



NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA
FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
CRIMINOLOGY AND SECURITY STUDIES DEPARTMENT

COURSE CODE: CSS 848

COURSE TITLE: Principles of Security Practice and Management

Credit Unit: 3Credit

Course Writer/Developer

Dr Kabir Bello.
Sociology Department
Faculty of Social Sciences
BAYERO University

MODULE ONE

Unit I: Police Patrol

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Police patrols play an important role in providing public safety. The patrol technique of maintaining public order is an important factor affecting the patrol performances, especially as it affects average response time and workload in a particular policed location.

2.0 Intended Learning Outcomes

By the end of this, candidates should be able to understand that;

- a) Security management and practice is a broad issue and cut across the different layers of security provision both in the public and private spheres.
- b) Essentially, the understanding will cut across but not limited to police patrol and its typologies,

- c) Theoretical issues on police patrol,
- d) Police patrol as a crime prevention strategy and;
- e) The conduct of investigation resulting from patrol.

3.0 Main Text

Unit 1: Patrol and Typology of Police Patrol

In police language, patrol is to go around and see that things are in order in a given area and watch out for criminals. The purpose of police patrol is to protect life and property, apprehend those responsible for crimes and prevent criminal activities. In carrying out the assignment majority of officers involved operate in view of the public on vehicle, foot, motorcycle, horse or accompanied with police dogs or with aircrafts.

1. Patrolling Beat and Patrol System

According to Otubu and Coker as cited in Ibrahim(2013), a beat is an area or portion of land allocated to a constable to take care of in a patrol system. The primary objective of an efficient police force is the suppression, prevention and detection of crime. Beat duties therefore, are aimed at achieving the following objectives;

- a) To suppress and prevent crimes, a policeman on beat must always be at alert, and present so as to deter potential offenders.
- b) He must be prepared to pursue and apprehend those criminals who succeed in escaping surveillance.
- c) On the beat, a policeman is responsible for the protection of life and property, the arrest of offenders, assistance in traffic control, dealing with complaints, suspect and witnesses, fires and other unusual incident, reported to or detected by him.
- d) He should not, for instance, habitually patrol from one end of the beat to the other in a regular manner and must avoid the tendency of being at the same place at the time each day.

These could give the impression that he may be anywhere and everywhere all the time. These tactics disturb and deter potential offenders as the beat constable's routes and movement cannot be anticipated by person planning to commit crime or any unlawful acts.

Essentially, the uniform police officer's presence on beat is still and by far, the best means of preventing and controlling crimes in any area. This depends, however on the nature of the area, (residential, industrial, etc) the kind of crime which is being most frequently committed there and the police officer available to deal with the problem.

There are a number of different ways of patrolling a beat or given area such as:-

- a. Fixed route system:** This is where the constable is detailed to patrol along a given route and to be at a definite place at a definite time.
- b. Semi discretionary system:** In this system, a Constable is detailed to be at a certain place and at a certain time, but between the periods of his arrival at these places, he may patrol the area at his own discretion and need not follow any fixed route or point or be monitored according to time.
- c. Discretionary system:** By this system, a Constable is expected to patrol his area at his own discretion and need to follow any fixed routes or points or be supervised by time.
- d. Aberdeen system:** It is used where manpower is inadequate where a patrol van conveys a number of Constables to an area of a town, they then leave the vehicle, patrol the area and at an arranged time, be picked up and conveyed to another part of the town, where the same procedure is followed.

Guide and Methods of Patrolling Beats

- a) Beat walks must be executed at two miles per hour.
- b) A Constable is expected to be civil and polite to the public.
- c) Special vigilance is required at early morning hours.
- d) On no account should a Constable be idle or engage in gossiping.
- e) Careful attention must be given to life and properties.
- f) Suspicion must be keen while discretion should inform challenge.
- g) Children and the elderly must be treated with special care.
- h) Smart appearance is required of the Constable at all times.
- i) Beats must not be deserted before relieve of duty.
- j) Eating or drinking on beats is highly prohibited.
- k) Lying, sitting, leaning or sleeping on duty post is prohibited.

2. Automobile and Foot Patrol

Under most circumstances automobile patrol is applicable to the police in order to prevent crimes today, this is especially in trying to reach remote locations or

where teamwork becomes necessary. It enables police officers with the use of automobiles to patrol an area or community as a team within a reasonable time. Members of the team are usually armed with rifles and riot guns fire and rescue equipment as well as spotlight, all of which are normally kept within the vehicle. Most of the patrol and guard vehicles have communication gadgets installed in them for easy conduct of patrol duties. In the alternative, the team can be equipped with walkie-talkies for easy communication with the nearest base, or another patrol team.

The equipment enumerated above cannot be carried by the foot men and there are occasions when they may need such items. The use of patrol vehicles provides;

- a) Protection against criminals and enables the team to pursue fleeing offenders who may also be mobile.
- b) It also protects the police officers from harsh weather, like the cold weather and persistent rainfall period. The operation “fire for fire” patrol teams introduced by the Nigeria Police to cover all the commands because of the increase in wave of armed robbery incident both on the highways, houses and banks is a typical example of such a strategy.

3. Road Block

This is a deliberate obstruction or impediment placed on the road, public place or high-ways to prevent free movement of people and vehicles out of a place unchecked in order to prevent and detect crime. There three major types of road blocks as follows:

a. Permanent Road Block: These types of roadblock operate mainly in cities or built up areas. Equipment for the road blocks is stored very near the check point for easy accessibility to the officer in charge. This is the most common type of road block often seen along the highways. They are not subject of movement from one location to another, and they are not prompted by any particular incident of

crime at a given time and the purpose is mainly to deter criminals from committing crimes.

b. Emergency Roadblock: As the name implies, the emergency roadblock is set up with a very short notice for the purpose of stopping vehicles which have been used in the commission of crime, or is suspected to have been used in the commission of crime and is moving toward a known direction at a particular time where the block is mounted.

c. Systematic Roadblock: This type of roadblock is established when a suspected or wanted vehicle is believed to be within a specified area. There is enough time to assemble equipment and decided on a location. Systematic roadblocks are retained for a long period, and there is enough time to search more thoroughly as many vehicles as possible at the roadblocks.

Whatever the type, roadblocks are said to offer the following advantages to the police as a mechanism of patrol system in crime prevention: -

- 1) Apprehension of runaway offenders
- 2) Deterrence of prospective criminals from involvement of the act
- 3) Provision of immediate step in identifying criminals and exposing their involvement in crimes
- 4) Leads to the recovery of weapons used in connection of crimes
- 5) Stolen goods, contrabands, deadly weapons and other criminal act that may be revealed by a road block which may otherwise go undetected.
- 6) It curtails the movement of criminals to such an extent as to confine their activities within a limited area, and ultimately result in easy control of crime wave within a particular area.
- 7) The presence of road block bring psychological confidence into the minds of innocent and law abiding citizens as regards the safety of their lives and properties.

Mounting of roadblocks at some strategic points not only aid in preventing crimes, but also in detecting crimes, it should be complimented by stop and search if significant achievement is required (Ibrahim,2013).

Unit 2: Theoretical Issues in Police Patrol

There are a number of theoretical models on police patrol but for our purposes some of those to be considered are: theory of patrol scheduling; linear Markovian patrol model; and the search theory of police patrol.

It is important to note that there are two broad models police agencies use to assign patrol officers to investigations. The first is the traditional model, whereby the patrol officer responds to the scene, takes the initial report, performs some degree of cursory investigation, and forwards the case to the investigations division. Detectives would expend effort by responding to crime scenes, re-interviewing victims and witnesses, and searching for leads that could solve the case (Adams, 2005). The second is the expanded use of patrol model, whereby patrol officers perform some level of investigative duties depending upon departmental policy. The expanded use of patrol model can be thought of as a continuum, where patrol officers investigate misdemeanors, to a middle ground where patrol officers investigate all misdemeanors and some felonies like larceny and burglary, all the way to the patrol officers investigating all but the most serious or complex cases. These models provide agencies with strategies that enable the detective to have more time available to conduct investigations of complex cases or those cases requiring a greater time commitment or specialized skills (Lyman, 1999).

1. Theory of Patrol Scheduling

According to Chelts (1998), this theoretical model was developed by Park (1980) and it involves generating patrol routes as well as schedules for dispatching patrol vehicles, as well as by specifying minimum average patrol requirements on each route segment in a network. It required then developing a procedure which

meet these requirements while minimizing the total patrol effort. Introducing vehicles into the network in a patrol stream in each route segment that cannot use previous history for predicting arrival patterns is an important element coupled with determining the number of vehicles to be used.

The patrol scheduling method for Mitchell (1986), is based on the assumption that one irregularity of patrol schedules will for a given patrol rate increase the awareness of general population that patrol is taking place; two randomness of patrol schedule will discourage the potential criminal who finds that he cannot predict the arrival patterns of patrol vehicles. If both of these assumptions are accepted, then it stands to reason that the patrol route and schedules of police vehicles should be "as random as possible".

For Smith (1987), to qualify the notion of "as random as possible" put forth above, the following definition is adopted: the patrol of a route will be said to be a random as possible if the unconditional probability that a patrol car will pass a given point on a patrol route in the next time unit is equal to the probability of this same event occurring when conditioned on the observed time at which patrol cars have passed this point previously. In some what looser terminology, there should be no way for an observer to be predict when the next patrol will come by a given point knowing the arrival time of the densities inter arrival time (Time between successive arrival) at a point on a patrol route which have the property that they are "as random as possible" .

Further to that, the patrol division can benefit from considering the influence of scheduling and operations upon one another especially with regards to a number of issues such as lengths of work periods, shift rotation, time-off periods ,staffing levels, holidays and vacation time, schedule changes, departmental problems related to scheduling, etc.

Another important element in this theoretical model is “space-time coincidence” which occurs when a police patrol unit is in a location at the same that a viewable crime is occurring there. A viewable crime is one that can be observed by the patrol operating on for instance public streets and parks. As such space-time coincidence is a necessary condition for the patrol unit detection of a crime. Since the conditional probability of detection given space-time coincidence and the conditional probability of arrest given detection could only be obtained by physical experiments, then the probability of space-time coincidence per unit time serves as the surrogate measure of effectiveness in the model. If the probability of space-time co-incidence per unit time is maximized, it seems reasonable to assume that for a police preventive patrol deterrent effect, the detection of crimes-in-progress, and the ability to respond quickly to reported street crimes will also be maximized. Space-time coincidence occurs when a patrol unit enters a street segment or block-fence, during same time that evidence of a street crime-in-progress is viewable (Olson & Wright, 1989).

2. Linear Markovian Patrol Model

This model assumes that the criminal is rational, in other words, if the criminals knew exactly when a searcher (police patrol officer) would pass a point, they would not commit their crimes at that location and time. For this reason, a random patrol policy is necessary for the assumption of a stationary a priori probability distribution of street crime. The model was developed with an inherent assumption that the criminal cannot estimate the revisit time of patrol units to a specific street segment with knowledge of all previous revisit times to that location any better than he can by knowing the previous revisit time. Obviously, physical contrarians of street geography, or a policy forbidding U-turns, will result in a minimum time for revisit. If this minimum is small with respect to the time duration that the criminal activity is viewable, or if more than one patrol unit

is acting independently of all others in this patrol area, this knowledge is not particularly useful to the criminal(Chelst, 1998).

Further to this, it also assumed that the distribution and the relative frequency of street crime are unaffected-except for those detected-by the patrol efforts of a given shift. The police therefore, must patrol in a manner that appears random to the criminals and develop mechanism that produces a random patrol over the entire search area in order to prevent crime.

3. Search Theory of Patrol

The most crucial assumption that underlies the search theory to police patrol is that the location of a crime in a region be essentially independent of the location of the patrol unit. This assumption is most justifiable if the patrol force consists of plainclothes policemen travelling in unmarked cars. This means that the theory requires the deployment of patrol force in an unpredictable pattern (Smith, 1987).

A second related assumption is that the frequency of crimes in the different regions is not immediately affected by deployment of the patrol force. The key word is “immediately” it is therefore expected that, criminals will eventually shift their activities away from regions with a high risk of interception, this model approximates crime displacement theory. If however, this process is not too rapid, sensitivity analysis can generate new deployment plants to match the changing environment.

The key assumption that simplifies the iterative approach in this model never considers dividing the patrol time of a single unit between two regions and requiring the unit to travel back and forth between the regions. The motivation behind this assumption derives from an analysis of the impact of travel times on optimal search strategies. The model states that even for identical regions the time lost travelling will generally outweigh the benefits that might accrue from the

transfer. For example, if the crimes in both regions had observable durations of three minutes and the rate at which crimes were discovered were even one tenth the rate they finish on their own (an overestimation), then it does not pay to incur travel times between regions of more than 17 seconds(Mitchell,1986).

Other issues emphasized in this model by Olson and Wright(1989) includes the followings:

i. Duration and observation of crimes

The most difficult to obtain is the crime descriptive data such as the component of the observable duration of the crime. It extends from the time that the criminal's behaviour first causes him to stand out from his environment, through the completion of the crime, and until once again the criminal is no longer distinguishable by his actions. The second component is the observable of the crime in progress (or criminal in action) given that the patrol unit passes it while the crime is potentially observable. The initial encounter between criminal and victim (target) including perhaps a struggle (breaking in):

1. Time during which the criminal actually obtain his desired goal:
2. The criminal's hasty departure from scene of the crime.

ii. Crime frequency

A critical component of the model is the deployment methodology because crime patterns change over a period of time with regards to both the absolute and relative frequency of each crime type. In addition, since the allocation model will tend to suggest concentrating patrol in a limited number of regions, this process will tend to speed up. The goal of this will be twofold:

- (1) To determine how much the frequency of a particular crime type in each region can vary before affecting the optimality of the present deployment;
and
- (2) To pinpoint the crime type-region pairs to which the optimal solution is most sensitive.

The most often cited problem likely to arise is a crucial travel time constraint (minimal time to travel between regions that have been allocated search effort) which was not a factor in the development of earlier search theory. In addition, crimes exhibit characteristics not found in the targets of the previous search theory work as follows:

1. Crimes begin at random points in time.
2. Crimes last only a short duration.
3. Crimes generally occur independently of one another.

The need to use tactical patrol force which is moved around the city force in which almost all calls for service are assigned to one segment of the patrol force, while the rest of the force focuses on crime in which case deployment can be rather flexible (not limited individual patrol units patrolling separate sectors).

In order for the decision maker to choose between competing patrol strategies and allocations, there is need to complete information about what fraction of crimes in each category can possibly be affected (intercepted) through street patrols. Special effort will be required to collect data which classifies a crime as to whether or not it could be seen by a passing patrol unit. The data should distinguish, for example, between a robbery on the street and one that occurs at other locations such as large housing project unobservable from the street, etc.

Unit 3: Police Patrol and Crime Prevention

Basically, the uniformed police driving marked patrol cars operate in two modes: response to call-for-service; and patrolling their beat or assigned region in a manner to maximize their deterrent influence and to maximise their chances of detecting a crime-in-progress. This latter activity is called preventive patrol it is defined as the continued scrutiny of the community by visible and mobile police officers and is universally thought of as the best method of controlling crime that is available to the police.

Statistics and analytical models indicate that there would be an expensive use of human resources to produce arrests, and that the probability of arrest can be increased if the police utilize their resources to respond very quickly to a call-for-service. However, an examination of the queuing methods often used to design a fast response capability shows that the utilization rate of the patrol units seldom exceeds 60 per cent. As result, there will be a significant amount of time available for preventive patrol even by units engaged primarily in the response mode-if the response force has a very fast response capability (Olson & Wright, 1989).

The importance of police in crime prevention cannot be overemphasized. Crime prevention has been seen to be the deliberate attempt to tame the occurrence of crimes and the criminals from committing an offence. It broadly aims at crime reduction as well as deterrence. In other words, it is conceived to be the strategies adopted by governments (and the general public) to reduce crimes through the enforcement of the law and the maintenance of the criminal justice system.

Law enforcement agents such as the police are assumed to prevent crimes escalating in the society. This is why criminal punishment follows for violations of the laws / rules of the state. Crimes in this respect are considered to represent a manifestation of the moral failure from the part of law- breakers (wrongdoers) and the only appropriate way to handle the situation is to enforce the law, sanction the

offenders, or condemn them as a broad based state policy for crime prevention (Tonry & Farrington, 1995).

The strategy of enactment and enforcement of law directly or indirectly using agencies such as the police affect the behavior to protect citizens from crime prevention. It is made possible that potential offenders are deterred by fear of sanctions, such as incarcerations and other punitive measures. As a conventional method this strategy also utilizes incapacitation, rehabilitation and indirectly through the effects of socialization, as such crimes can be prevented through revisions of criminal codes to suit changing circumstances. As for the direct effects of enforcement and criminal law, it has been agreed among scholars that they act as preventive mechanism for crimes, because deterrence or general prevention is seen to be the primary purpose for maintenance of criminal punishment (Von Hirsch; 1976; Moris 1974; Hart 1968 cited in Tonry & Farrington, 1995).

Wilson (1983) explicated the crime control perspective of the criminal justice (for which the police is inclusive). Criminals for him, lack inhibition against misconduct, value the excitement and thrills of breaking the law, have low stake in conformity, and are willing to take greater chances than average person. If they could be convinced that their actions will bring punishment, only the totally irrational would be willing to engage in crime. Therefore, restraining offenders and preventing their future misdeeds, he argued is a much more practical goal of the criminal justice system than trying to eradicate the root causes of crime such as poverty, poor schools, family breakdown, etc.

The patrol officer's involvement in the preliminary investigation is a resource allocation strategy that utilizes patrol resources to alleviate the heavy caseloads of investigators, while simultaneously providing higher quality initial information to investigators so that more cases may be solved. Some police departments have become successful in implementing an expanded use of patrol model that is on the

far side of the use of patrol continuum, freeing the patrol officer from calls for service and establishing almost total involvement in all preliminary investigations (Berry, 1984).

In addition, in some police agencies, patrol officers investigate all misdemeanors, while in other agencies patrol officers handle investigations of felonies such as burglary and larceny. Regardless of the role patrol officers play in investigating cases, detectives have continued to investigate the most serious and complex cases (Eck, 1984).

The greatest challenge to police administrators is how to provide the patrol officer more time to fill an expanded role in criminal investigations. The patrol officer's duties change daily, time is the reason often given for not assigning the patrol officer more responsibility for preliminary investigation. As calls for service increase, time constraints may keep the patrol officer from spending a great deal of time on investigative tasks. If the patrol officer is to be assigned to investigations, the agency must decide under what circumstances the patrol officer would be responsible for conducting the preliminary investigation (Eck, 1992).

Unit 4: Conducting Preliminary Investigation

Regardless of the depth of involvement the patrol officer may have in the preliminary investigation, there are common activities that occur in every preliminary investigation. Typically upon arrival, the situation must be quickly assessed in order to determine what crime, if any, occurred at the scene. The victims, witnesses and suspects must be identified. If there is an imminent threat to life or safety, steps must be taken to apprehend the suspect and reduce or eliminate the threat (Adams, 2005). The crime scene itself must be documented and the evidence identified and collected. Securing the crime scene is critical (Lyman, 1999).

The tasks performed during the preliminary investigation vary by the type of crime being investigated. According to McDevitt (2005), in burglary cases for

instance, tasks to be accomplished generally involve report taking, interviewing victims, and checking the crime scenes for evidence. Burglaries are normally stealth crimes have a larger roster of officers to consider for future assignments, especially in those agencies which select new detectives from the patrol division. Perhaps the most important advantage to an agency is that the patrol officer's morale is greatly improved due to increased involvement in the investigation process.

The patrol officer feels more like a part of the department, can demonstrate individual investigative skills and abilities, and can participate in the process of solving crime (McDevitt, 2005). Regardless of the level of patrol officer involvement in the preliminary investigation, there are certain situations in which the preliminary investigation must be conducted by a detective rather than a patrol officer. Examples include continuing investigations, investigations that would take the officer out of his jurisdiction, or investigations involving undercover work over a period time, such as narcotics or vice cases (Adams, 2001). Other cases, such as homicides, missing persons, and gang-related cases require the expertise of a detective to investigate the leads that may identify a suspect (Skolnick & Bayley, 1986).

The patrol officer notifies his or her supervisor in these situations, and the case is referred to the detective who is responsible for conducting the preliminary and follow-up investigations, fact sheet, which contains an at-a-glance summary of the investigation including the suspect's name and identifiers, is included with the initial report. A summary of the facts is included, specifying information such as times, dates, locations, activities of those involved, and the evidence collected by the officer. This fact sheet is the first information seen by anyone reviewing the case file, so it is important to keep the information specific and to the point (Lyman, 1999).

Additionally, the initial report includes a complete description of the details of the crimescene at the time the patrol officer first arrived including who the officer encountered at the scene, any injuries to the victim or the suspect, any weapons used, and the specific actions the officer performed while at the scene. The patrol officer indicates whether first aid was administered, whether his or her immediate supervisor was consulted at any time during the incident. Further, the report details the names and identifiers for all suspects arrested, and the names of all witnesses along with copies of any witness statements. The report includes a list of all the evidence encountered at the scene and details concerning the chain of custody of the evidence. Chain of custody information includes how the evidence was collected, who handled the evidence, how and where the evidence was stored, and who currently has possession of the evidence such as the crime lab (Lyman, 1999). Once the initial report is completed, the patrol officer's role in the case is concluded. The exception to this is when the patrol officer testifies in court about his or her involvement in the case. Studies have shown that some agencies may reassign cases to patrol for some follow-up investigation, although most do not. Once the report is completed, the case is sent to the investigations division for processing and assignment to follow-up investigation (Lyman, 1999). Case management is more complex in those agencies where patrol officers actively participate in the investigation process. Procedures are established which define the types of cases a patrol officer may investigate, at both the preliminary and follow-up investigation stages, as well as the resulting role of the detective in the process.

It is to be noted that case screening factors, or solvability factors, are defined based on the work completed at the patrol level. The patrol officer, upon completion of the preliminary investigation, consults with the case supervisor regarding whether the case should be closed at the scene or referred to investigations for follow up. Cases that are referred for follow-up investigation

are handled first by the case screening detective at the completion of the preliminary investigation (McDevitt, 2005).

The fundamental roles of the patrol officer conducting investigation on crime include to:

1. Provide aid to any injured persons at the scene, if necessary.
2. Secure the crime scene so that unauthorized persons cannot enter the scene and so that evidence is not lost or contaminated.
3. Check the crime scene for evidence associated with the crime.
4. Collect and preserve any physical evidence associated with the crime.
5. Determine the exact nature of the offense committed, if any.
6. Determine the identity of any suspect(s) and conduct an interview and an arrest, if the arrest can be accomplished at the scene or through immediate pursuit of the suspect(s).
7. Furnish other police units with information about wanted persons or vehicles, including descriptions, method and direction of flight, or other relevant information (flash description of suspects).
8. Identify and interview any victims and witnesses.
9. Determine whether investigative specialists or other assistance is necessary through discussions with other patrol officers, investigators, and supervisors.
10. Complete a thorough and accurate report of actions taken during the preliminary investigation.

References/ Further Readings

- Adams, T. F. (2001). *Police Field Operations* (5th ed). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Berry, G. N. (1984). The uniformed crime investigator: A unique strategy to protect and serve. *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, 1-6.
- Chelst, K. (1998). An algorithm for deploying a crime directed (Tactical) patrol force. *Management Science*, 24(12): 1314-1327.

- Eck, J. C. (1984). *Research in Action: Solving Crimes*. Rockville, Maryland: United States Department of Justice.
- Eck, J. C. (1992). "Criminal investigation." In G. W. Cordner & D. C. Hale. Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences (Eds). *What works in policing? Operations and Administration Examined*. Cincinnati, Ohio: Anderson Publishing Company.
- Lyman, M. D. (1999). *Criminal investigation: The art and the science* (2nd ed). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc.
- McDevitt, D. S. (2005). *Managing the Investigative Unit*. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, Ltd.
- Mitchel, P.S. (1986). Optimal selection of police patrol beats. *The Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science*, 63(4): 577-584.
- Olson, D. G. & Wright, G.P. (1989). Models for allocating police preventive patrol effort. *Operational Research Quarterly*, 26(4): 703-715.
- Skolnick, J. H. & Bayley, D. H. (1986). *The New Blue Line: Police Innovation in Six American Cities*. New York: The Free Press, a Division of Macmillan, Inc.
- Smith, R.D. (1987). Random patrol: An application of game theory to Police problems. *The Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science*, 53(2): 258-263.

In-text Questions

- 1) Define patrol and explain any three objectives of a beat duty.
- 2) Identify and explain the types of road blocks.
- 3) What are the assumptions of the search theory of patrol?
- 4) Clearly describe describe the ways in which preliminary investigation can be conducted.

Module 2: Technology Enabled Policing

2.0 INTRODUCTION

The world today is one driven by technology in most spheres of life and policing is not an exception. In fact, the increased use of technology has long been admonished as a way of making public services delivery efficient and cost-effective. Thus, police formations around the world have keyed into this innovative new ways for safer streets and dwelling. Mobile technologies that allows for better use of data and analytics, can help police officers to do their jobs more easily and spend less time filling in paperwork and more time in the field. Operationally, technology is enabling police formations to become more efficient in their day to day role of protecting the citizens. In this module, attention is focused on the influence of technology on policing and crime prevention.

2.1 Intended Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, candidates should be able to understand that;

- 1) The world today is largely driven by technology. In fact a significant majority of human outputs today are largely driven by technology.
- 2) As a crime prevention strategy, the influence of technology on policing today cannot be underscored and;
- 3) To come to terms with conceptual issues in crime, the various security challenges bedeviling our society today and technologies used by the police in crime prevention.

2.2 Main Text

Unit 1: Conceptual Issues in Crime and Technology

Generally, a crime is a socially harmful act or omission that breaches the values protected by a state. It is an event prohibited by law, one which can be followed by prosecution in criminal proceedings and, thereafter, by punishment on conviction.

The word crime had its root in the Greek expression 'Krimos', which is synonymous with the Sanskrit word 'Krama', meaning social order. Thus the word crime is applied to those acts that go against social order and are worthy of serious condemnation. The word crime has also its origin in a Latin word, meaning 'to accuse' and a Sanskrit word 'kri'(to do). Combining the modern meaning of both the roots, crime is a 'most validly accusable act'.

The popular Italian criminologist, Raffaele Garofalo (1852-1934) define crime in some sociological perspective in the following words:

Crime is an immoral and harmful act that is regarded as criminal by public opinion, because it is an injury to so much of the moral sense as is possessed by a community. It is a measure which is indispensable for the adaptation of the individual society.

In this definition Garofalo (1914) says that crimes are those acts, which no civilized society can refuse to recognise as criminal and are redressible by punishment. He considers crime to have been some act 'labelled' as criminal by public opinion. His emphasis is also on the moral wrong, but there is quite an array of conduct which, though derogate from the cherished value of the community, are not considered crimes, for instance, immoral acts like ingratitude, hard heartedness, callous disregard for sufferings of others, though immoral, do not constitute crime. There are, likewise, some harmless crimes like vagrancy and loitering, some prophylactic crimes like consorting and possession of prohibited

goods, for example, weapons, drugs, illegal imports, and goods unlawfully obtained, but because social expediency requires that.

In the words of Ross, Joseph, Karen and Scott (2015) “crime refers actions that violate social norms, with such violations attracting state sanctions or punishments are referred to as crimes”. Although, what exactly constitutes a crime is difficult to define and quantify, as criminal actions vary within societies, across societies and across time. Thus, crime is deviance which violates a law. Both deviance and crime represent expressions of how a society frames or constructs what is appropriate and what is inappropriate behaviour.

Technology on the other hand, can be most broadly defined as the entities, both material and immaterial, created by the application of mental and physical effort in order to achieve some value. In this context, technology refers to tools and machines that may be used to solve real-world problems, those related to crime not an exception. An understanding the concept of technology is crucial in getting a clear understanding of the nature of technology and examining what the technology consists of. Past studies have shown that defining the concept of technology is not easy (Reddy and Zhoa, 1990); therefore technology has been defined from different perspectives.

The early concept of technology as information holds that the technology is generally applicable and easy to reproduce and reuse (Arrow, 1962). However, Reddy and Zhoa (1990) contend that the early concept of technology contradicts with a strand of literatures on international technology transfer which holds that “technology is conceived as firm-specific information concerning the characteristics and performance properties of the production process and product design”. They further argue that the production process or operation technology is embodied in the equipment or the means to produce a defined product. On the other hand, the product design or product technology is that which is manifested in the finished product.

According to Kumar et. al (1999) technology consists of two primary components:

- 1) A physical component which comprises of items such as products, tooling, equipments, blueprints, techniques, and processes; and
- 2) The informational component which consists of know-how in management, marketing, production, quality control, reliability, skilled labor and functional areas.

The latest definition given by Mascus (2003) has broadened the concept of technology where technology is defined as ‘the information necessary to achieve a certain production outcome from a particular means of combining or processing selected inputs which include production processes, intra-firm organizational structures, management techniques, and means of finance, marketing methods or any of its combination’.

A cursory look at the conceptions above translates into two things. In other words, there are two basic components that can be identified:

- 1) ‘Knowledge’ or technique; and
- 2) ‘Doing things’.

Thus, technology is always connected with obtaining certain result, resolving certain problems, completing certain tasks using particular skills, employing knowledge and exploiting assets especially in the specialized areas of policing and crime prevention.

Unit 2: Policing and Crime Prevention

The police are a rational-legal organization built over a traditional core of values and practices of visible patrol, “working the streets,” and investigating class-based, street crimes. In other words, the focus has always been upon regulating simple crimes of stealth and violence committed on the streets by those with few options and choices. A core of police values is composed of medieval ideas of duty, honor, personal loyalty to superiors, and obedience that are partially

revealed in practices. This core radiates a kind of sacredness that extends throughout the organization in spite of the overlay of command and control that is an inheritance from the military origins of policing. While pressures upon the police from city governments to become more efficient have increased, technology has become faster, cheaper, more mobile and compact, and more “user friendly.” The emphasis on scientific work, technology, and efficiency, aping the clichés of business, is the current reflection of much longer term police reform and the professionalism movement that began in policing since the late 1920s.

The evident challenges to national security such as environmental based violence, economic based violence, political violence, ethno-religious violence, organized violent groups violence are different manifestations of crime in Nigeria and many others around the world. Thus, there is a reciprocal relationship between technology and crime as well as technology in policing and security which law enforcement agents develop in order to tackle the challenges. It has been conceived that few things are as important to the ongoing development of society as technology. In addition, it is without doubt that technology may be variously conceptualized, categorized and defined. This is because it evolves through a process of the design, engineering, materials, components, manufacturing processes, adoption, implementation, systems integration and diffusion (McQuade, 2006). As such, it can be inferred that technology oriented policing can be defined as the application of hard and/or soft science knowledge, methods, and materials to practice arts and skills in crime commission and control.

Technology applied to crime plays an important role in evolution and advancement of crime, thus countervailing policing and security functions of society, it is surprising however, that criminologists who have long sought to explain causes and correlates of crime and corresponding victimization have not significantly considered technology-related principles, processes and theories. For instance, classical school of criminology examined 15th-century legal structures

and criticized arbitrarily-designated criminal behavior and punishment imposed without regard for human rights, justice, or fairness but did not consider the role of technology in crime. Similarly, 19th-century positive school theories ignored the role of technology even when considering criminal behavior, in the light of the use of scientific methodology through classification of criminal types, prediction of criminality, and treatment of criminals (Williams & McShane, 1993).

The importance of technology in crime, policing and security cannot be overemphasized. This stems from the fact that criminals have always taken advantage of new technologies often as the result of learning how to do so from other people including fellow criminals. Periodically, they experiment with existing tools or techniques(technology) in order to develop a satisfactory *modus operandi* with which they are comfortable and believe gives them reasonable advantages over the security technologies of intended targets, as well as police who may be prowling about physical and cyber environments for signs of crime. Upon establishing *modus operandi* criminals are disinclined to change either their preferred tools or techniques, although on rare occasions enterprising criminals may concoct new ways in which to commit their illicit activities due to perpetual technology innovation.

Unit 3: Technology and Crime

According to McQuade (2006), crime involves the use of technology especially physical technologies (such as tools), although certain types of crime like rape, assault, and murder may be committed without the use of weapons or other instruments. In relating crime with technology four major classifications were advanced between:

(1) Simple crime committed using simple tools (such as using a manual to unlawfully threaten, damage, harm, gain entry to a structure or vehicle);

(2) Simple crime committed using complex tools(e.g marijuana grower using cell phone to facilitate his illicit sales and a computer to record all his transactions/records);

(3) Complex crime committed using simple tools(for instance, racketeering or corruption using physical technologies); and

(4) Complex crime committed using complex tools(such as in the case of drug syndicate involved in gang violence, kidnapping and money laundering with sophisticated technologies/digital devices to store crime related information and perpetuate their illicit activities).

It is assumed that crime and policing/security are technologically competitive enterprises that are inextricable, dynamic and co-evolving. Criminal innovations drive policing and security innovations, and by extension each perpetually co-evolves the other throughout time in a given society. Thus, crime and methods for preventing it via security and policing evolve together as a function of several factors. As crime in a given geographic location emerges in a new way, police and /security officials inclusive of technology developers respond accordingly. Such could be seen in computerized societies who experience continually technological competition surrounding creation and release of malware (i.e., computer viruses, worms, Trojans, spyware and malware, etc) for which firms are continually writing prevention, detection and removal code.

Unit 4: Technological Innovations and Policing (Law Enforcement)

Innovation is not just about the latest gadget, it's about finding new ways to do things better especially in the face of increasing challenges such as crime and criminality. Innovations can take the form of new concepts, new methods, or new tools. But innovation tends to work best when all these forms come together to enable police and law enforcement agencies to have greater insight and impact than ever before. The innovations that are shaping the future of law enforcement begin with emerging technologies that support new concepts of operations,

enabling the interventions and relationship that promote or ensures the safety of the entirety of society.

Every investigative journey begins with collecting facts about the world. Traditionally, this work has been tough. It could mean relying on a officer's memory of a license plate to look out for, or long hours searching for the right pieces of information. It often means being there, to see, to hear, and to deter and no department can be everywhere. However, new technologies, like the Internet of Things (IoT) and smart sensors can be there when needed. Thus, police and law enforcement agencies around the world are driving new ideas in relation to technology, pioneering creative ideas, adapting to changing contexts, and incorporating insights from officers and community partners. Implicit here is that officers need to be able to assess their environment rapidly, leverage technology as they pursue public safety, mine data for insights on what to do next, scale up their successes, and get deeply involved in their communities. Some of the new technology based policing initiative around the world today as identified by the New Zealand Center for Evidence Based Policing (2017) includes:

- 1) **Smart Sensors:** Smart sensors can be used to compile many different types of information to help officers do their jobs faster and more effectively. New capabilities can log locations, listen for gunshots, stream video, flag license plates, scan databases, and go on virtual patrol, allowing officers unprecedented awareness in their environments. These capabilities can provide the raw data which more detailed analytics can use to likely enhance efficiencies and expedite investigations. Most importantly, these technologies can help officers be in the right place, at the right time.

- 2) **Electronic Miniatures:** Electronic miniaturizations are technologically augmented realities that allow people to see, hear, and act in ways that were previously impossible. For example, an officer arriving at an unfamiliar situation can now use augmented reality glasses to see pertinent information about prior calls for service from this address, find exits from a building, or see the recent crime history on the block. With this information an officer could take precautions to protect themselves and even better serve the public. In this context, the technology can also provide digital back up in the field. Small autonomous drones, for example, can be programmed to follow officers, scout locations, and provide video streams so that no officer ever has to go into any situation truly alone.

- 3) **Artificial Intelligence (AI):** We live in a world ridden with data and as many departments deploy technology solutions like augmented reality, body cameras, license plate readers, and smart sensors, they will likely generate more data each day than in their entire analog histories. The success of technology based policing and law enforcement strategies rests on being able to quickly and efficiently harness these immense volumes of data to support investigations and enforcement actions. But these mountains of data are too vast for any human to comb through, even if they dedicated an entire lifetime to searching. By analyzing patterns, sensor feeds, and databases of records, AI could help law enforcement identify critical places to be, find key linkages between suspects, and explore other insights hidden in a sea of data. However, with civil liberties groups already calling for bans on technologies such as predictive policing and facial recognition, law enforcement needs to find uses of AI that are effective but also consistent with community expectations. AI and

machine learning can help find the clues to target a patrol or forward an investigation, using simple rule sets to test new hypotheses, identify what works, and scale successes.

Although technologies, methods, and tools may continue to evolve, the core of law enforcement remains the same: tirelessly working to improve community engagement and public safety. Innovation is likely to bring greater insight and safety than ever before, but the same professionalism and discipline that brought law enforcement through the last century will continue to be keys to success in the next one.

References/ Further Readings

Arrow, K. (1969). Classificatory notes on the production and transmission of technological knowledge. *American Economic Review*, 244–250.

Garofalo, R. (1914) *Criminology*. Boston, MA: Little, Brown.

Kumar, V., Kumar, U., & Persaud, A. (1999). Building technological capability through importing Technology: The case of Indonesian manufacturing industry. *Journal of Technology Transfer*. 24: 81-96. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1023/A:1007728921126>

New Zealand's Evidence Based Policing Centre. (2017) New Zealand Institute of Environmental Science and Research. Media Release.

Reddy, N. M., & Zhao, L. (1990). International technology transfer: A Review. *Research Policy*, 19, 285-307. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0048-7333\(90\)90015-X](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0048-7333(90)90015-X)

In-text Questions

- 1) Provide a clear definition and explanation on the concept of crime.
- 2) Describe the relationship between technology and crime.

3) Identify and explain the three Evidence Based Policing Initiative

Module 3: Community Policing

3.0 INTRODUCTION

The importance and significance of community policing strategy in crime reduction and crime control cannot be underscored. This is so because the information upon which the police rely upon in discharging their constitutional responsibility of protection of lives and enforcement of law and order relies more within the people. In addition, the number of policemen in Nigeria for instance, is grossly inadequate to secure the people as expected; hence the need for community members to join them in the fight against crime as policing is the responsibility of all. According to Community Policing Consortium (1995), community policing is a “collaborative efforts between the police and the community that identifies problems of crime and disorder and involves all elements of the community in the search for solutions to these problems.” These elements include the police, residents, traditional rulers, religious leaders, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), civil societies, student bodies, and market men and women e.t.c. All these bodies have to come together in identifying community problems and collectively solving those problems identified. In this regard, Okeshola & Mudiare (2013), asserts that community policing is anchored upon a systematic relationship between the police and the public and for the police to fulfill these privileges, they must be part of the communities they serve. For instance, Sir Robert Peel, the acclaimed founder and father of London Metropolitan police and modern policing in one of his principles or elements of policing, opined that the police are the public and the public are the police that the police being only members of the public who are paid to give full time attention to duties which are incumbent on every citizen in the interest of community welfare and existence (Braiden, 1992).

The role of the police is very fundamental and crucial towards the success Criminal Justice System (CJS) as the police determine who comes into the criminal net by arresting erring members of the public. Some other roles of police include prevention and detection of crimes, preservation of law and order, protection of life and property and enforcement of governmental laws and order with which they are primarily charged among other responsibilities. In this module effort is made to expose candidates to the principles of community policing as a security and crime prevention strategy.

3.1 Intended Learning Outcomes

By the end of this module, candidates should be able to understand that:

- 1) Community policing is a global practice.
- 2) More so, candidates would come to terms with the origin of community policing strategy especially in Nigeria
- 3) Understand the various components of community policing and;
- 4) Strategies involved in the promotion of community policing initiative and the police community relation.

3.2 Main Text

Unit 1: The Concept of Community Policing

Community policing strategy and practice of policing could be seen as that which evolved out of the early work of Robert Trojanowicz and George Kelling who conducted studies on foot patrol by law enforcement agents in Newark, New Jersey in order to find out whether crime will reduced in a neighbourhood where foot patrol is being practiced by law enforcement agents (George, 1981). The beginning of community policing also has its root in the work of Sir Robert Peel who established the London Metropolitan Police wherein he set forth a number of policing principles, one of which could be considered the seed of community policing. For instance, principle number seven stated that “The police are the

public and the public are the police.” This reiterates the fact that the police should see themselves as part of the public at all times while the public should also see themselves as part of the police because the responsibility of policing is a collective one. With the police no longer the sole guardians of law and order, all members of the community become active allies in the effort to enhance the safety and quality of neighborhoods (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 1994).

Community policing is hinged upon the premise that in a democratic society the police are more likely to provide services that will enhance development and democracy which requires efforts from both the police personnel and community members because police alone cannot prevent crime and maintain social disorder; promotes residents’ quality of life without adequate support from members of the public they are serving. Meanwhile, the style of policing also depends on the system of government in a society. In a totalitarian regime for instance, the national police forces were usually used by the government and politicians to intimidate and rule citizens (Alemika, 1993), unlike in a democratic society, where policing are more participatory in nature wherein everyone assumes responsibility for the general health and welfare of their community (Brown, 2001).

Numerous scholarly definitions on the understanding community policing, but a common threads run through them. The community policing consortium defines community policing strategy as “a collaborative effort between the police and the community that identifies problems of crime and disorder and involves all elements of the community in the search for solutions to these problems (Community Policing Consortium, 1995).

In the same vein above, Friedmann (1992), “defined community policing as a policy and strategy of policing aimed at achieving more effective and efficient crime control, reduced fear of crime, improved quality of life, improved police services and police legitimacy, through a proactive reliance on community

resources that seeks to change crime causing conditions”. He noted with dismay that community policing definition has been taken for granted by professionals and scholars who used the term to replace other terms such as foot patrol, crime prevention, problem-oriented policing, police-community relations and more.

Koch & Bennet (1993:37) also defined community policing philosophy as “a belief or intention held by the police that they should:

- i. Consult with and take account of the wishes of the public in determining and evaluating operational policy and practice; and
- ii. Collaborate with the public whenever possible in solving local problems.

The Office of Community-oriented Policing Services (COPS) of the United States Department of Justice describes community policing as follows:

Community policing focuses on crime and social disorder through the delivery of police services that includes aspects of traditional law enforcement, as well as prevention, problem-solving, community engagement, and partnerships. The community policing model balances reactive responses to calls for service with proactive problem-solving centred on the causes of crime and disorder. Community policing requires police and citizens to join together as partners in the course of both identifying and effectively addressing these issues (www.cops.usdoj.gov/default.asp).

Based on these divergent opinions about the nature of community policing by scholars and practitioners, Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux (1994:2-3) suggested the following definition of community policing and termed it the “Nine Ps’ ” of community policing:

Community policing is a philosophy of full service personalized policing, where the same officer patrols and work in the same areas on a permanent basis, from a decentralized place, working in a proactive partnership with citizens to identify and solve problems.

The implication of these definitions is that community policing strategy assumes a need for greater accountability of police, greater public share in decision making,

and greater concern for civil rights and liberties in the sense that local police should provide citizens with formal access to the department's decision and policy making process.

Sparrow et al. (1990) emphasized further on the proactive nature of community policing which accounts for the broaden nature of police role beyond crime fighting to maintenance of order and promoting improved living conditions for residents while traditional policing has further been characterized by reactive responses to crime. To some other scholars, they considered community policing strategy as a paradigm shift from traditional form of policing which focuses more on top-down-model approach to solving crimes, making arrest, and more reactive to crime in general; while community policing adopts bottom-up-model approach and being more proactive. This collaboration or partnership between the police and the public is very fundamental in that the people expectation of freedom from crime, fear of crime and violence cannot be met by any government without a good police-public partnership because the police interact closely with the communities they serve in various ways and the communities in turn report crime and provide vital information necessary for the police to solve crime and address community problems. This is because isolating the police from the people often produces a siege mentality between the police and the public. Meanwhile, order maintenance, community crime prevention; problem solving, neighbourhood safety, foot patrol, and a host of police-community relations strategies are all included under community policing strategy.

Patrol officers are the primary providers of police services and have the most extensive contact with community members. In community policing efforts, they will provide the bulk of the daily policing needs of the community, and they will be assisted by immediate supervisors, other police units, and appropriate government and social agencies. Upper level managers and command staff will be responsible for ensuring that the entire organization backs the efforts of patrol

officers. Effective community policing therefore depends on optimizing positive contact between patrol officers and community members. Police departments may supplement automobile patrols with foot, bicycle, scooter, and horseback patrols, as well as adding “mini-stations” to bring police closer to the community. Regular community meetings and forums will afford police and community members the opportunity to air concerns and find ways to address them. The “community” for which a patrol officer is given responsibility should be a small, well-defined geographical area. Beats should be configured in a manner that preserves, as much as possible, the unique geographical and social characteristics of neighborhoods while still allowing efficient service.

The goal of community policing strategy is to reduce crime and disorder by carefully examining the characteristics of problems in a neighborhoods and then applying appropriate problem-solving remedies.

Unit 2: Component of Community Policing

There are two core components of community policing strategy. The first component is community partnership while the second component is problem solving.

Core Component One: Community Partnership

Establishing and maintaining mutual trust is the central goal of the first core component of community policing (community partnership). Police institution recognizes the need for cooperation with the community in the fight against serious crime because police relied heavily on information sharing and have encouraged community members to come forth with relevant information that can aid their job.

In addition, police have spoken to neighborhood groups such as community development association, markets women and men, students’ bodies, religious institutions, non-governmental organizations, participated in business and civic events, worked with social agencies, and taken part in educational and recreational programs for school children. Special units within the police have provided a

variety of crisis intervention services. The fundamental distinction between community policing and traditional policing is that in the former, the police become an integral part of the community culture, and the community assists in defining future priorities and in allocating resources. The difference is substantial and encompasses basic goals and commitments.

Community partnership means adopting a policing perspective that exceeds the standard law enforcement emphasis. This broadened outlook recognizes the value of activities that contribute to the orderliness and well-being of a neighborhood. These activities could include: helping accident or crime victims, providing emergency medical services, helping resolve domestic and neighborhood conflicts (e.g., family violence, landlord-tenant disputes, or racial harassment), working with residents and local businesses to improve neighborhood conditions, controlling automobile and pedestrian traffic, providing emergency social services and referrals to those at risk (e.g., adolescent runaways, the homeless, the intoxicated, and the mentally ill), protecting the exercise of constitutional rights e.g., (guaranteeing a person's right to speak, protecting lawful assemblies from disruption), and providing a model of citizenship (helpfulness, respect for others, honesty, and fairness) (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 1994).

These services help develop trust between the police and the community. This trust will enable the police to gain greater access to valuable information from the community that could lead to the prevention and solutions of crimes, will engender support for needed crime-control measures, and provide an opportunity for officers to establish a working relationship with the community. The entire police organization must be involved in enlisting the cooperation of community members in promoting safety and security. Building trust will not happen overnight; it will require ongoing effort. But trust must be achieved before police can assess the needs of the community and construct the close ties that will engender community support.

To build this trust for an effective community partnership, police must treat people with respect and sensitivity. The use of unnecessary force and arrogance, aloofness, or rudeness at any level of the agency will dampen the willingness of community members to ally themselves with the police. The effective mobilization of community support requires different approaches in different communities. Establishing trust and obtaining cooperation are often easier in middle-class and affluent communities than in poorer, inner-city areas and among members of minority ethnic communities, where mistrust of police may have a long history. Building bonds in some neighborhoods may involve supporting basic social institutions (e.g., families, churches, schools) that have been weakened by pervasive crime or disorder. (Moore, Robert & George, 1988). The creation of viable communities is necessary if lasting alliances that nurture cooperative efforts are to be sustained. Under community policing, the police become both catalysts and facilitators in the development of these communities.

This core component (community partnership) model can further be illustrated with the aid of the model below:

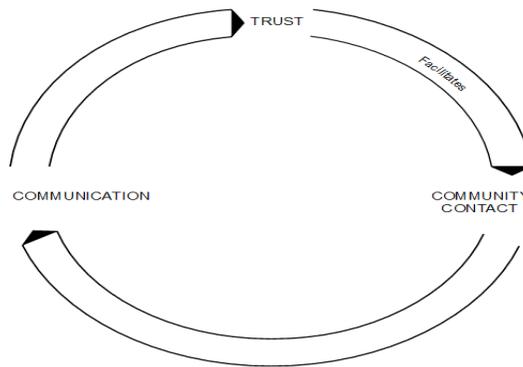


Fig 1: Community Partnership Process

The diagram above illustrates the community partnership process between the police and community members and how it will aid effective policing in the long term. Effective communication between the police and the public will promote trust while trust will further bridge the existing gap between the duos through

community contact and information sharing. In other words, cooperative relationship will deepen the bonds of trust between the police and the public. Community policing expands police efforts to prevent and control crime. The community is no longer viewed by police as a passive presence or a source of limited information, but as a partner in this effort. Community concerns with crime and disorder thus become the target of efforts by the police and the community working together.

The close alliance forged with the community should not be limited to an isolated incident or series of incidents, nor confined to a specific time frame. The partnership between the police and the community must be enduring and balanced. It must break down the old concepts of professional versus civilian, expert versus novice, and authority figure versus subordinate. The police and the community must be collaborators in the quest to encourage and preserve peace and prosperity.

The more conspicuous police presence of the long-term patrol officer in itself may encourage community response but it is not sufficient. The entire police organization must vigorously enlist the cooperation of community residents in pursuing the goals of deterring crime and preserving order. Police personnel on every level must join hand in building a broad rapport with community members. For the patrol officer, police/community partnership entails talking to local business owners to help identify their problems and concerns, visiting residents in their homes to offer advice on security, and helping to organize and support neighborhood watch groups and regular community meetings. For example, the patrol officer will canvass the neighborhood for information about a string of burglaries and then revisit those residents to inform them when the burglar is caught. The chief police executive will explain and discuss controversial police tactics so that community members understand the necessity of these tactics for public and officer safety. The department management will consult community

members about gang suppression tactics, and every level of the department will actively solicit the concerns and suggestions of community groups, residents, leaders, and local government officials. In this police/community partnership, providing critical social services will be acknowledged as being inextricably linked to deterring crime and problem solving will become a cooperative effort.

Core Component Two: Problem Solving

Problem solving is a broad term that implies more than simply the elimination and prevention of crimes. Problem solving is based on the assumption that “crime and disorder can be reduced in small geographic areas by carefully studying the characteristics of problems in the area, and then applying the appropriate resources” on the assumption that “Individuals make choices based on the opportunities presented by the immediate physical and social characteristics of an area. By manipulating these factors, people will be less inclined to act in an offensive manner (Eck, J. E & William, S. 1987).

The problem-solving process is explained further in that underlying conditions create problems. These conditions might include the characteristics of the people involved (offenders, potential victims, and others), the social setting in which these people interact, the physical environments, and the way the public deals with these conditions. A problem created by these conditions may generate one or more incidents. These incidents, while stemming from a common source, may appear to be different. For example, social and physical conditions in a deteriorated apartment complex may generate burglaries, acts of vandalism, intimidation of pedestrians by rowdy teenagers, and other incidents. These incidents, some of which come to police attention, are symptoms of the problems. The incidents will continue so long as the problem that creates them persists.

As police organization recognizes the effectiveness of the problem-solving approach, there is a growing awareness that community involvement is essential for its success. Determining the underlying causes of crime depends, to a great

extent, on an in-depth knowledge of community. Therefore, community participation in identifying and setting priorities will contribute to effective problem-solving efforts by the community and the police. Cooperative problem solving also reinforces trust, facilitates the exchange of information, and leads to the identification of other areas that could benefit from the mutual attention of the police and the community.

For this process to operate effectively the police need to devote attention to and recognize the validity of community concerns. Neighborhood groups and the police will not always agree on which specific problems deserve attention first. Police may regard robberies as the biggest problem in a particular community, while residents may find derelicts that sleep in doorways, break bottles on sidewalks, and pick through garbage cans to be the number one problem. Under community policing, the problem with derelicts should also receive early attention from the police with the assistance of other government agencies and community members. For example, one police captain reported the following:

What we found was that maybe some things that we thought were important to them really weren't that important, and other things we didn't think were important at all, were very important . . . Like abandoned cars: in one of our areas, that was a very important thing. They were really bugged about all these abandoned cars, and they thought it was a bad police department that wouldn't take care of them. When we started removing the cars their opinion of us went up, even though because we'd changed priorities we were putting fewer drug addicts in jail (Sparrow, M. K, Mark H. M. &David M. K, 1990).

Therefore, in addition to the serious crime problems identified by police, community policing must also address the problems of significant concern to the community. Community policing in effect allows community members to bring problems of great concern to them to the attention of the police. Once informed of community concerns, the police must work with citizens to address them, while at

the same time encouraging citizens to assist in solving the problems of concern to the police. The nature of community problems will vary widely and will often involve multiple incidents that are related by factors including geography, time, victim or perpetrator group, and environment. Problems can affect a small area of a community, an entire community, or many communities. Community problems might include the following:

1. An unusually high number of burglaries in an apartment complex that are creating great anxiety and fear among residents.
2. Panhandling that creates fear in a business district.
3. Prostitutes in local parks or on heavily traveled streets
4. Disorderly youth who regularly assemble in the parking lot of a convenience store.
5. An individual who persistently harasses and provokes community members (Goldstein, 1990).
6. In community policing, the problem-solving process is dependent on input from both the police and the community. Problem solving can involve:
7. Eliminating the problem entirely. This type of solution is usually limited to disorder problems. Examples include eliminating traffic congestion by erecting traffic control signs, and destroying or rehabilitating abandoned buildings that can provide an atmosphere conducive to crime.
8. Reducing the number of the occurrences of the problem. Drug-dealing and the accompanying problems of robbery and gang violence will be decreased if the police and community work together to set up drug counseling and rehabilitation centers. Longer range solutions might include intensifying drug education in schools, churches, and hospitals.
9. Reducing the degree of injury per incident. For example, police can teach store clerks how to act during a robbery in order to avoid injury or death

and can advise women in the community on ways to minimize the chances of being killed or seriously injured if attacked.

10. Improving problem handling. Police should always make an effort to treat people humanely, (e.g., show sensitivity in dealing with rape victims and seek ways to ease their trauma, or increase effectiveness in handling runaway juveniles, drug addicts, drunk drivers, etc., by working with other agencies more closely).
11. Manipulating environmental factors to discourage criminal behavior. This can include collaborative efforts to add better lighting, remove overgrown weeds and trim shrubbery, and seal off vacant apartment buildings.

There are as many solutions as there are problems. These solutions range from simple, inexpensive measures to complex, long-term answers that will require significant investment of staff and resources. Problem solving is limited only by the imagination, creativity, perseverance, and enthusiasm of those involved. Community policing allows solutions to be tailor-made to the specific concerns of each community. The best solutions are those that satisfy community members, improve safety, diminish anxiety, lead to increased order, strengthen the ties between the community and the police, and minimize coercive actions. The following example describes such a solution:

A patrol officer faced with chronic nighttime robberies of convenience stores discovered that a major contributing factor was that cash registers could not be seen from the street, either because of their location within the store or because of posters plastered on front windows. The officer did not identify the “root cause” or ultimate cause of crime, but instead identified an underlying condition that, once addressed, held promise of reducing the number of future convenience store robberies. To identify this underlying problem, the patrol officer talked with and solicited suggestions from convenience store owners and employees, other members of the business community, and community residents. The officer’s identification of a contributing cause of the robberies is a high-leverage accomplishment in terms of its likely positive impact on the

frequency of future robberies. Evidence of police concern and soliciting input from the community also reinforces cooperative ties (Dietz & Baker, 1987).

Patrol officers serve as catalysts for joint police and community problem-solving endeavors. They are involved with the community on a day-to-day basis, understand its unique physical and social characteristics, are aware of local problems, and when needed can help community members articulate their needs. Many problems within the community can be successfully handled by patrol officers or their immediate supervisors and members of the community—e.g., determining that better lighting would decrease the incidence of muggings at a local park.

All levels of the police organization should contribute to problem solving, depending on the scope and seriousness of the problem. For example, crafting a solution to widespread incidents of spousal assault taking place in several communities in an agency's jurisdiction might involve multiple levels of police management. Patrol officers may have noticed a correlation between spousal assaults and excessive drinking by the perpetrators, especially at illegal after-hours clubs. The officers, their supervisors, and community members might explore ways to close down these clubs with the help of local zoning and city planning boards. Perpetrators with alcohol problems might be required to attend rehabilitation programs run by a city agency. Meanwhile, mid- and senior-level police managers and community leaders might confer with women's groups and other social agencies about providing temporary housing and counseling for victims and their families. In addition, members of the community might be able to repair an abandoned building to house the victims.

The problem-solving process relies on the expertise and assistance of an array of social and government agencies and community resources. At the senior command level, police managers might combine forces with a civil abatement

agency to condemn and board up crack houses. One police officer seeking a system wide approach to the problem of spousal assault formed a team comprised of units from the police department and representatives from women's shelters, the YWCA, nearby military bases, the prosecutor's office, newspapers, hospitals, and social agencies. A tremendous amount of leverage can be attained through the collaboration and partnership of this type of far-ranging alliance.

Community policing puts new emphasis on tackling the underlying causes of crime by addressing problems at the grassroots level. To maximize the time that the patrol officer can spend interacting with community members, community policing encourages the use of the 112 system only for true emergencies. Nonemergency calls should be handled through other means, including delays in responding and report handling by the police station or sheriff's office over the telephone or by mail.

These alternative measures require a wide base of support within the community. To obtain this support, the police must instruct residents on the nature of an emergency and on alternative responses to non emergencies. Alternative responses will need to be thoroughly explained before community members will accept them. The residents should be secure in the knowledge that the police response will be appropriate for the urgency of the demand for service, and that the reduction in the volume of 911 calls will allow officers to spend more time in the community and will maximize the use of the residents' tax dollars.

The diagram below can be used to depicts Core Component Two: Problem Solving

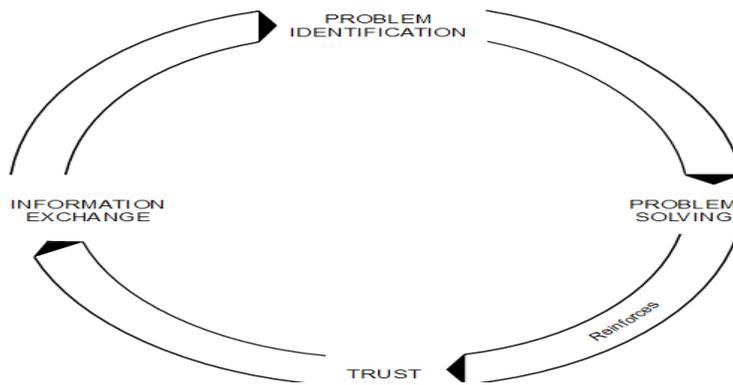


Fig. 2: Problem Solving Process

This diagram can further be used to explain the core component number two of community policing. To solve community problem, there must be trust between the police and community members. This is so because trust will reinforces information exchange while information exchange will further facilitates problem identification which will further facilitates problem solving within the community.

Unit 3: Community Policing in Nigeria

Globally, policing styles and methods are changing in conformity with universal norms and best practices. Based on this notion, Nigeria police force embraced and integrate the philosophy of community oriented policing into its core policing style based on the principle that in a democratic society, the police are charged by their fellow citizens to protect and serve the public's fundamental rights to liberty, equality and justice under the law which is akin to what is obtainable in other nations of the world (Okeshola & Mudiare, 2013). To fulfil that privileged role therefore, the police must be part of and not apart from the societies they are serving. According to Okiro (2007), community policing as a philosophy and

practice is a veritable tool for police reforms in Nigeria. Based on the imperative of this partnership or synergy between the police and the public as a way of preventing and controlling crime, akin to what is obtainable in other climes that practiced it, the federal government of Nigeria embraced Police Community Relations Committee (community policing) officially on the 22nd April, 2004 under the headship of former President Chief Olusegun Obasanjo.

This is geared towards bridging the gap between the police and members of the community. To achieve the goals and objectives of community policing in Nigeria therefore, the Inspector General of Police in 2004 approved a study tour for some few police personnel in three cities in the United States of America i.e. Houston, Atlanta and Chicago courtesy of the British Department for International Development (DFID) to understudy community policing as practised in the UK with the aim of learning the operations, methods, patterns and style of their community policing programmes (Cleen, 2008). Nigerian investigators further observed that community policing in these cities they visited had contributed very significantly towards crime reduction, improved community relations, diminution in disorder and fear of crime (Cleen, 2008).

Apart from officers of the Nigeria police force that went for this study, others were retired police officer and some civilians too. United States was not the only country visited for this study tour on community policing, Britain was also visited by those investigators in a bid to learn about their own style of community policing. CLEEN further observed that those investigators who visited Britain in a bid to learn about their community policing style also witnessed success in term of crime reduction and promotion of social order among others. These officers were specially trained as Community Policing Developers (CPD) because of the peculiar and specialized skills and training of community policing they received.

However, the uniqueness of Nigeria socio-cultural and political landscape requires that the Nigeria Police Force should adopt bottom-up-model approach of policing

because the lower rank officers interact more with members of the public especially during foot patrol. Strictly borrowing the community policing modalities from Europe and America may not necessarily provide the desired solutions to Nigeria security challenges as the Nigerian delegates that visited these countries have observed in their investigative missions abroad. Some of the impediments to successful implementation of community policing in Nigeria according to Dickson (2007) as cited in Ikuteyijo & Rotimi (unpublished) include “internal resistance to change by those policemen who enjoyed the traditional form of policing, lack of commitment to the project of community policing, lack of support from community members, inadequate support from the government, and poor welfare package/incentives for policemen”.

Based on the aforementioned challenges peculiar to Nigeria security outfit, the Nigeria variation of community policing should not adopt hook line and sinker or a replica of another system of policing, rather it is one that has been relevantly adapted to suit our own socio-political landscape. Upon their return from abroad, the IGP thereby appointed Mr. C.Y. Jimoh (AIG mni) to lead a steering committee to guide and coordinate the delivery of community policing by the Nigeria Police Force. Other members of the steering committee include four Assistant Commissioners of Police (ACP) in person of Omole, Amore, Ibekwe-Abdallah and Iwar together with three Chief Superintendent of Police (CSP) in person of Makama, Awunah and Gbolarumi.

Based on the tenets and principles of community policing strategy that requires a participatory approach between the police and the public, the IGP in his wisdom also appointed some notable civilians from among the public who are also members of various NGO's who travelled alongside these officers who will eventually become community policing developers upon their return (Police News, 2006). Some of the civilians that were appointed were Messrs. Frank Oditia, Chukwuma Innocent, Davies Blair, Menear R and Bown John as part of the study

tour. Blair Davies for instance is a member of Access to Justice Police Adviser while John Bown belongs to Justice Police Consultant; Frank Odita was a retired commissioner of Police now a consultant, while Innocent Chukwuma belongs to Centre for Law Enforcement Education in Nigeria (CLEEN). The success being witnessed by these countries visited because of the injection of this strategy like crime reduction and reducing fear of crime can further be attested to by CLEEN.

Five states were therefore selected to serve as preliminary ‘test beds’ or pilots for the implementation of community policing. From among the five states selected as the pilot’s states, one of them was further chosen as ‘pilot of the pilots’. Based on the recommendation by the project team, Enugu state was chosen as the pilot of pilots states for so many reasons. First, being one of the four focal states targeted by DFID over the past two years for major developmental initiatives. Aside this, a number of local government area within Enugu state have already been approached by Access to Justice in the course of conducting a perception survey into informal policing systems such as vigilantism. In addition to these two reasons, there have been a range of available opportunities for meaningful interaction and relationship building between the people of Enugu state and the police.

More so, there have been a number of crime reduction initiatives being developed in partnership with Enugu State government which have proved to be very effective in combating criminalities. Apart from the aforementioned points, in the context of Access to Justice’s engagement in Enugu as a focal State, the police command and successive commissioners in Enugu State have clearly articulated their enthusiasm to support community policing initiatives in Enugu State, with DFID or British Council Access to Justice Programme pledging their support to fund the project to whatever extent is possible and for a minimum of three years. In each of the pilot states selected, only some police divisions are selected and transformed to model police stations with a view to accomplish some of the core values of the Nigeria community policing model which consist of:

- i. Respect and protect human rights;
- ii. Be transparent and open in their policing functions;
- iii. Demonstrate commitment at all times to deliver best quality service;
- iv. Empower and communicate with all levels of police personnel, so that decision making is devolved as close as possible to the point of service delivery;
- v. Be willing to seek, listen to and act upon public opinion and perception;
- vi. Be accountable and answerable for what they do;
- vii. Ensure that citizens with a grievance against the police have effective communication channels and redress.

Meanwhile, in 2002, The International Criminal Investigative Training Assistance Program (ICITAP) visited Nigeria to help the Nigeria Police Force improve its management capabilities and to develop training on basic recruit courses and a community policing program. *Icitap* in developing a community policing project aimed at helping Nigeria's nascent community policing initiatives that may serve as a vehicle to help reduce ethnic violence, anti-social behaviour and armed robbery in the country (Department of Justice, 2008). Depending on its policing needs, each local area of the federation will decide if it will embrace this framework. Where no civil society inventiveness is in place, the NPF may initiate its own community policing program. This is so because the originality of African policing styles lies in the strength of informal policing (Elechi, 2006), as well as in the traditional justice systems which should be stimulated rather than repressed and replaced by an imported community policing brand that may be less efficient. Meanwhile, the Nigerian police have not abandoned efforts to implement and integrate informal policing principles in its operations. If the NPF administrators adopt such a framework, legitimized by federal and state statutes that incorporate the partnership of informal police organizations in the NPF vision, citizens of Nigeria will be better protected from crime. Legalized informal policing groups

will make a formidable partnership to accomplish the goals and objectives of community policing in Nigeria.

As a control measure, the official certification of informal policing may be determined by licensures that are renewable each year by the NPF operators. This will assuage fears by Nigerian citizens that are a consequence of the historical misuse of the police by native authorities. Such a model would recognize and stimulate civil and traditional society initiatives. Based on the efficacy of our traditional policing system, the Nigeria Police Force (NPF) has officially adopted, with international assistance, community oriented policing (COP) as its model and has established police vigilante liaison officers to interact with vigilantes which in Nigeria have a good reputation, generally speaking to at least know what these groups are doing and advise them on their limited legal rights and powers. The police have either accommodated vigilante practices, which they know will be done in any case, or asserted that only they have policing authority and powers while communal and religious authorities do not, to protect their legal monopoly on force. This is a pointer to the exclusive rights of the Police Force ahead of other State or Local government security apparatuses.

The national police will remain specialized and professional in the fight against crime, the apprehension of criminals, and the maintenance of law and order. Depending on its policing needs, each local area of the federation will decide if it will embrace this framework. Where no civil society inventiveness is in place, the NPF may initiate its own community policing program. The originality of African policing styles lies in the strength of informal policing as well as in the traditional justice systems (Elechi,2006), which should be stimulated rather than repressed and replaced by an imported community policing brand that may be less efficient.

Unit 4: Community Policing Strategies

The use of community policing by the police force to combat criminalities have undoubtedly accompanied some strategies because community policing differs in

a number of ways from a traditional policing. These strategies have proof to be very useful especially in cities wherein all the principles and philosophies of community policing have been implemented. Below is a list and brief description of the most common community policing initiatives and strategies.

1. **Public Education Programs:** Public education programs have proof to be very useful within the ambit of community oriented policing. These programs are very useful in the sense that they are used to garner general support for the police and for increases in police resources. Apart from this, these programs also sensitise, inform and educate members of the public on many security or crime issues. Additionally, it is also important method through which the police provide information to the public on how to avoid being victimized and how to avoid becoming involved in crime. One of the most common and highly acclaimed public education programs that have proof useful is Drug Abuse Resistance Education (D.A.R.E). D.A.R.E. is a police officer-led series of classroom lessons that teaches children from kindergarten through primary schools on how to resist peer pressure and live productive, drug and violence-free lives. Meanwhile, this particular initiatives or strategies were founded in Los Angeles in the United States in 1983 (D.A.R.E America, 1996).

2. **Neighbourhood Watch Programs:** Neighbourhood Watch is another form of community policing strategy which has variants known as Block Watch and Apartment Watch. It usually involves community members coming together in small groups in a local residence to gather intelligence and share information about local crime problems, crime prevention strategies and develop plans for watching and safeguarding the neighbourhood and reporting crimes. Initial Neighbourhood Watch meetings are often organized by crime prevention officers from a local police department or community organization. Subsequent meetings involve presentations and sessions of property target hardening and the establishment of phone trees for surveillance and support. Members of these

neighbourhood watch also discuss feelings and perceptions of local crime problems and develop solutions to deal with them accordingly (Rosenbaum, 1987).

3. **Neighbourhood Town Meetings:** This type of community policing strategies is popular for developing and maintaining contact between the police and the public. Unlike Neighbourhood Watch meetings, which are held in local residences, neighbourhood town meetings are held in open public spaces, such as schools or community centers, and are well publicized in order to obtain the greatest possible attendance. The meetings provide a forum for exchanging information and an avenue for identifying, analyzing, and prioritizing problems within a community or neighbourhood. As with public education initiatives, neighbourhood town meetings also provide the police with an opportunity to gain public support for specific initiatives, as they are able to explain in details why an initiative is important and how it will benefit the community (Wycoff & Skogan, 1993).

4. **Storefront or Mini-stations:** Police mini-stations are part of the effort to decentralize the police and bring them closer to the communities they serve. Mini-stations or what the Japanese describe as Koban or miniature police station are usually set up in accessible areas and staffed by a mix of sworn police officers, paid civilians, and unpaid volunteers; selected from among members of the public. Usually they are the first line of police response to crime or crisis, yet they more often function as sources of information about location or addresses in the city. Mini-stations are used as another avenue for the police to receive and disseminate information with members of the public such as crime control tips. In high crime areas, mini-stations may be erected to give a signals to the criminals that police is presence in such an area.

5. **Weed and Seed Programs:** This strategy involves a two-pronged approach to crime prevention and crime control. As the name implies, law

enforcement agencies and prosecutors cooperate in “weeding out” violent criminals and drug abusers, while community-based organizations work together to “seed” much needed human or social services, including prevention, intervention, treatment, and neighbourhood restoration programs. There are four basic components to the weed and seed program, these are law enforcement; community policing; prevention, intervention, and treatment; and neighbourhood restoration. Additionally, four fundamental principles underlie the weed and seed strategy: collaboration, coordination, community participation and leveraging of resources. In most weed and seed sites, joint task forces of law enforcement agencies from different levels of government such as police, Civil Defence, Immigration Officers, Custom Officers etc aim to reduce both crime and fear of crime. Unlike some of the other strategies mentioned above, weed and seed approach to crime takes a more hard-line stance and enforcement-oriented approach to community policing (U.S. Department of Justice, 2007).

In addition to the above stated initiatives and strategies of community policing, achieving the goals of community policing requires successful implementation of three essential and complimentary components or operational strategies: community partnership, problem solving, and change management as cited in (Okeshola & Mudiare, 2013).

(a) **Community Partnership:** Establishing and maintaining mutual trust between citizens of a community and the police is the main goal of the first component of community policing. Police have always recognized the need for cooperation with the community and have encouraged members of the community to come forward with crime-fighting information. The police no longer view community as a passive presence connected to the police by an isolated incident or series of incidents. The community’s concerns with crime and disorder become the target of efforts by the police and the community working together (Bohm & Haley, 2002).

(b) **Problem Solving:** Problem solving requires a lot more thought, energy, and action than traditional incidents-based police responses to crime and disorder. In full partnership, the police and a community's residents and business owners identify core problems, propose solutions, and implement a solution. Thus, community members identify the concerns that they feel are most threatening to their safety and well-being. Those areas of concern then become priorities for joint police-community interventions. For this problem-solving process to operate effectively, the police need to devote time and attention to discovering community's concerns, and they need to recognize the validity of those concerns (Bohm &Haley, 2002).

(c) **Change Management:** Forging community policing partnerships and implementing problem-solving strategies necessitates assigning new responsibilities and adopting a flexible style of management. Traditionally, patrol officers have been accorded lower status in police organizations and have been dominated by the agency's command structure. Community policing, in contrast, emphasizes the value of the patrol function and the patrol officer as an individual. It requires the shifting of initiative, decision making, and responsibility downward within the police organization. The officer must become responsible for managing the delivery of police services to the community. Patrol officers are the most familiar with the needs and concern of their communities and are in the best position to forge the close ties with the community that lead to effective solutions to local problems. Under community policing, police management must guide, rather than dominate, the actions of the patrol officer must ensure that they have the necessary resources to solve the problems in their communities. Management must determine the guiding principles to convert the philosophy of the agency to community policing and then to evaluate the effectiveness of the strategies implemented (Bohm &Haley, 2002).

However, these initiatives and strategies of community policing is certainly not exhaustive. Other community policing strategies and initiatives programs include Special Problem Solving Units, Fixed Patrol Assignments, Auxiliary Volunteer Programs and Community Newsletters/Websites among others. All these need to be included at the implementation stage of community policing strategy.

References/ Further Readings

- Alemika, E.E. (1993). *Colonisation, State and Policing in Nigeria: Crime, Law and Social Change*. An Unpublished PhD Thesis Submitted to the Department of Sociology, Bayero University, Kano.
- Bohm & Haley (2002). *Introduction to Criminal Justice*.(3rd ed). Glencoe. McGraw-Hill.
- Braiden, C. (1992). *Enriching Traditional Police Roles, Police Management: Issues and Perspective*, Washington, D.C.: Police Executive Research Forum, pg.108.
- Brown, J. (2001). *Community Policing Reality Check, Law and Order*, Pp. 55-58
- Bureau of Justice Assistance (1994). *Understanding Community Policing: A Framework for Action*, Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice. Office of Justice Programs.
- Cleen Foundation, (2008). *Community Policing takes Chief of Police to United States*, <http://www.cleen.org>
- Community Policing Consortium (1995). *What is Community Policing*: Washington D.C.: The Consortium.
- Eck, J. E and William, S *et. al.*, (1987). *Problem Solving: Problem-Oriented Policing in Newport News*, Washington, D.C.: Police Executive Research Forum:
- Elechi, O.O. (2006). *Doing Justice without the State: The Afikpo (Ehugbo) Nigeria Model*”, New York: Routledge.

- Friedmann, R.R. (1992). *Community Policing: Comparative Perspective and Prospects*. New York, St. Martins Press.
- George, L.K. (1981). *The Newark Foot Patrol Experiment*. Washington D.C: Police Foundation.
- Okiro, M.M. (2007). *Foreword in Community Policing*. Nigeria Police Force Operational Handbook.
- Sparrow, M. K. *et al.*, (1990). *Beyond 911: A New Era in Policing*. New York: Basic Books
- Trojanowicz, R & Bucqueroux, B (1998). *Community Policing: How to Get Started*. (2nd ed.), Cincinnati: Anderson Publishing Co.
- Trojanowicz, R and Bucqueroux, B. (1990). *Community Policing: A Contemporary Perspective*. Cincinnati. Anderson Publishing Co.

In-text Questions

- 1) Briefly define Community Policing and explain its objectives.
- 2) Identify and explain the components of Community Policing
- 3) Account for the factors that led to the emergence of community policing in Nigeria.

Module 4: Correctional Facility Management

4.0 INTRODUCTION

There is no doubt that crime should not go unpunished. However, the bottom line is that all offenders, after serving their jail sentence, will be released and walk free, with the same rights as others. They will look for a job and for housing, and it may well be that they will work or live in the same neighbourhood as others. So the question the public should ask more often is, who do we want to be our neighbours? Who do we want to cross in the street on our way to work, or meet in the park where we take our children to play?

The answer is not far from the fact that we do not want to meet recidivists hardened by inhuman and degrading treatment in overcrowded prisons run by criminal gangs. We want to meet people in good physical and psychological health, people who have made their decision and have the attitude to keep it, people who have acquired the skills needed to reintegrate, re-socialize and live the normal life of law-abiding citizens.

Correctional facility settings present both risks and opportunities with respect to violence possibility. Correctional centers have a dual function to protect society by confining offenders in facilities that are safe, humane, and secure as enshrined in the Nelson Mandela Rules 2015 (United Nations Minimum Standards for the Treatment of Offenders) and to ensure that offenders are actively participating in programs that will help them for rebirth into law-abiding citizens when they return to their communities at the expiration of their prison terms in the case of convicts. However, poorly managed detention facilities of any type could become breeding grounds for radicalization. With a literally captive audience, violence ideologues have access to potential recruits some of them may be coming with their own violent or troubled criminal pasts. Moreover, these recruiters may be able to tap into the prisoner's anger, frustration and sense of injustice about being imprisoned. Due to the revolving nature of prison populations, there is a continuous supply of potential new converts. In the absence of effective management, prison-based problem and many others will likely only grow worse. On the other hand, a well-managed prison, with effective programs and policies in place, affords authorities a unique opportunity to work with offenders to influence their future behavior positively. A well-managed prison is understood to mean a prison that functions based on the principles of good governance and adherence to human rights standards.

Preparing criminal inmates for their release is perhaps the most important role and responsibility correctional institutions have in society. To be able to play this role,

prisons must be managed well and properly staffed. Corrections staff must have the necessary training to be equipped to do their daily work with professionalism and confidence. Unlocking the potential of individual prisoners to transform their lives requires new managerial approaches in prisons. Amongst the key issues for consideration are the leadership, the integrity and how to motivate staff, within a framework of ethical principles and values. Thus, this module is directed at exposing candidates to the rudiments of prison management for an effective transit of offenders back to the society.

4.1 Intended Learning Outcomes

Prisons have an essential role in society. A prison system based on international standards and positive local legislation is a good system, one which is grounded in a deep respect for the rule of law and human rights. At the end of this module, candidates are expected to:

- 1) Garner the requisite skills for appropriate prison management techniques to achieve better results in the field of enforcement of criminal sanctions.
- 2) Provide practical advice to those working in correctional centers
- 3) Reference this advice to relevant International and Regional instruments
- 4) Provide some theoretical models of management which can be applied in correctional centers.
- 5) Offer guidance from practitioners on good practice in the management of correctional centers.

4.2 Main Text

Unit 1: Foundation of Prison Management

Corrections management needs are rooted and operate within an ethical framework. Without a strong ethical context, the situation where one group of people is given considerable power over another can easily become an abuse of power. The ethical context is not just a matter of the behaviour of individual staff

towards prisoners. A sense of the ethical basis of imprisonment needs to pervade the management process from the top down. This brings to the fore, issues on professionalism.

Professional identity is rooted in the understanding and ethical application of a body of specialized, developing knowledge and work skills. Modern prison work requires a high degree of professional skill and awareness. It is important that this should be recognized and that the men and women who work in prisons should be capable of performing at a high level. With reference to professionalism, McGuckin, (2017) outlined key issues for consideration which include leadership, integrity and how to inspire and motivate others, confined within a framework of ethical principles and values. The importance of leadership runs throughout every level of the system. It begins in individual prisons where the character of the person in charge of an area or unit can be decisive in setting the culture of the establishment. Prison systems are hierarchical organizations and all of those involved in them will tend to look to the person at the top for a lead as to what is expected in terms of attitude, behaviour and manner of working. The prisons with the most humane atmosphere, with the most positive culture, are likely to be those with the most visible leadership. It is also important to recognize that strong leadership is also more likely to produce efficient security systems and a safe environment. This leadership can be demonstrated in a number of ways;

- a) **Staff/Inmate Relationships:** There is a need to keep reinforcing the fact that prisons are dynamic institutions in which the most important elements are human beings. They are not inanimate entities made up solely of buildings, walls and fences. Real change in any prison system cannot take place without the involvement of both staff and prisoners. There are only three constant features in any prison system: the prison itself in which prisoners are held and the prison staff who look after them. The key feature for the success or failure of any prison system that is to be run in a decent

and humane manner is the relationship between prisoners and the prison staff with whom they come into contact on a daily basis. This means first of all, the uniformed staff that unlocks inmates in the morning and locks them up last thing at night.

There is a relationship of mutual dependency between inmates and correctional facility staff. One group cannot exist without the other. Between them they can have the greatest influence on whether the correctional facility has a human or an inhuman environment. On a day to day basis what makes correctional life either tolerable or unbearable for inmates is their relationship with staff. Any attempt to change the culture of a facility or of a facility system has to recognize this fact. This also underlines the reality that prisoners are not mere passive players in this scenario. They must be actively involved in the organization. This is not to deny the fact that staff has to control the routine of the prison. It is important to know what the boundaries are and not to overstep them. If there is to be real change in a facility, this structure has to be changed in a manner which breaks down the barriers between staff and inmates without threatening the legitimate needs of security and good order. This radical change will only come about if those responsible for correctional systems are determined in their efforts and leave junior staff in no doubt about what is expected of them.

- b) **Staff Attitudes:** If the culture of a correctional system is to be fundamentally altered there also has to be a change of attitude on the part of correction staff. Most corrections staff wishes to do their work well and in a professional manner. In the course of their careers they may have come to and no major violent incidents. In the course of daily activities, the important thing is to have a quiet life: "A good day is a day when nothing happens". For these staff a good inmate is a quiet inmate. If the

negative culture of the correctional facility is to be converted into something more positive, the attitude of staff to their work and to inmates needs to be positive. One often finds that the staff that are most resistant to change are not necessarily those with the longest services.

Unit 2: Principles of Security Practice in Correctional Institutions

The enforcement of custodial sentences and the treatment of prisoners necessitate taking account of the requirements of safety, security and discipline while also ensuring prison conditions which do not infringe human dignity and which offer meaningful occupational activities and treatment programmes to inmates, thus preparing them for their reintegration into society (Coyle, 2004). Thus, the core business of corrections is keeping inmates in custody. Security is the foundation on which all efforts to develop positive regimes is based. Security awareness has to be in a primary focus of all those who work in a correctional system regardless of the functions and duties they perform.

In essence, security measures refer to the actions that the corrections authorities take to prevent inmates from escaping or causing harm to others. Safety measures refer to the actions that the corrections authorities take to maintain good order and control in correctional centers to prevent inmates being disruptive and to protect vulnerable inmates. Safety measures in corrections should be supported by a disciplinary system that is fair, just and transparent.

Maintaining a secure correction involves: first and foremost well-trained staff. It also includes having the right physical security measures; ensuring that effective procedural security measures are in place and developing 'dynamic security'. Correction security must be the central concern of all corrections staff. In order to ensure high standards of security it is necessary to recognize and prevent potential security breaches and maintain an environment for effective dynamic security. No correctional facility can prevent escapes without good external controls and physical barriers, such as security doors and fences. All of these must be checked

regularly and in good repair, but physical barriers are only part of a correction's escape protection. What the staff does is equally important. Staff must diligently conduct cell searches and head counts and follow escort and other security procedures easily. Staff should be given the necessary technical training to ensure security competency. They need to be aware of security requirements. This involves learning all about the use of security technology: keys, locks, surveillance equipment. They need to learn how to keep proper records and what sort of reports need to be written. Above all, they need to understand the importance of their direct dealings with inmates. The security of the lock and the key must be supplemented by the kind of security that comes from knowing who their prisoners are and how they are likely to behave.

Unit 3: Components of Correctional Security

There are three commonly recognized elements of security in correctional centers as identified in several standards for the treatment of offenders; Nelson Mandela Rules (2015), UNODC Handbook for Prison Leaders (2010) and the Prison Management Booklet (2017). These include:

- 1) **Physical Security:** Physical security refers to secure buildings, fences around areas within the facility and the wall around the entire facility – the barriers that keep people in and out. Physical security involves the use of multiple layers of interdependent systems which include CCTV surveillance, security guards, protective barriers, locks, access control protocols, and many other techniques. Physical designs of correctional centers incorporate layers of security, which vary in intensity from the individual cell, to individual units or landings, to recreation and activity areas and ultimately to the perimeter. Security requirements differ at night, when inmates are locked in cells, from daytime when it is usual that there will be much more activity, prisoners will be more widely distributed around the prison, there will be more people entering and leaving the

prison. Security risks vary at these different times. This is often reflected in staffing levels, which themselves impact both on security and on the ability to respond to unplanned events. Aspects of physical security include the architecture of the facility buildings, the strength of the walls of those buildings, the bars on the windows, the doors of the accommodation units, the specifications of the perimeter wall and fences, watchtowers and so on. They also include the provision of physical aids to security such as locks, cameras, alarm systems, radios etc.

In designing the physical aspects of security, a balance needs to be found between the best way of achieving the required security level and the need to respect the dignity of the individual. For example, it is possible to use architectural designs which meet the need for cell and dormitory windows to be secured while, at the same time, meeting the standards for access to natural light and fresh air. Physical aids to security such as cameras, monitoring and alarm systems by definition intrude on personal privacy. In making decisions about where they have to be placed, there needs to be a balance between legitimate security requirements and the obligation to respect individual privacy. The safety of individual prisoners must also be borne in mind. The design of many prisons leads to the creation of places in which prisoners may congregate unobserved. This may be a source of potential threat both to the security of the prison and to the safety of individual prisoners. Corrections administrations should develop procedures for identifying and managing these areas. In maintaining physical security in the facilities, the following counts beyond measures:

- a) One important aspect in the correctional facility physical security setting is the perimeter security system which requires utmost attention from the prison staff, especially those on guard. The perimeter of a facility provides the ultimate physical barrier to prevent escape. It also

serves to prevent access to the prison by individuals or by introducing contraband e.g. weapons, drugs, mobile phones. Perimeter security procedures are required both to ensure that physical security equipment is correctly maintained and to define the arrangements for patrolling the physical perimeter barrier.

Staff should:

- a) Check the physical integrity of the inner and outer perimeter barriers
- b) Give particular attention to locks, doors and gates;
- c) Test perimeter alarm systems such as CCTV cameras and movement detectors, in conjunction with Control Room staff;
- d) Patrol the perimeter (either internally or externally dependent on local procedures and threat level);
- e) Ensure that procedures for the identification and searching of anyone entering or leaving the facility are consistently applied;
- f) Immediately alert the facility control room about any actual or perceived compromise to the facility perimeter securing the entry and exit points to a prison and minimizing their number is the most effective way to prevent breaches of the perimeter.

For this reason most correctional facilities have just one regular access point of entry and exit – the Gate. Effective systems are essential to ensure that the perimeter is not compromised, and that other vital functions play their part in maintaining its security. Particular attention needs to be paid to the interface between the perimeter function and procedures relating to the Main Gate, Control Room and searching policy and procedures. The most obvious weak point in any building, fence or wall is the door or gate through it, so concentrate on locks, keys and pass systems.

- b) Further to above, correctional workshops are part of the regime of most facilities and have the potential to present security risks. The

secure management of tools and materials is of high importance. Written procedures should be in place for the issue and return of tools, as should physical measures such as secure stores for tools and materials, shadow boards for tools in use.

- c) On visitations, clear written procedures for the management of visits which ensure adequate security while being sensitive to the importance of visits in maintaining relationships should be in place. The balance between security and humanity is often a source of tension in the conduct of visits where the need to prevent the introduction of contraband has to be set against having a visit experience which is relaxed and allows for normal human interaction.
- d) Alarms: Staff must know where these are in their area, how to operate them, what they sound like and what the local instructions for responding to alarms are. Alarms can be used as a distraction or, if it is local practice for a “cavalry charge “of staff in response to the alarm, can be used to divert staff from an area which is to be targeted for some illegal activity (sabotage, escape, assault, hostage taking). Local instructions for initial and subsequent response to alarms should be understood by all.

There is always a fear of the possible loss of human contact which may be a result of the development of technology within prisons. Direct supervision is an essential aspect of all prison security management and human contact must not be reduced. Physical security systems are not used to decrease but to supplement direct supervision.

Characteristics of Physical Security

- a) Metal detectors (walk through and hand held)
- b) X-ray screening system
- c) Identification badges/palm readers

- d) Surveillance cameras
 - e) Radios and other communications systems
 - f) Alarm buttons
 - g) Locked perimeter doors and gates
- 2) **Procedural Security:** This relates to those procedures which have to be followed to prevent escape and to maintain good order. Some of the most important of these are procedures concerned with searching, both of physical spaces and of individuals. In each prison there should be a clearly understood set of procedures which describe in detail the circumstances in which searches should be carried out, the methods to be used and their frequency. These procedures must be designed to prevent escape and also to protect the dignity of prisoners and their visitors. There should be procedures for regularly searching all places where prisoners live, work or congregate. These should include searches of living accommodation, such as cells and dormitories, to make sure that security features, including doors and locks, windows and grilles, have not been tampered with. Depending on the security category of the prisoner, his or her personal property should also be subject to search from time to time.

While physical barriers and detection equipment are part of ensuring good security, they are not in themselves able to provide complete security. These physical barriers must be complemented by alert staff, trained in their use and by policies and procedures which are understood and applied consistently by all staff. The prison must have a range of policies and procedures, subject to review, designed to ensure safe, secure and humane custody. An effective security response is to develop security instructions and standard operational procedures for staff. Local instructions need to specify clearly what the security issue is, who is responsible, what they are expected to do and what they should do in the event of a security breach.

However, the following should be strictly adhered to in promoting procedural security in the prison;

- a) **Accounting for Inmates:** In correctional practice, the purpose of this policy is to identify the procedures necessary to conduct both formal and informal counts of inmates and the staff responsible for carrying out these procedures. On all occasions, the correctional staff who takes charge of any group of inmates shall count the number of inmates and confirm to the correctional staff from whom he or she receives them. The purpose of counts is to ensure that inmates are physically accounted for and are in a place where they are authorized to be. All counts should be double counts conducted by two staff. Counts ensure inmates are following policies and rules as well as allowing staff to identify which inmates are in locations. A poor or inaccurate count is worse than no count at all.
- b) **Control of Keys:** Keys are carefully controlled and each facility should have an efficient and rigid system of the issue and return of keys. The issue of all keys should be controlled from one central point. Keys should be identified by numbers, letters and/or colours and located in a key cabinet which is physically controlled or in an electronically controlled key safe or dispensary. By using this method, any missing keys are easily identified at a glance. A key compromise may be an extreme security compromise and may require an immediate security response a potential escape or other incident. A key loss may mean that a significant part of a prison may require having locks changed and require additional security response while this happens, impacting on the wider regime. Thus, staff are personally responsible for key security and the following must be ensured;
 - i. There must be a consistent system of key issue and return;

- ii. Keys should only be issued on an individual basis;
 - iii. There should be an updated inventory of keys held by the manager responsible;
 - iv. Keys must be worn securely on a chain and out of sight of inmates;
 - v. Keys should never be removed from the individual's secure possession unless to return or to transfer the keys to another legitimate person;
 - vi. Inmates should never have access to keys;
 - vii. Keys must never be removed from the facility;
 - viii. Any actual or suspected key compromise must be reported immediately;
 - ix. Keys being transferred from one staff member to another must be passed by hand. The staff member receiving the key shall return the key back to the key room as soon as possible. Under no circumstances shall keys be thrown or slid on floors;
 - x. All staff must examine the keys they have been issued to ensure that they have the correct number of keys and that all keys are serviceable.
 - xi. Facility key rings must be welded to prevent keys from being taken off the bunch;
 - xii. When a key breaks in a lock, the lock should not be left unattended. Staff should remain in sight of the lock and call for assistance. If it is possible to secure the area from inmates, then the staff member is able to leave the area and immediately report the broken key to the key room.
- c) **Searches:** The purpose of a search is to detect and seize prohibited objects. All searches of the person or possessions of an inmate must be

conducted so as to guard and preserve the integrity and dignity of the inmate. There will be routine searches of all inmates on admission, searches may occur before and leaving areas such as living accommodation, work areas, recreational areas, exercise, visits, education. Additionally there will be routine searches of cells and dormitories, of communal areas, workshops etc. Searches may be conducted as a result of intelligence or following incidents. Searches may be conducted in order to intercept contraband or to provide evidence. Searches should be conducted with a minimum of disturbance to the inmates's possessions and living area, and should be recorded in accordance with local procedures.

- 3) **Dynamic Security:** The term 'dynamic security' can be described as: 'knowing what is going on in a facility, in addition to providing a safe and secure background against which the whole range of activities making up the life of inmates takes place'. It is based on the principle that positive relationships between staff and inmates help security and control by improving the flow of information from inmates to staff. Safety and security in a facility depend on creating a positive climate which encourages the cooperation of inmates. External security (preventing escapes) and internal safety (preventing disorder) are best ensured by building positive relationships between inmates and staff. The concept of dynamic security rests on the notion that engaging with inmates and getting to know them can enable staff to anticipate and better prepare themselves to respond effectively to any incident that may threaten the security of the facility and the safety of staff and inmates. The principles of dynamic security are more easily applied in institutions where there is an adequate ratio of staff to inmates. The concept of dynamic security includes:

- a) Developing positive relationships with inmates
- b) Diverting inmates' energy into constructive work and activity.
- c) Providing a decent and balanced regime with individualized programmes for inmates.

Good conduct and cooperation on the part of the inmates can also be encouraged with a system of privileges appropriate for the different classification of inmates. Dynamic security resulting from well-developed staff/inmates relationships and an active regime is as important as physical security in the maintenance of control. The quality of dynamic security is vital to the positive environment of a facility. The environment should not be intimidating and be conducive to addressing the special needs of inmates. The development of good work relationships between staff and inmates is seen as a measure of good management.

Balancing the Security Measures

There should be an appropriate balance between the different types of security measures implemented. Security in correctional facilities is ensured by physical means of security, such as walls, bars on windows, locks and doors, alarm systems and so on; by procedural means, which are procedures that must be followed, such as rules relating to inmates' movement around the prison, the possessions they may keep, searches of inmates and their accommodation, among others; and dynamic security, which requires an alert staff who interact with inmates in a positive manner and engage them in constructive activities, allowing staff to anticipate and prevent problems before they arise.

A proper balance should be maintained between the physical, procedural and dynamic security in the case of all inmates, including high-risk inmates. The right balance to prevent escape and maintain order will depend on a number of factors such as the condition of the correctional facilities, the level of technology available, the number of staff and type of prisoners being held. For example,

where physical security is weak (as may be the case in low-resource and post-conflict environments), procedural and dynamic security becomes all the more important. In some jurisdictions, excessive attention is placed on the physical and procedural aspects of security in the case of high-security inmates, while the importance of dynamic security is not appreciated. In some correctional systems, staff interaction with high-security inmates is actively discouraged. In fact, the principles of dynamic security apply particularly to high-security inmates to ensure that potential escapes, incidents, and threats to safety of others can be prevented and dealt with before they take place.

Unit 4: Recommendations for Effective Corrections Management

A correctional system based on international standards and norms is a good system, one which is grounded in a deep respect for the rule of law and human rights. Therefore, one of the major objectives of this unit is to explore and understand practical ways in which correctional leaders can more effectively implement international standards and norms in the institutions for which they are responsible. Developing countries often lack the necessary resources to bring their correctional system up to internationally accepted standards. They lack the funds, trained personnel, technology, infrastructure, or expertise to proceed with all of the necessary reforms at the same time. This is not to say however that dedicated leaders cannot accomplish significant progress, particularly when they can count on a little help from friends from other jurisdictions. This unit tries to cover the aspects of effective, fair and just corrections management. Correctional leaders will be challenged to identify the reforms that they must contemplate in order to bring their institutions into compliance with international standards. They will also be challenged to reflect on the most effective ways to bring about the necessary change.

Further to above, prisons and correctional facilities house offenders who have been sentenced to imprisonment. They also house individuals who have been accused of having committed an offence and who are awaiting trial, or have been convicted of an offence and are awaiting their sentence. In post-conflict and other critical situations, prisons are sometimes also used to detain mentally ill inmates who cannot be placed elsewhere, illegal immigrants or refugees, political prisoners, previous combatants, and even victims of crime. The situation is often one where correctional managers do not really know much about the correctional population and the characteristics of the inmates themselves. In many instances, prisoners are detained unlawfully and there is no easy way for managers to determine who is lawfully committed to the institution and who is not. These are anomalies which should be corrected as soon as possible but which nevertheless create additional challenges for correctional leaders. Corrections have a responsibility to ensure that offenders do not pose a threat to or harm other people, but they must also attempt to rehabilitate offenders so that they may one day return to society to lead productive crime-free lives. Thus, effective correctional management should ensure the following;

- a) Where possible, ensure that pre-trial detainees and individuals detained in facilities other than general correctional centers also benefit from correctional programmes for effective transition to the society. In many countries, individuals may spend many years in detention awaiting trial, in detention facilities. Pre-trial populations are more transient and less stable than inmate populations in traditional prison facilities. Furthermore, due to legal or policy restraints, pre-trial populations in certain countries are not always able to avail themselves of the same correctional services and programs as sentenced inmates. In addition, detained individuals are at their most vulnerable in the period immediately following their arrest, and

therefore their susceptibility to the efforts of hardened criminals may be higher during this pre-trial period. Detention facilities other than general correctional facilities may be operated by officials with less experience with good corrections management techniques, such as risk assessment and detainee screening, and correctional staff may be more temporary and less professionally trained. Therefore, it is important that good correctional management practices take account of different types of detainees in correctional facilities.

- b) Maintenance of safe and humane environment. Correctional officials should take appropriate steps to ensure that their facilities operate in a manner that keeps inmates, staff and the community safe and secure. A general rule, correctional management should apply the least restrictive measures necessary to control inmate behaviour. Different correctional facilities often present different levels of security concerns, which should be considered in establishing this environment.

A key issue with regard to humane and safe operations is the number of individuals in a facility. Crowding also strains facilities' infrastructure sometimes to the breaking point. Overcrowded institutions weaken security and decrease oversight. Overcrowding presents a very real danger in facilities, causing frustration and anger for inmates whose access to basic necessities becomes limited and who face increased hours of idleness resulting from a limited availability of productive work and program opportunities. Inmate frustration and anger, in turn, are catalysts for violence which poses real risks to the lives of staff and offenders. An insufficient ratio of correction staff to inmates can create an environment where vulnerable inmates feel compelled to seek protection from predatory violence by joining alliances with correctional gangs and violent extremist groups.

Programs, such as parole, early release based on good behavior, or sentencing alternatives to imprisonment may support the system a great deal. Thus, alternatives to imprisonment can also allow the corrections administration to better focus their often limited correctional resources on the higher risk inmates in correctional facilities. If courts have options other than imprisonment, they can better tailor a cost-effective sentence that fits the offender and the crime and at the same time protecting the community.

- c) Corrections management should seek to make sure that there are written policies and procedures in place that regulate all aspects of correctional operations. Moreover, correctional leadership needs to ensure that these policies and procedures are properly and consistently implemented. This can be accomplished by ensuring that best practices and knowledge are clearly conveyed to front line staff and their supervisors. Increasing front line staff personal responsibility and trust in leadership can create buy-in and professional identity. Corrections management should properly recognize and reward work by front line staff and supervisors.
- d) It is important to have correction staffs comprised of professional and approachable individuals. By cultivating and supporting a diverse and well-trained cadre of officers, correctional leadership can assist in developing an atmosphere whereby inmates may feel more comfortable speaking to staff regarding developments within the facility. This is an important element for overall correctional operations because inmates may be forthcoming with providing information about events and individuals of concern. In addition, a well-trained and professional staff may help counter any negative feelings that inmates may have towards officers and the authorities in general. While the specific types of trainings are highly dependent on the particular within a country, it is useful to ensure that staff

has initial and continuing education on subjects such as security procedures, professional ethics, incident response, appropriate contact and communication with and treatment of inmates, correctional rules and regulations, interpersonal communications and gathering of intelligence.

It is useful to look for ways and opportunities to cross-train with other law enforcement agencies in order to share operational information and good practices. Overall, training is a key component of a well-managed correctional system and is crucial to identifying and tackling correctional challenges and other threats to the safety, security and orderly operation of correctional facilities. Officials should seek to provide informative and updated training to staff on a continual basis.

- e) It is also important to develop an effective database to record information and account for all inmates in the facility, from the time the inmates first enters the facility, until the expiration of their sentence in the community. A database that includes an alert or identification of the offence and legislation under which an inmate is convicted, allows corrections officers to instantly identify an inmate's status. Knowing as much as possible about the inmate's co-offenders, mode of operation, personal background, criminal history, significant contacts, and ideology allows for more accurate registration and appropriate placement and classification processes. Access to quality information from the law enforcement agencies and courts familiar with the cases is important, as it promotes better informed registration and classification processes by the corrections administration. More so, a formal process to review an inmate's classification should be established to take into account adjustment to incarceration, behavior, participation in programs and changes in the inmate's circumstances.

- f) A key to sound correctional management and an important factor in addressing violent extremist radicalization in correctional facilities is to hold inmates accountable for their actions. Officials should seek to develop and establish a disciplinary process that treats all inmates equitably. Inmates should be provided with information about the disciplinary code and complaint procedures upon admissions. The Mandela Rules (2015) regulate the scope of permissible disciplinary sanctions. Judicial authorities should be involved when misconduct rises to a criminal level. Disciplinary matters should consistently follow appropriate procedural safeguards such as notice of the offense and an opportunity to be heard. Inmate grievance procedures should be accessible for all inmates. However, punishment, where appropriate, should be proximal to inmate misconduct.
- g) Develop and enforce clear rules and procedures to ensure corrections management and staff accountability as a way to reduce opportunities for correctional radicalization. Management and staff accountability is critically important in countering corrections challenges especially those around inmates' revolt because it lends credibility to the system and helps fostering an environment where inmates know that staff and management are held to specific standards. Staff misconduct undermines that confidence. Rules and regulations, including those that prohibit corruption, abuse, and violence should be clearly outlined and discussed in a code of conduct. Codes of conduct specify expected standards of ethics and behavior for correctional officers and other corrections staff, fostering conditions conducive to garner public confidence and respect. Correctional management should enforce the rules and regulations promptly, fairly, transparently, consistently and impartially.

- h) Take preventative measures to combat corruption to reduce opportunities for correctional deviance and ensure that where corruption exists, its perpetrators are appropriately punished. The menace of corruption is a corrosive practice that compromises the effectiveness of correctional operations and compromises security. A facility with corrupt officials will suffer from poor management and failure to adhere to best correctional practices and international standards and norms. This can allow for deviance to fester because individuals with resources will have the opportunity to spread their extremist messages and recruit followers. Correctional officials should be accountable for ensuring that their correctional facilities have internal standards and methods in place and implemented to root out corruption. Some examples of methods include vetting staff at hire and throughout employment, conducting unannounced employee searches, changing shifts regularly, developing an internal affairs unit to investigate reports of corruption, and making public examples of corrupt officers. Adequate compensation is one factor, but not the only one, in reducing corruption.
- i) Intelligence is a critical factor in correctional management. The effective management of offenders requires the collaborative sharing of intelligence throughout their incarceration. The ability to collect, evaluate, collate, analyze and disseminate information related to offenders is critical to not only the safe operation of correctional facilities but also the prevention of radicalization to violent extremism. Correctional intelligence systems aid in security, assist in intake, assessment and classification, and inform interventions and rehabilitative measures. Accurate intelligence information also assists correctional management to make sound strategic decisions about inmate placement and allocation of personnel resources and funding in the facilities to address security issues including the

prevention of radicalization of members of the larger corrections population. As with most elements of correctional operations, how officials gather and utilize intelligence depends on a number of factors including their legal frameworks, cultures, and resources. Correctional systems should have a central information gathering unit, which provides correctional management with accurate and timely information about radical activities and improve correctional security protocols. This is best accomplished by observing, documenting, and addressing the behavior of offenders. Regular written report on each inmate is one approach to support consistent and individualized attention. It is essential to make sure that intelligence is being utilized, analyzed, and shared since intelligence and operations need to be fully integrated. One way to make sure that intelligence is properly used is to maintain an intelligence database. Officials should consider how to engage relevant parties within the prison environment in gathering and reporting information. An essential aspect to getting information from inmates is to have an approachable staff and known reporting mechanisms, including protecting correctional informants.

- j) Correctional officials should provide inmates with the opportunity to participate in practices of their religious faith. Providing spiritual care for inmates provides an alternative to negative ideology that may be spread under the guise of religion. There are a number of ways that officials can support religious programs. For instance, religious officials may be hired directly by the facility or correctional officials when permitted by law. Alternatively, respected religious leaders from the local community may be allowed to hold services within the prison. A religious expert who comes from the same tribal, ethnic and linguistic group as the correctional population is often more effective than one who comes from a different

section of the community. All groups and individuals must be subjected to the same screening and review process. In addition, correctional officials should ensure that any monitoring of religious services is respectful of the faith's practices. Changes in religious behavior such as an inmate who suddenly stops participating in general religious services may be an indicator of an anomaly. It is crucial that officials focus on behavior and not beliefs. Ethics should be considered at all times when monitoring for their tendencies to engage in illicit behavior. It is important not to single out any one particular group based simply on religious or other beliefs.

The aim of a well-managed correctional system is to promote internal and public safety by reducing violence and other criminal activity. Other individuals who can provide useful positive messages to inmates are psychologists, social workers, family members, the business community and civil society partners. Many of these stakeholders can help inmates as they adjust to life in corrections, assist them to address some of the underlying issues that contributed to their incarceration, and help prepare them for a productive life back in society. Positive outside influences may provide inmates with a structure to work with and a goal to work towards. These approaches are all potential tools to building more resilient correctional inmates. When correctional services have limited resources, community based groups can help meeting needs that would otherwise go unmet.

- k) Re-entry is a critical component of public safety. Correctional facilities should develop an environment which promotes respect, self-improvement and offer a broad spectrum of evidence-based programs and services that promote respect, and self-improvement and that will help inmates re-enter society. The prospect of successfully returning to society may mitigate alienation and could reduce the impetus to join gangs or violent extremist

groups in the facility. It is imperative for officials to define the focus, determine the anticipated outcomes of the programs based on the needs of the offender, and develop measures for success. In developing reintegration programming, correctional practitioners should look for ways to provide mental health, educational, and vocational support. Particularly as offenders near the final portion of their jail term, it is important to provide them opportunities to gradually re-adapt to their community environment. Coordination with the local community before, during, and after the release will support the success of these efforts.

References/Further Readings

Coyle, A. (2002). *A Human Rights Approach to Prison Management*. London. International Centre for Prison Studies

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (2007). *Handbook on Restorative Justice Programmes. Criminal Justice Handbook Series*. New York: United Nations. www.unodc.org/unodc/en/justice-and-prison-reform/tools.html

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (2008). *Handbook on Prisoner File Management*. www.unodc.org/unodc/en/justice-and-prison-reform/tools.html

In-text Questions

- 1) How would you describe correctional management?
- 2) What are the three major components of Security Practice in correctional facilities?
- 3) In correctional management strong leadership is demonstrated in two ways. Explain.

Module 5: Theories of Security

5.0 Introduction

At its most basic level, 'security' refers to the protection of values we hold dear. It is for this reason that we are all interested in achieving it. We search for it, we constantly pursue it, we deny it to others, and when we achieve it for ourselves we relish it. Undoubtedly, feeling secure and well protected is one of humankind's most cherished goals. However, our incessant search for security remains one of our most fiercely debated topics, and to this day we remain unconvinced regarding the best way of achieving what is, for many, an elusive commodity. This is compounded by a number of problems facing thinkers in the field. As a concept, 'security' refers simply to the safety or protection of some entity. Traditionally, the first problem relates to whether it is the state, the individual or some other unit that ought to be prioritized and made secure. To use the correct terminology, academics debate over what the 'referent object' should be. This debate continues today as it has over the past two decades, and it takes place primarily between those who advocate the 'state' and those who argue that the basic unit has to be the individual. This is not the end of the matter, however, since a second, related problem faces us – namely, what is the nature of the threats that face us? Again, the academic world is divided, with a variety of opinions, a significant number of which insist that military force is central to world politics and that the primary actors are states. Because of this, it becomes necessary for states to continuously guard themselves from possible attack by other states. However, an increasingly influential viewpoint is that the focus on states and military force is far too narrow and does not consider a wider range of threats that both states and individuals have to face. In this module attempt is made to bring to light, the assumptions of some theories to explain the concept of security as an everyday demand both at individual and societal level.

Crime prevention refers to the range of strategies that are implemented by individuals, communities, businesses, non-government organisations and all levels of government to target the various social and environmental factors that increase the risk of crime, disorder and victimisation (AIC 2003; ECOSOC 2002; IPC 2008; Van Dijk & de Waard 1991). There are a variety of different approaches to crime prevention that differ in terms of the focus of the intervention, the types of activities that are delivered, the theory behind how those activities are designed to bring about the desired results and the mechanisms that are applied.

5.1 Intended Learning Outcomes

At the end of this module, it is expected that candidates should have a better understanding of security as advanced by the propositions of the various theoretical orientation. Specifically, candidates would come to terms with;

- 1) The various theories of security
- 2) Deeper understanding of their propositions
- 3) Insights on their areas of convergence and divergence
- 4) Ability to apply the theories to understand real life situations on security matters and analysis.

5.2 Main Text

Unit 1: Realism

The theory of realism is composed of six variants that have developed overtime right from its classical times. Twentieth-century classical realism proponents argue that realist thinking extends well before the twentieth century, and often suggest that current theories are the incarnations of an extended intellectual tradition (Walt, 2002 and Donnelly, 2000). These scholars posit that, realist

themes may be found in important antiquarian works from Greece, Rome, India and China (Smith, 1986).

The crux of the theory is that, military power, economic power, preservation of territorial integrity and sovereignty are the central ideas surrounding national security. The theory of realism was a dominant theory during the cold war period and it belongs especially to traditional approaches to security research. It was based on the power of countries, which base their power and influence on the international world system. The main aim of those countries is to reach their national interests expressed in a particular country's survival, emphasizing preservation of its territorial integrity and sovereignty, while the means for reaching those interests is the determination of countries to use military power (Eichler, 2006).

The realistic paradigm applies the view that countries are the principal actors in the international system, while the security architecture is primarily in their hands and is based only on their domination over the others, thus the countries utilize their means and power for reaching the basic aim of the country's survival. Countries in the international community harness their powers, and as their interest fluctuate, they reassess and change their tactics. It should be noted that the realism doctrine is not singling cooperation and cordiality as the bases for national security, but a country can contradict the national interests of other countries, which may result to war. The realists consider especially military tools, or certain economic tools through which the countries try to reach the same objective of having the means of correcting the security environment. In addition, it also doubts the effectiveness of international organizations such as the United Nations and other international organizations in instilling world peace. Further, they argue that states seek security in an anarchic international system; because of the belief

that the main threat to their well-being comes from other states (Walt, 1991; Glaser, 2003).

Unit 2: Liberalism

The liberal school of thought presents its arguments on security in tracing its genesis to the liberal tradition from Kant. The basic tenets of liberal theory are that countries function in a peaceful environment, occasioned by peaceful handling of disputes, and it saw security as a collective responsibility of the international community. For them, a country is not only an actor, but also an institution. The theory argues that security could be explained at basically two levels (i.e. the relations of country-society and between countries, which take place in internal as well as transnational social context) which are based on the fact that the fundamental position of the country is always reflected in the world policy (Moravcsik, 1997).

According to the liberals, moral behaviour resulted from moral choices and that these were guided by an inner sense of duty and that when individuals behaved according to duty. To them, the only justifiable form of government was *republican government*, a condition of constitutional rule where even monarchs ruled according to the law. They argued that republican states were what they called peace producers; that is, they were more inclined to peaceful behaviour than other sorts of states. This was due to habits of consultation, where a citizenry whom had to be consulted before going to war would be unlikely to endorse war easily. In addition, this forms the legal foundations of the republican state because state built on law was less likely to endorse lawless behaviour in international relations.

The theory advocated championing peaceful coexistence by countries and efforts by them to ensure welfare of citizenry for development, since financing war is

capital intensive, where funds ordinarily to be made for developmental projects will end up being expended in funding war. Another assumption is the spread of democracy, which contributes to building of worldwide peace, because, the countries with democratic political system tend to be inclined more toward peace than countries with authoritative political system (Walt, 1991). Also continuous increase of economic dependency of countries, controlled through organizations such as International Monetary Fund, World Bank, contributes to reduction of tensions between countries and is a very important factor, since the benefits that countries obtain through those organizations are more valuable than following their parochial national interests.

Moravcsik deepened an economic determinism to national security, known as 'commercial liberalism' which focuses on incentives created by opportunities for trans-border economic transactions (Moravcsik, 2001). This contemporary formulation attempts to make specific the causal mechanisms behind the inclination of economically liberal states to prefer peace to conflict. According to Moravcsik, trade is generally a less costly means of accumulating wealth than war, sanctions or other coercive means. The origins of modern commercial liberalism lie in the nineteenth-century theory of *douce commerce* meaning beneficent commerce.

Unit 3: Game Theory

This theory involves interactive decision making, which is multi disciplinary in nature. A thought that started with the field of economics, later, with extensions and modifications, championed by scholars like Von Neumann and Morgenstern, spread to other fields like, sociology, psychology, anthropology, political science, international relations, and security studies. The crux of the theory is that, in any situation, an outcome depends on the choices of two or more decision makers. According to the game theory, decision makers are called 'players'. Players can

be individuals or groups of individuals who operate as a coherent unit. In this sense, presidents, prime ministers, kings and queens, foreign secretaries etc, are considered as players in a game, so also, the states in whose interest they make foreign policies. The theory went further to posit that, the players' decisions lead to outcomes. Thus, the empirical content associated with an outcome will vary with the game being analysed. Sometimes the outcome surfaces as 'compromise' or 'conflict' (Buzan & Hansen, 2009).

Strategic-form games and *Nash* equilibrium are two important ways to represent a game's structure. In the strategic form, players select strategies simultaneously before the actual play of the game. A strategy here is a complete contingency plan that specifies a players' choice at every situation that might arise in a game. In game theory, the players are assumed to be instrumentally rational, by maximizing their utility. Since different players may evaluate the same outcome differently, the rationality assumption is simply another way of saying that the players are purposeful, that they are pursuing goals that they themselves define.

In applying the game theory to security studies, using ideas like the *Nash* equilibrium and other concepts within the game theory tradition permits analysts to develop more critical explanations and more potent predictions of interstate conflict behaviour. These are also important in measuring rational behaviour in games of complete information, in which each player is fully informed about the preferences of its opponent. Game theory has a lot of influence in the study of deterrence.

Unit 4: Social Constructivism

Theorists in the constructivists' tradition were drawn from related disciplines within the humanities; such as sociology, international relations and others. Constructivists argue that the world is constituted socially through inter subjective

interactions, and that agents and structures are mutually constituted through ideational factors such as norms and identity are central to the constitution and dynamics of world politics. Constructivism, originally an international relation theory have been applied to a wide range of issues including security studies (Kalzenstein, 1996).

The central shared assumption of constructivist approach is that security is a social construction, security could be understood as the preservation of a group's core values. Going by this assertion, question can then be asked as to; who constitute the group, what are its core values are, where threat to these values may come from, and how the preservation of these values might be achieved. For constructivist, answers to these questions are different, depending on the different contexts and scenarios, and they develop gradually through social interaction between actors, and it is the answers to these questions, articulated and negotiated in a particular social and historical context through social interaction, that define security in concrete terms, bringing it into being for actors in world politics.

A critical contribution of constructivism to security studies is the work of the Copenhagen School. Waever (2004) has suggested that the central concepts of the Copenhagen School are 'sectors', 'regional security complexes', and 'securitization'. Building on Buzan's earlier work, sectors are defined as arenas entailing particular types of security interaction, including military, political, economic, societal and environmental fields. These sectors encourage different forms of relationships between relevant actors to develop and generally encourage different definitions of who or what to be secured. Regional security complexes are defined as sets of units whose security processes and dynamics are interlinked in a way that their security problems cannot reasonably be analysed or resolved apart from one another. For them, securitization can be defined as a process in which an actor declares a particular issue, dynamic or actor to be an existential

threat to a particular referent object. If accepted as such by a relevant audience, this enables the suspension of normal politics and the use of emergency measures in responding to the perceived crisis therefore, security in this sense, is concerned with negotiation between ‘speakers’ and ‘audiences’.

Further to above, various models have been developed to categorize the broad range of activity that falls within the definition of security (Cherney & White, 2008). Understanding the different approaches to security provision is important, as there are implications for determining the appropriate institutional and management arrangements necessary to support specific crime security interventions (Weatherburn, 2004). An understanding of the different approaches available and their underlying rationale and theory are crucial to developing effective security and crime prevention programs and projects.

The environmental approach, which includes situational crime prevention techniques and broader urban planning initiatives, aims to modify the physical environment to reduce the opportunities for crime to occur (Cherney & White 2008). The social approach focuses on the underlying social and economic causes of crime in the community (e.g lack of social cohesion, limited access to housing, employment, education and health services) and on limiting the supply of motivated offenders, and includes developmental prevention and community development models (Sutton, Cherney & White, 2008). The criminal justice approach refers to various programs delivered by police, the courts and corrections that aim to prevent recidivism among those people who have already engaged in offending behaviour and who have come into contact with the criminal justice system (United Nations Office on Drug & Crime, 2010).

It is beyond doubt that national security has little by little grown to be a complicated phenomenon, both in theory and practice. In effect, nation states have continually strived to develop effective security mechanisms, both at domestic

levels and within the international community. This has come with a lot of challenges, coupled with rising conflicts within global context, which in turn affects security of nations, stretching security architectures to the limit, with varying degrees of successes and challenges across different countries.

References/ Further Readings

- Buzan, B. & Hansen, L. (2009). *The Evolution of International Security Studies*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Cherney A. & White, A.(2008). Crime prevention in Australia: Beyond ‘what works’? *The Australian and New Zealand Journal of Criminology* 40(1): 65–81
- Donnelly, J. (2000). *Realism and International Relations*. London: Cambridge University Press.
- Elwell, A. & De Silva, R (2016). *Global Armoured Vehicles: Market Report 2016*. , London U.K Twickenham
- Glaser, B.G (2003). *Getting out of the Data: Grounded Theory Conceptualization*. Grounded Theory Institute .
- Ibrahim, J. & Igbuzor, O. (2002). *Memorandum submitted to the Presidential Committee on National Security in Nigeria*. Unpublished.
- Moravcsik, A. (1997). Taking preferences seriously: A liberal theory of international politics. *International Organizations*, 51(4): 456-467.
- Moravcsik, A. (2001). *Liberal International Relations Theory: A Social Scientific Assessment*. USA: Harvard University Press.
- Smith, M.J (1986). *Reconstructing Realism: Between Power Politics and Cosmopolitan Ethics*. Edinburgh University Press.
- Sutton A, Cherney, A.& White, R.(2008). *Crime Prevention: Principles, Perspectives and Practices*. Port Melbourne, Victoria. Cambridge University Press

Waever, O. (1998). *Securitization and Desecuritization and Security*. New York: Columbia University Press.

Walt, S. M. (1991). The renaissance of security studies. *International Studies Quarterly*, 35(2).

Weatherburn, J.(2009). Policy and program evaluation: Recommendations for criminal justice policy analysts and advisors. *Crime and Justice Bulletin* No 133.

In-text questions

- 1) What do you understand by the term Security?
- 2) Account for the assumption of the Game Theory of security practice.
- 3) Which of the four major theories identified best suits Nigeria's security situation?

Module 6:Industrial and Institutional Security

6.1 Introduction

Security may be considered as assured freedom from poverty or want, precautions taken to ensure against theft, espionage or a person or thing that secures or guarantees freedom. In the words of Fischer and Green, 'security implies a stable, relatively predictable environment in which an individual or group may pursue its ends without disruption or harm and without fear of such disturbance or injury' (2004, p. 21). A classic definition of security may be the provision of private services in the protection of people, information and assets for individual safety or community wellness (Craighead, 2003). In addition, private or commercial security may be considered as the provision of paid services in preventing undesirable, unauthorized or detrimental loss to an organization's assets.

Industries and Institutes are important sectors where huge investments are involved, be it machinery, raw materials, assembly floor or man power. Security,

safety of assets and employees as well as the management are always vital for any industrial or institutional sectors. Industrial security refers to the systems commonly found in businesses, apartment buildings and other companies. Institutional security on the other hand refers to security measures set up by corporate or government entities to protect strict social structures. There are differences between security for companies and businesses and security for institutions such as schools or prisons. The differences are present in the level of security that is needed, the methods used, the purpose for the security and the importance of security.

Businesses and companies require a lower level of security than governmental buildings and institutions. This is because there is less of a threat to businesses than there is to institutions. Businesses usually install security equipment to prevent thieves from breaking and entering, or to prevent angry or disgruntled customers from lashing out at employees, but institutions are a much larger target for angry citizens. There is more responsibility for the institution to protect not only the employees, but the visiting public.

In criminology, security measures refer to equipment, personnel and methods that are used to ensure security. Security measures can come in the form of cameras, paid guards, specialty locks and other devices that can be used to prevent theft. These are the measures that can be installed by commercial businesses and companies. The level and type of measures used depends on the owner or business manager. For institutions, however, security measures are usually much more advanced. Hospitals and airports, for example, will use advanced screening methods, such as fingerprinting, retina scans and advanced camera technology to ensure the safety and protection of the institution. In this module effort is made to expose candidates to the rudiments of industrial and institutional security.

6.2 Intended Learning Outcomes

At the end of this module, it is expected that learners would have had a better understanding of;

- 1) The concepts of industrial and institutional security
- 2) The differences between the two concepts as well as;
- 3) The various levels of security required by industries and institutions.

6.3 Main Text

Unit 1: Relevance of Industrial and Institutional Security

Industrial and institutional security has become more and more important. The need to protect such facilities has become a top priority. Institutions and industries are vulnerable to threats that can expose dangerous liability risks. An understanding of these challenges of industrial and institutional security cannot be relegated. Thus, the need to take the time to understand these security needs before recommending as a basis for providing solutions is also important. It is highly important for industries and institutions to ensure that their employees are working in a safe environment. Access and control must be monitored to ensure that unauthorized personnel do not escape detection. Parking facilities for the industries and institutions must be secure and monitored. The outdoor spaces also need to be constantly patrolled and secured. These require highly trained and professional staff that can perform a wide range of security duties. Among these security services are;

- a) **Security Guards:** Institutional and industrial guards are essential for the safety of staff and management. A security guard is an integral part of a properly executed security solution for any institute. Security guards can be positioned statically to perform screening. They can also be used to

patrol the grounds, parking lots and so on. Security guards are essential for business and institutional security operations. A security guard can provide a level of confidence knowing that while you're hard at work you're being looked out for. A security guard can do a great deal for theft control. The guards must respond quickly to alarms and assess the circumstances and interact with law enforcement if necessary.

- b) **Bike Patrol:** Bike patrol operates as a full-time unit offering specialized patrolling of residential, institutional and industrial complexes. Bike patrols are very useful because of their flexibility. Depending on the area that is being patrolled, bike patrols can often get to an alarm response sooner than mobile patrol. Bike patrols can work in part with mobile patrols and security guards to provide a comprehensive security solution. Bike patrols work particularly well in places, like a university campus or shopping complex. Security personnel on bike patrol can report to and assist central command. The use of a bike patrol allows personnel security access to place where vehicles can't negotiate. In areas that are congested maneuvering a bike is much easier and does not affect the bike patrols alarm response time. Bike patrols are a versatile means of adding an extra level of security.
- c) **Neighbourhood Patrol:** Property theft and burglary is a growing concern in some industries and institutions, as such the neighbourhood becomes vulnerable and unsafe during the night. Thus, an institutional and industrial neighbourhood that is secure is one that is safe and a great place for such industries and institutions to thrive. In this regard, neighbourhood patrol can provide your neighbourhood institutions and industries with a wide range of security solutions that may include; alarm response and mobile security.

- d) **Mobile Patrol Security:** This is a very cost efficient and also effective security service that can be hired to protect institutional and industrial properties against criminal activities. Mobile Patrol is used at properties where a full time security guard could not be stationed due to cost associated with the stationary guard services. One of the best features of mobile patrol security is that it can be custom tailored according to industrial or institutional requirements, because it provides for a better verification system where the patrol system can be reviewed for reports and the exact time spent on the apportioned property.
- e) **Special Event Security:** During special event s, either in industries or institutions, security is vitally important because the focus is on the event and the people attending it. Whether it's a trade show or convocation, there's always a lot of activity with people coming and going. This team work oriented security initiative allows for advanced and collective strategy to protect the premises, monitor activities and detect criminal activity. It is made up of security officers that monitor exits and entrances. They can also include plain clothes foot patrols and bike patrols.

Unit 2: Specific Duties of a Security Officer in Industrial or Institutional Settings

Security officers in either industrial or institutional settings have specific duties to perform. They may perform the following tasks:

- a) Patrol areas and check doors, gates and windows for signs of unauthorized entry
- b) Watch for irregularities (such as fire hazards, leaking water pipes, lights left on, equipment malfunctions, unlocked security doors) and report incidents or problems to the appropriate authority
- c) Record times of inspections and presence of authorized persons

- d) Respond to alarms and check alarm systems
- e) Provide armed escort for payroll deliveries
- f) Monitor computer alarm systems, closed circuit television (CCTV) systems and communicate by radio with mobile units to attend alarms
- g) Issue security passes, give directions and make security arrangements for authorised visitors
- h) Check travellers and their hand luggage to detect concealed weapons and explosives
- i) Detect and report fraud, shoplifting and other unlawful acts by employees or patrons of business or institutional establishments
- j) Provide assistance to the public and clients.
- k) Observe and report suspects to police, or apprehend offenders when appropriate and detain them until police arrive.

Unit 3: Required Skills of Guards on Physical and Facility Security Duties

Guards on security duties either in industrial or physical facilities are expected to have the following skills for effective guard service delivery:

- a) **Reading Comprehension:** Understanding written sentences and paragraphs in work related documents.
- b) **Active Listening:** Giving full attention to what other people are saying, taking time to understand the points being made, asking questions as appropriate, and not interrupting at inappropriate times.
- c) **Social Perceptiveness:** Being aware of others' reactions and understanding why they react as they do.
- d) **Speaking:** Talking to others to convey information effectively
- e) **Monitoring:** Monitoring/Assessing performance of oneself, other individuals, or organizations to make improvements or take corrective action

- f) **Writing:** Communicating effectively in writing as appropriate for the needs of the audience.
- g) **Critical Thinking:** Using logic and reasoning to identify the strengths and weaknesses of alternative solutions, conclusions or approaches to problems
- h) **Time Management:** Managing one's own time and the time of others.
- i) **Coordination:** Adjusting actions in relation to others' actions
- j) **Judgment and Decision Making:** Considering the relative costs and benefits of potential actions to choose the most appropriate one.
- k) **Active Learning:** Understanding the implications of new information for both current and future problem-solving and decision-making
- l) **Instructing:** Teaching others how to do something.
- m) **Negotiation:** Bringing others together and trying to reconcile differences.
- n) **Complex Problem Solving:** Identifying complex problems and reviewing related information to develop and evaluate options and implement solutions
- o) **Learning Strategies:** Selecting and using training/instructional methods and procedures appropriate for the situation when learning or teaching new things.
- p) **Management of Personnel Resources:** Motivating, developing, and directing people as they work, identifying the best people for the job.
- q) **Service Orientation:** Actively looking for ways to help people.

Unit 4: Risk Analysis for Security Determination

Risk is a function of the values of threat, consequence, and vulnerability. The objective of risk management is to create a level of protection that mitigates vulnerabilities to threats and the potential consequences, thereby reducing risk to an acceptable level. A variety of mathematical models are available to calculate

risk and to illustrate the impact of increasing protective measures on the risk equation. Typical contents of risk analysis include:

- a) Identification of threatened objects
- b) Analysis of value and damage potential
- c) Threat and weak points analysis
- d) Identification of existing security measures
- e) Risk assessment

References/Further Readings

American Society for Industrial Security. (2000). *Proceedings of the 2000 Academic/Practitioner Symposium*. Oklahoma: American Society for Industrial Security. The University of Oklahoma .

American Society for Industrial Security. (2002) *Proceedings of the 2002 Academic/Practitioner Symposium*. Ohio. ASIS International. The University of Cincinnati .

Brooks, D. J. (2006). Mapping the consensual knowledge of security risk management experts . In: C. Valli and A. Woodward (Eds.) *Proceedings of the 7th Australian Information Warfare and Security Conference*. Perth, Western Australia: School of Computing and Information Science, Edith Cowan University, pp. 9 – 17 .

Brooks, D. J. (2007) Defining the science of security through knowledge categorisation. Paper presented at the Criminology and Victimological Society of Southern Africa (CRIMSA) Conference 2007, October, University of Pretoria, Pretoria .

Fischer, R. J. & Green, G. (2004). *Introduction to Security*. Boston, MA. Butterworth-Heinemann .

In-text Questions

- 1) Examine the importance of proactive measures of Security Department in any organization of your choice.

- 2) Describe the general purpose of the security function in any organization?
- 3) Discuss any four examples of special services that the Security Department might provide to an institutional or industrial set up.

End of Modules Exercise

Attempt the following end of modules exercise:

Module 1

- 1) The purpose of police patrol is to protect life and property of the public.
Discuss
- 2) Which of the theories of police patrol best explain the nature of police patrol in Nigeria?
- 3) What are the steps for effective conduct of preliminary investigation?

Module 2

- 1) Provide an explanatory note on the relevance of technology to policing.
- 2) In spite of the positives associated with advancement in technology, it is also an aid to crime and criminality. Discuss
- 3) In what ways can technological innovations help in crime prevention in Nigeria?

Module 3

- 1) What do you understand by community policing?
- 2) Identify and explain the components of community policing.
- 3) Account for the challenges of community policing in Nigeria since its inception in 2004.

Module 4

- 1) The management of correctional facilities is rooted and operates within an ethical framework. Discuss
- 2) Identify and explain the components of correctional security as stated in the Nelson Mandela Rules 2015.
- 3) In what ways can a positive relationship between inmates and correctional staff promote in correctional facilities?

Module 5

- 1) Using any theory of your choice, explain the concept of security.
- 2) Account for **either** the point of convergence **or** divergence between the Realist, Liberal and Game theories of security.
- 3) In what ways can the environmental approach aid crime prevention in urban areas?

Module 6

- 1) In criminology, security measures refer to equipment, personnel and methods that are used to ensure security. Discuss
- 2) Identify and explain any (3) security duties known to you.
- 3) What are the skills required of guards on physical and facility security?