve their fullest potential, what he called self-actualization. Maslow described human motivation as consisting of five distinct levels, which he organized from the most basic to higher-order needs. The five levels of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs are Basic Physiological Needs, Security and Safety, Social Affiliation, Esteem, and Self-Actualization (Owens & Valesky, 2004). The first four levels are called deficiency needs, as their absence will motivate an individual to seek their fulfilment. Maslow viewed self-actualization as the ultimate goal of human growth but believed that it cannot be sought until all deficiency needs have been met (Birzer, 2004; Owens & Valesky, 2004).

The impact of Maslow on police education is evidenced by an increased awareness of the needs of adult learners within a classroom setting Della (2004). Kennedy (2003) asserts that adult learners are different than younger learners in that adult learners have a different self-image, greater life experiences, a fear of failure, the expectation that learning will be of immediate use, diminished speed of retention and learning, a decline in visual clarity, and a decline in auditory acuity. When advocating for teaching practices to address such issues as self-image differences, the fear of failure, a diminished speed of retention and learning, and a decline in visual and auditory acuity, Kennedy and Della seek to help police trainers meet Maslow's 'deficiency needs' thus allowing students to learn more effectively (Della, 2004). The epistemological base of work-based learning tends to be rooted in a form of pragmatism, the application of knowledge for problem solving (Dewey, 1938). Learning or cognition, is dependant to some extent on learning style (Riding and Rayner, 1998). There are several debates around the meaning of the term learning style within education and training. (Eysenck, 1995) discusses the plethora of personality testing instruments reflecting observable behaviour. However, Jackson and Lawtey-Jones (1996) support the stance taken by Furnham (1992) in that learning styles are a subset of personality not requiring measurement. Learning style as a term is subject to speculation. Riding and Rayner (1998) in an attempt to clarify the multitude of terms relating to learning style argue that learning styles fall into four groups. Learning processes, orientation to study, instructional preferences, and cognitive skills. Riding and Rayner (1998) further argue that strategies can be learned and modified while style is a relatively fixed core characteristic of an individual, and that those models of learning style that belong to a learning-centred approach are learning strategies rather than learning styles. Despite the confusion over the terminology, Schmeck (1988) argued for the retention of the term learning styles.

The leading influence in learner centred pedagogy since 1984, and heavily relied upon in police training and trainer training at the time is Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory (ELT). The model was

considered as catching the mood of innovation and was successful in management and training. Kolb (1984), developed ideas from earlier models of experiential learning (Lewin, 1935; Lewin 1951). The Kolb model appears most frequently in the literature (Kayes, 2002). Experiential learning is based on the notion that understanding is not a fixed or unchangeable element of thought and experiences can contribute to its forming and re-forming. Experiential learning is a continuous process and implies that we all bring to learning situations our own knowledge, ideas, beliefs, and practices at different levels of elaboration that should in turn be amended or shaped by the experience, if we learn from it. Experience gained through life, education, and work plays a central part in learning; this constructivist perspective on learning is also called experiential learning. The continuously cycling model of learning that has become known as the 'Kolb Learning Cycle' requires four kinds of abilities/undertaking if learning is to be successful. From the perspective that learning is the product of one's experiences, a concept that is particularly relevant to the methods of andragogy and police education. Kolb (1984:38) defines learning as "the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience". Kolb further suggests that experiential learning theory represents a holistic and integrative approach to learning because it integrates four different elements: experience, perception, cognition, and behaviour; all of which are of particular importance to police preparation. Kolb further contends that: "when learning is conceived as a holistic adaptive process, it provides conceptual bridges across life situations such as school and work, portraying learning as a continuous, lifelong process" (Kolb, 1984: 172). Conceptually, this is of interest to the processes experienced in police education.

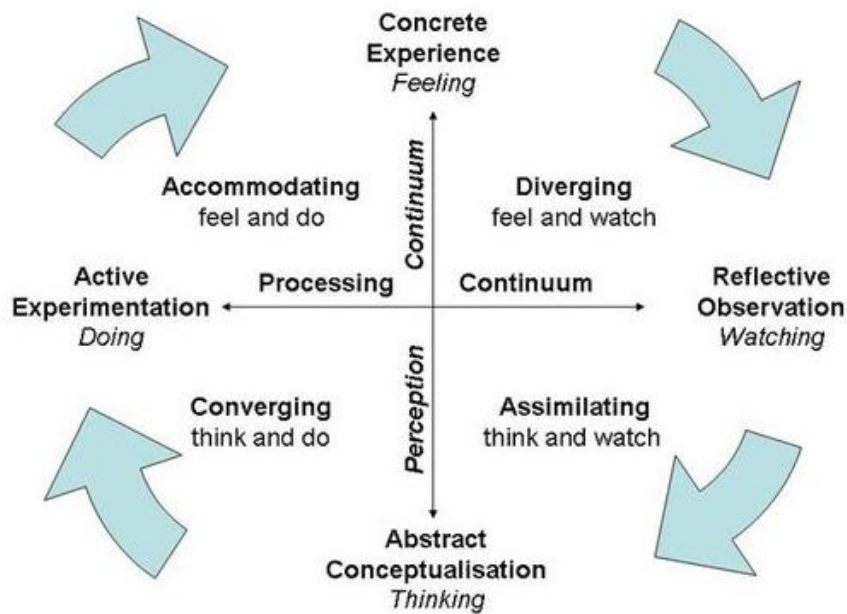


Figure. 8. Kolb Learning Cycle - Processing and Perception Continuums.

Kolb's learning cycle relates to four learning styles: Concrete Experience - feeling (CE); Reflective Observation – watching (RO); Abstract Conceptualization - thinking (AC) and Active Experimentation - doing (AE). Kolb proposes two preferred ways of learning: the first a preference for learning by thinking versus a preference for feeling. The second involves a preference for learning by doing as opposed a preference for observing. This is demonstrated by the use of 2 bipolar continuums:

AC to CE on one and AE to RO on the other. The continuums range from Active–Reflective on the one, and Abstract- Concrete dimensions on the other. The first ranges from direct participation to detached observation, whilst the second ranges from dealing with tangible objects to dealing with theoretical concepts (Kolb, 1981; Allinson and Hayes, 1988). The classification of scores on the two continuums classifies individuals into one of the orthogonal (made up of a right angle) learning styles, reflecting the dominant orientation. Within the quadrants in Figure 8, the learning styles can be explained or labelled as: Converger learning style relies on abstract conceptualization and active experimentation abilities. It is a problem solving, decision making style, preferring technical tasks. Diverger is the opposite of converger, preferring to learn through concrete experience and reflective

observation. Their imagination is their greatest strength. The diverger tends to be more oriented towards feelings and people (Hunsaker, 1981). Assimilators dominant abilities are abstract conceptualization and reflective observation, greatest strength being their ability to utilize inductive reasoning, and ability to create theoretical models. Similarly, to convergence they are less focused on people. Assimilators excel at the use of inductive reasoning to sort many perspectives into a theoretical model. Accommodator is the opposite of Assimilator. Strength being in concrete experience and active experimentation, in carrying out plans and tasks, becoming involved in new experiences, and can sometimes be seen as impatient. Kolb (1981) gave rise to the learning styles inventory (LSI). The LSI was found in some quarters as difficult to complete with some concerns as to the predictive validity (Hunsaker, 1981). Kolb revised the LSI in 1985 and 1999 aiming at improved reliability of the process (Parker, 2011). The consensus asserted that although the constructs within Kolb were valid, the measurements within the LSI maybe incorrect and proposed that the Honey and Mumford questionnaire as a more promising way forward (Cornwell and Manfreda, 1994; Knowles et al, 1998). It must be clearly stated however that criticism of the LSI in no way dilutes or casts doubt on the underpinning theory of ELT. The crux of the criticism of LSI, revolves around the bipolar nature of the instrument which in effect forces respondents to make a choice between two options (Kayes, 2002).

Honey and Mumford (1995) following Kolb (1984) who in effect followed Lewin (1935), developed the learning styles questionnaire. Honey and Mumford, (1992) explained that LSQ was mainly based on Kolb's theory and uses the same stages of the ELT, the difference is the LSQ instrument itself. In the context of police training in general and investigative training in particular, LSQ explored what practitioners do, namely observable behaviour, rather than LSI which concentrated on how people learn per se. Honey and Mumford (1992) base their model on four mutually exclusive learning styles. Activist, Reflector, Theorist and Pragmatist. (At the time of this programme of research, one of the police forces taking part actively used the Honey and Mumford LSQ in the selection of training

syndicates, this will be discussed later in the thesis.). Honey and Mumford's descriptors of their styles are as illustrated at Figure 9

Learning Style	Attributes	Activities
Activist	<p>Learn by doing, and happy to jump in</p> <p>Enjoy the challenge of new experiences, without bias</p> <p>Often guilty of acting before they think</p> <p>Do not learn well from teaching, theory, reading or analysing data</p>	<p>Puzzles</p> <p>Competitions</p> <p>Role-play</p> <p>Brainstorming</p> <p>Problem-solving</p>
Theorist	<p>Like to understand the theory behind actions</p> <p>Enjoy models, concepts, and facts</p> <p>Analyse and synthesise testable hypotheses</p> <p>Not suited to learning without instruction</p> <p>Not good in situations that involve 'feelings' or when objectives or instructions are ambiguous</p>	<p>Models</p> <p>Statistics</p> <p>Stories</p> <p>Quotes</p> <p>Applying theories</p>
Pragmatist	<p>Need to be able to see how they apply their learning to the real world</p> <p>Abstract concepts are useless if they cannot see how it is applicable</p> <p>Enjoy trying new theories and techniques</p> <p>Do not happily engage when objectives and instructions are unclear, or when it is heavy in theory</p>	<p>Thinking about how to apply theories to reality</p> <p>Case studies</p> <p>Problem-solving</p> <p>Discussion</p>
Reflector	<p>Learn through observation and reflecting on results</p> <p>Prefer to watch from the sidelines.</p> <p>Take information in from multiple perspectives and work to a conclusion</p> <p>Reflectors are not good at leading activities or being rushed, with no preparation</p>	<p>Observing activities</p> <p>Feedback from others</p> <p>Coaching</p> <p>Interviews</p> <p>Paired discussions</p>

Figure 9. Adapted from Honey and Mumford Learning Styles.

Each of the styles labelled by Honey and Mumford can be linked to the relevant educational theory.

Allinson and Hayes (1988) argue that the LSQ is preferable to the LSI owing the accurate identification of two related dimensions of cognitive style, namely analysis and action. However, analysis by (Duff, 1997; Allinson and Hayes, 1990) found inter correlations within the four LSQ styles. Mumford (1994) agreed with the assertions of Caple and Martin (1994) to the effect that Kolb's (1981) description of experience may offer more clarity than the description put forward by Honey and Mumford (1992). However, Coffield et al (2004) highlighted the use of LSQ in a workplace setting to select and blend working teams. Hayes and Allinson (1996) state that learning style could become a key variable in any conceptual framework for the design of employee training. This view is supported to a certain extend by Sims et al (1989) who argue that learning style is a valid psychological construct and useful in explaining a variety of phenomenon. LSQ was considered as suitable in some quarters as a valid tool to select training teams (Merseyside Police, 2006).

As more became known regarding the needs of adult learners in general, police preparation philosophy moved towards methods consistent with adult learning principles (Birzer, 2003; Birzer & Tennehill, 2001; Della, 2004;). Few believe behaviourism and cognitivism have no place in the education of police officers. However, many believe that a more humanistic approach will allow student officers to build proficiency in non-academic competencies (problem solving, critical thinking, etc.) as well as subject matter knowledge. A humanistic approach will also more closely mirror the democratic ideals that officers are supposed to embody within society (Marenin, 2004). Originally formulated in 1833 by Kapp who used the term to describe elements of Plato's education theory, andragogy, originally from two Greek words (andr, meaning "man" and, in a broader sense, "adult" and agogus, meaning leader of), is the art and science of helping adults learn (Knowles, 1990; Davenport, 1993). As the art and science of helping adults learn (Knowles, 1980), andragogy is

consistent with a humanistic approach to education recognising the principle of adults being self-directed and responsible for their own learning. Knowles suggests that andragogy is premised on five critical assumptions: self-concept, experience, readiness to learn, orientation to learning and motivation to learn (Knowles, 1984). Merriam and Brockett (2007) suggest that andragogy is a term that belongs to adult education. According to Knowles (1980), the last principle of andragogy is the need for immediate application of theory to practice and the related focus on problems as opposed to content. Learning strategies employed in the context of investigative training is less involved with theory and more focused on emphasising practical applications of knowledge relevant to the real world (Patterson 2011). This humanist approach has been described as a better framework for police education than either behaviourism or cognitivism. The concept of andragogy is not without its critics and much criticism comes from how andragogy is classified. Cross (1992) suggests that andragogy is probably closer to a theory of teaching than a theory of learning. However, Davenport (1993) discusses the notion of whether andragogy is a theory, a method, a technique, or a set of assumptions. Hartree (1984) argues it is not clear whether andragogy is a theory or set of assumptions about learning, or a theory or model of teaching. Therefore, investigative training moved forward utilising a student-centred learning model encompassing a humanist approach. The learning environment takes into consideration, student needs concerns and expectations attempting to stimulate motivation and encourage participation. This brings together several theoretical notions espoused by Pratt (2002), Powers and Guan (2000), and Grasha (2002). The Junior Initial CID Course was transformed from a ten-week training course into a six-week residential training programme supplemented by a one-week investigative interview training programme. See Figure 10. The development saw the removal of the title or phrase 'junior detective' from the policing lexicon and the introduction of the phrase trainee investigator.

Figure 10. Residential Investigator Training Initial Investigators Course Plan Adapted from National Crime Faculty /Central Planning Unit (1995)

Element	Criteria	Assessment
Law/ Procedure Examination	Pass / Fail	Not applicable
Investigative Interview Training	Attendance	Not applicable
Six-week skills-based training	Attendance	Mid-Course Assessment Final Assessment Personal Development Review

Training of Trainers

The training of trainers programme delivered by the Central Planning Unit (CPU) at Harrogate relied heavily on the learning models alluded to above, Kolb, Dewey, and Lewin. ¹There was no different training available for staff who had been selected to deliver investigative training to police officers with potentially considerable policing experience than there was for those who had been selected to deliver initial police training (Peacock, 2010). In 1994, National Police Training (NPT), the successor to the CPU, developed a Detective Trainers Development Programme. This programme had two differences to the generic programme namely, a) the student trainers wore plain clothes instead of uniform and b), the assessed teaching practice took place at a Trainee Investigator Training event and not an Initial police probationer training event (NPT, 1998). The trainer training process is detailed in Figure 11.

¹ [The researcher completed National Police Trainers Programme in December 1993].

Figure 11 Trainer Selection and Progress Description, adapted from CPU /NPT

Initial Application

- Formal written evidenced based application from substantive Sergeants. At the time of application in early 1993, I was a Detective Sergeant in a reactive CID function.
- Attend Assessment Centre to ascertain Suitability for the Role

Attendance at NPT Harrogate residential training for seven weeks:

- Learning Theory
- Reflective Practice
- Feedback
- Introduction to Case Study
- Lesson Planning
- Classroom Practice
- Completion of a highly detailed development portfolio.

Assessed Sessions and detailed debriefing; If the student trainer did not meet the required standard during the assessed sessions, they would be advised to return to the home force for further debriefing (failed).

Teaching Practice Phase: Three Weeks at District Police Training Centre

Assessment of delivery of three training sessions to probationary constables or recruits on an initial police training course. Assessment was carried out by a police Inspector who was a fully qualified assessor and had completed the National Police Curriculum Development and Evaluation Programme (CDEP). If the student trainer had reached the required standard, formal report and recommendation that the relevant certificate is issued. If the student trainer did not reach the required standard by assessment three, the student trainer would be given the opportunity to undertake two further assessments.

Return to NPT Harrogate for one week.

- Course debriefing
- Issue of Certificate
- Formal Dinner

The certificate evidencing the passing of the NPT Trainers Programme was in effect an in-house policing qualification and was not accredited to any further or higher education establishment or

development body. An accredited qualification was available on a voluntary basis. Student trainers could obtain the City and Guilds 7307 Adult and Further Education Teaching Certificate (7307) Level 3. The 7307 was issued on successful completion of the Trainer programme together with the submission of a piece of coursework outlining the availability of post compulsory education developmental and academic training programmes in your home area. This was a valuable qualification in that the 7307 was acceptable to most higher education establishments as evidence of prior learning and would (as in my case) allow me to join a programme at a local university to complete the Post Graduate Certificate in Education (Post 16).

The Student Trainers Programme was a very intense programme, the average working day during the phase at NPT Harrogate would comprise a mixture of tuition and assessment over a period of ten hours. Each group of student trainers were on the same course following the same timetable. Based upon discussion with other student trainers on parallel courses, the approach to learning theory and teaching style varied according to the director of studies. This resulted in inconsistency as one would have the grasp of learning theory dependent upon the level of understanding of the director of studies. It was not unknown on occasion for directors of study to disagree with each other. The occasional uncertainty evidences the findings of Walker and Elliot (2004) that all training must be consistent with processes in place to ensure that training delivery meets consistent expectations.

To assist with understanding of the developments in the governance of police training, it may be useful at this point to interrupt the chronology of the historical context of investigative training and explain the formation of the Association of Chief Police Officers, (ACPO) and the formation of the National Police Chiefs Council (NPCC)

The Transformation of ACPO and Changes in the Governance of Police Training

1948 saw the merging of the Chief Constables Association of England and Wales and the County Chief Constables Club to form the Association of Chief Police Officers (ACPO). The constitution was formalised in 1991 and in 1997, ACPO linked its professional accountability to Chief Constables

through an elected process and established the ACPO Business area. ACPO had responsibility for a number of National policing business areas. The ACPO Crime Business Area was responsible for the development and governance of PIP. In 2010, the government announced a series of reforms in the context of local accountability via the appointment of Policing and Crime Commissioners PCCs. It is not the intention of the current study to chart the progress of or evaluate the effectiveness of PCCs. However, PCCs commissioned an independent review of ACPO to review the service provided by ACPO and make recommendations in respect of a national policing body to meet changes to policing. The independent review carried out by General Sir Nick Parker (NPCC, 2013) recommended the development of a modernised and simplified national policing body a group was formed of Chief officers and PCCs to implement the Parker Report. ACPO closed down in 2015 and the National Police Chiefs Council (NPCC) was formed under the leadership of Sara Thornton. NPCC coordinates the operational response across the police service to threats faced by the United Kingdom (NPCC 2016). The NPCC works closely with the College of Policing and the Association of the Police and Crime Commissioners (APCC)

Prior to 2002, police training in England and Wales was overseen by National Police Training (NPT), a Home Office Unit. In 1992, the Police Training Council recognising concerns for the management of police training appointed a Director of National Police Training tasked with the responsibility to investigate and provide a series of recommendations in the context of the rationalisation of police training, service delivery and lines of accountability. Several units and faculties were developed under the guidance and control of four distinct Assistant Directors. For the purpose of the current study, the portfolio of the Assistant Director Crime and Operations is important as within this grouping of responsibility was the National Crime Faculty with the responsibility for the transformation of the Junior Initial CID Course into a more skills-based training programme. However, in many respects developments in crime investigation training were overshadowed by the reform and redesign of police probationer training.

HMIC following a thematic inspection, focussing on police training, published 'Managing Learning' in April 1999. The inspection was conducted between May and October 1998. This report was one of many targeted at police training and part of the increased scrutiny of the police service. Whilst the report explores all elements of police training, the inspection reports the main concern with initial police training of recruits and does not concern itself with the minutiae of investigative training and in effect forms the basis of some far-reaching changes to the governance of initial police training. The report distinguishes education as the development of professional qualifications and training as the development of policing skills (HMIC, 1999).

The overall drive of the report was to nationalise the approach to police training in terms of design, costing, qualification of trainers, evaluation, and training delivery. Although there were already national guidelines in place for some courses, not all forces adhered to those; some had designed their own courses. Police forces by now had been able to take advantage of income generation opportunities in offering their courses to other forces. This was largely true of the investigative training offered by the traditional training centres in the context of investigative training. Smaller police forces found it more cost effective to send investigators away to be trained rather than to go through the intensive process of developing an in-house investigative training provision.

HMIC (1999) also identified the links of the training function explicitly to the human resources departments of the police service and identified that any training should form part of a broader human resource strategy, driving the training requirements to achieve the right people, with the right skills, in the right places and the right time (HMIC, 1999). It goes on to suggest that with an explicit link to Human Resources, there should then be an adoption of a National Competency Framework introduced for all staff for their Performance and Development Review (PDR). The PDR should then be used by supervisors to identify any training needs and allow forces to identify and prioritise training needs for the organization. The National Competency Framework (2014) outlined the 'behaviours' required of a police officer. These included standards such as 'Respect for Race and

Diversity', 'Communication', 'Team Working' and 'Personal Responsibility' to name just a few. These standards provided positive and negative indicators against which staff could be assessed and training needs identified.

HMIC reported to the Select Committee on Home Affairs and argued that to ensure consistent and professional policing is to provide training for all staff that leads to a common standard for service delivery;

...the police service needs to make it a priority to draw up a competency framework outlining the core skills required in all posts. Once such a framework is in place it will allow better appraisal of officers, assist officers in their personal development and help identify individual training needs more clearly. Furthermore, it will mean that all training can be designed and delivered specifically to help officers to attain the necessary competencies...

(Home Office Select committee on Home Affairs 1999:11. Fourth Report Excerpt).

The Governments reply to the fourth report by the Select Committee of Home Affairs, accepted and welcomed the findings. In doing so there was acknowledgement that police training had been subject to significant scrutiny, including the HMIC Thematic review 'Managing Learning' which had already identified the key national projects such as the strategic review of National Police Training, a report by the Police Federation, Project Forward, and the findings of the MacPherson enquiry

The legitimacy of the police was threatened by a series of high-profile miscarriages of justice, organised corruption, and poor investigative practice (Reiner 2012). In 1993, Stephen Lawrence, a black student was stabbed to death in an unprovoked racist attack by gang of white youths as he waited for a bus in Eltham, south East London. The subsequent investigation into the murder was subject to heavy criticism and in 1997, resulted in a judicial inquiry into the case by Sir William MacPherson at the request of the then Home Secretary. The terms of reference of the inquiry were;

...to Inquire into the matters arising from the death of Stephen Lawrence on 22 April 1993 to date, in order particularly to identify the lessons to be learned for the investigation and prosecution of racially motivated crimes...
(MacPherson Report, 1999: 3.1)

The report into the case and its wider implications highlighted by Sir William Macpherson concluded that the police investigation was marred by a combination of professional incompetence, institutional racism, and a failure of leadership by senior officers (MacPherson 1999). The inquiry made 73 recommendations. In the context of training, the inquiry recommendation that all police officers including CID and civilian staff be trained in racism awareness and valuing cultural diversity. There were no specific recommendations in the context of investigative training, however, one specific recommendation namely that Police Services should together with the Home Office develop guidelines as to the handling of victims and witnesses, particularly in the field of racist incidents and crimes. MacPherson (1999) impacted on investigative procedure [and was included in the (NOS) for PIP Level 2 investigations.]

Government had also considered findings of a report by Sir William Stubbs and Roger McClure entitled *The Organisation and Funding of Police Training in England and Wales; Guiding Principles* which had been submitted in July 1999. Each of these reports and inspections acknowledged both elements of good practice but also shortcomings within police training across the board.

From March 2001 to 2004, the Police Skills and Standards Organisation (PSSO) was recognised as the national training organisation for the police in the United Kingdom. The core roles of PSSO was to develop national occupational standards, increase skills levels and provide the recognised voice of the police across a spectrum of learning, skills training, and development issues.

In 2004, PSSO published its final report. Investigative and Detective Skills featured only in two short paragraphs of a 265-page publication and alluded to the pathfinder programmes in the overall implementation of PIP. The report set out to identify the external change drivers impacting on the police sector together with change emanating from the internal environment ideally bringing together the findings of HMIC and other bodies that report and comment on the performance of the police service. PSSO became Skills for Justice, the Sector Skills council for the Justice Sector in April of that year Skills for Justice (2004). Skills for Justice in 2004 was the new strategic employer led

organisation, leading the drive to raise standards of performance by addressing the sectors skills and challenges. Skills for Justice brought together all agencies and authorities across the justice centre in the United Kingdom.

Recommendation 14 of the Flanagan Report tasked NPIA and Skills for Justice to undertake a fundamental review of the Integrated Competency Framework (ICF) on behalf of tripartite partners to ensure it could continue to support UK police forces by way of being a useful and ²accessible tool for police managers and staff structure of accountability. Flanagan (2008) stated that while accepting that ICF must be underpinned by sound and robust information, for it to be of value it must assist rather than burden practitioners (Flanagan 2008). The ICF Review set out to address issues highlighted by forces and national reports ensuring that the Policing Professional Framework (PPF) was a radical departure from the ICF adding value not only to national programmes and HR processes but also to front line officers and staff members (NPIA 2011).

PPF was designed to provide national roles for all ranks and staff levels based on the National Occupational Standards (NOS) and personal qualities in an effort to ensure that within the police organisation, people are well skilled to deliver effective services. In 2011, NPIA and Skills for Justice developed the PPF Implementation Toolkit. The concept that a reliable standard framework will ensure that the police service would get the best from its people whilst minimising bureaucracy NPIA (2011)

NOS was recognised as a standardised approach to defining what 'good' looks like in a range of job roles, describe the level of competency necessary across an organisation and help individuals work consistently to best practice standards. NOS are divided into units and each one describes a key part of someone's job; defining the knowledge, skills and understanding that employees need and can be

² . [Tripartite in this context being the tripartite structure of accountability namely, the responsibility for policing is shared between police authorities, Chief Constables, and the Home Secretary: as of 2012, police authorities have been replaced with Policing and Crime Commissioners (PCC)]

used for recruitment, promotion, and everything in between. In ICF, activities were used within role profiles to measure competence. In time, NOS were linked to activities resulting in duplication in role profiles. The new PPF ranks, levels and professional skills sets contained several elements; role title, role definition, NOS core to the role, personal qualities required at the role level and associated qualifications, accreditation, and learning programmes. The PPF for a Detective Constable contains Three NOS for a Detective Constable namely the ability to; conduct serious and complex investigations, interview victims and witness in relation to serious and complex crime and Interview suspects in relation to serious and complex investigations. PPF was replaced by the Competency and Values Framework (CVF) The core role profiles will be in place early 2020, PPF provides the role profiles for officers based on rank and profiles for staff based upon level of operation. The profiles are based around National Occupational Standards (NOS) and are supported by personal qualities. (College of Policing 2016).

Transition from Centrex to College of Policing

The Central Police Training and Development Authority (Centrex) was established on 1 April 2002 as a body corporate by authority of the Criminal Justice and Police Act 2001. The Police Reform Act 2002 paved the way for the formation of the National Centre for Policing Excellence (NCPE) and Police Standards and Skills Organisation (PSSO) [subsumed by Skills for Justice, see previous subsection]. The concept (NCPE) was introduced in the Government White Paper, Policing a New Century. A Blueprint for Reform, with its mandate being outlined in the Police Reform Act 2002. The NCPE was formally established in 2003. Centrex, the common name of the Central Police Training and Development Authority (CPTDA), was established under Part 4 of the Criminal Justice and Police Act 2001 and was the primary means of police training in England and Wales.

In July 2004, the intention to establish a National Policing Improvement Agency (NPIA) was made clear with the publication of the Home Office's five-year strategic plan. Key stakeholders provided

their response as part of a consultation process, and the White Paper 'Building Communities, Beating Crime – A Better Police Service for the 21st Century' was published on 9 November 2004. This set out more of the detail about the agency. The NPIA was established and Centrex and PITO abolished by the Police and Justice Act 2006. The NPIA became operational from 1 April 2007.

Commissioned by ACPO and the Home Office, during 2006 – 2007, Centrex published doctrine in the form of codes, guidance, and practice advice. Doctrine was reported by Centrex to encapsulate the collective knowledge of the Police Service, and frequently that of partner agencies, into a coherent set of working practices on specific areas of policing. This in turn informs the development of specialist training products, process improvements and operational support (Centrex 2008)

In 2006-2007, Centrex completed and issued 15 pieces of doctrine; work was under way on an additional 22 at the end of the year, and all doctrine continued to be reviewed on a biannual basis. In addition, the half-yearly production of the Journal of Homicide and Major Incident Investigation was considered to be providing a valuable source of information on legislation and professional practice for Senior Investigating Officers (SIO). The Journal of Homicide and Major Investigation is currently an online publication managed and published by the University of South Wales Centre for Criminology. The journal is published twice a year on behalf of the National Police Homicide Working Group and encourages practitioners and policy makers to share professional knowledge and practice.

Centrex reported that Doctrine embodies sound, well-evidenced good practice, and for this reason is of critical importance for every force as well as for individual officers. However, doctrine would simply sit gathering dust on shelves without meaningful plans to ensure it is implemented and forces derive maximum benefit from it. Working with ACPO, Centrex specialist implementation teams identified the key elements of guidance that needed to be standardised across the service and assessed the resources individual forces required – be they, the people, the knowledge, or the systems. This allowed Centrex to identify and develop the additional support or training products

and to promote local examples of good practice on a national basis. Subsequently Centrex assisted forces to develop their own local implementation plan and provided specific assistance where it was needed. We also worked with HMIC to develop specific grading criteria for inspections based on the aims of the doctrine concerned. After 9-12 months, the final stage of the implementation process is a peer review. This provides an independent assessment of how successfully a particular piece of doctrine was implemented, and in turn informs future implementation strategies.

Two influential reports namely the Review of Police Leadership and Training (Neyroud, 2011) and the Independent Review of Police Officer and Staff Remuneration and Conditions: Final Report Volumes 1 & 2 (Winsor, 2012) were utilised in the government report New Landscape of Policing (Home Office 2011) and coincided with the consultation process outlined in the governments vision for a free and fair society in the context of policing in the 21st Century: Reconnecting Police and the People (Home Office 2010). The report added to the growing concept of professional body for policing, the development of a pre-entry qualification and the setting up of a professional policing body. The PIP programme was to remain as the continuing developmental programme for investigators across all ranks and roles. In 2012, following a period of consultation and systematic review, the Home Secretary laid a ministerial statement formalising the establishment of the College of Policing (CoP) (Home Office 2012). The mission of CoP was reported to be to safeguard the public and support the fight against crime by ensuring professionalism of policing.

NPIA was in effect wound down; in December 2012, functions were transferred to the Home Office and the College of Policing. Including:

- Authorised Professional Practice (APP)
- Continuous improvement, Capability Support and Cost Effectiveness
- Exams and Assessment
- Learning, development strategy and curriculum

- Learning Delivery
- The National College of Police Leadership
- Practice Improvement
- Research, Analysis, and Information

Therefore, as of 1st December 2012, College of Policing took full responsibility for the delivery and development of the PIP programme. In September 2013, the College of Policing published the Delivery Plan 2013/2014. The short-term ambition for policing, focus and context for the College's work is set out in the National Policing Vision 2016. To establish the status of the police in England and Wales, the College of Policing seek to:

- Work with police and partners to improve standards across policing
- Develop the evidence base of what works
- Provide knowledge to frontline officers and staff using the best technology
- Support continuous professional development for all in policing

The College of Policing developed and owns Authorised Professional Practice (APP) which in effect is an online knowledge repository envisaged to underpin and support the National Policing Vision. APP is an interactive web-based application providing detailed information in the context of legislative and procedural processes to be adhered to across the many and varied area of policing. Police officers and staff are expected to have regard to APP in discharging their responsibilities (College of Policing 2016). Consultation with the public, subject matter experts law enforcement bodies, partner agencies and police forces is actively undertaken by the College of Policing to keep the APP to be better informed (College of Policing, 2014). APP is secure in that there is no general access to sensitive material and certain access can only be via an approved police force device. College of Policing have decommissioned a series of ACPO guidance documents, and these have been superseded by APP. To date 57 ACPO guidance documents are superseded by APP. ACPO had a clear

role to set standards, policy, and guidance for the police service. This responsibility has transferred to the College of Policing (College of Policing, 2014).

The Code of Practice to CPIA, 1996 (CPIA) defines a criminal investigator as:

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

Code of Practice, (2015:4).

An investigator may be a warranted officer or member of police staff. Section 38 of the Police Reform Act 2002 allows chief officers to designate police staff as investigating officers. Experienced offenders may try to prevent material from being gathered. Maintaining a current knowledge of criminal law will assist investigators to deploy the full range of investigative techniques, thereby helping to prevent offenders disrupting the process.

There are several investigative principles which are widely accepted within the police service. The principles are underpinned by the recognition that policing works best where it has the support and cooperation of the community.

These principles propose that:

- the exercise of legal powers should not be oppressive and should be proportionate to the crime under investigation.
- as far as is operationally practical and having regard to an individual's right to confidentiality, investigations should be carried out as transparently as possible – victims, witnesses and suspects should be kept up to date with developments in the case
- investigators should take all reasonable steps to understand the needs of individuals, including, but not limited to, any protected characteristics they may have, in order to comply with the provisions of the Equality Act 2010.
- investigators should have regard for vulnerable people and children.

- investigators should respect the professional ethics of others. This is particularly important when working with those whose role it is to support suspects.

These principles, the investigation process, and an investigative mindset provide a structure to support investigations.

The College of Policing PIP Policy 2017 restates the standard for investigation and makes certain additions in the context of the accreditation and development of individual investigators.

Investigations should be undertaken using appropriately skilled staff. PIP is the national standard and applies to investigators at all levels, assessed and registered as competent against the National Occupational Standards (NOS) relevant to their role. When operational demands and resources are such that appropriately skilled staff are not available for deployment, forces will apply measures to support the investigation to reduce resulting risk to the public, the individual and the organisation (College of Policing, 2017).

PIP is a development programme rather than a set of training courses (Stelfox, 2009). Access to each level of PIP is based on skills, knowledge, and experience. To achieve accreditation, individuals are required to show evidence of individual performance through the relevant PIP portfolio. Where necessary, opportunities for developmental activity should be identified and recorded by line managers (College of Policing, 2017). Once accredited, the principle of gain accreditation and keep it is applicable to all PIP levels. Investigators are responsible for their own continuing professional development and for maintaining competence year-on-year, as applicable to their role, with relevant and sufficient support from the organisation. Supervisors and managers are critical to effectively deploying and managing investigators and investigations. They must monitor and review investigations in accordance with relevant policies and ensure that their staff correctly register and maintain annual competence.

The PIP programme was implemented in 2003. The vision of PIP was;

To deliver a professional, ethical, and effective investigation capacity for policing in the 21st century by providing robust, national benchmarked standards maintained and overseen by a professional policing institute. (PIP Implementation Support Plan 2006:5)

PIP was precipitated by a litany of investigative shortcomings (Innes, 2003). There was a need to align national learning and development programmes to the new NOS to enable effective workplace development through and assessment process (McGrory and Treacy, 2012). At PIP Level 2 which is the context for this programme of research, the Initial Crime Investigators Development Programme (ICIDP) was developed to concur with Core Investigative Doctrine (ACPO, 2005).

PIP was subject to detailed review in 2013, the review conducted by National Policing Crime Business Area (CBA) (2013) asserted that continuing to develop as a programme ensured that PIP remained current and is balanced against the changing landscape of policing, greater accountability, risk management and increasing public expectations. PIP provides a structured and consistent development and maintenance programme for investigative skills. It delivers the capability to conduct professional investigations at all levels in the police service and in other sectors of law enforcement. The implementation of PIP in 2004 was complemented by a detailed Implementation Support Plan, it was clearly articulated that professional investigators need skills and the PIP included a learning and development programme for staff new to role together with a structured assessment process for existing investigators.

In the forward to the Implementation Support Plan for PIP 2006, Johnston states that professional investigation is best achieved where forces have appropriately trained staff who apply their skills in accordance with policy and procedures (PIP Implementation Support Plan 2006:4) The implementation support plan (ISP) provided a framework for the development of individual local action plans. An assisted implementation team was selected to assist police forces to achieve the actions set. ACPO agreed detailed time scales for implementation: See Figure 12.

Phase1– to be completed by March 2007

- All knowledge assets in place and Force Policy approved and implemented
- Selection, development, assessment, and registration provisions for all investigators 'New to role' at levels 1,2 and 3 of PIP in place and compliance evident.
- Development, assessment, and registration for all existing investigators at level 3 in place and compliance evident.
- Audit and monitoring provisions in place.

Phase2– to be completed by March 2008

- Systems, People and Estates assets in place.
- Assessment and registration provisions for all existing investigators at levels 1 and 2 in place and compliance evident.
- Provision for continued professional development for accredited staff.

Phase3– to be completed by March 2009

- Development provisions in place for all investigators who failed meet required standards at initial assessment.
- Re-assessment of all investigators who failed to meet standards at initial assessment completed with provision for further action as appropriate.

Figure 12. PIP ISP Timescales (Centrex 2006)

The business benefits of the implementation of PIP implementation were reported to be improved police performance, safer communities and increased public confidence. The ISP provided detailed

examples of the minimum standards for compliance in four specific areas, knowledge, systems, people, and estates. In the context of knowledge, the underpinning asset was clearly the ACPO 2005 Practice Advice on Core Investigative Doctrine. This tangible hard copy book was superseded in 2012 by a second edition. The second edition was only available as a pdf file and was an interim product due to the development of Authorised Professional Practice (APP). The publication has since been superseded by APP and the contents of the publication are now available within APP Content under Investigation. The APP Content is subject to regular review and modification. The Investigation APP was last modified in July 2017.

Investigation APP consolidates information from number of decommissioned documents and in effect has replaced 59 detailed editions of specific ACPO advice and guidance across all aspects of investigation.

Prior to the instigation of the PIP process, the existing learning and development programmes were in need of review and revision. This in turn complimented the publication of the relevant doctrine, (ACPO, 2005; ACPO, 2012). As previously stated, the Police Skills and Standards Organisation (PSSO) now Skills for Justice developed a series of National Occupational Standards (NOS). Learning and development necessary to underpin the PIP process needed to be aligned to the relevant NOS to enable workplace development through a valid assessment process, (McGrory and Treacy, 2012).

Chapter Conclusion

This chapter provides the necessary context to understanding the way developments in investigative practice and investigative training form part of the detailed process of professionalising investigation. A detailed examination of theoretical frameworks of criminal investigation and investigative training place current research in the context of the aims of this study and provides a clear picture of the present investigative position facing policing in England and Wales. The historical context of investigation and investigative training points towards an incremental standardisation of procedures and centralisation. The review of transition from piecemeal investigative training to the

eventual formation of College of Policing and the development of Authorised Professional Practise provide a clear overview of how police training in general and investigative training in particular has been managed. The chapter provides the reader with origins of the Initial Crime Investigators Development Programme and explains the current thinking of the skills and abilities necessary to investigate serious and complex crime.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to explain the research design and data collection methods which were adopted during the programme of research. This chapter will be in four sections. The first section of the chapter will restate the research objectives and following a discussion regarding the strengths and weaknesses of several approaches to research, it will explain why a particular methodology was chosen for the thesis. The second section of the chapter will provide a detailed outline as to the sampling strategy to select the participants in the study and highlight the uniqueness of the participant sample. The third section of the chapter will explain how access to the research samples was arranged. The fourth section will provide a reflective exploration of the insider / outsider distinctions in the context of the researcher and participants potential biases and particular experience in the researched area. The final section of the chapter will examine the collection of the data and the mechanics of the thematic analysis.

Section 1. Approaches to Research

The overarching aim of this thesis is to determine the effectiveness of the Initial Crime Investigators Development Programme (ICIDP) in providing the knowledge and skills required by the investigator in the context of serious and complex crime investigation in two northwest police forces. In essence, the thesis will explore the question; is the programme fit for purpose? In order to achieve the aim, the thesis aims to examine the following objectives:

Critically analyse the perceptions and understandings of senior police officers in two northwest police forces in the context of PIP at Investigative level 2.

Critically analyse the perceptions of candidates for PIP at Investigative level 2 in two northwest police forces the context of the level of knowledge and skills required by investigators within the investigative framework.

Paradigms in the context of research refer to frameworks for conducting research (Braun & Clarke, 2013). There are broad differences between qualitative and quantitative paradigms; quantitative paradigms use numbers as data, whereas qualitative paradigms use words as data (Braun & Clarke, 2013). Considering the advantages and disadvantages of both paradigms, Flick (2015:12 -13) outlines the weaknesses and strengths of diverse paradigms to provide a basis for deciding which methodological alternative should be selected for a specific research question. To answer the research question, it was necessary to carefully consider the appropriate methodology. As with any research, it is crucial that data is collected in an appropriate manner and that outcomes are consistent with the collected data and that inaccuracies or bias are kept to a minimum (Jones, 2016). The debate in the context of quantitative and qualitative research paradigms produces purists on both sides. The notions of qualitative research and quantitative research are umbrella terms for a number of methods such as phenomenology and positivism (Flick, 2015). All research must have a truth value (Guba & Lincoln, 1981). There are broad differences between qualitative and quantitative paradigms. In qualitative paradigms, numbers are used as data; in qualitative paradigms written and spoken language is used as data (Braun & Clarke, 2013). Qualitative research is not modelled on measurement found in the natural sciences (Flick, 2015). The differences between qualitative and quantitative paradigms refer to more than the technical issues in planning a research study and reveal different understanding of knowledge and the relationship between research and reality (Flick, 2015). It is important to ensure that the most appropriate paradigm is selected to address the research question and therefore justify the methodology deployed in the programme of research.

In setting out a framework for research practice, methodology relies on ontology, the nature of reality or being and epistemology, the nature of knowledge (Ramazanoglu & Holland, 2002). Ontology and epistemology are not independent and lead into certain methodologies compelling the researcher into specific method or methods appropriate for the research programme (Braun &

Clarke, 2013). Ontology is associated with the central question of whether social entities need to be perceived as objective or subjective (Blaikie, 2010). Therefore, objectivism (positivism) and subjectivism (interpretivism) can be contextualised as two important constituents of ontology (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). Epistemology can be branded as the study of a criteria by which the researcher processes what does and what does not constitute the knowledge (Hallebone & Priest, 2009). Acceptance of a specific epistemology results in the employment of associated research methods (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). Research paradigms may be classified into three philosophically distinct categories as positivism, interpretivism and critical postmodernism. (Gephart, 1999).

Epistemology refers to what type of knowledge is considered acceptable (Bryman, 2008) and has implications to how it is derived and what is done with it afterwards. Positivism as an epistemological position emphasises that the sciences should avoid speculative and metaphysical approaches and concentrate on observable facts (Flick, 2015). As a philosophy, positivism adheres to the view that the world's reality is separated from the researcher's perspectives and beliefs (Saunders et al., 2009). Positivism is concerned with uncovering truth and presenting it by empirical means (Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit, 2004). The positivist researcher usually follows a highly structured methodology and depends on large samples of quantitative data that can be analyzed statistically to confirm or refute a hypothesis (Saunders & Tosey, 2012). If the hypothesis is refuted, it will be revised and refined then tested by further research. In terms of research methods, the designs used for obtaining data about the objects of study in positivist approaches use a number of methods including laboratory experiments, survey and field experiments as research methods (Saunders, 2011). Furthermore, positivism is a worldview behind doing qualitative research driven by the notion of transferring the standards of natural sciences to social sciences (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995).

The interpretive paradigm assumes that researchers believe that reality consists of people's subjective experiences of the external world; thus, they may adopt an inter-subjective epistemology and the ontological belief that reality is socially constructed. According to Willis (2000) interpretivists believe there is no single correct route or particular method to knowledge. Walsham (1993) argues that in the interpretive tradition there are no correct or incorrect theories. Instead, they should be judged according to how interesting they are to the researcher as well as those involved in the same areas. They attempt to derive their constructs from the field by an in-depth examination of the phenomenon of interest. Gephart (1999) argues that interpretivists assume that knowledge and meaning are acts of interpretation, hence there is no objective knowledge which is independent of thinking, reasoning humans. Myers (2009) argues that the premise of interpretive researchers is that access to reality is only through social constructions. The interpretive paradigm is underpinned by observation and interpretation and attempts to understand phenomena through the meanings that people assign to them (Deetz, 1996). The interpretive paradigm is concerned with understanding the world as it is from subjective experiences of individuals (Reeves and Hedberg, 2003). A strength of an interpretive approach is the appreciation of complex human behaviour and an understanding that it cannot be quantified or measured (Carson et al, 2001). The interpretive paradigm attracts criticism over the use of perceived small sample sizes (Kelle, 1994). Unlike positivism, interpretivism lacks precise scientific methodology (Silverman, 2013).

Whereas traditional theory explores and examines the status quo, critical theory challenges the status quo and attempts to identify the strategies which could ensure a successful society (Asghar, 2013). Critical theory is open, it employs interpretivist epistemologies whilst positivistic and theoretical arguments are evaluated in terms of emancipatory implication (Richards, 2003). Critical theory embraces interpretivist possibilities and also accepts positivistic techniques (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000). Critical theory employs various methodologies. There is no concept of critical

methodology (Asghar, 2013). Critical theory is flexible to adopt any methodology or technique which may assist in suggesting betterment in the unbalanced social system. (Hussein, Elyas & Naseef, 2013) argue that critical researchers may use either qualitative and quantitative methods or mixed methods. However, there is further argument that critical research is more inclined towards qualitative research designs (Hussein, Elyas & Naseef, 2013). The critical paradigm offers refreshing perspectives to explore issues and make difference (Hussein, Elyas & Naseef, 2013). However, critical theory being more flexible in its pursuit of reality places a heavy responsibility on researchers to observe, analyse and interpret data with extra vigilance (Asghar, 2013).

Consideration of the paradigmatic context of the perceived aims of the programme the research suggested that the positivist paradigm was not suitable to achieve the outcomes. The researcher sought to find out from the participants the effectiveness of a developmental programme. The context of the research programme is littered with a number of variables. The positivist context would commit the programme of research to ideals of measurement and objectivity (Flick, 2013). Positivism, characterised by adherence to natural science methods, phenomenalism and objectivist ontology did not offer an adequate philosophical framework for the current programme of research. The positivist paradigm regards theory and research as distinctive of each other where latter is used to test the former. The positivist paradigm would have imposed artificial rigidity onto the process which required flexibility to explore interview data and the relevant literature side by side, to facilitate the development of argument in an organic manner.

Bryman (2008:13) defined quantitative research as, "A research strategy that emphasises quantification in the collection and analysis of data..." Quantitative research method attempts to investigate the answers to the questions starting with how many, how much, to what extent (Rasinger, 2013). The method lays heavy stress on measuring something or variables existed in the social world, (Bryman, 2008). Quantitative methods seek regularities in human lives, by separating the social world into empirical components called variables which can be represented numerically as

frequencies or rate (Payne & Payne, 2004). The quantitative findings are likely to be generalised to a whole population or a sub-population because it involves the larger sample which is randomly selected (Carr, 1994). Besides sampling, data analysis is less time consuming as it uses the statistical software such as SPSS (Connolly, 2007). Quantitative research has limitations. The positivism research paradigm leaves out the common meanings of social phenomenon (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). It also fails to ascertain deeper underlying meanings and explanations. The quantitative research paradigm overlooks the respondents' experiences and perspectives in highly controlled settings (Ary et al. 2013) because there lacks a direct connection between researchers and the participants when collecting data. As a result, the data obtaining method becomes objective.

The context driving the interpretive paradigm is to understand and interpret the meanings in human behaviour rather than to generalize and predict causes and effects (Neuman, 2000). The interpretivist researcher must understand motives, meanings, reasons, and other subjective experiences which are time and context bound (Neuman, 2000). Thus, a more appropriate approach was offered by an interpretivist form of epistemology, concerned with understanding how people make sense of their lives and experiences, and more commonly associated with qualitative research. Bryman (2008) asserts a triple layer interpretation. The researcher provides interpretation of other people's interpretation, which can be further interpreted in light of the relevant concepts, theories, and literature. The current programme of research is concerned with the participants understanding and interpretations of the training and development context, and further interprets them in the light of the existing theory (Braun & Clarke, 2013). The researcher took a decision that the programme of research would depend upon a qualitative rather than a quantitative methodology.

The word qualitative implies an emphasis on the qualities of entities and on processes and meanings that are not experimentally examined or measured in a quantitative context (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000).

Unlike positivist or experimental research that utilizes a linear and one-directional sequence of design steps, there is considerable variation in how a qualitative research study is organized. Qualitative researchers attempt to describe and interpret human behaviour based primarily on the words of selected individuals through the interpretation of their material culture or occupied space (Bryman, 2008). There is a reflexive process underpinning every stage of a qualitative study to ensure that researcher biases, presuppositions, and interpretations are clearly evident, (Morris, 2000). Qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings and attempt to make sense of phenomena that people bring to them (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005).

A drawback associated with qualitative research is that the process is time consuming (Bowen, 2006). Interview or observation, transcription and analysis require considerable time together with the organisation of interviews in the context of location, equipment, and availability of participants (Creswell, 2013). Interpretations of researchers may be limited, and personal experience and knowledge influences the observations and conclusions to the research problem (Bowen, 2006). Qualitative research is not always straightforward to generalise usually due to small sample sizes and the subjective nature of the context (Flick, 2015). Unfortunately, accusations of unreliability may be common as different results may be achieved at different times with different people (Morgan, 1980). Qualitative methodology can comprise a wide range of methods and approaches to collect data and tell a story about the research project (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Qualitative research approaches produce the thick detailed description of participants' feelings, opinions, and experiences; and interprets the meanings of their actions (Denzin, 1989). Having the abilities to understand different people's voices, meanings and events, qualitative research admits the researchers to discover the participants' inner experience, and to figure out how meanings are shaped through and in culture (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

This study used a qualitative methodology to obtain a deeper insight into the understanding of PIP at Investigative Level 2 and ICIDP by both the senior managers of trainee investigators within the relevant police forces and that of a group of trainee investigators undertaking the ICIDP process. Qualitative research is a means of exploring and understanding the meanings of individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem (Creswell, 2013). Meanings are constructed by human beings as they engage with the world they are interpreting (Crotty 1998). It was important to use qualitative methods to ascertain the senior officer's level of understanding of the PIP process in general and PIP Level 2; and to establish how the senior officers had interpreted the effectiveness of PIP level 2 and ICIDP. The researcher aimed to ascertain from the senior officers, their perceptions as to how effective PIP Level 2 had been in improving the skills and abilities of investigators in the context of the investigation of serious and complex crime. Sample 1 of the study would provide detailed information as to the senior officers understanding of how trainee investigators develop an investigative mindset. Sample 2 of the study was to discover the perceptions of a group of trainee investigators as to the effectiveness of the ICIDP process.

To understand participants' feelings, perceptions and understanding, a decision was taken to deploy a phenomenological approach to the interview process (Roulston 2010). The qualitative interview is one of the major sources of data collection and is a joint product of what the interviewer and the interviewee talks about (Adams & Van-Manen, 2008; King 2004). McGrath et al (2018) argue that qualitative interviewing is a data-collection tool that is useful in a range of methodological approaches and may therefore be applied to address a number of research questions. However, qualitative research interviews are preferable when the researcher strives to understand the interviewee's subjective perspective of a phenomenon rather than generating generalizable understandings of large groups of people. Roulston (2013) contends that the qualitative interview

holds the potential to give voice to groups in an organisational setting that may not be heard elsewhere.

Bryman (2001) and May (1997) explain the continuum of research interviews from structured to semi structured, to unstructured interviews. The structured interview is at the quantitative end of the scale (Illing, 2014) and used more and more in survey approaches. The remainder of the scale, unstructured and semi structured interviews is the area occupied usually by qualitative researchers (Edwards and Holland, 2013). The importance of accurate preparation on behalf of the interviewer should not be underestimated and includes conceptual and practical preparations (Brinkmann and Kvale 2005; Brinkmann 2014). Successful interviews start with careful planning that considers the focus and scope of the research question. Some background reading of the literature concerning the subject area as well as how to conduct qualitative interviews and the specific method you are applying will be necessary in the further development of research question(s) and it will additionally facilitate the construction of an interview guide. When preparing for qualitative interviewing it is important to be familiar with the data recording equipment being used. The venue of the interview should also be considered as it may affect the data collection. McGrath, Palmgreen and Liljedahl (2018) suggest interviews be conducted at a time and place of the respondents' convenience, in a comfortable setting, free from any potential disruptions and noise.

Conducting a qualitative research interview means asking participants to reflect on matters that are potentially important to them, personally and organisationally. The phenomenon of the interviewer's interest might be important professionally. Therefore, it is important to develop an interview guide in advance and conduct at least one test interview. By conducting test interviews, the novice researcher gains skills prior to embarking on data collection. Test interviews may be undertaken with peers or volunteers. They furnish the researcher with an opportunity to explore language, the clarity of the questions, and aspects of active listening. The style of the interview is

essential for creating a non-invasive and open dialogue with interviewees (Roulston, 2013). For the purpose of the qualitative research interviews, it was crucial to make a clear distinction between an investigative interview that would result in fact finding and avoid using esoteric jargon in research interview questions and instead adopt layman's language when possible. Qualitative interviews may be more or less open or structured. An unstructured or semi-structured interview guide may include only one or a few predetermined questions allowing the interviewer to explore issues brought forward by the interviewee. It is important that the interview guide aligns with the methodological approach (Brinkmann, 2014). By contrast, a structured interview guide usually includes predetermined questions posed in the same way to all interviewees with the purpose of eliciting responses to the exact same phrasing. In medical education, semi structured interviews are often applied, meaning that the interview guide includes a number of predetermined questions (typically 5–15 questions) but the interviewer can probe, in order to dig deeper, into the interviewees' responses through follow-up questions (Lingard, 2010). In this phenomenological study, of participant perceptions, the interpretive framework was applied by asking the participants open ended questions (Roulston, 2010). This approach allowed the research participants to describe their experiences fully and freely. The role of the researcher in this context is to listen carefully and interpret findings based on background and experience (Creswell, 2013).

Section 2. Participant Samples

The selection of the participant sample is often underestimated (Flick, 2015). Braun and Clarke (2013) highlight three issues; how much data is needed, how will the sample be selected and if human participants are to be used, how will they be recruited (Braun and Clarke, 2013:55). This research programme required a sample that was appropriate to the research questions and theoretical aims of the study. The sample must provide an adequate amount of data to fully analyse the topic and enable the completion of the research objectives (Morse and Field, 2002). Having taken the decision to deploy a qualitative method, a further decision was taken not to engage with a

probabilistic quantitative sampling strategy. Braun and Clarke (2013) argue that in qualitative research the typical approach to sampling is purposive, agreeing with Palys (2008), in that purposive sampling is virtually synonymous with qualitative research. However, the list of purposive strategies that may be followed may be endless (Patton, 2002). The typical approach of purposive sampling is to generate insight and in depth understanding of a specific context (Patton, 2002). Patton (2002) labels participants as data cases or texts. [For the purpose of this study, the term participants will be used]. Braun and Clark (2013) state that purposive sampling involves the selection of participants on the basis that they will be able to provide information-rich data to analyse potentially as a result of a narrow focus where the sample may have experienced a particular phenomenon. Therefore, under the umbrella of purposive sampling, a wide number of sampling strategies may be considered. An exploration of participant sampling requires an examination of the inclusion and exclusion criteria for the relevant sample. Who, or what do we, the researcher want to hear from or, what and who do we the researcher not want to hear from (Braun and Clarke, 2013). LeCompte, Milroy and Preissle (1992) outline two criterion-based approaches to participant selection; forms aiming at representativeness and forms aiming at comparability. Patton (2002) describes criterion sampling as the researcher selecting a participant sample for a specific event or issue. In the context of this research study, the sample of trainee investigators meet with the specific criterion condition, namely as members of the overall policing population, the participant sample was not set in stone, however the emergence of the sample was complimentary to the theoretical development emerging from the study, (Edwards and Holland, 2013). Despite the researcher, spending time in the field with the participants, the sample could not be considered as convenience sampling (Sandelowski, 1994). The dynamic of the researcher / participant relationship is described by Farrell and Hamm (1998) as snowballing, a process where contact is or has been made with participants appropriate for this programme of research by whatever access route can be found. Therefore, in effect, the study utilised standard qualitative sampling strategies involving theoretical and pragmatic influences (Braun and Clarke, 2013).

Criterion sampling involves reviewing and studying 'all cases that meet some predetermined criterion of importance' (Patton, 2002:238). This approach was employed to construct a comprehensive understanding of certain pre-determined criteria. The researcher employed criterion sampling by stating explicit inclusion/exclusion criteria which includes specifications for methodological rigour. It is crucial to reflect critically and realistically on the criteria being used, especially the criteria for methodological rigour. There was a concern that very strict criteria for methodological rigour may result in inclusion of such a small number of studies that the transferability of findings becomes questionable. At the same time, including methodologically weak studies can also result in the findings being based on questionable evidence. Rather than looking for methodologically perfect studies, it is crucial to reflect on how the methodological specifications of the study might have influenced its report (Patton, 2002).

The selection of the senior officer's research sample, (Sample 1.) was, as defined by Roulston (2013), a mixture of ideal- typical sampling and reputational case sampling. The programme of research required the resultant sample to be illustrative rather than important or unusual. The overarching aim of obtaining of data from Sample 1 was to identify a homogenous mixture of key themes for analysis. The research strategy was therefore both relevant and original (Gough, 2003). The key question was to ascertain from the perspective of Sample 1 if PIP 2 and ICIDP was effective in preparing investigators to investigate serious and complex crime.

Section 3. Access

The undertaking of qualitative research is dependent upon gaining access (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2012). One of the greatest obstacles to conducting research is the inability to obtain access to the relevant field (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2012). Obtaining access to research participants can prove difficult (Roulston, 2013). Organisations receive frequent research requests; police forces can be inundated with research requests across their many portfolios. It is important to gain the trust and acceptance of the participants to conduct one's research (Wasserman & Clair,

2007). This would involve a combination of strategic planning, hard work and the availability of opportunities. Furthermore, researchers who are considered outsiders to an organisation are often not welcomed, especially if they ask questions that are considered sensitive and awkward (Roulston, 2013).

Silverman (2010) describes the 'opportunistic approach' to both gaining access and choosing research participants. This approach relates to access being brokered by colleagues or friends. In the context of the current study, the broker was an Assistant Chief Constable with one of the relevant police forces who the researcher had known for over thirty years in an operational policing context. The broker considered the programme of research as useful and something the organisation would be prepared to accommodate. In addition to enabling access to Sample 1, the broker also facilitated access to the trainee investigators who comprise Sample 2.

Access was arranged to interview Sample 1 participants namely, a Deputy Chief Constable, Assistant Chief Constables, together with Detective Superintendents and Detective Chief Superintendents. Interviews were also arranged with Detective Chief Inspectors and Detective Inspectors. The condition attached to the arranged access was that the participant would only take part in the research process if they chose to do so. The broker provided the researcher with the contact details of the broker's staff officer. Contact was made with the broker's staff officer who furnished the researcher with the contact details of the relevant staff officers and participants telephone numbers and email addresses. The staff officers were contacted to arrange an initial telephone conversation with the participant. Each of the Sample 1 participants were contacted by telephone at an appointed time. During the initial telephone conversation, the programme of research and the research process was fully explained. The ethical approval for the programme of research was explained in detail. Ethical approval for the research programme had been granted by the Uclan, STEMH Ethics Committee (STEM090 refers, See Appendix 2).

All of the Sample 1 participants provided evidence of informed consent to take part. All of Sample 1 had completed postgraduate higher education studies and understood the nature of research and the theoretical framework of qualitative research. One of the drivers for the deployment of interviews was feedback following initial telephone contact with the senior officer group of participants. When asked if they would consider participating, they made it clear that they were too busy to answer questionnaires or take part in surveys. However, they would be prepared to meet and take part in a face to face interview. When probed as to the rationale behind the response, the participants stated that they felt that the project was worthwhile, and they felt an interview would be more productive than a survey. The Sample 1 participants set a series of conditions for the research process:

- Questionnaires were not a possibility as they took too long to complete and usually involved very time consuming long drawn out complicated instructions.
- The mode of data collection would be a face to face recorded interview.
- Should an operational or procedural issue develop requiring the attention of the participant, the interview would have to be rearranged.

All of the participants within Sample 1 were experienced police officers with between 24 years to 31 years. All of the participants within Sample 1 had investigative experience as investigators, investigative supervisors, and investigative managers. None of Sample 1 had undertaken the ICIDP programme, however the majority of the sample had had experience of trainee investigators under their command undertaking the programme. All of Sample 1 had knowledge of the PIP 2 programme and ICIDP. Figure 13 provides details of the rank and disposition of the participants in Sample 1.

Figure 13: Rank and Disposition of Participants Sample 1.

Ref.	Rank	Operational Context
S1P1	Deputy Chief Constable	Director of Force Strategy
S1P2	Assistant Chief Constable	Director of investigative Strategy
S1P3	Assistant Chief Constable	Director of Force Personnel Issues
S1P4	Detective Chief Superintendent	Head Crime Investigation
S1P5	Detective Chief Superintendent	Head of Professional Standards
S1P6	Detective Superintendent	Head of Major Crime Investigation
S1P7	Detective Chief Inspector	Head of Covert Operations
S1P8	Detective Chief Inspector	Deputy Head of Crime Intelligence
S1P9	Detective Chief Inspector	Deputy Head of Major Crime Investigations
S1P10	Detective Inspector	Area Investigations Manager
S1P11	Assistant Chief Constable	Director of Crime investigative strategy
S1P12	Assistant Chief Constable	Director of Force Personnel Issues
S1P13	Detective Chief Superintendent	Head of Crime Investigation
S1P14	Detective Chief Superintendent	Head of Professional Standards
S1P15	Detective Superintendent	Head of Major Crime Investigation
S1P16	Detective Chief Inspector	Head of Tactical Operations
S1P17	Detective Chief Inspector	Deputy Head of Major Crime Investigations
S1P18	Detective Inspector	Deputy Head of Tactical Operations
S1P19	Detective Inspector	Deputy Head of Specialist Operations
S1P20	Detective Inspector	Area Investigations Manager

The interviews were conducted by the researcher in the participant's offices on police premises. The researcher is an accomplished investigative interviewer in the context of witnesses, victims, and suspects. As a Detective Sergeant and Detective Inspector, the researcher has been deployed in the role of investigative interviewing advisor in the United Kingdom and Central Europe. The researcher as a serving police officer would regularly interview police officers of all ranks in the context of professional standards investigations and criminal investigations. The researcher as a detective Inspector responsible for investigative training in a large urban police force was also responsible for the development and delivery of investigative interviewing training.

The interviews were digitally recorded and lasted forty-five minutes to one hour. Recordings were transcribed and anonymised before analysis was undertaken. In the event, only four of the interviews

had to be rearranged owing to operational issues outside of the control of the participant.

The interview schedule was semi structured to facilitate an open discussion of the research questions, and if necessary, to enable other relevant issues to be raised by the participants (Bryce et al., 2014). Research questions were typified by a specific open-ended question (e.g., “Tell me what you understand about PIP”) and a subsequent number of probing questions were developed for use if necessary, to further facilitate discussion.

Sample 2.

The trainee investigators sample (Sample 2.) was selected from a group of trainee investigators undertaking the ICIDP programme. The pathway to PIP at Investigative Level 2 is only achievable via ICIDP. ICIDP and the overall PIP Level 2 qualification does have a value. As recently as November 2017, should an investigator wish to transfer from one police force to another police force in the role of investigator, the job specification will state that the successful candidate will have successfully completed the ICIDP plus a Tier 2 investigative interview course (Thames Valley Police, 2017). As previously stated, there is no data in the extant literature analysing the experience of trainee investigators who have completed ICIDP and PIP Level 2 or are in the process of completing PIP Level 2 having attended the ICIDP learning phase. The overriding research question of the study was to examine ICIDP and PIP at Investigative Level 2 in the context of providing the dedicated investigator with the skills and experience to effectively investigate serious and complex crime. The study addresses the questions pertinent to the trainee investigator who has undertaken and completed the PIP process at Investigative Level 2. It examined the trainee investigator perspectives on the usefulness and validity of the National Investigators Examination (NIE), the ICIDP classroom-based learning events, and the competency assessment process in the context of preparing them to investigate serious and complex crime.

To clarify the context of the study in respect of the investigators who have undertaken the ICIDP learning programme and are qualified to PIP Level 2, a full account of the ICIDP process can be found in Appendix 1.

Access to the participants reported in Sample 2 was secured by using the same brokerage approach as Sample 1. However, in the case of the trainee investigators undertaking the learning phase of ICIDP, access was more straightforward. The researcher in his role as a Lecturer in the School of Forensic and Applied Sciences, at UCLAN was the programme leader for the Foundation Degree in Criminal Investigation (FDCI). The programme in effect validated PIP Level 2 in an academic context. Owing to a major change in the funding of Foundation Degrees, the FDCI programme was eventually withdrawn from the academic arena. (UCLAN, FDCI Course Reports, 2014). The researcher's role in the FDCI programme was to manage and quality assure the assessments within the ICIDP learning phase and quality assure the work-based assessments. The FDCI programme was delivered to three North West Police forces. Two of these provide the focus for the current programme of research.

The opportunistic context of the research access existed to some extent (Silverman, 2010). To clarify the opportunistic context of access in the case of the trainee investigators attending and completing the ICIDP process, it is useful to explain the researcher's role in some detail.

The researcher, as outlined earlier in this chapter approached the broker to obtain research access to trainee investigators in the context of the research programme. The researcher regularly met with the trainee investigators in the context of the quality assuring of ongoing assessments for ICIDP and the FDCI. Moreover, as a nationally recognised investigative interviewing trainer and lecturer; the researcher would on occasion be asked by the training staff at both police forces subject of the current programme of research to deliver 'master classes in the context of active listening and questioning type and style'. (S Riley, personal communication 2013 – 2015). There were no barriers to access to the trainee investigators. Both police forces provided written consent for access to facilitate the current research programme. The condition of access and consent was that trainee

investigators would participate in the programme of research if they chose to do so.

Ten Detective Constables (Trainee Investigators) from each of the relevant police forces were selected to take part in the research programme. The rank and disposition of the participants is outlined in Figure 9

Figure 14. Rank and Disposition of Sample 2

Ref.	Rank	Disposition
S2P1	Detective Constable	Reactive Investigations
S2P2	Detective Constable	Reactive Investigations
S2p3	Detective Constable	Reactive Investigations
S2P4	Detective Constable	Reactive Investigations
S2P5	Detective Constable	Reactive Investigations
S2P6	Detective Constable	Reactive Investigations
S2P7	Detective Constable	Reactive Investigations
S2P8	Detective Constable	Proactive Investigations
S2P9	Detective Constable	Proactive Investigations
S2P10*	Detective Constable *	Proactive Investigations
S2P11	Detective Constable	Public Protection Investigation Unit
S2P12	Detective Constable	Public Protection Investigation Unit
S2P13	Detective Constable	Public Protection Investigation Unit
S2P14	Detective Constable	Public Protection Investigation Unit
S2P15	Detective Constable	Public Protection Investigation Unit
S2P16	Detective Constable	Domestic Violence Unit
S2P17	Detective Constable	Domestic Violence Unit
S2P18	Detective Constable	Domestic Violence Unit
S2P19	Detective Constable	Counter Terrorism
S2P20	Detective Constable	Counter Terrorism

All of the participants in Sample 2 had completed the two-year police probationary period prior to making application to become investigators. The participants were all constables and at the time of the research project, none of the participants had successfully completed the promotion process to the next rank.

³The rank and disposition of the participants is outlined in Figure 14. The sample represents a wide and varied policing experience base. At the time of the research programme, eight of the participants in Sample 2 were operating in the contexts of public protection investigation and domestic violence investigation. These investigations albeit reactive and on occasion proactive, differ from the reactive and proactive investigations undertaken by nine of Sample 2. The remaining participants in Sample 2 were operating in a specialist investigative context. Six of the participants had operated in the role for up to twenty-two years. In effect these participants were career child protection investigators who had built up a wealth of investigative experience and now had to complete the ICIDP process. A senior management decision had been taken that all police officers operating in Public Protection Unit must complete the ICIDP process and quality at PIP Level 2 (GMP ICIDP Policy Documents, 2015). The remaining three participants operating in public protection had three to four years policing experience. The participants operating in the proactive sample tended to have four to ten years policing experience. The participants operating in the field of counter terrorism had four to six years policing experience.

The participants in sample 2 were interviewed on police premises during breaks in training events. This was mutually acceptable to both the participant and the researcher. The rationale for the interview to take place in a break during training events ensured that the police forces in question did not suffer from a staff abstraction. Also, on the days in question, the researcher was already present at the training venues either teaching or assessing. The interview schedule was crafted to take cognizance of the several elements of the ICIDP programme. Therefore, each element provided a topic for exploring the effectiveness of specific areas of the ICIDP programme. Each participant was allowed access to ethical approval documentation and completed the necessary consent form. Each participant was offered details as to the research project and the relevant contact information. All of the participants were already in possession of my contact information as in effect I was their

³ *One of the selected participants was unable to take part in the research interview process owing to court commitments

academic advisor for each of the FDCI cohorts. The interviews were digitally recorded and lasted from twenty to thirty minutes.

The research questions when mapped into modes of qualitative research provided a focus of perceptions, views, and opinions in the context of Sample 1, and the qualitative focus of experience or understanding in the context of Sample 2. Braun and Clarke (2013) describe the broad approach of the context as experiential.

All recordings of interviews were maintained together with any products, namely notes and subsequent transcripts were maintained in a safe and secure environment in accordance with university regulations on data storage. The research programme was managed in accordance with the highest ethical standards. Ethics were considered as an integral part of each stage and aspect of the research (Braun and Clarke 2013). As earlier stated, the programme of research had satisfied the many and detailed requirements of the UCLan, STEMH Research Ethics Committee, the rigor of this process, ensured that ethics as a notion were embedded in the totality of the research practice (Baarts, 2009). Evidence of embedded ethics is the management of anonymity and confidentiality. The nature of the research context removed any concerns as to participant safety. However, in order to ensure honesty and integrity it was clearly explained that all transcripts would be anonymised and that participants personal information would be respected and kept secure in accordance with the university data storage regulations in place at the time of the research interviews.

The nature of the research programme removed any concern as to participant and researcher safety. Participant were not asked to relive incidents resulting in spirals of psycho drama. The qualitative research interviews in no way shape or form resulted in a participant sharing any material of a deeply personal and sensitive nature. As laid down by the Social Research Association, all interviews of both samples were based on the freely given informed consent of the participants. Informed consent is the requirement that human subjects be informed of the nature and implications of research and that participation be voluntary (Homan, 2002). Miller and Bell (2002) express concern that true consent cannot be obtained unless the participants are fully aware exactly what they are

agreeing to, and where participation begins and ends. This is a valid concern and a difficult area to cover fully and comprehensively with each participant. The adopted strategy adopted was that consent was to be explained verbally and in writing. Miller and Bell (2002) express concern regarding the increasing pressure exerted by ethics committees to obtain written consent from participants, highlighting the difficulties in possible alienation of the subject by such an approach. Noaks and Wincup (2004) refer to the difficulties of a completely transparent approach as a potential threat to validity. The respondents may be more defensive or unwilling to reveal anything of a potentially sensitive nature. The nature of the research project was not cause for concern as sensitive or potentially sensitive information was not requested.

Section 4. Insider / Outsider

Whether or not they make clear the connections between their subject connections and the way these impact on research outcomes, qualitative researchers and interviewers are an inevitable part of the of the studies that they conduct (Roulston, 2010). Finlay and Gough (2003) discussing the dynamics between the researcher and the researched, examine the concept of reflexivity. However, Attia and Edge (2016) characterise reflexivity as two interacting elements; retrospective and prospective reflexivity. The latter element is considered in relation to how to handle researcher status or insider /outsiderness, gender or ethnicity (Attia and Edge, 2016: 35). Rather than seeing the influences of prospective reflexivity as potential to contaminate the data, prospective reflexivity seeks to assist researchers to understand the significance of the knowledge feelings and values that the researcher brings to into the specific research field Mann (2016).

McNess et al (2013) argue the complexities of conceptualizing an insider or an outsider in the research process. Mercer (2007) described two trends of study during the twentieth century namely research that involves the researcher doing research or study outside of their topic, interest, or background. The second trend of research involves the researcher doing research about a topic which he or she is familiar with and is already exposed to. The two types of research create the

distinction of the words insider or outsider (Merton, 1972), where the insider researcher could be defined as someone who shares a particular characteristic with the study, namely a personal trait or interest whereas the outsider is someone who does not share the same characteristic. Adler and Adler (1994) argue that the insider researcher is one of the members of the group being studied and the outsider researcher is not. However, Merton (1972) contends that the element of insider and outsider researchers should not shadow other factors as both have their own advantages and disadvantages. Merton (1972 cited by Hellawell, 2006) provides an early classic definition of insider research, Merton defines the insider as an individual who possesses *a priori* intimate knowledge of the community and its members. Hellawell (2006) contends that being an insider researcher is not necessarily the same as being a member of the organization being researched. Conversely, the definition of an outsider is where the researcher is not *a priori* familiar with the setting and people being researched. Hellawell (2006 cited by Gallais, 2008) recommends the creation of a researcher continua to facilitate the exploration of the fluid nature of the researcher's stance in the field. Therefore, in order to underpin a personal reflection of the context and articulate this researchers potential bias and experience in the researched area, this researcher has personalised the research continua and evidence of changing stance and placed them in the context of the researched area in this study. Figure 15 provides information as to the relevant dates to inform the researchers changing stance. Evidence for the entries at Figure 15 is available within the researchers employment history and notebook entries. Figure 15 offers a short timeline and provides an overview of the researchers changing stance from police officer to full time lecturer within a specific academic programme. Thus, although making a distinct move to another organisation, it may be considered that the researcher moved to an outsider context. However, the researcher remained as part of the relevant research community, retaining by virtue of the nature of the work, the *a priori* context and can be considered to have remained within the insider context (Merton, 1972).

Figure 15. Adapted from Gallais (2008) Relevant dates and Researcher Change in Stance

DATE	STANCE
2006 – JULY 2009	Investigative Training Manager with special responsibility for the PIP Level 2 programme in a north west police force
SEPTEMBER 2009	Retire from north west police and take up position as lecturer with UCLan
2009 - 2010	Fully participating in the validation of Foundation Degree in criminal Investigation (FDCI) in partnership with one of the police forces subject of the research programme.
2009 - 2010	Fully participating in the validation of Foundation Degree in criminal Investigation (FDCI) in partnership with one of the police forces subject of the research programme.
2010 - 2015	Responsibility for the management of the FDCI programme in two northwest police forces. Involves quality assurance of assessment processes within ICIDP and observation of assessment an occasional teaching. In ICIDP.
2014 - 2015	Undertake qualitative research process

Figure 16 explains the researchers situation in relation to the participants in Sample 1 and Sample 2.

Situations 1-4 were relevant to both samples in the study to different degrees. Situation 1 would have been more weighted in favour of Sample 2. This is because the researcher had more contact with Sample 2 during the ICIDP process from induction through to completion of portfolio.

Figure 16. Adapted from Gallais (2008) Insider / Outside Research Continuum

	RESEARCHER SITUATION	BENEFITS AND PITFALLS
1	Known to and knowing the participants	Potential for achieving in-depth empathetic access to and interpretation of data. Danger of over-familiarity, risk of researcher bias
2	Knowledge of the research arena, in this case, PIP Level 2	Potential for enhanced rapport and ability to assess veracity of data.
3	Knowledge and experience of Criminal Investigation in a practical context	Enables respondent to feel that the context of Investigation is appreciated. Caveat is to avoid presumptions – Investigative contexts vary considerably
4	Knowledge of the theoretical context of criminal investigation	Enables the researcher to predict results of research may adopt a self-fulfilling prophecy. – Ability to objectively decipher meaning

The benefits of the researcher situation outweigh the pitfalls. The fluidity of the research stance (Gallais, 2008) should be embraced for the richness of insight it offers. Janesick (1994) argues that

there is no bias free or value free research design and that the researcher must, early on in the process identify their own biases and articulate the ideology of the study. Searching for meaning in a qualitative context should result in a continued awareness of own biases. This assertion should loop back to the ethical context as from the beginning of informed consent decisions, there is the need to allow for potential problems or ethical dilemmas (Janesick, 2013). The proximity of the researcher to Sample 2 over a period of weeks and in some cases months, rather than fuel unnecessary bias or remove the reflexivity of the process resulted in a critical examination of the researcher's history and relevant professional identity. This in effect improves the acknowledgement of the research participants. Therefore, prior to a period of reflective practice the researcher was concerned that the prior and current employment position may have resulted in a specific bias, namely that the ICIDP programme is effective. However, engagement with a reflexive context allows the researcher to enhance personal reflective practice and increase their reflexive awareness.

Section 5. Thematic analysis of the data

Thorne (2000 cited by Nowell et al, 2017) characterised data analysis as the most complex phase of the qualitative research. Tuckett (2005) states that researchers need to be clear about what they are doing and include a clear description analysis method. A lack of clarity regarding the analytical process especially in how the analysis was informed can make evaluation of the trustworthiness of the data difficult (Malterud, 2001).

The researcher having decided on the methodological approach to the research project took a further decision to analyse the data generated by the programme by way of thematic analysis. Braun & Clarke (2006) state that thematic analysis (TA) has been poorly branded and argue that that TA should be a foundational method for qualitative analysis. TA is about identifying themes within research data (Ezzy, 2002). Braun & Clarke (2006) develop the context of (Ezzy, 2000) and

define TA as a method for identifying themes and patterns across a dataset in relation to a research question. TA was used to explore the data and identify themes associated with the objectives of the research questions (Bryce et al, 2014). TA as a method of qualitative research is useful in presenting data from interviews in the context of explaining the benefits or limitations of a programme of study (Roulston, 2013).

All participants within Sample 1 and Sample 2 were interviewed by the researcher. The interviews were digitally recorded. The recordings were supplemented by notes made the researcher at the time of the interviews. The researcher transcribed the interviews. The researcher originally intended to use a computer-based process to assist with data analysis. The researcher attended some basic training in the use of the NVivo 10 computer-based system designed to organise, store and retrieve data. However, owing to extensive workload commitments and a series of unforeseen personal challenges, the researcher was unable to devote the time necessary to master the computer-based system. Therefore, the researcher used a very old-fashioned manual system of coding and organising data. The mechanics of this for the researcher was to use a series of small adhesive notepads to transfer data from notebooks to a wall. King (2004) argues that computer-based systems are not capable of the processes required to transform data and make judgements as to data. Data from specific participants were labelled with a participant reference, e.g. (S1P4 = Sample 1: Participant 4). This manual method worked for this study. However, it could not have been considered for a project generating large amounts of data.

The researcher undertook the primary data analysis and coding. This allowed the researcher to stay close to the data and see themes across the data (Richards, 2015). The analysis took place as data was collected and not after all of the interviews had been completed. The analytical journey commenced with a process of familiarisation with the data. Detailed reading is

necessary to ensure that the researcher has fully engaged with the data and its nuances (Javadi & Zarea, 2016). Braun and Clarke (2006) state that it is vital that researchers immerse themselves with the data to fully familiarize themselves with the depth and breadth of the content. The data set was subjected to repeated active reading before any attempt at initial coding (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Saldana, 2015). The rationale for this is that researchers identify patterns and potentially shape ideas and the familiarity with the generated data grows. At this stage, meaningful note taking is necessary to record first impressions thoughts and feelings and record the development of theoretical context. This is also useful in maintaining the previously discussed context of reflexivity. All of the data was read through at least twice prior to any coding taking place. This ties in with the advice of Braun and Clarke, (2006)

Following the familiarisation stage of the process, the next stage of analytical treatment of the data was the generation of initial codes. Qualitative coding is a process of reflection and a method of interacting with and thinking about the data. This allowed the simplification of the data and provided an opportunity to focus on specific characteristics of the data, this allowed for the move from unstructured data to the development of ideas about what is going on with the data. For the purpose of qualitative enquiry, a code can be a word or phrase that assigns a salient attribute for a portion of data (Saldana, 2016). Initial codes emanated from a list of ideas related to the data and then searching for pieces of data that address or potentially address the research question (Braun & Clarke, 2013). Identification of important sections of text was followed by attaching labels indexing the sections as they related to a theme or issue. This coding process attempted to capture the richness of the data (Boyatzis, 1998). In effect, the data was systematically reviewed to search for potential themes. Although there can be as many levels of coding as the researcher sees fit, too many levels can militate against achieving clarity of purpose. As the dominant narrative emerges, accounts that depart from that narrative must not be ignored (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Creswell (2014) suggests different systematic processes

for coding data. Using a small number of coding guidelines assisted the researcher in maintaining consistency in the analytical approach to the data. Figure 17 provides an example of codes taken from and extract of data generated by one of the interviews within Sample 2 in the study.

Figure 17. Example of Code from Data Extract Sample 2

Data Extract	Code
<i>The National Investigators Examination (NIE), I understand why there has to be one, but why at the start of the course and not at the end of the course. I managed to pass, but it took a lot of my time and there was no study time at work. This was hard and interfered with family life. As I said I passed, I felt sorry for people who I know worked hard but failed.</i>	Confusing situation
	Study time
	Family Life
	Sorrow

The researcher developed a list of coding labels associated to each research question specified in the interview schedule. These were applied to the data and emergent themes were identified and coded. This section or stage involved sorting the coded data into themes. Nowell et al (2017) explain that the concept of a theme is to bring together components or fragments of idea or experiences. Therefore, a theme may not be dependent upon quantifiable measure, rather, a theme captures something important to the research question. Moreover, a theme is an outcome of coding. Rossman & Rallis (2003 cited by Saldana, 2016) explain that a code is a word, phrase, or category describing a segment of data that is explicit whereas a theme is a phrase or sentence describing a more subtle or tacit process. The theme arising from Figure 17 was that of *study time at work*, the sub theme being the *issues with family life*. Identified emergent themes which had not been previously specified were subsequently assigned a-posteriori codes. Accuracy and consistency of the analysis was paramount, and a detailed review of the emergent themes and codes was undertaken by the researcher to ensure accuracy and consistency of the process. The researcher learned throughout the process that I needed to engage with the

process systematically. Close attention was paid to the overall data set and repeating reading and reviews were necessary to ensure accuracy and validity of the level of understanding (Boyazis, 1998). The analysis focused on the participant's standpoint and how the participants experience had made sense of the context of the research aims. However, the researcher's standpoint and epistemology guided areas of analysis. The analysis in the programme of research became a mixture of theoretical and experiential thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2013). The researcher searched for meaningful relationships between initial themes. The process of analysis demanded reading, coding, refining, editing, definition of theme and consideration of any subtheme. Braun and Clark (2006) argue that during analysis, there may be codes that may not belong anywhere. Figure 17 identified two codes of *confusing situation* and *sorrow*. The codes were not abandoned in the first instance, however as analysis progressed the two codes were deemed as not being relevant. The next stage of the analytical process was to refine the themes, therefore reducing the data, to a manageable set of significant themes that managed to summarise the data text. This phase was time consuming, however the result was that it was clearer how the themes actually corresponded with each other and made sense. When the researcher was satisfied that the relevant themes had been identified and correctly named, the data analysis was considered as completed.

Conclusion

This chapter discusses the advantages and disadvantages of quantitative and qualitative research methodology in light of the current literature. In order to give voice to two distinct groups of police officers, a qualitative methodology, namely, thematic analysis was employed in this study. The adopted research strategy resulted in the generation of a thick seam of data. The chapter examines the benefits and pitfalls of the qualitative researcher situation in relation to the research participants. The chapter explains how the data was collected and how the TA process was managed. The next chapter will clearly articulate the results of the analysis.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to articulate the findings of the thematic analysis of the data generated by a series of qualitative research interviews. The chapter will be in two sections. The first section will present the data generated from Sample 1 which comprised a group of senior police officers. The second section will present the data generated by Sample 2 which comprised a group of trainee investigators undertaking the ICIDP process. The data in this chapter are presented within the categories of the themes. The themes resulting from the analysis of the data are articulated and then supported by a series of quotations taken from the results of the analysis of the themes. The full volume of participant comments are not replicated in their entirety but represent a range of responses to the interview questions. The reference allocated to the participants is a simple numerical code, generated by the sample number and participant number within each sample.

Section 1 - Sample 1.

It was clear that the participants within Sample 1 had prepared for the interviews by reading the information that the researcher had sent ahead of the interviews, namely ethical approval information and the interview schedules. The participants appeared to have a clear understanding of the research aims and the ability to refer to certain aspects of the literature. The participants made specific references to relevant policy documents and recent associated reports during the interviews. It is interesting to note that the participants albeit now in a strategic senior management role had all completed service as dedicated investigators across all ranks from Detective Constable to Detective Chief Superintendent. This was an unexpected bonus as it allowed the researcher to explore detailed personal investigatory experience in addition to the strategic context of the participant's current role. The participants understood the PIP programme in general and several of the participants were qualified at PIP level 3. The

data gathered as a result of the qualitative research interviews resulted in the emergence of five distinct themes.

1. Investigative Mindset

There were similarities in all of the participant's responses to questions giving rise to this theme. The view of the participants was that there was evidence of understanding and adoption of an investigative mindset by investigators in investigative practice. Across the sample, six of the responses were very similar and will not be repeated for the sake of repetition. The similar repeated response came from six unconnected participants who were in different roles and operating in different contexts. There was no evidence of totally negative responses by the participants, however three of the participants were a little sceptical:

"...the PIP programme is appearing to be successful in facilitating an investigative mindset, especially with less experienced investigators, I see this when conducting reviews of investigations..." (S1P4).

"...it is good to see the investigative mindset, especially in the more inexperienced investigators who I know examine this during their ICIDP process...I regularly see this during briefings and de briefings of operations" (S1P10)

"Recently when I was duty officer, I observed that an investigative mindset had been adopted and was being used in the securing of a scene of a shooting...I also see this when I am approached for advice or during applications for RIPA (Regulation of Investigatory Powers Act 2000) resources" (S1P8)

"...tend see this (the investigative mindset) more and more now, a pity some of the older ones don't get it...I am sure that it will come into common practice in time..." (S1P20)

"Some of the staff understand the concept, but not all of them seem to know how to put into place or what to do with it, the fact that they are thinking about is good to see" (S1P18)

"...certainly, seems that they are more prepared to challenge... difficult to fully service an investigative mindset with limited resources..." (S1P15)

"...is this something real or another fad...not trying to be really negative, but we have heard all this before...having said that...I am currently in a very specialist role and maybe have not seen it first-hand..." (S1P7)

"Makes a lot of sense and I am told that the newer detectives are using this to make a difference...very difficult to measure what this really means..." (S1P1)

"...not really sure yet...need to make my mind up...heard a lot...need to see more... we tend to see the results of this not being used..." (S1P14)

"...understand it ...get it... sadly with limited resources, this cannot be exploited to the best advantage...(S1P11)

" you can see the difference...not just with the investigators who have just completed the course...but with some of the older ones... it makes so much sense and must be encouraged...the complaint I get is that there not enough time or may be not enough resources to use this skill properly." (S1P13)

"when you see that the investigators appear more and more, to be prepared to evaluate what they are doing, this is quite refreshing...however, with limited resources it is difficult to provide those valuable resources to every investigation...there is still a need to prioritise...having the investigative mindset and understanding what it means is useful and very good to see... (S1P2) (this response was in effect repeated by a further five participants within Sample 1)

"..not totally convinced that they all get it...the younger ones have a better appetite for the concept and are prepared to discuss it...I see this in the investigation plans, also I had the opportunity to listen to some of the presentations whilst I was at the training centre...I see the great benefits of the detectives understanding this and using it to achieve better outcomes, rather more thorough investigations..." (S1P9)

"I understand that the ICIDP course using this investigative mindset, however, what works in training does not always work in reality...this sounds quite negative, that is not the intention... no real way of measuring this..." (S1P19)

"...the detectives who have had the training understand this and use it...it needs to be more widespread...the evaluation side is very important..." (S1P4)

Notwithstanding the slightly sceptical view of three participants, from the comments it can be inferred that the participants had an awareness of the trainee investigators understanding of and use of the investigative mindset. The notion of measurement of the acceptance and value of an investigative mindset is raised and was to some extent unexpected.

2. Work Based Assessment

This theme links to the development of the trainee investigator into a competent investigator operating at PIP Level 2. The mention of the work-based portfolio was not expected by the researcher as it was not considered to have been as an area of interest to senior officers. A strong theme from the data was the amount of time it takes for the completion of a portfolio. There were similarities in the participant's responses to questions giving rise to this theme. There are a significant number of opinions from the participants outlining the notion that there is occasional confusion or rather a lack of understanding in the context of the work-based competency assessment. This was surprising as the process of evidence-based competency is to the fore of promotion processes within the police service.

... trainee investigators tell me that putting together of the PIP 2 portfolio is a bit of a nuisance...it's not the work... just getting the evidence in the right order...we have not got the resilience to have people tied up on unnecessary bureaucracy... (S1P3)

...is there real need for the portfolio to be completed... surely the supervisor knows who is working hard and who is not... I note that the investigators already in role who do not need to do ICIDP do not have to complete the portfolio... (S1P4)

...the only negative thing I hear is the completion of the portfolio, however, I tend to hear that from people who complain about everything...I understand there must be a standard to meet...with less resources being expected to do so much more...potentially needless form filling does not make sense... (S1P5)

"...is it really necessary for the specialists to have to work in the area reactive teams to get this evidence...there should be competencies drawn up in the area where the detective is working...all we are hearing about is evidence for this and evidence for that...it must only be me who isn't doing a portfolio at the moment.." (S1P19)

"I understand that the portfolio is necessary to prove competency. I had to complete a PIP 3 portfolio in 2008...but that is for SIO work...I think the PIP 2 portfolio is awkward especially if you not on the reactive team, that means a secondment..." (S1P15)

"I have heard that this is important and that if the detective is not signed off, they don't not really have a licence to practice, it has to be done...there should be more flexibility around the evidence...this is clearly aimed at detectives in reactive units...." (S1P8)
(This response was repeated by a further four participants within Sample 1)

"...there is some confusion about this, more than likely, urban myth...I think we need to spend more time getting this across to the supervisors in a very clear and easy to understand way...if they get it everyone will get it..." (S1P9)

"...the detective must be able to prove that they investigate...it does not matter what we all think about assessment....I am not sure if there is another way to do this...we cannot go back to he's a good lad, he cuts the mustard we will keep him, that is nonsense...there is a need to move forward and work with the process..." (S1P12)

...it must be right, and the portfolio has got to be completed, one of my staff is an assessor and I must agree with her, if the complainers spent the time, they do in complaining getting on the with the assessment it would all be done so much quicker." (S1P20)

"It all make sense to me, I have an agreement with another team so we can make the opportunities for assessment available very quickly and simply, the trainee detective performs a tour of night duty in a busy area...they can get all of the evidence in a few days..." (S1P10) N.B. tour of night duty is a full series of night shifts usually five consecutive nights.

"Some of the assessors need a bit encouragement sometimes, having said that, they are busy as well... in a few years we will wonder what the fuss was all about..." (S1P18)

"...the portfolio is important, I know they have passed an examination and they may do well and a made a full contribution on the course at training school, I have listened to some of the briefings on the course and they are very good, but, that is a safe and sterile environment, we need to know, by that the organisation has be sure that these people are able to do the job properly". (S1P1)

"there is a lot time and effort invested in ICIDP...the work based assessment is important and follows similar models in promotion processes...it is likely to be here to stay in some shape or form and we have got to get on with it...good assessors are the key and the assessors pool is growing..." (S1P11)

"...the complaint is that the process takes a long time and that when your busy how are you expected to do all of the extra work...however, when I present the detective with the PP 2 certificate and how ask them how was the process, they do not complain and tell me that it was all worthwhile...just had a transferee with a Pip 2 certificate... the work was up to scratch... it won't be long before this mentioned at court and we have someone who is not PIP Level 2 castigated..." (S1P2)

"...just a cultural thing and the usual fear of anything new...well nearly new...people are seeing issues where there are none, it is a generational thing". (S1P13)

"in a nutshell, it appears to be laborious and maybe a bit tilted in favour of the reactive teams, everyone investigating a certain level of crime has to be PIP 2 trained and accredited...the assessors are in place... it is not over difficult". (S1P14)

The data provided a range of views, the five responses in the context of the process being biased toward reactive investigative teams identifies a potential friction regarding the work-based assessment, however the positive views provide a balance. There is an understanding that work-based assessment has to be completed in respect of the PIP 2 process.

3. ICIDP is a very resource hungry process, it is difficult to manage the abstraction.

This theme emanates from austerity measures in the context of policing resources in general and the changing nature of serious and complex crime. The participant responses indicated that reactive investigative teams appear to suffer more from a temporary removal of resource than a proactive team. The responses giving rise to the theme appear to be more diverse than the previous themes. A significant number of the sample stressed the issue of ICIDP training resulting in abstractions of staff from duty at times of high demand.

...ICIDP takes a long time, when you consider the course including the interview training week...the officer is away from the sharp end for about six weeks...there is no one available to backfill ... in some cases the officer is expected to return to work after the training day has finished to catch up... that's the reality sometimes... (S1P20)

This response was echoed by (S1P10) although not connected, the participants operated in similar roles, namely the management of reactive teams.

"I get it that the training takes a long time...I cannot think of another business where we would send a valuable resource away for six weeks..." (S1P15)

"...I know it was different for me and my colleagues, however, the training (ICIDP) takes too long... I know it is important, but I have not got a box of trained officers waiting for the next shooting to take place...yes, I know that in my day we were away at a regional training place for ten weeks... it was different then... there were more staff available..."(S1P9)

"...its ok for the proactive practices, they can manage with less as sometimes they can be many months in setting up one of their operations...in the reactive world, we need the people in place and ready to work..." (S1P18)

“...the complaints from victims tend to be around my crime isn’t being taken seriously you’re not really interested...if the officer is not available for several weeks, the investigation will have to be passed to someone already very busy and possibly without the appetite to do it justice... as far as I am aware, there is no information available as to staff abstractions as a result of attending training events...” (S1P14)

The reference to there not being any information as to staff abstractions from duty owing to attendance at training events was also made by (S1P6), (SP17) and (S1P7).

...we need competent investigators to do a proper job and not just pay lip service or go through the motions...having sixteen staff tied up on a course does not get the job done...I know they must learn...they should be trained on the job...it has been a heavy week...” (S1P16)

“...it would be interesting to see how much this all costs ...nowadays when everything is moving so fast, it is difficult to justify the abstractions...I am a little surprised that the training is not broken up a lot more...I also lose them for another week or so whilst they go on attachment to get their evidence...” (S1P19)

“I view the abstraction in a positive light as an investment...the process is effective and makes sense...the abstraction is managed differently in different area and departments. I am aware of the concerns...they can be managed...” (S1P3) This response was almost repeated by participants of NPCC /ACPO rank. In repeating the response most of that stated by (S1P3) was repeated, (S1P12) added *...the trainee investigators have got to be trained to the required standard...that takes time...it is manageable”*. Very similar responses were provided by (S1P4 and S1P13)

“...expensive business training people to do a specific job. It is a complex task that we ask them to carry out...it has got to be done properly and that will take time...” (S1P5)

“I can always usually get another surveillance operative if one of the team is engaged on the ICIDP training” (S1P18)

The data provides an interesting range of observations, thoughts and feelings, the importance of ICIDP is understood, however, the balancing of resources in a managerial context appears to have the potential for cause for concern.

4. The College of Policing Resources are very useful.

The theme links to the development of Authorised Professional Practice (APP) by the College of Policing and examines the usefulness and the effectiveness of APP in the context of ICIDP. The

sample overwhelmingly considered that APP was a very useful resource. There were no detractors from the positive feelings towards APP; the quotations provide a diverse sample of the comments. The first quotation although very positive gives rise to an interesting notion of access to what may in the past have been considered as confidential information.

"this is a very useful and valuable resource that clearly supports the ICIDP process...little surprised that you can access all of this stuff without a password or a username...that means everyone has access to it... I hope it does not become a big stick to hit detectives or for that matter all police officers with...I mean that if the defence start looking at this resource will it become a checklist for the defence to start asking questions as to why every detail was not covered... (S1P2)

"...if we expect our investigators to investigate serious and complex crime, we must understand that the current amount of policy, procedure and legislation the investigator, especially those at PIP 2 must contend with are vast...this system puts almost everything together in a well-ordered manner..." (S1P1)

"...there is such a lot of stuff to know, or rather have a working knowledge of to do the job...I am not sure where I would start... a quick look at APP is clear evidence that the interactive guide is a must...as well as supporting PIP Level 2, this resource supports PIP 3 and is a useful resource especially to access all of the guidance documents in one place..." (S1P9)

"I am so surprised that so few know about this, the step by step guide to investigation is very easy to read and easy to use" (S1P7)

"very, very useful as well as the investigation stuff and the processes, there is a wealth of other information, better than when you had to try and find all of the different ACPO papers and hope that they were up to date" (S1P16)

"all makes good sense...a useful way of supporting the PIP Process... I think that this was a condition of PIP...in the early days there was some criticism of some police forces not a having a central information access point..." (S1P6)

..it is a really good system and clearly supports the detectives especially the new one...I prefer books...I know it is old fashioned...I know it is cumbersome, the problem with this system what happens if the systems are not working...I don't mean to be negative..." (S1P18)

"being honest, I have not really looked at this stuff that much, what I have seen is very good...first impression is that it makes so much sense to have everything in one place". (S1P3)

"...I use this all of the time when I am the duty boss on call out or nights...it will get better, the next step will be when they add the aide memoire cards... that could be a big help...as an investigative manager, I would not think a detective whether experienced or a new trainee could manage without this resource... (S1P17)

“..this has got to be a great help for the people going through the ICIDP process... the relevant legislation is clearly outlined by the investigative steps, this will be of great use when making formal application, especially for the applications for authorisations of covert activity and if this system assists with making good clear applications for technical support...this will even more of an asset”. (S1P13)

This response was echoed and almost repeated by (S1P20), (S1P10) and (S1P15) Although not connected, the participants would operate in similar investigative contexts, these will not be replicated for the sake of repetition.

“useful and makes sense...can’t really fault this...isn’t it a sign of the times when you are looking for fault in something all of the time...that’s what the detectives must do...check everything and make sure all points have been covered...if this system helps then that is a big step forward...be interesting to see if there are any stats on the uptake... (S1P8)

“was quite surprised to see the depth the system went into...this is a great support for the specialists who are going through the PIP 2 process...” (S1P19)

The data infers a genuine support for APP across the sample and reveals positive thoughts and feeling across the proactive and reactive operating contexts.

5. Regional or In-House Investigative Training

This theme examines the context of in-house training or regional training. The forty-three police forces in England and Wales are entitled to develop and deliver training to police officers and police staff including investigative skills training. Two of participants responded that the trainees should be closer to the home force. One of these responses (S1P18) understood the context of the notion of regional training whereas (S1P20) views the theme as a resourcing issue. The overwhelming response from Sample 1 was support for the notion of regional training, there were different thoughts and observations to consistency of the training product.

“...from a resource point of view, I would prefer the training to be done locally...it has got to the stage that if there is another serious shooting or a murder over the next couple of weeks...we will not have enough investigators available...the trainees have to be close by” (SP1P20)

“if the regional training is delivered in our force, that would be ok...do not think it is a good idea to send our staff away in the current climate... I understand the benefits of regional training...nowadays it has to be close to the home force”. (S1P18)

“...Regional investigative training should be considered rather in-house training...my worry is that we may end up with each force doing things differently...a lot of our investigations of the more serious and cross border issues are taking place on a regional footing... I know that some of the police forces in the region may not have the training estate enabled to deliver regional training...” (S1P2)

“there is a growing number of regional and in some cases multi-agency investigation teams...we have got to keep on top of the cross-border issues...regional, in fact regional joint agency training would make good sense...” (S1P8)

“...regional training makes so much sense, doing things consistently would be a great step forward...not sure if six weeks away would be too long...it works with the SIO training because there are not as many training days... may be time to think about either making ICIDP shorter ,or, breaking it down...” (S1P12)

There were seven responses very similar to this response where in addition to positive comments in favour of regional training the notion of breaking down ICIDP from six continuous weeks at a training centre was also raised by (S1P1), (S1P3), (S1P14), (S1P5), (S1P9) and (S1P13). The responses will not be replicated for the sake of repetition.

“...if we could maybe reduce the time from six weeks, or break down the six weeks, I think regional training would be very good...as well as receiving a consistent message and hopefully a consistent way of operation across the region, there would be useful networking opportunities...I still use the networks from when I did my CID training... (S1P4)

This response was not included in the previous group as this response introduced the notion of networking as a consequence of regional investigative training.

“I am not fully sure about regional training...I can see the advantages of consistency across a region... If the ICIDP programme is national surely it does not matter where the training takes place...sorry...I remember now from when I was listening to ICIDP briefing...it is a nationally designed product delivered locally...and that is why they use one of our forces incidents in the

case study...it does make sense...do not think a regional focus would work for the child protection teams...it would be worth investigating...” (S1P15)

“...this would make a lot of sense in covert operations as long as we could the authorisation of applications consistent and on a regional basis this would be a good way forward...I think this would be supportive of ICIDP and maybe improve the product” (S1P19)

This response was also made by (S1P7) This will not be replicated for the sake of repetition. The participants do operate in the same investigative context.

“...regional training or in-house training...as long as it does properly and the trainee detectives learn the process and are able to do the job, it does not really matter where the training is done...I would support either option...” (S1P16)

“I think that in-house training can become a bit of the same ... the trainees going on ICIDP know exactly what to expect...this removes the challenge of the training...I think regional training would be useful...maybe fresher...this could improve the ICIDP process... (S1P4)

This response was echoed by S1P10 and is not replicated here for the sake of repetition.

“...appreciative that each force may have their own way of doing things...I see great benefits in regional training... I would not be surprised to see force amalgamation on the agenda again...this would be a step in the right direction...I feel that it would enrich the ICID process...” (S1P11)

“...if the training was to be arranged regionally it would give the trainees a better experience...we are starting to do more on a regional basis with investigation and this would make sense, it should improve ICIDP by giving the trainees a better experience and an insight ion to how to do things a little differently...as long as the standards are met it should work.” (S1P6)

A wide range views fully support a context of regional training delivery; the participants understood the context and made a valid contribution to the notion of considering breaking down the ICIDP format and improving the trainees learning experience.

Section 2 - Sample 2.

The participants within Sample 2 had prepared for the interviews by reading the information that the researcher had sent ahead of the interviews, namely ethical approval information and the interview schedules. The participants appeared to have a clear understanding of the

research aims. In developing a qualitative narrative, the interviews resulted in the emergence of a number of distinct themes. There are four distinct themes, however these are derived from thirteen strong sub themes. To assist the reader, the results of the coding and the analysis are presented here by themes.

Figure. 18. Themes and Sub-themes: Sample 2.

SAMPLE 2: THEMES	
MAIN THEME	Sub Themes
ICIDP: NATIONAL INVESTIGATORS EXAMINATION (NIE)	Necessity to have working knowledge of law and procedure
	Study Time
	Study Materials
	Exam for specialists
ICIDP: TIER 2 INTERVIEWING	Cognitive Model
	Questioning
	Practical Exercises
	Feedback
ICIDP CLASSROOM PHASE	Investigative Mindset
	Specialist Context
	Reactive Context
ICIDP WORKPLACE ASSESSMENT	Assessor Issues
	Assessment Opportunities

ICIDP: National Investigators Examination (NIE)

This theme related to participants perceptions of the importance of investigators having a working knowledge of relevant criminal law and procedure. There were some differences in the participants' responses giving rise to this theme, and these focused on the need for a formal examination of knowledge. Some participants stated that the NIE exam was a good way of ascertaining the level knowledge. However, two participants felt that there was no need to have to pass a formal examination. Four of the participants during interview accepted that they were very negative about having to take a formal examination. but, on learning of success in the examination, the negativity disappeared. There was an overall acceptance that a working knowledge of law and procedure is necessary in the context of investigative skill. Three of the participants expressed the notion that there should be consideration of an alternative NIE for specialist investigators.

"...not sure if you need to pass an examination to be an investigator...you can learn from an experienced detective..." (S2P16)

"...there is no real point in passing an exam for the sake of it...I already have professional qualifications..." (S2P1)

...it was a struggle to study for the examination, I didn't really get some of the complicated legal stuff...when I found I had passed, I was really pleased and then saw the sense in it... (S2P4)

...I had passed a promotion exam and they still made me take another exam, I did ask if I could be given a bye, no chance.... (S2P15)

...It took me two attempts and a lot studying to pass the NIE... I knew that without the pass I would not be able to be a detective... you need to know your stuff... I mean if you do not know what the law is and what you can do, there is not much point trying to do the job... (S2P11)

...it was a fair exam and if you pass it first time like I did it makes you feel that you know what you are talking about...you must know what you are talking about... in this day and age... if you get wrong you only have yourself to blame... (S2P2)

...I understand that you must have the knowledge and you need to understand...I passed... I would much prefer a proper written exam...I do not like the ticky box exams...it is very easy

to get mixed up... (S2P5)

The exam did not cost me any money...they gave us the study books.... study properly and you will pass... (S2P17)

I was complaining to everyone that the exam was horrible and not reality...that was an excuse really...when I passed I stopped complaining... (S2P6)

The force set up a crammer course...that was useful...they forgot people like me have not studied since we were at school...this was the first proper exam I had taken in twenty years...it was good when I got the result that I had passed... (S2P13)

It was very difficult to study when you are so busy at work...I heard that some of the group were given some study time by their boss... I studied very late at night when the kids were asleep...when I passed... I forget about the difficulties...(S2P3)

The exam was fair... I needed a lot of help...I had not studied for a good few years and it was very hard.... there is help available...it is not cheap...I wanted to be a detective...I put in the hours and passed second time. (S2P9)

Well I passed the exam...there was a lot of studying in the early hours of the morning...not much chance at all to study at work...I had my wife up the wall with all the definitions (S2P7)

...I did not expect to get the study books for free...when I checked they were expensive...I bought a separate book of questions and answers... (S2P12)

...It was good to get the study guides...if you do the Sergeants exam...you have to get your own and it is not cheap. (S2P18)

...study stuff was bang up to date...I know that they are updated every year because some laws and procedures change... it is still a really good reference book...much easier to read than the old-fashioned law books. (S2P14)

I don't need to know a lot of the stuff the others need... A lot of what I do was not in the exam... my current job involves advanced driving skills and being able to follow someone without being noticed... I have had to pass my driving and map reading and following tests... (S2P19)

Not very useful for me and the team I am working with.... a lot of the general stuff is not used by me.... a bit of a waste of time really having to take a heavy exam full of stuff I do not really need to know... If I get stuck... I will look it up... (S2P20)

"... should be a separate exam for covert work...the run of the mill stuff you do not really need for what I do..." (S2P8)

ICIDP: Tier 2 Investigative Interviewing

This theme arises from the Tier 2: Investigative Interviewing training phase of the classroom based ICIDP programme. Three of the participants from sample were not negative but found a small part of cognitive interviewing technique somewhat confusing. Overall the participants were positive as to the usefulness and value of the Tier 2 phase of the programme. There is similarity in the comments, however they were distinct and extracts from all participants are presented.

"... a little confusing...the stuff around changing perspective... I didn't really understand it and do not think I would use this bit..." (S1P2)

"... not sure about change of perspective...overall the model is a very good way of getting the best out of the witness..." (S1P20)

"... I get the change of order...not sure if I understand the change of perspective and would not use it..." (S1P10)

"... as a specialist interviewer...I use this model all the time... I usually only interview witnesses and victims...this has been a really good refresher for me..." (S1P1)

"... I need to use this properly in my interviews with witnesses and victims...often time is limited...in fact that might just be an excuse...this is a very good system... I have learned a lot..." (S1P11)

"...I need to spend more time in my planning and preparation...it was good to get the information about bad character from lawyers... I think I understand it now..." (S1P8)

"...It was good to do an almost real interview with actors and be able to make mistakes... about the bad character stuff... the only problem is that at work there is never enough time to plan and prepare properly..." (S1P3)

“...there is an awful lot of planning and preparation...you get the time on the course to do it properly... you don’t really get that time at work...that is why the bad character evidence may not be used properly...” (S1P7)

“...more confident now...the bad character evidence will be very useful to use as I usually deal with repeat offenders...” (S1P15)

...the questioning sessions were very useful...this makes good sense and will help with my work interviewing suspects... the information about probing is very good...the role play is excellent... (S1P16)

“...questioning type and style is very useful... in the past I have done some interview training in the past...this was in much more detail... a very good thing to do...” (S1P12)

“...the witness interview model makes so much sense... we did a much-watered down version of this as recruits...this has been a lot better...takes a lot of time...it is very useful....it has brought it home to me that the best questions come out of the previous answer...the probing style I have now learned is very useful... (S1P4)

“...practical exercises with the role players are very effective...the planning and preparation really played off...I particularly liked the briefing of the solicitor part of some of the exercises...this is going to help at work...” (S1P13)

“...the exercises are very good...as close as you can get to interview a real suspect...difficult to criticise the exercises really...” (S1P14)

“...it is always good when you know that it was safe to make a mistake...I made many mistakes and have definitely learned from them...” (S1P5)

“...the exercises bring it all together...knowing what the law says and what the techniques mean are one thing...actually doing it is important...” (S1P9)

“...the feedback on my interviews was very detailed...I did not expect the trainer to go into so much detail...it made me really think about how the interview went and how productive it was...” (S1P17)

“...the feedback following the witness and suspect interviews was very detailed... I am so pleased that I did the planning and preparation...I made some mistakes but that was not a bad thing...” (S1P19)

“...having heard that the feedback you get at the end of the interview exercises was very detailed and to the point...I was dreading it...it was very good...I did not know that I spoke that quickly and that this quick speaking could stop me making myself clear to witnesses...” (S1P18)

It can be inferred that the perception of the participant in the context of the Tier 2 phase of the programme is positive and all participants understand the value of the course content.

ICIDP – Classroom Phase

Responses in the context of the five-week classroom phase of the ICIDP programme were repetitive, a selection of responses is presented.

...apart from one or two of the sessions by the experts and the decision making... the classroom syndicate work is of no use to me... need something for those of doing covert stuff...it wasn't a waste of time...but nothing for me really... this sounds a bit dismissive... what I mean is unless I get a reactive posting, I won't use a lot of this stuff...(S2P8)

....it will be very useful for when I go to reactive duties when the course is finished...we need a covert version of this...not a covert version of this...what I mean is there should be something for people in covert work as good as this... (S2P19)

This response was repeated by (S1P20). The participants are deployed in specialist role, however both participants were destined for an attachment following the classroom phase of the course to a reactive investigative context

...the work on the course is very general... as a specialist it is not much use to me...it was very interesting, and I am sure useful to those on the spike (in house parlance for reactive detective) ... (S2P10)

This response was repeated to a great extent by (S1P9). The participants are deployed in the same investigative context, namely generic proactive work.

...not really knowing what to expect...it came as a pleasant surprise that we were working through a series of problems to investigate a proper crime rather than just sitting in class listening to a load of lectures...the teams or syndicates were a good mix of different skills and abilities...we did learn a lot from each other... (S2P12)

...the syndicate work was really good...having a room to work in and the time to get on with a proper investigation was very helpful...you quickly had to learn that if it is not written down you have not done it...all about decisions... (S2P16)

Positive responses in the context of syndicate work were repeated by all of the participants including those deployed in a proactive context. All of the participants stated that learning from one another was very useful and there was an appreciation of working through the case studies.

...it is the decisions that matter.... rather than the end result...it looks like they (the courts) are very interested how you decided to do something rather than what you actually did... (S2P5)

This response was iterated by all of the participants including those from a proactive context.

...having heard that the course was quite heavy in some parts...I was expecting boring lectures and senior people talking at us... and not as it turned out a few weeks of very hard work... very useful...did not expect that we would be being watched all of the time.... we were told on day one that the syndicate work could be seen by the trainers... (S2P)

This response was repeated by all of the participants. For clarification, the syndicate rooms in both police forces are equipped with computer workstations and cameras, the trainees are told that the syndicate work can be seen and listened to, but not recorded.

...we were fortunate to have trainers who knew what they were doing and had a lot of detective experience... (S2P4)

This response was repeated by a large number of respondents; (S1P1,2,3,5,6,7,9,11,13,14,18,20,).

...the courtroom skills sessions were really useful...very refreshing to learn from mistakes... in fact it was good to know that the training centre was the place to make mistakes and learn from them ...much better to make a mistake during a training exercise rather than at a crown court... (S2P)

...investigative mindset had been mentioned in the office before the course... I think that in the covert side of things...this is already in place...we always look for different ways to do things.... if the surveillance goes wrong there is a very heavy debrief...we always try to be creative...creative is the wrong word...open minded... (S2P15)

I did not get the investigative mindset at first...it...makes sense now it has been explained... thought it just different words for maybe trying something new... (S2P17)

"...do not stop looking and searching for evidence...I understand now that it is easy to try and take shortcuts sometimes...better and easier to do the job properly..." (S1P14)

The range of views suggests that the participants reacted well to an andragogic construct and benefited from the experience of working as a team under the supervision of experienced trainers. However, there is evidence of a disconnect between the quality of the product and perceived usefulness for trainees operating in a proactive or strictly specialist context.

ICIDP - Workplace Assessment

This theme examines the workplace assessment process. The participant responses giving rise to this theme were inconsistent. Five participants explained that there was confusion in the context of the allocation of assessors. Two participants explained that assessors were not allocated until very late in the process and they had returned to the workplace for over six weeks before an assessor was allocated. Twelve participants stated that assessors had been identified and allocated as soon as the trainee embarked on the PIP Level 2 programme.

"...when the assessor was allocated, he was on a different section and our shifts were never the same... eventually another assessor was allocated... (S2P1) (S2P

"...bit of an issue with getting an assessor at first...eventually it was sorted..." (S2P4)

"...at first there were two of us on the programme and there was a shortage of assessors in our area... we did get an assessor a few months after we had finished the ICIDP classroom phase.... the supervisor was good and helped us until an assessor was available..." (S1P2) (S1P3)

"It was going to be difficult maybe impossible to get the evidence for the portfolio in my usual covert role...I was given a secondment to the reactive team...a couple of weeks was all that was needed to be in the position to be dealing with the incidents making up what was necessary for the portfolio..." (S1P20)

This response was repeated by (S1P8) (S2P9) (S2P11) (S2P13)

"It did not take too long to get the evidence...took a lot longer to write up the reports... that was a bit tedious...once you get a grip of the report system it is very straightforward...important to get a good assessor..." (S2P5)

"...thought it was going to be a struggle to get the evidence for the portfolio...very quiet where I am based...fortunately for, but sadly for the public we had two very busy weeks lots of reports and incidents to deal with... that provided all of the evidence that I needed..." (S2P4)

This response is indicative of another eleven responses, they will not be presented for the sake of repetition.

"I was tutored through the process...the assessor was very interested and qualified...got me through okay...." (S2P16)

"...the assessor was okay...seemed to want an awful lot of evidence before she would sign off a unit...did know what they were talking about...that helped..." (S2P12)

"...the assessor was an experienced detective... she knew what she were doing... she did not just assess...she had a very heavy workload of her own as well as keeping an eye on my work..." (S2P14)

"...the assessor was a good solid detective...fifteen years in the CID...very helpful to have someone who understood assessment and the units..." (S2P7)

"...at the end of the ICIDP classroom phase I complained that the course was no use for me as a specialist...when having to be assessed I was seconded to the main reactive CID office... as well as being able to gather all of the evidence I needed for my portfolio, it quickly dawned on me how useful the course was... I complained about the NIE...I complained about the course apart from the interview training...the course on reflection makes perfect sense..." (S2P8)

“...the assessment stage if you like was the real-life practical exercise...this is where the course helped...sometimes there was no team as such...the course...I mean the classroom stuff was very helpful...” (S2P9) Very similar comments were made by all of the participants.

It can be inferred from a broad range of views and experiences that the perception of the trainee investigators is that overall, the workplace assessment worked and consolidated the learning from the classroom phase of the programme.

Distillation of Themes

This chapter has articulated the data within the categories of the themes from Sample 1 and Sample 2. Taken together, the themes are specific to the relevant sample. The themes can now be distilled to provide a smaller series of overarching or metathemes across both of the research samples. See Figure 19.

Figure 19. Themes emerging from the two strands of research.

Sample 1	Sample 2
Investigator's acceptance of the value of the investigative mindset.	National Investigators Examination (NIE)
Assessment of Competence at PIP Level 2.	ICIDP Tier 2 Interviewing
ICIDP is a Resource Hungry Process	ICIDP Classroom Phase
College of Policing Resources	ICIDP Workplace Assessment
Regional or in-house Training	

Conclusion

Taken together, the results reported in this chapter provide important insights into the perceptions of senior police officers and trainee investigators in the context of the effectiveness of the ICIDP process leading to the qualification to operate at Investigative Level 2 of PIP. The next chapter moves on to discuss the results of the study and outline the key contributions made by the programme of research.

Chapter 5: Discussion

The purpose of this chapter to examine the significance of the programme of research in the light of the previous literature. In order to achieve the purpose, the chapter will discuss the four metathemes or overarching themes distilled from the emerging themes from the two strands of research, thus outlining the key contributions of the study. The overarching themes emanating from the study are described in Figure 20. Each of the overarching themes are described together with the relevant associated themes. The overarching themes are linked to the relevant literature and the implication of each overarching theme for police forces and in some cases the College of Policing are discussed.

Figure: 20 Overarching Themes or Metathemes

Overarching Theme	Associated Theme
Investigator's acceptance of the value of the investigative mindset.	ICIDP Classroom Phase ICIDP Resource Hungry Process College of Policing Resources
Assessment of Competence at PIP Level 2.	ICIDP Workplace Assessment
ICIDP Tier 2 Interviewing	Cognitive model of Interviewing Suspect Interviewing Practical Exercises Questioning Type and Style
National Investigators Examination	Specialist Exam Necessity

Investigator's acceptance of the value of the investigative mindset.

The literature concerning investigative mindset has a clear link to the legislative definition of investigator which demands the adoption of an investigative mindset in calling for an open-minded evaluative approach to investigation (CPIA, 1996). The data giving rise to this theme demonstrates understanding and application of an investigative mindset. This adds to the debate as to how investigators approach the task of crime investigation (Stelfox and Pease, 2005). Ongoing adoption of the investigative mindset is crucial to the effectiveness of the investigation of serious and complex incidents (College of Policing, 2014; College of Policing, 2017). ACPO (2012) and College of Policing, (2013) explain that the application of the investigative mindset must be acquired by the investigator over time and experience. The investigative mindset is an investigative technique that investigators are encouraged to adopt to remain open minded throughout the process of an investigation (Cook and Tattersall, 2010). An open-minded approach to criminal investigation can heighten the overall standard of detective work and lower the risk of investigative errors (Cook & Tattersall, 2010). The review of investigative material must be dynamic and fluid. Practice Advice on Core Investigative Doctrine (ACPO, 2012) and the College of Policing investigation process (College of Policing, 2013) explain the context of the investigative mindset. Investigative mindset is also an objective of ICIDP (College of Policing, 2017) namely the critical and evaluative approach to investigative decision making and investigative explanation (Stelfox, 2008). In order to meet investigatory objectives, an investigator must carry out analysis, assess evidence, and evaluate material generated by the investigation of serious and complex crimes to identify offenders (College of Policing, 2017)

The investigative mindset should assist investigators in making investigative decisions and improve accountability (Savage & Milne, 2007). Gehl and Pleacas (2017) state that achievement of the investigative mindset demands an awareness of heuristic shortcuts and other negative investigative tendencies that can become an obstacle to successful outcomes. Stelfox and Pease (2005) defining confirmation or verification bias as a type of selective thinking, state that there is concern that an

individual investigator is more likely to search for evidence that confirms his or her theory. The stage of investigative evaluation links to the context argued by Innes (2002) and Maguire and Norris (1992), namely the determination that a crime has taken place, the identification of a suspect and the gathering of evidence to support a prosecution. The reliability of investigative material should be adduced by using the investigative mindset (ACPO, 2012). Material gathered by investigators provides knowledge of the incident subject of investigation. The evaluation process facilitates the organisation of investigative knowledge assisting in the identification of what action is required next. In the first instance the objective is likely to be broad and concerned with establishing what information there is, what type of incident is being investigated, whether a crime has been committed and if there is a suspect.

The results of this programme of research provide evidence that investigative mindset as a concept is understood by trainee investigators in two north west police forces undertaking the ICIDP process that underpins PIP Level 2. Furthermore, there is evidence that the application of an investigative mindset has been witnessed by work-based assessors and by senior police officers. However, Recent concerns (MPS and CPS London, 2018) raise the issue of potential investigative failure resulting from the non-application of an investigative mindset in the context of disclosure in criminal proceedings (CPS, 2015). NPCC (2018) stated that there is a clear need to firmly embed disclosure in the investigative mindset from the outset on any investigation. The findings of the current study in the context of investigative mindset supports and adds to the previous literature in that the concept of investigative mindset can be brought about and embedded in the investigative psyche through well planned and well delivered skills-based training.

The implication of this theme is that the College of Policing should clearly articulate the relevance and benefits of the adoption of the investigative mindset. This process should commence as the police officer is recruited in the basic training phase. In the current economic climate of swingeing

cuts to public sector budgets, investigative resources are at a minimum (HMICFRS, 2017). All police officers must be aware of and have the ability to investigate with an open minded and evaluative investigative methodology. Currently, the College of Policing interactive resources mention investigative mindset within the section labelled Managing Investigations. Investigators at all levels require an explicit definition of investigative mindset to guide and advise their investigative journeys.

Assessment of Competence at PIP Level 2

PIP Programme Policy (2017) states that on completion of the ICIDP (classroom phase), the trainee investigator will be allocated a tutor (assessor). The assessor will be an experienced investigator who has undertaken and completed relevant assessor training. A minimum six to twelve-month workplace assessment will commence with the trainee investigator working alongside the appointed tutor. The tutor and supervisor will ensure that the trainee is issued with a monthly development plan, (College of Policing, 2017). The trainee will be expected to gather evidence to prove competence across a range of areas to achieve the relevant (NOS). The personal development portfolio is an integral part of the of the programme allowing for testing skills and knowledge and assessment in the workplace (College of Policing, 2017). Evidence of competency could include, scene reports, crime report investigative decisions, testimony from colleagues and testimony for the assessor. Assessors must be competent in the function that they are assessing and fully understand the nature of the learners' work (Skills for Justice, 2013). This study found that assessors from both police forces subject of the programme of research had received formal assessor training and were registered with suitable agencies. Assessors must be fully familiar with the PIP Level 2 qualification and be able to make judgements as to the current working practices within the area of work. (Skills for Justice, 2013; College of Policing, 2017).

The completion of the PIP Level 2 portfolio is the work-based assessment of the competence of the investigator against the relevant national occupational standards. (PIP ISP, 2008). The portfolio completion process was developed in 2008, prior to the government driven austerity measures in the public sector between 2010 and 2017 (HMICFRS, 2017). At least one police force in England and Wales report that owing to budgetary cuts, they will 'give up' on minor crime (Travis, 2017). The implication of cuts to policing budgets is a reduction of 26,000 police officers over the period 2010–2017 (Dodd, 2017). Therefore, with less investigators investigating increasing crime, there is a concern that the completion of a portfolio the trainee investigators became less of a priority when inspection of police forces in England and Wales reveal that possible three quarters of police forces regularly let down vulnerable victims of crime (HMIC, 2015)

During the classroom-based learning phase of ICIDP, trainee investigators receive a detailed explanation regarding the process of completing the portfolio (McGrory and Treacy, 2012; Greater Manchester Police, 2012). However, there is a concern that some trainees do not complete the ICIDP process because the portfolio building is too time consuming and certain supervisors and managers do not value it (College of Policing, 2014). Workplace assessment is seen as a weakness within PIP with a lack of consistency between forces over assessor training and standards (College of Policing, 2014). College of Policing (2017) states that the robustness of the assessment and verification process is paramount to PIP's success with the professional portfolio being an integral part of the programme allowing for the testing of skills and knowledge. Nationally, apart from PIP Level 3 Senior Investigating Officers, there is no way of accurately and dynamically establishing the number of accredited investigators across the police service (College of Policing, 2014). The findings of the current study evidence a potential appetite for the completion of the portfolio, however there are differences of opinion as to importance of assessment.

The implication for the College of Police and police forces in the context of investigative training and policy is that smarter, more innovative ways of final assessment may be necessary. The advent of algorithmic electronic recording systems may allow for a less labour-intensive completion of the work-based assessment. The effectiveness of digital recording systems in the context of investigators notes has to date not been evaluated and is not within the remit of this programme of research. The two north west police forces utilised in this study, are in the process of redrafting all assessment procedures in the context of investigative development. There are now a variety of ways in which police forces can recruit and train PIP 2 Investigations. The Police Education Qualifications Framework (PEQF) is a professional framework for the training of police officers and staff (College of Policing, 2017). Although, still in development, preparations are being made for a serious and complex crime Investigator degree programme (Institute for Apprenticeships and Technical Education, 2017). The transition from standard work-based assessment to an academic framework will result in major changes to the assessment in the context of PIP Level 2.

ICIDP Tier 2 Investigative Interviewing

The study found several strong associated themes underpinning the overarching theme of Investigative Interviewing. The associated themes: cognitive interviewing, questioning type and style, the management of practical exercises and suspect interviewing are discussed in light of the literature, relevant, legislation and standard operating procedures. Principle 1 of Investigative Interviewing (College of Policing, 2013) states that the aim of investigative interviewing is to obtain accurate and reliable accounts from victims, witnesses, and suspects about matters under police investigation. The investigative interviewing framework for police officers in England and Wales states that all witnesses should be interviewed in accordance with the PEACE Model (ACPO, 2014). It is considered good practice to use free recall to encourage the individual to give an account of the

situation. Free recall is part of the cognitive model of investigative interviewing (Fisher & Geisselman, 1992). The cognitive model of interviewing (CI) is a technique first formulated in the 1980's as a means of improving eyewitness accounts (Geiselman et al. 1986). The most frequently used component of the cognitive model is the mental reconstruction of the physical contexts which existed at the time the incident under investigation took place (Mermon, Meissner and Fraser, 2010). Skilful interviews should be witness led (Fishcer et al. 1989; Bull & Milne, 2004).

Milne & Bull (1999) consider CI as the single most important development in investigative techniques. Shollum (2005) states that CI is not an interview in itself but comprises four distinct techniques designed to be used with cooperative memory aids. Wells & Brandon (2018) state that CI allows the interviewee to provide detailed narratives. Research indicates that CI is highly effective in eliciting information (Memon, Meissner & Fraser, 2010).

The CI model allows the witness to provide as much information as possible as if they the witness were at the scene of the incident (Milne & Griffiths, 2001). The change of perspective technique from a cognitive interview process attempts to report events from alternative perspectives; an example would be the perspective from that of someone else present at the incident (Kohnken et al. 1999). Although the cognitive interview encourages an accurate and thorough recall of events, the change of perspective technique can appear confusing to both interviewers and witnesses (Waddington & Bull, 2007; Shollum, 2005). The findings in this study in the context of trainee investigators having difficulty with the change of perspective technique agree with Shollum (2005), the fact that an investigator instructed a witness to think as another person to aid the retrieval of detail would be very difficult to explain to a jury in a trial. At the time of writing, one of the police forces subject of the programme of research does not include change of perspective in the Tier 2 Investigative Interviewing training programme. The other police force subject of the programme of research still includes the element in the delivery of the cognitive model, however, this is only delivered to existing skilled interviewers. APP (College of Policing, 2017) does not discuss the change

of perspective technique in the context of investigative interviewing. The implications of not using the change of perspective technique in an interview with a witness or victim is negligible. There are no reported cases of not using change of perspective in an interview having a negative effect in a criminal trial. The implication in the context of investigative training is the necessity of consistency. The emerging theme of confusion or potential negativity in the context of change of perspective technique is balanced by the positive responses in the context of the cognitive model overall. The finding of research in this study reinforce previous research that suggests that the reliability of the cognitive model is evident (Milne, 2009; Wells and Brandon et al, 2018)

Although the extant literature in the context of PIP at Investigative Level 2 and ICIDP is scant (James & Mills, 2012). There is a wealth of research in the context of the retrieval of memory (Milne & Bull, 1992; Fischer & Geiselman, 1992). A systematic analysis of the interviewing of witnesses and victims is outside of the scope of the current programme of research. However, it is clear from the analysis of the theme that overall, the Tier 2 investigative interviewing training in the context of witnesses and victims is worthwhile. The findings of this study add to the current literature in the context of the cognitive interview by providing clear evidence of the usefulness and the value attached to the technique.

This study examined legislative issues in the context of suspect interview training. In both police forces subject of the study, during the Tier 2 investigative interviewing training programme, the legislative context of the investigative interviewing of suspects is clearly explained. A series of legislative developments, namely, Police and Criminal Evidence Act, 1984 (PACE); Criminal Procedure and Investigations Act, 1996 (CPIA), The Criminal Justice and Public Order Act, 1994 (CJPO) and The Criminal Justice Act, 2003 (CJA) impact on investigative interviewing, especially the interviewing of suspects. CJA governs the admissibility of bad character evidence in criminal proceedings. CJA, provides clear definition of bad character evidence and a simplification of the rules of admissibility of

the introduction of evidence of bad character (Parsons, 2007). The provisions of CJA are explained by competent solicitors to the trainees undertaking the Tier 2 Investigative Interviewing element of ICIDP. The delivery of the specialist knowledge in the context of bad character evidence is supplemented by clear advice and guidance within APP (College of Policing, 2017). Evidence of bad character is only admissible if certain appropriate conditions apply. CJA abolished the common law rules which formerly applied to this area (Stockdale & O’Cain, 2016). The investigator must identify the appropriate conditions or gateways of bad character evidence in framing questions during the interview with the suspect. Therefore, it is important that investigators are sure in their knowledge of the legislative procedural context. CJA 2003 in the context of untruthfulness has a clear link with CJPO S.36 and the power of the jury to draw inferences. It is key, that the interviewing officers are fully conversant with the relevant protocols and legislative procedure to ensure admissibility of the evidence. The interviewer must choose the grounds and timing in the cases where the provisions are likely to apply to remain within the spirit of the legislation (College of Policing, 2017). The Crown Prosecution Service (CPS) provide detailed guidance in the context of admissibility of bad character evidence (CPS, 2017). This study provides evidence that trainees aspiring to achieve PIP Investigative Level 2, receive real and relevant training to identify factors in the context of the bad character evidence. The implication of this theme for the College of Policing is that the delivery of ICIDP by police trainers must be supplemented as and when is necessary by suitably qualified subject matter experts to ensure that the trainees are left in no doubt as to the usefulness and value of legislative benefits to an investigation.

The history of investigative interviewing in England and Wales shows that interviewing needs to be both effective and ethical (Griffiths & Milne, 2006). Walsh & Oxburgh, (2008) describe the investigative interview as being central and significant aspect of the criminal justice system. Several studies conclude that interviews using predominantly open questions tend to result in more detailed

accurate responses that closed questions (Milne & Bull, 1999; Lamb et al, 2002; Kebbell, Hurren & Mazerolle, 2006). Previous research advocates that the questioning of suspects may result in more productive responses if the interviewer deploys the method of open, probe, summarise and link (Shepherd, 2013). The analysis of the data suggests that the teaching strategy is making sense and assists the trainee investigator. The teaching strategy adopted by the police forces in the study uses a group of eight trainees and two trainers. The trainers were accomplished investigative interviewers and had completed the relevant training programmes. The training programme utilises practical exercises and very detailed developmental feedback.

The implication of the themes in the context of investigative interview training is that the College of Policing must direct that whenever possible, police training managers should ensure that the trainers deployed in the context of investigative interviewing training are skilled practitioners with access to the most recent research. The skilled practitioner adds credibility to the training context and can bring real and relevant experience to the training arena.

Knowledge of the academic discipline and practical knowledge are important to the expert practitioner (Jarvis, 2003). There is the question about the relationship between theory and practice (Jarvis, 1999), however, an andragogical instructional method appears to be useful and productive, (Vodde, 2008). Practical knowledge will ensure that the skill can be put to good use and the task can be carried out effectively. Adults often learn from experience (Vodde, 2008). At the conclusion of each practical exercise, the trainee investigator is given detailed feedback by the trainer in respect of the trainee's performance in the interviewing exercise. The feedback is developmental and is aimed at something the trainee can change or develop (Westberg & Jason, 2001). The trainer has to make a judgement based on the evidence collated during observation of the interview exercise that the trainee has the skills and abilities to meet the relevant national occupational standard. The feedback is derived from a comparison of current progress against the occupational standard (Butler & Wynne, 1995; Sadler, 1989). The feedback is detailed to assist the trainee in understanding its

purpose (Black & William, 1998). The findings of the study in the context of practical exercises and feedback delivery add nothing significant to the previous literature. The findings evidence that the ICIDP training programme is built on a solid theoretical framework and is in keeping with contemporary learning theory.

National Investigators Examination (NIE)

The NIE is currently open to warranted police officers, police staff investigators and investigators in other law enforcement agencies or bodies (College of Policing, 2017). The rules and syllabus for NIE do not make any distinction between trainee investigators operating in a covert or overt context. To date, only Bryant (2009) has made any commentary in the context of NIE in general. However, this was restricted to the NIE marking rubric utilised at the time of that publication. Although, the PIP Review Recommendation report (College of Policing, 2014:18) states “the NIE is generally sound and for fit for purpose”, this study suggests that covert trainee investigators have a different perspective on this issue. Changes to NIE apart from annual updates in the legislative and the legislatively procedural context are highly unlikely unless the College of Policing has the appetite to formally review NIE.

The NIE aims to ascertain if the trainee has the knowledge and understanding of law and procedure necessary to investigate serious and complex crime (College of Policing, 2017). College of Policing (2016) makes it clear that there is no movement in respect of the College of Policing to change the NIE in content or format. Although the syllabus will change annually to reflect changes in legislation, legislative codes of practice and legislative procedure (College of Policing, 2017). In addition to the NIE, the National Police Promotion Framework (NPPF) Step Two Legal Examination for Sergeants and Inspectors is a multiple-choice examination with an absolute pass mark (College of Policing, 2016). The Certificate of Knowledge of Policing Examination (CKP) used by some but not all police forces as

a pre-requisite to joining the police service is likewise a multiple-choice examination (College of Policing, 2017).

The College of Policing does not provide copies of NIE preparation material. Both police forces subject to the programme of research met the cost of the preparation materials recommended by the College of Policing namely Blackstone's Police Investigators Manual. It is crucial that the trainee investigator studying in preparation for the NIE uses an up to date publication of the Blackstone's Police Investigators Manual. The questions within the NIE are based on the material contained within the latest edition of the Blackstone's Investigators Manual and all subject areas are examinable through the NIE, including the appendices (College of Policing, 2017b:46). Each candidate for NIE receive a detailed feedback report detailing their performance for each question. Participants did not mention the feedback comments. As previously stated, some police forces will provide a crammer course for candidates delivered by a commercial provider. This study provides evidence that the provision of study materials by the trainees' police force is effective and assists in preparation for NIE.

The NIE is designed and developed to test trainee investigators knowledge and understanding of four areas, evidence, property offences, assault, drugs, firearms gun crime and sexual offences. (College of Policing, 2017b). The NIE Syllabus and Instructions (College of Policing, 2017b) state that a candidate for the examination should undertake a minimum distance learning period of fourteen weeks before sitting the examination. The College of Policing does not prescribe a course of study. There are several private commercial training consultancies; Police Mass, Checkmate, Sancus, that deliver distance learning 'courses' and crammer course weekends. There is no detailed guidance for managers of trainee investigators as to allowing study time during the working day. Therefore, the nature of the trainee's day to day working practice will dictate if there is any potential for study time

to be allowed during the working day. Individual police forces may consider funding a 'crammer course' to be delivered in house by one of the commercial training companies (Checkmate Publications, 2018). Individual police forces may have a policy of dedicating time to be allocated within a person's shift or working day, this time has become known as Protected Learning Time (PLT). However, PLT is not purely for NIE study, it is intended for all manner of personal development (West Yorkshire Police, 2016)

Pending the outcome of PEQF and the development and launch of new investigative training frameworks, the NIE is to remain as the prerequisite to commence the other phases of ICIDP (College of Policing, 2017). However, in the current economic climate of austerity and the police service having to do a lot more work with less resources, allowing operational detectives time off for study will be very difficult to manage. Recent research indicates that police forces are struggling to meet demand (HMICFRS, 2018). Billingham (2018) states that policing is under significant stress and that some police forces risk being unable to keep people safe in some very important areas of policing. The context of PLT appears to be worthy of further research to ascertain how policing managers can overcome the challenge to balance the demands of the public which the police serve with the developmental needs of the workforce.

The implications of this study for police forces is that PLT for the NIE should be equitable across the England and Wales policing landscape. (A search of public domain websites in the context of PLT in England and Wales reveals that six of the 43 police forces have a published PLT policy.) In order to supplement private study, police forces must ensure that trainee investigators are allowed time from normal commitments to undertake identified learning activities. Managers must ensure that PLT is managed fairly and that requests for PLT in line with role profiles requires prompt attention and sensitive management.

Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the distilled themes emanating from the programme of research in light of the current literature and examined the implications of this study on police forces in England and Wales and the College of Policing. There are several key contributions of the study; the acceptance and understanding of the investigative mindset by both senior officers and trainee investigators, exploration of presentation of evidence based portfolios, consistency in the teaching of technique in the context of witness interviewing, In light of concerns in the context of disclosure of undermining material, this area of investigative practice must be taught as well as learned.

Chapter 6: Recommendations

The aim of this chapter is twofold. Section 1 will discuss the limitations of the study. Section 2 will put forward a series of recommendations and signpost a series of areas of practice and procedure in the context of PIP at Investigative Level 2 that need to be researched in more detail. The chapter will put forward a role specific model of ICIDP.

Section 1. Limitations of the study.

The overarching aim of this thesis was to determine the effectiveness of the Initial Crime Investigators Development Programme (ICIDP) in providing the knowledge and skills required by the investigator in the context of serious and complex crime investigation in two northwest police forces. In essence, the thesis explored the question; is the programme fit for purpose? In order to achieve the aim, the thesis aimed to examine the following objectives:

1. Critically analyse the perceptions and understandings of senior police officers in two northwest police forces in the context of PIP at Investigative level 2.
2. Critically analyse the perceptions of candidates for PIP at Investigative level 2 in two northwest police forces the context of the level of knowledge and skills required by investigators within the investigative framework.

Most recent research examined the claim of ACPO that PIP should be considered as a template for police professionalisation (James & Mills, 2012). This study provided an assessment of issues surrounding investigators at PIP Level 2. In critically assessing investigative practice, James and Mills (2012) agree with Tong (2009) in that there is little or no independent research on police training and nothing on detective training. James & Mills, (2012:138), make claims that a case study approach can allow the drawing of inferences in the context of the impact of PIP on police investigators cognition and behaviour; concluding that much more research of many more cases would be needed to generalise research findings to the police service as to the rhetoric and reality of PIP. The current programme of research sought to build on the platform created by previous studies

to provide independent research as considered as necessary by previous studies James and Mills (2012). The programme of research attempted to give voice to senior officers in the context of their understanding of PIP at Investigative Level 2, together with a number of trainee investigators who had completed the PIP 2 programme at Investigative Level 2. The study generated sufficient data to meet the objectives of the thesis and provide a suitable platform for the relevant analysis to take place.

During the duration of this study, the policing landscape has been one of dynamic change and it will continue to transform. The police service in England and Wales has been faced with a series of dramatic austerity measures resulting in budget cuts of in excess of 20% Institute for Government, (2018). (HIMIC, 2017) state that a shortage of investigators amounts to a national crisis. Another recent development in the context of policing is the development of PEQF (College of Policing, 2017). This development by the College of Policing, supports the NPCC and the APCC policing vision that by 2025, policing will be a profession with a representative workforce that will align the right skills, powers and experience to meet challenging requirements. In the context of investigator development, the College of Policing are currently endorsing a variety of ways in which police forces and agencies can recruit and train PIP 2 investigators (College of Policing, 2017). The current information regarding PEQF does not refer to ICIDP. Therefore, until the PEQF debate takes greater shape, the future of ICIDP may not be guaranteed. This development impacts on the status of the current study as the future of the ICIDP programme appears uncertain. Depending on the timings of transition from police training to an academic framework which may or may not be grounded in a vocational context, the findings of the current study could be considered redundant. However, previous research (Birzer, 2004; Forest & Peterson, 2006) claims that an andrological approach is essential to help students prepare for their working environment. The implication for police force training managers is to understand that andragogical principles result in tailoring instruction to meet trainee investigators interest. Therefore, in the light of developments of PEQF, it is still important that trainee investigators are involved in the planning of learning objectives and take part in solving real investigative problems.

The study has several limitations. The narrowness of the research focus may be considered as unhelpful to evaluate a national programme of training that underpins a national product. Furthermore, using regional entities may not sit well in a national context. Notwithstanding the usefulness of the responses by the research samples, the study would have been further enriched with a more systematic longitudinal evaluation of the usefulness of ICIDP following a lengthy return by the participants to the workplace. This is alluded to by Sample 1, of the study, however, there is no measure in place to gauge the actual effectiveness of ICIDP by trainees following completion of the PIP Level 2 process especially were the investigator has transferred to a different investigative context. An evaluative programme of research involving a large sample of trainees would provide the opportunity for a detailed quantitative study that would chart a process from initial perceptions to a detailed reality. A research programme of this nature would also take into account the usefulness of ICIDP as the participants move within differing reactive and proactive investigative operating contexts.

Subsequent research into the effectiveness of ICIDP may, owing to uncertainty as a result of the PEQF process be rendered as unnecessary. However, a programme of research evaluating the transition from ICIDP to an academic credit bearing process may be useful in determining investigative effectiveness. A clear recommendation will be that following the developmental phase of PEQF in the context of investigative training development, a detailed evaluation of the effectiveness of investigations conducted by trainee investigators completing an academic programme in comparison with the vocational programme offered by ICIDP will be undertaken.

A further limitation of the study is the lack of opportunity to obtain data from trainees who were not successful in the NIE and how the expectation of success was managed by the relevant supervisors

and managers. To date, apart from statistical data as to success rates, there is no quantitative data examining the thoughts and feelings of unsuccessful trainees.

Section 2. Recommendations for the programme of research

The recommendations for the programme of research is that consideration be given to a more modular approach to PIP Level 2. Participants who doubted the benefit of the generalised nature of the ICIDP Phase later recognised the benefit of overt reactive investigative contexts. However, there is some credence in role specific modules. The recommendation would require the current occupational standards to be revisited together with assessment criteria to meet the required standard. It may be the case that in the current fiscal situation, the College of Policing may not have the appetite for a wholesale change to a major investigative training and development programme.

The advantage of a flexible modular approach to PIP Level 2 is that workforce abstraction would be less difficult to manage for senior managers as trainees would spend less time away from the workplace. The necessity to complete investigative interviewing training would be directed by the trainees investigative operating context. If a trainee investigator is operating in a context where there is no necessity to interview victims, witnesses or suspects over a protracted period, no useful purpose would be served by the completing a training programme where the newly acquired skill is not used.

The recommendation is that PIP Level 2 be reconfigured into a series of independent modules constructed to meet the requirement of role specific investigative contexts. Modules common to all investigative operating contexts would be completed by all trainees. Trainees operating in an overt reactive investigative context would complete reactive investigative modules. Trainees operating in a specialist reactive operating context would complete specific modules relevant to them. Trainees operating in a covert operating context would complete specific modules relevant to them.

The recommendation would entail a programme of research to be undertaken in conjunction with the College of Policing and Skills for Justice. The aims of the research would be threefold. To examine the validity of the current (NIE) and ensure that the knowledge element in the context of law and procedure across all investigative contexts is adequately met. To examine exactly what training is necessary to equip investigators with the necessary skills and abilities in all investigative operating contexts. To develop and shape a framework where suitable modules could be interconnected to provide the structure for an overall PIP award at investigative level 2.

The recommended research would need to clearly examine the requirements of the investigative context in England Wales rather just evaluate what is available. In the current economic climate, a lot would depend on the ability of the College of Policing to resource such a project. The historical context of investigation and investigative training highlights that change is considered following the outcome of an investigative shortcoming. The time should now be right for change to be brought about as a result of independent proactive thought rather than reactive concern.

Proposed Modular approach to PIP at Investigative Level 2.

The proposed model requires fluidity to become interchangeable and would pivot on a creative and innovative methods of assessment of competence in the work place.

Enrolment

All trainee investigators enrol on the PIP Level 2 Programme and commence period of study as laid down in the relevant preparation materials prior to the NIE.

NIE

All trainee investigators to successfully complete the NIE to prove legislative knowledge skills are in place.

Generic Investigation Module

All trainee investigators will complete a generic investigation module in conjunction with APP to understand the principles of investigative praxis focussing on investigative evaluation and evidential evaluation. This module will, by way of case study, embed the context of investigative mindset. The value of the investigative mindset is made clear by this current study.

Tier 2 Investigative Interviewing

All trainee investigators will attend investigative interviewing training according to the specific nature of the current operating role. Should the trainee be operating in an investigative context where investigative interviewing will not be necessary, the investigative interviewing training will not be offered. When the trainee transfers to an investigative context demanding the interviewing of witnesses, victims or suspects, the training would be made available. This will remove the delivery of training for training's sake and will meet the needs of the specialist as well as the investigator operating in a generic reactive context.

Role Specific Modules

The trainee will attend a case study-based role specific module dictated by the trainee's operating context. Should the trainee transfer from one operating context to another, the trainee would then complete the relevant case studies. The development of role specific case studies may be challenging in that the case studies must be real and relevant to trainees operating in both the reactive and the proactive contexts of investigation. Centrally developed case studies would then be locally refined and locally delivered to meet the nuances and local operating contexts of individual police forces. The advantage of this process would be to align the current proactive training events into a more organised process. The benefit of role specific investigative training modules is that separate course for specialists will not be necessary. The trainee will have already completed the relevant generic module.

Assessment

Each trainee would complete an assessment in the workplace. The nature of the assessment would be dictated by the constraints of the operating context. Full cognisance will have to be taken of the experiences of trainees and assessors within the current boundaries of PIP Level 2. The development of interactive electronic portfolios will be dependent on the respective police force IT capabilities.

Currently, assessors within the context of ICIDP work towards a recognised assessor qualification, this requires a consistency of approach. To date, some police forces in England and Wales have dedicated assessor units. Prior to a decision being taken as to which assessors award or awards best suits the ICIDP process, research may be necessary to ascertain the best fit.

Continuing Professional Development.

In addition to workplace assessment and the candidate for PIP Level 2 being 'signed off', it is crucial that investigators remain competent within investigative technique and retain and improve investigative knowledge. A flexible series of relevant short training events must be developed to meet legislative and procedural changes. Continuing professional development will also have to be considered in the context of PEQF driven programmes of study.

Mentoring

Important evidence emanating from the current study is the understanding and application of the investigative mindset. Concerns raised as to the training of investigators in the context of Criminal Procedures and Investigations Act 1996 (CPIA) resulted in a detailed review of all current rape cases (see Chapter 2) to ensure that the correct disclosure of material to defendants had taken place.

NPCC have made it clear that it is necessary to firmly embed disclosure in the investigative mindset from the outset on any investigation (Ephgrave, 2018). This serious concern links to the investigative mindset. Therefore, the ICIDP programme albeit in two northwest police forces was addressing the concern. The trainee investigator will require the assistance of a competent experienced

investigator in the role of mentor to advise and guide the trainee through the early stages of the investigative role, the irony here is that in the historical context of investigative training, in 1919, the Desborough Committee recommended that the requirements of detectives will be met by experience and practical work Tong (2009)

Concerns

In the event of a departure from ICIDP to an academic framework leading to formal academic qualification, the police service should not lose sight of the quality of police training. Academia are unlikely to replicate the opportunity for a group of trainees to work in well organised syndicates on a real and relevant criminal investigation. Current training practice in the context of investigative interviewing training involves a ratio of eight trainees to two trainers. Standard investigative training practice tends to operate on a ratio of sixteen trainees to two trainers. Undergraduates currently studying policing programmes attend lectures operating on a ratio of at least one hundred students to one lecturer. The lectures are supported by a tutorials on a ratio of possibly twenty students to one lecturer. In summary unless the lecturer to undergraduate ratios are revisited by learning providers, the opportunity to develop quality investigators may be lost.

Final Reflection

Investigation is not a simple task; to develop the experienced well-informed investigator deploying an investigative mindset and making cogent decisions takes time. The science assisting investigation is available, however, the art and craft of investigation has to be learned.

Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the limitations of the study. Having examined the narrowness of the research programme in the context of ICIDP, the study accepts that it may be difficult to judge a nationally delivered learning and development product through the prism of what may be considered small samples of participants in a regional setting. The chapter makes several

recommendation including the development of a more flexible modular approach to ICIDP. This approach would cater for the operational needs of specialist investigators.

REFERENCES

- ACPO** (1992) *Towards a Future Training Strategy*. London: HMSO. Cited in various.
- ACPO** (2005) *Practice Advice on Core Investigative Doctrine*. Centrex
- ACPO** (2006) *Murder Investigation Manual*. Wyboston: NCPE.
- ACPO /NPIA**, (2009) *Practice Advice on the Management of Priority and Volume Crime*. Wyboston: NPIA.
- ACPO** (2012) *Practice Advice on Core Investigative Doctrine 2nd Edition*. Wyboston: NPIA.
- ACPO** (2014) *National Investigative Interview Strategy*. Wyboston. NPIA
- Adams, C. & Van Manen, M.** (2008) Phenomenology, *The Sage Encyclopaedia of Qualitative Research Methods*, Vol. 2. Thousand Oaks, Sage.
- Adler, P. A., & Adler, P.** (1994) *Observational techniques*. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research*, 377–392. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Andrews, T.** (2013) *What is social constructionism? The Grounded Theory Review*, 11(1), 39 -46
- Attia, M. & Edge, J.** (2017) *Becoming a reflexive researcher; a developmental approach to research methodology*. *Open Review of Educational Research*, Vol. 4, No; 1, 33 -45.
- Alison, L, Mullins, S. & Crego, J.** (2008). Towards a taxonomy of police decision making in murder enquiries. In L. Alison & J. Crego (Eds.), *Policing Critical Incidents: Leadership and critical incident management* (pp. 124-150). Cullompton, Devon: Willan Publishing.
- Asghar, J.** (2013) *A Preamble for Novice Researchers*: Life Science journal.
- Ambage, N.V.** (1987) *The origins and development of the Home Office Forensic Science Service, 1931 -1967*. PhD Thesis, Lancaster University.
- Anderson, C.J.** (2003) The psychology of doing nothing: forms of decision avoidance result from reason and emotion. *Psychological Bulletin*, 129, 139-167
- Ary et al.** (2013) *Introduction to Research in Education*. Belmont. Wadsworth.
- Attorney General's Office** (2015) *Attorney General's Guidelines on Disclosure For investigators, prosecutors and defence practitioners*. London, HMSO.
- Auerbach, S.** (2014) *The Journal of modern history*, 86(2), 435-437. Chicago University Press
- Audit Commission** (1989) *The Management of Police Training*, Police Paper No. 4. London: HMSO.

Audit Commission (1993) *Helping with Enquiries: Tackling Crime Effectively*. Police Paper no. 12. London: HMSO. Cited in Loveday, B. (1996). 'Crime at the core?' In Leishman, F., Loveday, B. & Savage, S.P. (Eds.) *Core Issues in Policing*. Harlow: Longman, 73-100.

Baarts, C. (2009) *Stuck in the middle: research ethics caught between science and politics*. Qualitative Research: Sage journals.

Barrett, E.C. (2009) *The Interpretation and Exploitation of Information in Criminal Investigations*. Unpublished Thesis. The University of Birmingham

Beattie, J.M. (2006) Early Detection: The Bow Street Runners in Late Eighteenth-Century London. In Emsley, C. & Shpayer-Makov, H. (Eds.) *Police Detectives in History, 1750-1950*. Aldershot: Ashgate, 15-32.

Birzer, M. (1999). Police Training in the 21st Century. FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, 68(7), pp.16-19.

Birzer, M. (2003). The theory of andragogy applied to police training. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 26(1), 29-42.

Birzer, M. (2004). Andragogy: Student centered classrooms in criminal justice programs. Journal of Criminal Justice Education, 15(2), 393-411.

Birzer, M. & Nolan, R. E. (2002). Learning strategies of selected urban police related to community policing. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 25(2), 242-255.

Birzer, M. & Tannehill, R. (2001) *A more effective training approach for contemporary policing*. Police Quarterly, No; 4(2), 233 -252.

Bittner, E. (1990) *Aspects of Police Work*. Boston: Northeastern University Press

Black, P. And William, D. (1989) *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy and Practice*, 5:1 7-74 (2010) *Designing Social Research*. Cambridge, Polity Press

Bowen, G. (2006) *Grounded Theory and Sensitizing Concepts*: International Journal of Qualitative methods. Sage.

Boyatzis, R. E. (1998). *Transforming qualitative information: Thematic analysis and code development*. Thousand Oaks, CA, US: Sage Publications, Inc

Brandl, S. G. (1993a). The Follow-Up Investigation as a Decision-Making Process: An Observational and Protocol Analysis. *Journal of Police and Criminal Psychology*, 9(2), 20-32. 240

Brandl, S. G. (1993b). Impact of Case Characteristics on Detectives' Decision Making. *Justice Quarterly*, 10(3), 395- 415.

Braun, V and Clarke, C. (2013) *Successful Qualitative Research, a Practical Guide for Beginners*. London: Sage.

Braun, V and Clarke, C. (2006) *Using Thematic Analysis in Psychology*. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*. 3 (2). Pp 77 – 101. London: Routledge

- Breen, L. J.** (2007) *The researcher 'in the middle': Negotiating the insider/outsider dichotomy*. The Australian Community Psychologist, 19(1), 163-174
- Brinkmann S.** (2014) *Interview*. In Teo T, editor. Encyclopaedia of Critical Psychology. New York (NY): Springer.
- Brinkmann S, Kvale S.** (2005) *Confronting the ethics of qualitative research*. J Constr Psychol. 18:157–181.
- Brockbank, A. and McGill, I.** (2006) *Facilitating Reflective Learning through Mentoring and Coaching*, London, Kogan-Page
- Brodeur, J.P.** (2010) *The Policing Web*. Oxford University Press
- Brown, J.** (1996) *Police research: some critical issues*: In: Leishman, F, Loveday, B, Savage, S (eds) Core Issues in Policing, Harlow: Longman, 178 -190
- Brown, M.F.** (2001) *Criminal Investigation, Law and Practice*. Oxford. Butterworth Heinman
- Brunger, M., Tong, S. and Martin, D.** (2016) *Introduction to Policing Research Taking lessons from Practice*. Oxford. Routledge
- Bull, R. & Milne, B.** (2004) *Attempts to improve the police interviewing of suspects*. In GD Lassister (ed.), Interrogations, confessions and entrapment. Perspectives in law & psychology; vol. 20, Kluwer Academic Publishers, New York, pp 181 -195
- Butler, D & Winne, P.H.** (1995) *Feedback and self-regulated learning: A theoretical synthesis*. Review of Educational Research Fall 1995, Vol. 65, No. 3. Sage.
- Bunyon, T.** (1977) *The History and Practice of the Political Police in Britain*. London, Quartet Books Limited.
- Butler, D. L., & Winne, P. H.** (1995). *Feedback and self-regulated learning: A theoretical synthesis*. Review of educational research, 65(3), 245-281.
- Bryce, J et al.** (2014) *A Qualitative Examination of Engagement with Support Services by Victims of Violent Crime*; International Review of Victimology: Sage Journals.
- Bryman, A.** (2008) *Social Research Methods*, 3rd ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Byford, L. S.** (1981). *Report by Sir Laurence Byford into the Police Handling of the Yorkshire Ripper Case*. London: Home Office.
- Carlan, P.E. & Lewis, J.A.** (2009) Dissecting Police Professionalism: A Comparison of Predictors Within Five Professionalism Subsets. *Police Quarterly*, 12, 370-387.
- Carr, L.T.** (1994) *The strengths and weaknesses of quantitative and qualitative research. What method for nursing*: Journal of Advanced Nursing, Vol. 20. Issue 4.

Carr, W. & Kemmis, S. (1989) *Becoming critical: Education, knowledge and action research*. The Journal of Educational Thought. Vol,23 No. 3.

Carson, D. 2007, *Investigating investigations: models of investigation*. in T Newburn, T Williamson & A Wright (eds), *Handbook of criminal investigation*. Willan Publishing, Cullompton, pp. 383-402.

Carson, D. (2009) *Detecting and disseminating detectives' 'creative skills*. Policing and Society, 19 (3): 216 -225.

Centrex. (2004) *Managing Demand - Foundation Training 2004 –2005*. Centrex.

Chapman, S. (2018) *From Crime Fighting to Public Protection: The Shaping of the Police Officers Sense of Role*. London. The Police Foundation.

Coffield F. et al. (2004) *Learning Styles and Pedagogy in Post 16 Learning*. London. Learning and Skills Research Centre.

Cohen, L. Mannion, L. & Morrison, K. (2000) *Research Methods in Education*. British Journal of Educational Studies 48(4).

College of Policing (2013) *Delivery Plan 2013/ 2014*. Coventry. College of Policing Ltd.

College of Policing (2013) [modified 2014] National Decision Model:
<https://www.app.college.police.uk/app-content/national-decision-model> accessed 18.07.19

College of Policing (2014) *Unpublished PIP Review Recommendation Report*. College of Policing Ltd

College of Policing (2014) *National Policing Vision 2016*. Coventry. College of Policing Ltd:
<http://www.college.police.uk/en/20691.htm> accessed 02.07.2014

College of Policing (2013) [modified 2015] Authorised Professional Practice. College of Policing Ltd:
<https://www.app.college.police.uk/app-content/>

College of Policing, (2016) *Competency and Values Framework for Policing*. Coventry. College of Policing Ltd:

College of Policing (2017a) *Professionalising Investigations Programme; Programme Policy 2017*. Coventry, College of Policing Ltd.

College of Policing (2017b) *PIP Level 2 candidate and certified investigator requirements*.
<https://www.college.police.uk/What-we-do/Learning/Professional-Training/Professionalising-investigation-programme/Pages/Investigator.aspx>

College of Policing (2019) *Tasking and coordination*.
<https://www.app.college.police.uk/?s=tasking+and+coordination+>

Connor, P., Pinfield, D., Taylor, N. & Chapman, J. (2010b) *Blackstone's Police Investigators' Workbook 2011*. Oxford University Press.

Connolly P. (2007) *Quantitative Data Analysis in Education: A Critical Introduction Using SPSS*. Abingdon, Routledge.

Cook, A. & Tattersall, A. (2010) *Senior Investigating Officer's Handbook*. Oxford, Oxford University Press.

Corbin, J. and Strauss, A. (2008) *Basics of Qualitative Research: Techniques and Procedures for Developing Grounded Theory*. Thousand Oaks, Sage.

Creswell J.W. (2013) *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design; Choosing among the five approaches*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Creswell, J.W. (2014) *Educational Research: Planning conducting and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (4th Ed.) Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.

Creswell, J. (2015) *30 essential skills for the qualitative researcher*. Los Angeles, CA: SAGE.

Critchley, T. A. (1967) *A History of Police in England and Wales 900 - 1966*. London, Constable and Company Ltd.

Cross, K.P. (1992) *Adults as Learners: Increasing Participation*, San Francisco, Josey-Bass.

Crotty, M. (1998) *The Foundations of Social Research: Meaning and Perspective in the Research Process*. London. Sage.

Criminal Procedure and Investigation Act (1996) Section 23 (1) Code of Practice. Ministry of Justice

Criminal Procedure and Investigation Act (1996) Section 23 (1) Code of Practice. (Revised 2015) Ministry of Justice

Crown Prosecution Service. (2018) Code for Crown Prosecutors, available at, <https://www.cps.gov.uk/publication/code-crown-prosecutors>

Crown Prosecution Service. (2018) *Disclosure Manual Revised, 2018*, available at, <https://www.cps.gov.uk/publication/disclosure>

Curran, J.V. (1986) *Philosophy & Rhetoric* Vol. 19, No. 1 (1986), pp. 66-72

Dale, A. (1994) Professionalism and the Police. *The Police Journal* 67(3), 209-18.

Davenport, J. (1993) *Is there any way out of the andragogy mess?* In Thorpe et al. Culture and Processes of adult learning. London. Routledge.

Dean, G. Fahsing, I.A. et al. (2008) *Capturing Knowledge of Police Investigation: Towards a Research Agenda*. Police Practice and Research Vol.9, no. 4, September 2008, 341 – 355. London. Routledge.

Deetz, S. (1996) *The Positioning of the researcher in Studies of Organisations: Dehatching Literary Theory*. Journal of Management Inquiry. Sage.

Della, B.C. (2004) *Non-Traditional Training Systems: Realising the Effectiveness of an Agencies Most Valuable Resource*; FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, 73(6).

Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (1998) *Strategies for Qualitative Inquiry*, London, Sage.

- Dewey, J.** (1916). *Democracy and Education: An Introduction to the Philosophy of Education*. New York: Free Press.
- Dewey, J.** (1933). *How we think: a restatement of the relation of reflective thinking to the educative process*. Boston, MA: D.C. Heath.
- Dewey, J.** (1938). *Experience and Education*. New York: Collier
- DiCicco-Bloom B, Crabtree BF.** 2006. *The qualitative research interview*. Med Educ. 40:314–321.
- Dixon, A.L.** (1929) *The English Police System*. London. Home Office available at <https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/10.1177/000271622914600119>
- Dixon, A.L.** (1933) *The New Series of the Police Journal. Volume 6. Pages 1-3*. Available at <https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.1177/0032258X3300600101>
- Dixon, A. L.** (1966). *The Home Office and the Police Between the Two World Wars*, M/S Police Staff College, Bramshill. In C. Emsley, & B. Veinberger (1991), *Policing Western Europe: Politics, Professionalism, and Public Order, 1850-1940*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Publishing.
- Dodd, V.** (2017) Met to review all ongoing rape cases after second trial collapses. Available at <https://www.theguardian.com/uk-news/2017/dec/19/met-to-review-all-ongoing-cases-after-second-trial-collapses>
- Eck, J., & Spelman, W.** (1987). *Problem-solving: problem-oriented policing in Newport news*. Washington, D.C.: Police Executive Research Forum.
- Edwards, R. & Holland, J.** (2013) *What is Qualitative Interviewing?* London. Bloomsbury.
- Elliot, J.** (1988) *Educational Research and outsider insider relations*. Qualitative Studies in Education, vol. 1. Number 2. Pp 155 – 166.
- Elliot, V.** (2018) *Thinking about the Coding Process in Qualitative Data Analysis*. The Qualitative Report, 23(11) 2850-2861. Retrieved from <https://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/vol23/iss11/14>
- Emsley, C.** (1999) *A Typology of Nineteenth- Century Police*, Crime History and Societies Vol.3 No 1. Available at <https://journals.openedition.org/chs/934>
- Emsley, C.** (2017) *Exporting British Policing During the Second World War, Policing Soldiers and Civilians*. London. Bloomsbury Academic
- Emsley, C. & Shpayer-Makov, H.** (eds.) (2006). *Police Detectives in History, 1750-1950*. Aldershot: Ashgate, 1-14.
- Ephgrave, N.** (2018) *Police Chiefs Blog: CC Nick Ephgrave – changing the culture on disclosure*, 24 January 2018. Available at <https://news.npcc.police.uk/releases/police-chiefs-blog-cc-nick-ephgrave-changing-the-culture-on-disclosure>
- Eysenck, H.J.** (1995) *Problems in the behavioural sciences, 12 genius: The natural history of creativity*. New York. Cambridge University Press.
- Ezzy, D.** (2002) *Qualitative Analysis; Practice and Innovation*. London, Routledge

Farrell, J & Hamm, M. (1998) *Ethnography at the Edge: Crime Deviance and Field research*. Boston. Northeastern University Press.

FDCI Course Reports [Diverse dates 2011 – 2015] Uclan Report Repository.

Fido, M. & Skinner, K. (1999) *The Official Encyclopaedia of Scotland Yard*. London, Virgin.

Fielding, N.G. (1988) *Joining forces: Police training, socialization, & occupational competence*. London: Routledge.

Finlay, L. (2003) The reflexive journey: mapping multiple routes. In Finlay, L. & Gough, B. (Eds.) *Rexlexivity: A Practical Guide for Researchers in Health and Social Sciences*. Oxford: Blackwell Science.

Finlay, L. & Gough, B. (Eds.) (2003) *Rexlexivity: A Practical Guide for Researchers in Health and Social Sciences*. Oxford: Blackwell Science.

Fisher, R.P. et al. (1989) *Field test of the cognitive interview; Enhancing the recollection of actual victims and witnesses of crime*. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, 722-727.

Fisher, R.P. & Geiselman, R.E. (1992) *Memory Enhancing Techniques for Investigative Interviewing*, Illinois, Charles C Thomas

Flanagan, Sir R. (2008) *The Review of Policing, Final Report*. London: Home Office.

Flick, U. (2015) *Introducing Research Methodology*. London. Sage.

Flynn, P. (2000). *Education for policing for the millennium and beyond*. Cropwood occasional paper. Cited in Howlett Bolton, A. (2005). The Report. In Politeia Police Commission/Lawlor, S. (Series Ed.). *Policing Matters: Recruitment, Training and Motivation*. Social Science Research Series 8. London:

Furnham, A. (1992) *Personality and Learning Style: A Study of Three Instruments*, Personality and Individual Difference, Vol. 13. No. 4.

Forest, S.P. & Peterson, T. (2017) *It's Called Andragogy*. Academy of Management Learning and Education, Vol. 5, No. 1. Available at <https://journals.aom.org/doi/10.5465/amle.2006.20388390>

Gallais, T.L. (2008): *Wherever I go there I am: reflections on reflexivity and the research stance*, Reflective Practice: International and Multidisciplinary Perspectives, 9:2, 145-155

Gehl, R & Plecas, D. (2017) *Introduction to Criminal Investigation: Processes, Practices and Thinking*, British Columbia, BC Campus.

Geiselman, R.E. et al. (1986) *Eyewitness memory enhancement in the cognitive interview*. American Journal of Psychology, 99, 384 -401.

Gephart, R. (199) *Paradigms and Research Methods: Qualitative Research and the Academy of Management Journal*

Gill, M. (1996) *The Crime Allocation System: Police Investigations into Burglary and Auto Crime*: Home Office

Gough, B. (2003) *Reflexivity: A Practical Guide for Researchers in Health and Social Sciences*. London. Wiley.

Grasha, A. (2002) *Teaching with Style*. San Bernardino, CA, Alliance.

Greater Manchester Police, (2015) *GMP ICIDP Policy Documents*, Sedgley Park

Greenwood, P. W. (1979) *The RAND criminal investigation study: its findings and impacts to date*. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation.

Griffin, R. (2014) *Scandal at Scotland Yard in Victorian Detectives, Detective Policing and Criminal Justice in the Victorian Capital*: <https://victoriandetectives.wordpress.com/2014/02/09/scandal-at-scotland-yard/>

Grierson, J. (2017) *Watchdog say police cuts have left forces in perilous state*. The Guardian 2nd March 2017. Available at <https://www.theguardian.com/uk-news/2017/mar/02/inspectorate-police-engaging-dangerous-practices-austerity-cuts-diane-abbott>.

Griffiths A, & Milne, R (2018) *The Psychology of Criminal Investigation from Theory to Practice*. Oxford, Routledge.

Guba, E.G. (1981) Criteria for assessing the trustworthiness of naturalistic inquiry. *Educational Communication and Technology Journal*, 29, 75-91.

Guba, E.G. & Lincoln, Y.S. (1982) Epistemological and methodological bases of naturalistic inquiry. *Educational Communication and Technology Journal*, 30, 233-252.

Guba, E.G. & Lincoln, Y.S. (1989) *Fourth generation evaluation*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Guba, E.G. & Lincoln, Y.S. (1994) Competing Paradigms in Qualitative Research. In Denzin, N. & Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds.) *The Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, 105-117.

Gubrium, J.F. & Holstien, J.A. (2012) *Narrative Practice and the Transformation of Interview Subjectivity in The SAGE Handbook of Interview Research: The complexity of the Craft* 2nd Ed. Thousand Oaks, CA. Sage.

Haberfeld, M.R. (2002) Critical issues in police training. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall. Cited in Tong, S. (2009) Professionalising Investigation. In Tong, S., Bryant, R.P. & Horvath, M.A.H. (Eds.) *Understanding Criminal Investigation*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell, 197-216.

Haberfeld, M.R. Curtis, A. et al. (2011) *Police Organizations and Training: Innovations in Research and Practice*. London: Springer.

Harding, J. (2013). *Qualitative data analysis from start to finish*. London, UK: SAGE

Hallenberg, K.M. (2012) *Scholarly Detectives; Police Professionalisation via academic education*. PhD Thesis, University of Manchester

Hammersley, M. & Atkinson, P. (2007) *Ethnography; Principles In Practice*. New York, Routledge.

Hartree, A. (1984) *Malcolm Knowles's Theory of Andragogy; A Critique*; *Journal of Lifelong Education*, 3(3)

Haythorne, M., 2007. Police Training and Education in the United Kingdom. In Kratcoski P., C & Das, D., K (eds.) *Police Education and Training in a Global Society*. Plymouth, Lexington Books.

Hellawell, D. (2007) *Inside-out: analysis of the insider-outsider concept as a heuristic device to develop reflexivity in students doing qualitative research*, *Teaching in Higher Education*, 11:4, 483-494,

Heslop, R. (2011) Reproducing police culture in a British university: findings from an exploratory case-study of police foundation degrees, *Police Practice & Research: an International Journal*, 12(4), 298-312.

Heslop, R. and White, D. (2011) A 'new police studies' for a 'new professional police service': changes and challenges from a UK perspective. Paper presented to the Police Learning: Professional and Partnerships Conference: The University of Northampton 6-7 September 2011.

Heslop, R. A (2013) *Comparison of police pre-employment training and education in the U.K. and U.S.A.* Paper presented at the 4th Annual Conference of the higher Education Forum for Policing Learning and Development (POLCON 4) – Canterbury Christchurch University.

Henning, E., Van Rensburg, W. and Smit, B. (2004) *Finding Your Way in Qualitative Research*. Pretoria, Van Schaik Publishers,

HMIC (1999) *Managing Learning*. London: HMSO.

HMIC (2002) *Training Matters*. London: HMSO.

HMIC (2004) *Modernising the Police Service*. London: HMSO.

HMIC (2009) *Major Challenge, The Thematic Inspection of Major Crime*. London: HMSO.

HMIC (2013) *HMIC's review into allegations and intelligence material concerning Jimmy Savile between 1964 and 2001*. HMICFRS.

HMICFRS, (2017) *PEEL: Police Effectiveness 2016: A national overview*, London: HMIC.

HMICFRS, (2018) *Merseyside Police: Crime Data Integrity re-inspection 2018*. London; HMSO

HMICFRS, (2018) *PEEL: Police Effectiveness 2017: A national overview*, London: HMICFRS

Holdaway, S. (1983) *Inside the British Police: A Force at Work*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Homan, R. (2002) *The Principle of Assumed consent*; *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, 35(3): 329-343

Home Office (1919-1920) *Report of the Committee on the Police Service of England, Wales and Scotland* (Chairman: Lord Desborough), HMSO: London

Home Office (1938) *Report of the Departmental Committee on Detective Work and Procedure*. London: HMSO. Cited in Rawlings, P. (2002) *Policing: A Short History*. Devon: Willan Publishing.

Home Office (1993) *The Future of Police Training*. London: HMSO. Cited in various.

Home Office (2001) *Policing a New Century: A Blueprint for Reform*. London: HMSO.

Home Office (2004) *Building Communities, Beating Crime: A better police service for the 21st Century*. London: HMSO.

Home Office (2008) *The Police Conduct Regulations 2008: Standards of Professional Behaviour*. London: Home Office.

Home Office (2010) *Policing in the 21st Century: Re-connecting the police and the people*. London: HMSO.

Home Office (2013) *House of Commons Home Affairs Committee, Leadership and Standards in the Police, Third Report of Session 2013 – 2014 Volume 1*. London: HMSO.

Home Office, (2016) *Forensic Science Strategy; A national approach to forensic science delivery in the criminal justice system*. London, Home Office.

Honey, P. & Mumford, A. (1982) *Manual of Learning Styles* London: P Hone

Honey, P. and Mumford, A. (1992) *The Manual of Learning Styles*, Maidenhead, Peter Honey.

Honey, P. and Mumford, A. (2000) *The Learning Styles Helpers Guide*, Maidenhead, Peter Honey.

Hunsaker J.S. (1981) *The Experiential Learning model and the Learning Style Inventory*: Journal of Experiential Learning and Simulation, Vol 2.

Hussain, M. A., Elyas, T. & Naseef, O. A. (2013). *Research Paradigms: A slippery Slope for Fresh Researchers*. Life Science Journal. 10/4: 2374-2381.

Illing, J (2013) *Thinking About Research*. Theoretical perspectives, ethics and scholarship. Wiley.

Innes, M. (2003) *Investigating Murder. Detective Work and the Police Response to Criminal Homicide*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Innes, M. & Clarke, A. (2009) Policing the past: cold case studies, forensic evidence and retroactive social control. Available at <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1111/j.1468-4446.2009.01255.x>

IOPC, (2019) Allegations of failure to properly investigate allegations of childhood sexual abuse - Essex Police, February 2018. Available at; <https://policeconduct.gov.uk/recommendations/allegations-failure-properly-investigate-allegations-childhood-sexual-abuse-essex>

Institute for Apprenticeships and Technical Education (2017) *Serious and complex crime investigator (degree)*: <https://www.instituteforapprenticeships.org/apprenticeship-standards/serious-and-complex-crime-investigator-degree/>

Institute for Government, (2018) Police Numbers: Available at: <https://www.instituteforgovernment.org.uk/publication/performance-tracker-2018/police>

James, A. (2013) *Examining Intelligence Led Policing*, Basingstoke, Palgrave Macmillan

James, A. & Mills, M. (2012) *Does ACPO know best: To what extent may PIP provide a template for the professionalisation of policing?* The Police Journal, Volume 85

Janesick, V.J. (1994) *The Dance of Qualitative Research Design: Metaphor, Methodolatry and Meaning* in Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. Eds. (1994) *Strategies of Qualitative Enquiry*, London, Sage

Janesick, V.J. (2015) *Stretching Exercises for Qualitative Researchers*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Javadi, M. & Zarea, M. (2016). *Understanding Thematic Analysis and its Pitfalls*. Journal Of Client Care, 1 (1).

Jeppens, K. & Schafer, B. (2005) *Knowledge Based Crime Modelling - Expert Systems with Applications*, Volume 30, 203-222.

Jeyes, S.H. concluded by How, F.D. (1912) *The Life of Sir Howard Vincent*. London. George Allen and company.

Johnston, L. (2000) *Policing Britain: Risk, Security and Governance*. Harlow, Longman.

Jones, D. (2016) *A Study into Influences on Decision Making at the Initial Scene of Unexpected Death*. PhD Thesis, University of Portsmouth.

Jones, T. & Newburn, T. (2002) *The Transformation of Policing*. *British Journal of Criminology*, 42, 129-146.

Joyce, P. (2011) *Policing: Development and Contemporary Practice*. London: Sage.

Kayes, D.C. (2002) *Experiential Learning and Its Critics: Preserving the Role of Experience in Management learning and education*: Academy of Management and Education. Vol, 1, No. 2.

Kebbell, M, Murren, E & Mazerolle, P (2006) *An investigation into effective and ethical interviewing of suspected sex offenders*. Trends and issues in crime and criminal justice, No. 327, Canberra.

King, N. (2004) *Using templates in the thematic analysis of text*. In: Cassels, C. and Symon, G, Eds., *Essential Guide to Qualitative Methods in Organizational Research* 256-270, London, Sage.

Kirby, S. (2013) *Effective Policing? Implementation in Theory and Practice*. Basingstoke, Palgrave Macmillan

Knight, J. (2019) *Key themes in qualitative research projects with police forces in England and Wales* available at http://data.parliament.uk/DepositedPapers/Files/DEP2019-0741/Qual_Research_Summary_IPSCJ_Front_Line_Review_Appendix.pdf

Knowles, M. (1984). *Andragogy in Action. Applying modern principles of adult education.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Knowles, M. (1970). *The modern practice of adult education: from pedagogy to andragogy.* Cambridge: Cambridge Book Company.

Knowles, M. (1998). *The Modern Practice of Adult Education: From Pedagogy to Andragogy.* Cambridge: Cambridge Book Co.

Knowles, M. S. (1980). *The Modern Practice of Adult Education: From Pedagogy to Andragogy.* New York: Cambridge

Kolb, D. A. (1974). On management and the learning process. In D. A. Kolb (Ed.), *Organisational psychology, a book of readings* (pp. 27-42). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Kolb, D. A. (1976). *The Learning Styles Inventory.* Boston: McBer and Co. Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experiential Learning.* New York: Prentice-Hall.

Kohnken, G. Milne, R, Memon, A and Bull, R (1999) The cognitive interview. A meta-analysis, *Psychology, Crime and Law*, 5:1-2, 3-27.

Kuykendall, J. (1976) The Criminal Investigative Process: Toward a Conceptual Framework. *Journal of Criminal Justice* 10:131-145, 1976

LeCompte, M. & Milroy, W. & Presile, J. (1992) *The Handbook of Qualitative Research in Education.* San-Diego. Academic Press.

Lewin, K. (1935). *A Dynamic Theory of Personality.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Lingard, L. (2010) *Qualitative Research Methods in Medical Education: Medical Education, Theory and Practice.* University of Ontario

Lock, J. (1993). *Scotland Yard Casebook.* London: Robert Hale

Lorelli, S, Norris, J.M. et al (2017) *Thematic Analysis; Striving to Meet the Trustworthiness Criteria.* International journal of Qualitative Methods, Vo. 16: 1-13. London. Sage.

Macpherson, W. (1999) *The Stephen Lawrence Inquiry: Report of an Inquiry.* London: HMSO.

Maguire, M. 2000 *Policing by Risks and Targets: Some Consequences of Intelligence-led Crime Control*, *Policing and Society* 9(2): 315–36.

Malterud, K. (2001). *Qualitative research: Standards, challenges, and guidelines.* *The Lancet*, 358, 483–488.

Mann, S. (2016) *The Research Interview. Reflective Practice and Reflexivity in Research Process.* Basingstoke, Palgrave Macmillan

- Manning, P.** (1978). The Police: Mandate, Strategies, and Appearances. In Manning, P. & Van Maanen, J. (eds.). *Policing: A View from the Street*. Santa Monica, Calif.: Goodyear. In Newburn, T. (Ed.) *Key Readings in Policing*. Cullompton: Willan, 191-214.
- Marenin, O.** (2004) *Police Training for Democracy*. Police Practice and Research; an International Journal, 5(2)
- Martin, J. & Wilson, G.** (1969) *The Police: A study in police manpower*. London: Heinemann.
- Mason, J.** (2002) *Qualitative Researching*, London, Sage
- May, T.** (1997) *Social Research: Issues, Methods and Processes*. Buckingham: Open university Press, 2nd Edition.
- McGrath, C. Palmgren, P. & Liljedah, M.** (2018) *Twelve tips for conducting qualitative research interviews*, Medical Teacher, DOI: 10.1080/0142159X.2018.1497149
- McGrory, D. & Treacy, P.** (2007) *The Professionalising Investigation Programme*. In Habermeld, M.R. Curtis, A. et al. (2011) *Police Organizations and Training: Innovations in Research and Practice*. London: Springer.
- McNess, E, Lore, A & Crossley, M.** (2013) *Ethnographic Dazzle and the construction of the Other: revisiting dimensions of insider and outside research*. Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education. Routledge.
- Mermon, A. Meissner, C.A. and Fraser, J.** (2010) *The cognitive interview: a meta-analytic review and study space analysis of the past 25 years*. Psychology, Public Policy and Law, Vol. 16, No. 4, 340-372.
- Mercer, J.** (2007) The challenges of insider research in educational institutions: Wielding a double-edged sword and resolving delicate dilemmas. *Oxford Review of Education*, 33(1), 1-17.
- Merriam, S.B. & Brockett, R.G.** (2007) *The Profession and Practice of Adult Education: An Introduction*. San Francisco, Josey-Bass.
- Merton, R.** (1972) *Insider and Outsider: A Chapter in the Sociology of Knowledge*: American journal of sociology. Vol 78. The University of Chicago Press.
- Merseyside Police,** (2014) *MPol Training ICIDP Policy File*, Mather Avenue / Brunswick Dock
- Metropolitan Police Service and Crown Prosecution Service.** (2018) *A joint review of the disclosure process in the case of R v Allan: Findings and recommendations for the Metropolitan Police Service and CPS*, London. CPS-MPS.
- Miller, T. & Bell, L.** (2002) *Consenting to What? Issues of Access, Gate Keeping and 'Informed consent in*; Mauthner, M., Birch, M, Jessop, J., et al, (2011) *Ethics in Qualitative Research*, London, Sage
- Milne, R. & Bull, R.** (1999) *Investigative interviewing: psychology and practice*. Chichester: Wiley.
- Miles, M.B.** (1979) *Qualitative data as an attractive nuisance*. Adm Sci Q. 24:590–601.

- Morgan G.** (1980) *The Case for Qualitative Research*; The Academy of Management Review. Vol, 5.
- Morris, B.** (2007) History of criminal investigation. In Newburn, T., Williamson, T. & Wright, A. (Eds.) *Handbook of Criminal Investigations*. Cullompton: Willan Publishing, 15-40.
- Morse, J.M.** (1994) *Critical Issues in Qualitative Research Methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE
- Morse, J.M. & Field, P.A.** (1997) *Principles of Qualitative Methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE
- Morse, J.M, Barrett, M, Mayan M, Olson K, Spiers J.** (2002) *Verification strategies for establishing reliability and validity in qualitative research*. Int J Qual Methods. 1:13–22.
- Myers, M.D.** (2009) *Qualitative Research in Business & Management*. Thousand Oaks, CA. Sage.
- Newburn, T.** (2007) Understanding Investigation. In Newburn, T., Williamson, T. & Wright, A. (Eds.) *Handbook of Criminal Investigations*. Cullompton: Willan Publishing, 1-13.
- Neuman, W.L.** (2000) *Social research methods qualitative and quantitative approaches. 4th Edition*, Allyn & Bacon, Needham Heights.
- Newburn, T.** (2008) Policing since 1945. In Newburn, T. (Ed.) *Handbook of Policing*, 2nd ed. Cullompton: Willan Publishing, 90-114.
- Newburn, T. & Reiner, R.** (2007) Policing and the Police. In Maguire, M., Morgan, R. & Reiner, R. (Eds.) *The Oxford Handbook of Criminology*, 4th ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 910-952.
- Neyroud, P.** (2011) *Review of Police Leadership and Training*. London: Home Office.
- Neyroud, P. & Beckley, A.** (2001) *Policing, Ethics and Human Rights. Policing and Society Series*. Devon: Willan Publishing.
- Neyroud, P. & Weisburd, D.** (2011) *Police Science: Toward a New Paradigm and Governing Science*, part of the Harvard Executive Session on Policing and Public Safety series. National Institute of Justice.
- Niblett, J.** *Disclosure in Criminal Proceedings* Blackstone Press Ltd, London, 1997
- Noakes, L. & Wincup, E.** (2004) *Criminological Research: Understanding Qualitative Methods*. London, Sage
- Nowell, L et al.** (2017) *Thematic Analysis: Striving to Meet the Trustworthiness Criteria*. International Journal of Qualitative methods, Vol. 16. Sage.
- NPIA** (2008) Professionalisation of Investigation PIP Implementation Support Plan. NPIA, Wyboston
- NPIA** (2009) *Level 2 Investigator – Serious and Complex Investigations, Professional Development Portfolio – September 2009*. Available to download from <http://www.npia.police.uk/en/14716.htm>
- NPIA** (2011a) *Initial Police Learning* [online]. Available from <http://www.npia.police.uk/en/12881.htm>

NPIA (2011b) *PIP Implementation* [online]. Available from <http://www.npia.police.uk/en/10094.htm>

NPIA (2011c) *Professionalising Investigation Programme PIP* [online]. Available from <http://www.npia.police.uk/en/10093.htm>

NPIA (2011d) *About Us* [online]. Available from <http://www.npia.police.uk/en/5151.htm>

NPIA (2011e) *Our Future* [online]. Available from <http://www.npia.police.uk/en/16761.htm>

NPIA (2011f) *National Investigators' Examination – Rules and Syllabus 2011*. Available to download from <http://www.npia.police.uk/en/16453.htm>

NPIA (2011g) *Learning and Development* [online]. Available from <http://www.npia.police.uk/en/10173.htm>

NPCC, (2013) *Review of ACPO Effectiveness* available at <https://news.npcc.police.uk/releases/general-sir-nick-parkers-review-of-acpo-values-the-role-of-chief-constables-council-in-policing-and-that-acpo-provides-value-for-money>

NPCC, (2018) *Policing Vision 2025*. NPCC available at: <https://www.npcc.police.uk/documents/policing%20vision.pdf>

NVIVO10 (2012) *Getting Started QSR* International

O'Neill, M. (2011) *What makes a successful volume crime investigator?* Unpublished PhD Thesis, University of Portsmouth.

O'Neill, M. (2018) *Key Challenges in Criminal Investigation*. Bristol. Policy Press.

O'Neill, M., and Milne, B. (2014). Success Within Criminal Investigations: Is Communication Still a Key Component? In *Investigative Interviewing* (p. 123-146). Springer New York.

Owens, R.G. & Valesky, T.C. (2010) *Organisational Behaviour in Education*. London. Pearson

Patterson, C. (2011) *Adding Value? A review of the international literature on the role of higher education in police training and education*. Police Practice and Research: An International Journal, No. 12(4), 286 -297.

Patton, M. Q. (1991). *Towards utility in reviews of multivocal literatures*. Review of Educational Research 61 (3),287-292.

Patton, M.Q. (2002). *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods* (3rded.). Thousand Oaks, Sage. CA:

Payne, G. & Payne, J. (2004) *Key concepts in Social Research*, London, Sage.

Police Journal (1939) Detective Organisation and Procedure, Research Article , London available at <https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/abs/10.1177/0032258X3901200207?journalCode=pjxa>

Poole, L. (1988) *Police Training: A skills approach*. In Southgate, P. (ed), *New directions in Police Training*. London: HMSO

Powers, S.M. & Guan, S. (2000) *Examining the Range of Student Needs in the Design and Development of a well based course*. In Abbey, B. (ed) *Instructional and cognitive Impacts of Well-Based Instruction*. Hershey, Idea Group.

Pratt, D.D. (2002) *Good Teaching: One Size fits All?* New directions for adult and continuing Education (93).

Pretz, J. E., Naples, A. J., & Sternberg, R. J. (2003). *Recognizing, defining, and representing problems*. In J. E. Davidson & R. J. Sternberg (Eds.), *The psychology of problem solving* (pp. 3-30). New York, NY, US: Cambridge University Press

Professionalising Investigation Programme PIP (2006) *Implementation Support Plan*. ACPO Centrex

Rafferty, A. (2017) *Criminal Bar Association, Chairs' Update*, available at <https://mailchi.mp/criminalbar/cba-message-203113>

Ramazanoglu, C. & Holland, J. (2002) *Feminist Methodology: Challenges and Choices*. London, Sage.

Rassinger, S. (2013) *Quantitative Research in Linguistics, an Introduction*, London, Bloomsbury.

Rawlinson, K. (2017) *Low Level Crimes to go investigated in Met police spending cuts*. Available at <https://www.theguardian.com/uk-news/2017/oct/16/low-level-crimes-to-go-uninvestigated-in-met-police-spending-cuts>

Reason, P. & Rowan J. (1981) *Human Inquiry: A source book of new paradigm of research*. Chichester. John Wiley

Reeves, T.C. & Hedberg, J.G. (2003) *Interactive Learning Systems and Evaluation*. NJ. Educational Technology Publications.

Reiner, R. (2010) *The Politics of the Police* (4th ed) Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Richards, K. (2003) *Qualitative Inquiry in TESOL.*, Basingstoke, Palgrave Macmillan

Richards, L. (2015). *Handling qualitative data: A practical guide (3rd ed.)*. London, UK: SAGE

Richards, L., & Richards, T. (1994). *From filing cabinet to computer*. In **Elliot, J. (1988)** *Educational Research and outsider insider relations*. Qualitative Studies in Education, vol. 1. Number 2. Pp 155 – 166.

Riding R. & Rayner, S. (1998) *Cognitive Styles and Learning Strategies: Understanding Style Differences in Learning and Behaviour*. London. Taylor Francis.

Roberts, P. (2007) *Law and Criminal Investigation*. In Newburn, T., Williamson, T. & Wright, A. (Eds.) *Handbook of Criminal Investigations*. Cullompton: Willan Publishing, 92-145.

Rallis, S. F., & Rossman, G. B. (2003) *Learning in the field: An introduction to qualitative research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE

Roulston, K. (2013) *Reflective Interviewing A Guide to Theory and Practice*. London: Sage

Rowe, M. (2008) *Introduction to Policing*. London: Sage.

Rolph, C (1962) *Royal Commission on the Police: Final Report, cmd 1728*. London: HMSO

Royal Commission (1962) *Royal Commission on the Police: Final Report, cmd 1728*. London: HMSO. Cited in Rawlings, P. (2002) *Policing: A Short History*. Devon: Willan Publishing.

Saidin, K. & Yacob, A. (2016) *Insider Researchers: Challenges and Opportunities*, Presentation paper to International Seminar on Generating Knowledge Through Research, UUM-UMSIDA, 25-27 October 2016.

Sadler, R. (1989) *Formative Assessment and the design of instructional systems*. Instructional Science 18: 119-144

Saldana, J. (2016). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. London, UK: SAGE.

Sandelowski, M. (1995) *Sample size in qualitative research*. Research in Nursing & Health, 18, 179 – 183

Saunders, M., Lewis, P. and Thornhill, A. (2012) *Research Methods for Business Students*. Harlow Pearson Education Ltd.

Saunders, M. & Tosey, P.C. (2013) *The Layers of Research Design*. Rapport, Winter.

Savage, S.P. & Milne, R. (2007) *Miscarriages of Justice* in Newburn, T., Williamson, T. & Wright, A. (Eds.) *Handbook of Criminal Investigations*. Cullompton: Willan Publishing, 610 -627.

Scarman, L.G. (1981) *The Brixton Disorders 10-12 April 1981, Report of an Inquiry by the Rt. Hon The Lord Scarman OBE*. London: Home Office. 75.

Schmeck, R. (1988) *In Introduction to Strategies and Styles of Learning: Learning Strategies and Learning Styles*

Schon, D.A. (1991). *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action*. New York: Basic Books.

Shepherd, E. (2013) *Investigative Interviewing the conversation Management approach 2nd ed.* Oxford. Oxford University Press.

Sheptycki, J.W.E. (1995) *Transnational Policing and the Makings of a Post Modern State*, The British Journal of Criminology, vol, 35, Issue 4, Autumn 1995.

Shpayer-Makov, H. (2006) Explaining the Rise and Success of Detective Memoirs. In Emsley, C. & Shpayer-Makov, H. (Eds.) (2006) *Police Detectives in History, 1750-1950*. Aldershot: Ashgate, 103-133.

- Shpayer-Makov, H.** (2011) *The Ascent of the detective, Police Sleuths in Victorian and Edwardian England*, Oxford, Oxford University Press
- Shpayer-Makov, H.** (2016) *Detectives and Forensic Science: Professionalization of Police Detection*. Oxford, Oxford University Press
- Sherman, L.W.** (1978) *The Quality of Police Education*. The National Advisory Commission on Higher Education for Police Officers. Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, CA.
- Shollum, M.** (2005) *Investigative Interviewing, The Literature*. Wellington NZ. Office of the Commissioner of Police.
- Silverman, D.** (2010) *Doing Qualitative Research*, 3rd ed. London: Sage.
- Silverman, D.** (2013) *A Very Short and Fairly Interesting and Reasonably Cheap Book About Qualitative Research 2nd Edition*. London: Sage
- Skills for Justice (2004)** *Police Sector Skills Foresight 2004: Identifying the current and future skills needs of the Police Sector: A report on the Skills Foresight Programme*.
- Smith, N. & Flanagan, C.** (2000) *the effective detective: Identifying the skills of an effective SIO*. London: Research, Development and Statistics Department.
- Stelfox, P.** (2007) *Professionalizing Criminal Investigation*. In Newburn, T., Williamson, T., & Wright, A. (Eds) (2007) *Handbook of Criminal Investigation*. Cullompton: Willan Publishing
- Stelfox, P.** (2008) *Investigative Practice and Performance Management: Making the Marriage Work, Policing: A Journal of Policy and Practice, Volume 2, Issue 3, 1 January 2008, Pages 303–310*.
- Stelfox, P.** (2009) *Criminal Investigation: An introduction to principles and practice*. Cullompton: Willan Publishing.
- Stelfox, P., & Pease, K.** (2005) *Cognition and detection: reluctant bedfellows?* In M. Smith & N. Tilley (Eds.), *Crime Science: New approaches to detecting and preventing crime* (pp. 198-207). London: Willan.
- Stockdale, M & O'Cain, A** (2012), The admissibility of hearsay evidence, *Criminal Law and Justice Weekly*, vol. 176, no. 48, pp. 697-698.
- Stockdale, M. and O'Cain, A.** (2016) *Admissibility of Evidence of co-defendants Bad Character under s. 101(1)(e) Criminal Justice Act 2003*. The Journal of Criminal Law. Sage
- Taylor, H.** (1998) The Politics of the Rising Crime Statistics of England and Wales, 1914-1960 *Crime, History & Societies* [Online], Vol. 2, n°1
- Taylor, C.** (2012) *The real CSI what happens at a crime scene*. The Guardian, 27th April 2012
- Tong, S. and Bowling, B (2006)** Art, Craft and Science of Detective Work. *The Police Journal* 79(4):323 – 329
- Tong, S.** (2009) Professionalising Investigation. In Tong, S., Bryant, R.P. & Horvath, M.A.H. (Eds.) (2009) *Understanding Criminal Investigation*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell, 197-216.

Tong, S. Bryant, R.P. & Howarth, M. (2009) Conclusion: Future Challenges in Criminal Investigation. In Tong, S. Bryant, R.B. & Howarth, M. (Eds.) *Understanding Criminal Investigations*. Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell, 217-221.

Tong, S., Bryant, R.P. & Horvath, M.A.H. (Eds.) (2009) *Understanding Criminal Investigation*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.

Travis, A. (2017) *Police not equipped to deal with new domestic abuse laws*; The Guardian, available at: <https://www.theguardian.com/uk-news/2017/dec/29/police-not-equipped-to-enforce-new-domestic-abuse-laws>

Tucket, A. (2005) *Applying Thematic analysis theory to Practice: A Researcher's Experience*: Contemporary Nurse, Vol 19.

Vincent, H. (1881) *A police code and manual of the criminal law*. London: Cassel, Petter, Galpin.

Waddington, P. A. J. (1999) *Policing Citizens: Authority and Rights*. London: UCL Press.

Waddington, P.A.J. & Bull, R. (2007) *Cognitive Interviewing as a Research Technique*, *Social Research Update*, Issue 50. University of Surrey.

Walsh, D. and Oxburgh, G.E. (2008) Investigative Interviewing of Suspects: Historical and contemporary developments and research. *Forensic Update*, 9(2)

Walsham, G. (2006) *Doing Interpretive Research*; *European journal of Information Systems*. Vol, 15. Issue 3.

Ward, J. (1993) *The origins and development of forensic medicine and forensic science in England, 1823 -1946*. PhD Thesis, open University.

Wasserman, J. & Clair, J. (2007) *Accessing Distrustful Populations: Lessons from the ethnographic research with the Street homeless*. *Journal of Contemporary Ethnography*. Sage Journals

Wells, S. Brandon, S.E. (2018) *Interviewing in Criminal and Intelligence-Gathering Contexts: Applying Science*, *International Journal of forensic Mental Health*, 181, 50-65.

Westberg, J & Jason, H. (2002) *Fostering reflection and providing feedback: helping other learn from experience*: Springer. *Family Practice*, vol.9 Issue 3, 315 – 316.

West Yorkshire Police (2016) Protected Learning Time:
https://www.westyorkshire.police.uk/sites/default/files/files/policies/training_time.pdf

White, D. & Heslop, R. (2011) What is the attraction of nurse training as a model for professional education. In *Critical Perspectives on Professional Learning, Fifth Annual Conference*. Leeds University, Monday 13th June 2011. Available from <http://www.leeds.ac.uk/medicine/meu/events/pll11-docs/White-Heslop.pdf> [Accessed: 07 July 2014].

Williamson, T. (1996) Police investigation: the changing criminal justice context. In Leishman, F., Loveday, B. & Savage, S.P. (Eds.) *Core Issues in Policing*. Harlow: Longman, 26-38.

Williamson, T. (2007) Psychology and Criminal Investigations. In Newburn, T., Williamson, T. & Wright, A. (Eds.) (*Handbook of Criminal Investigations*. Cullompton: Willan Publishing.

Willis, J. (2000) *Constructivist Instructional Design: The Qualitative Report*, Vol. 5.

Wills W.H. and Dickens, C. (1850) *The Modern Science of Thief Taking*. Household Worlds. Vol. 1: 16. London. Bradbury & Evans.

Winsor, T. (2011) *The independent review of police officer and staff remunerations and conditions. Part 1*. Cmmd Paper 8024. London: HMSO. 249

Winsor, T. (2012) *The independent review of police officer and staff remunerations and conditions. Final Report*. Cmmd Paper 8325. London: HMSO.

Withrow, B. (2014) *Research Methods in Crime and Justice*. London: Routledge

Appendix 1. Overview of ICIDP Process.

It is important to provide a clear overview of the mechanics of ICIDP. This overview will also explain how the researcher fitted into the context.

The ICIDP process culminating in the PIP at Investigative Level 2 qualification comprises several phases.

- Phase 1 Induction - National Investigators Examination (NIE)
- Phase 2 Tier 2 Investigative Interviewing Training
- Phase 3 ICIDP Classroom Phase
- Phase 4. Workplace Assessment –Completion of Portfolio (under supervision of an assessor)

(PIP ISP Final, 2008)

The Learning phase of ICIDP which underpins PIP Level 2 is designed by the College of Policing. The learning phase is delivered by autonomous police forces, some smaller police forces and investigative bodies not within the mainstream (e.g., States of Jersey Police and RAF Police will send their trainee investigators to the larger police force training centres). The trainee investigator's route into ICIDP is through an applications process comprising an evidence based written application and on occasion a formal interview. During the application process, the trainee must demonstrate current investigative competency against the relevant assessment criteria for PIP at Investigative Level 1 (College of Policing, 2017). Trainee investigators successful in the application process would be invited to attend an induction event at the nominated force training centre (GMP, 2015).

The purpose of the NIE is *"to identify the candidates who have sufficient levels of knowledge and understanding of relevant law and procedure to perform effectively in subsequent stages of the ICIDP and as a trainee investigator"*, (College of Policing, 2017: 4). The rules and syllabus of the NIE are updated annually by the College of Policing. The NIE usually takes place on 4 occasions a year.

The examination is written and marked by the College of Policing. The examination is strictly invigilated at a series of venues across England and Wales. (College of Policing, 2017)

In the event of a candidate failing the NIE, they may re-sit the NIE on two occasions. Should the candidate fail on the two additional occasions, the candidate will be prevented from taking the NIE for a period of 18 months, (College of Policing, 2017). Candidates who do not pass the NIE cannot progress on to ICIDP and therefore cannot attain PIP Level 2.

The classroom phase of the ICIDP programme comprises six weeks of a taught programme assessed by way of summative and formative in-course assessments. One of the six weeks is devoted to the Tier 2 investigative interview training. Some forces do choose to deliver the interview training as a separate package, thus creating a five week and a one-week abstraction. Investigative interviewing is central to the success of an investigation (ACPO, 2009). Therefore, the highest standards need to be upheld. It is therefore important that interviewers are trained and developed according to the requirements of their role. (ACPO, 2009). Tier 2 Investigative Interviewing training is an intense learning programme comprising of a series of detailed sessions and detailed assessment by highly qualified training staff. The focus of specific sessions include an introduction into how memory works, questioning types and style and planning and preparation of an interview. The police forces subject of the programme of research utilise experienced investigative interviewers as trainers in the investigative interviewing training role. The trainers are also competent investigative interviewing advisors and in some cases family liaison officers. Therefore, the trainers provide a practical context within the training estate.

Figure 1. Investigative Interviewing at PIP Level 2.

PIP LEVEL	NATIONAL OCCUPATIONAL STANDARDS	APPLICATION
LEVEL 2	CJ 102 Interview victims and witnesses in relation to serious and complex investigations.	Must have demonstrated competence in CJ101 and CJ102 as a prerequisite. The expected standard for those conducting serious investigations.
	CJ202 Interview suspects in relation to serious and complex investigations	

All police forces in England and Wales are expected to deliver specific investigative interviewing training to relevant staff in accordance with the recommendations of the National Investigative Interviewing Strategy and the relevant College of Policing training products (College of Policing, 2017). Ideally, the interview training element of ICIDP should take place prior to the five-week classroom-based training programme. The police forces subject to the current programme of research had made it policy for the interview element to take place prior to the five-week programme. The above table outlines the relevant National Occupational Standards to be achieved in the context of the Tier 2 Investigative Interviewing programme. Investigative interviewing training comprises a mixture of interviewing theory (Bull & Milne, 2001); the legislative context, (College of Policing, 2017) and practical exercises and assessment (Baldwin, 1992).

Investigative interviewing training within the police forces subject of the programme of research is delivered to a class of eight trainees. Trainees are assessed in the context of interviewing witnesses and interviewing suspects. In the assessment context, the role of witness and suspect is played by actors, (Merseyside Police, 2014). Assessment in the context of witness interviewing will include

- The ability of the interviewing officer to put the witness at ease
- Understanding and application of the cognitive model
- Understanding and application of relevant legislation in the context of identification
- Understanding and application of memory enhancing techniques

- Completion of a detailed witness statement

Assessment in the context of suspect interviewing will include;

- Interview planning (SE3R)
- Understanding and application of the relevant legislation
- Understanding and application of the interview spiral
- Understanding application of the role of the legal advisor and pre interview disclosure.

The assessments are video recorded. At the conclusion of the assessed interview, the trainee will receive detailed feedback from the trainer, the role player and the observing group. The trainer will then make a judgement as to the trainees competence in line with the relevant National Occupational Standard.

ICIDP consists of the six-week taught course, five in the case of the police forces subject of the programme of research who deliver the Tier 2 investigative interviewing training element separately. The ICIDP classroom-based phase is delivered at the relevant police force training centres. Both police forces training centres subject of the study have the specific facilities required to deliver the course. A generic classroom is complimented by four syndicate rooms. Each syndicate room is equipped with a desk top computer workstation, and white boards. The training group of 16 trainee investigators is split into four 4-person syndicates.

The course material is developed and provided by the College of Policing. The police forces are allowed flexibility in the delivery of the ICIDP material subject to adherence to the relevant learning outcomes. The forces require considerable flexibility in what, how and in what order the material is covered to ensure that local procedures and protocols are observed, (College of Policing, 2017). This phase of ICIDP aims to take the theoretical knowledge of law and procedure gained during

the study process for NIE consolidate it into practical skills (Skills for Justice, 2015). The ICIDP classroom phase is delivered by way of case study. The trainees investigate a real-life reported crime from initial reporting of the crime incident through to the charging of an offender and the subsequent appearance at court. Case study (Davies & Wilcock, 2003) in the context of ICIDP can be likened to an amalgam of project-based learning and problem-based learning as described by Savin-Baden (2003). A learner centered approach encourages the trainees to play an active role and apply principles and examples to their own professional contexts. However, the trainer will facilitate rather than supervise the process.

The curriculum areas cover the legislative and procedural contexts of investigation and can be considered as several areas of learning. The method of teaching and learning leans towards an andragogical context, (Knowles, 1970). The overall National Occupational Standard for PIP Level 2 Investigators is to conduct serious and complex investigations. Skills for Justice develop the Occupational Standards for the College of Policing. Skills for Justice is the independent, employer-led body covering all employers, employees and volunteers in the Justice Sector. Skills for Justice work in partnership with the College in the development and strategic management of qualifications for the policing and law enforcement strand of the justice sector. Skills for Justice also have responsibility for National Occupational Standards within the sector. Skills for Justice and the College of Policing will work with awarding organisations and higher education to ensure the requirements set out in this strategy are consistently applied. (College of Policing, 2015). Skills for Justice have developed the ICIDP NOS into several distinct elements.

- Criminal law and the legal framework in relation to the investigation of crime
- The criminal investigation process in relation to serious and complex crime
- Investigative decision making within serious and complex crime
- Investigative strategies for serious and complex crime

Skills for Justice, (2015)

This is discussed in detail in Chapter 2. During the study, Core Investigative Doctrine (College of Policing, 2012) provided the framework for the ICIDP programme around which most of the course content was structured. Currently College of Policing APP provides the overarching investigative framework. College of Policing, 2017)

All trainees undertaking in this phase of ICIDP have successfully completed the NIE achieving a grade of 55.7% or more. Therefore, having proved a satisfactory level of knowledge and understanding in the legislation and criminal procedure, the trainees would not receive lectures or presentations in the legislative context. This phase comprises of a mixture of syndicate work, syndicate presentation and the receipt of specialist knowledge. The specialist knowledge is delivered by subject matter experts from the relevant police force and external experts (e.g., Crown Prosecution Service) (ICIDP Timetable, 2015).

Each syndicate investigates the offences arising from the case study. At the relevant time, one of the police forces utilised in the programme of research was using a case study constructed around an incident giving rise to an investigation into an offence of aggravated burglary. The other police force was using a case study constructed around an incident giving rise to an investigation into an offence of attempted rape. During the development of both case studies, incidents of domestic violence were examined. The development of the case study is incremental. Each syndicate will be supplied with a set of circumstances comprising an information or incident report and copies of initial statements. One of the major threads running through the phase is the development of investigative decision making. All decisions made and taken by each syndicate must have a clear justification and a valid rationale. All decisions are recorded electronically and are regularly audited by the trainers. The delivery of specialist knowledge is not a delivery of knowledge for its own sake. It has a benefit and is used by the syndicate in their investigation.

At key milestones within the investigations, the syndicates will meet in plenary to present their investigative findings to the large group and their fellow trainees. The investigative milestones were considered as suitable junctures for assessment to take place. This is particularly relevant to the FDCI

programme that was being undertaken by the trainees from both police forces subject to the programme of research. To facilitate assessment, the syndicates would prepare a briefing for a senior police officer to position the officer as to the nature of the incident subject of investigation and detail the progress of the investigation and explain the rationale and justification for each decision contributing to the investigative progress. (Some of the senior police officers who had received syndicate briefings were participants in Sample 1.) The trainees would be expected to apply the theoretical framework of investigation together with the knowledge and understanding of legislative and procedural knowledge. (GMP Course Records, 2014). This summative assessment is used to indicate the extent of the trainee's process in meeting the outcomes of the programme. (Koh, 2010). This phase of the ICIDP programme comprised three formal assessments.

The trainee on completion of the ICIDP classroom phase, has, subject to contingencies of the service, six months to complete the workplace assessment and submit the portfolio of evidence. The trainee returns to operational duties. The portfolio of evidence is completed throughout the workplace assessment allowing for assessment of competency against the relevant NOS. The assessment is carried out by assessors and supervisors. (College of Policing, 2017) Practical evidence of competency must be produced by the trainee. The completion of the portfolio would demonstrate competency by way of application of the knowledge, understanding and the investigative skills developed during the NIE, Tier 2 and ICIDP Classroom phases of the PIP 2 Investigators process. Evidence of competency could include investigation logs and policy documents. The relevant guidance and legislation to be considered in the context of workplace assessment would include Police and Criminal Evidence Act, 1984, The Criminal Procedures and Investigations Act, 1996 and the Regulation of Investigatory Powers Act 2000, and the Investigatory Powers Act, 2016. This legislation deals with the minutiae of procedural issues in the context of arrest, investigative interviewing, surveillance and the covert acquisition of all manner of data.

The workplace assessment is quite straightforward if the trainee is deployed in a reactive overt investigative context. However, should the trainee be deployed in a specialist, maybe the proactive

covert investigative context, the opportunities for workplace assessment could prove problematic, (Merseyside Police, 2014). Therefore, to provide real assessment opportunities, trainees would be able to work by way of a short attachment to a busy reactive overt investigative context, (GMP, 2015). The portfolio is assessed by a qualified assessor who would have aligned to the trainee on completion of the ICIDP Classroom phase. The portfolio of evidence is signed off by the officers Detective Chief Inspector and forwarded to an internal verifier for quality assurance. In the case of the police forces subject to the programme of research. The internal verifiers were based at the relevant training centre. The researcher in the role of the FDCI programme leader would be asked to assess portfolios for quality assurance purposes, in effect to verify samples of the work verified by the internal verifier. The researcher would be on occasions called upon to provide advice and guidance to internal verifiers of the police forces subject to the programme of research. (UCLan Course FDCI documents, 2015).

3 February 2014

Allison Jones / Stephen Riley
School of Forensic and Investigative Sciences
University of Central Lancashire

Dear Allison / Stephen

Re: STEMH Ethics Committee Application
Unique Reference Number: STEM 090

The STEMH ethics committee has granted approval of your proposal application '**Investigative Training in the Context of Higher Education Frameworks**'.

Please note that approval is granted up to the end of project date or for 5 years, whichever is the longer. This is on the assumption that the project does not significantly change, in which case, you should check whether further ethical clearance is required.

We shall e-mail you a copy of the end-of-project report form to complete within a month of the anticipated date of project completion you specified on your application form. This should be completed, within 3 months, to complete the ethics governance procedures or, alternatively, an amended end-of-project date forwarded to roffice@uclan.ac.uk quoting your unique reference number.

Yours sincerely

Tal Simmons
Chair
STEMH Ethics Committee

NB - Ethical approval is contingent on any health and safety checklists having been completed, and necessary approvals as a result of gained.

Investigative Training in the Context of Higher Education Frameworks

Thank you for expressing an interest in agreeing to be interviewed. Before agreeing to participate in the research, please read this information sheet carefully.

I am a Lecturer in the Policing Team of the School of Forensic and Investigative Science at the University of Central Lancashire. I am currently conducting research on Investigative Training in the Context of Higher Education Frameworks for my PhD, under the supervision of Dr Jo Bryce.

If you decide to take part in the interview, you will be asked to discuss your perceptions and experiences of formal academic qualifications as being an effective element of the professionalization of investigation.

The interview will last for approximately 30 minutes and be voice recorded. This recording will be transcribed and analysed. Only I, my supervisors and those with a legitimate need will have access to the data. All data will be stored securely in accordance with UCLan data storage policies. The analysed data will be used in the writing of my thesis, journal articles and conference presentations.

All data gathered will be confidential and your responses will be made anonymous to ensure that you will not be able to be identified in any subsequent publications providing quotes from the interviews.

It is important to note that participation in the interview is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw from the research at any point during the session without having to give any reason. If you choose to do this, it will not be possible to withdraw the data that you have already contributed. Once the interview session is over, it will not be possible to withdraw your data.

If you would like to participate in the study, please reply to the researcher stating your interest, and further arrangements will be made by email. Please feel free to contact us if you would like further information about the study.

Thank you

Researcher: Stephen Riley (SJRiley@uclan.ac.uk)

School of Forensic and Investigative Science
University of Central Lancashire
Preston PR1 2HE
Tel.01772 893571

Supervisor: Dr Jo Bryce (JBryce@uclan.ac.uk)

School of Psychology,
University of Central Lancashire,
Preston, Lancashire, PR1 2HE
Tel: 01772 893420

Investigative Training in the Context of Higher Education Frameworks

If you fully consent to take part in this research study, please tick the following boxes and sign and date the form.

☐

I agree to take part in the research interview. I have read the information sheet and I understand what the study involves. All of my questions have been answered to my satisfaction.

☐

I agree that the interview can be recorded.

☐

I understand that I can withdraw from the session at any time, for any reason.

☐

Name: (print) Signed: Date: