MEASURING INSTRUMENTS OF CRIME INVESTIGATION IN MILITARY INTELLIGENT

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ABSTRACT

Globally, the instruments for measuring crime are important in military intelligence, but it is frequently overlooked by criminologists. This slight is unfortunate since accurate crime data are needed to adequately test theories of offending and victimization as well as to assess the effectiveness of public policies. Intelligence as a concept has meant many different things to people. It conjures up pictures of clandestine, high technology, and risk-taking to gather sensitive information about crimes and criminals. Military intelligence is the end product of an analytic place which collects and assesses information ab out crimes and/or criminal enterprises to make judgements and inferences about community conditions, potential problems, and criminal activity with the intent to pursue criminal prosecution or project crime trends. The paper discusses the concepts of military intelligence, stages of military intelligence, indicators of measuring military intelligence, and instruments used in measuring military intelligence with conclusions and suggestions.

Keywords: Military intelligence, crime, instruments for measuring crime.

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INTRODUCTION

The insecurity challenges in Nigeria such as ethnoreligious conflict, communal clashes, Kidnapping, murder, cultism, militancy etc. have become a daily occurrence and these have been compounded by the rising waves of terrorism since the return to democratic rule in 1999. The resultant effects of these, are loss of lives and properties of the citizens. The challenges of insecurity are traceable to the lapse of intelligence gathering and its proper utilization When thinking further about this dark figure of crime, one may ask, "Do we truly want to know every crime that has been committed?" To do so may require "giving up" other aspects of our lives, such as privacy and freedom.

Currently, there are millions of closed-circuit televisions (CCTV) cameras installed in streets and businesses worldwide. The major impetus of CCTVs is to reduce crime while increasing public safety. However, some civil liberties groups have expressed concern (e.g., that they are susceptible to abuse). There is a growing area of research focusing on the evaluation of CCTVs and reducing crime. This illustrates the continuing growth of our technological abilities to track, watch, and locate different types of activity and behaviour. Given these technological advances, do we also want to improve our ability to detect and count crime? By improving these abilities, would we be willing to "give up" our privacy?

Also, in the world today, measuring crime is necessary for various reasons. Some of these reasons are describing the crime, explaining why crime occurs, assessing and evaluating programs and policies. It is important to legislators, as well as concerned citizens, that crime statistics are available to describe, or gauge, criminal activity that can influence community well-being. Measuring crime is also needed for risk assessment of different social groups, including their potentiality for becoming offenders or victims. Another purpose of measuring crime identifying causes requires that differences in crime rates can be related to differences in people and their situations. Counting crime is also used to evaluate and justify programs and policies that try to address criminal activity (e.g., rehabilitation, incapacitation, deterrence).

Globally, the instruments for measuring crime are important in military intelligence, but it is frequently overlooked by criminologists. This slight is unfortunate since accurate crime data are needed to adequately test theories of offending and victimization as well as to assess the effectiveness of public policies. Intelligence as a concept has meant many different things to people. It conjures up pictures of clandestine, high technology, and risk-taking to gather sensitive information about crimes and criminals. Military intelligence is the end product of an analytic place which collects and assesses information about crimes and/or criminal enterprises to make judgements and inferences about community conditions, potential problems, and criminal activity with the intent to pursue criminal prosecution or project crime trends. The paper discusses the concepts of crime, military intelligence, stages of the war in military intelligence, and instruments used in measuring crime investigation in military intelligence with conclusions and suggestions.

CONCEPTUAL ISSUES

Crime Crime is from the Latin word "crimen" meaning accusation or fault.

Crime has become a terrible social problem in the world. It has become almost a household word in many parts of Africa. Despite this, groups and individuals within society differ in their definition of crime. Some would equate crime with all antisocial behaviour. Others would argue that crimes are such acts as racism, sexism and imperialism that violate basic human rights. Similarly, some use moral rather than legal criteria to define what is or is not a crime.

Durkheim (1993) defined crime within a social context. He saw crimeas a social product, determined by social conditions, capable of being controlled only in social terms. Crime is therefore normal in all societies and a society exempt from crime would necessitate a standardization of moral concepts of all individuals, which is neither possible nor desirable.

Durkheim was of the opinion that crime is a normal phenomenon in society, a natural and inevitable product of collective

life and social evolution. He held that the collective conscience of a people defines what is crime. He believed that crime plays a definite role in social life. He, therefore, defined crime as "an act which offends strong and defined state of collective conscience" (Okeshola, 2008). Sellin (1938) argues that crime "is a violation of cultural norms, which is something beyond the mere violation of law per se. He maintains that mere violation of criminal law is an artificial criterion of criminality. According to Mc Connell (2004), the sociological approach to crime will enable us to understand the economics, gender, education, race, religion, family life and all other social phenomena that are directly involved in crime.

Criminal Investigation

A criminal investigation has to do with the application of science and involves the study of facts that are then used to inform criminal trials based on the environment where the crime has been committed. A complete criminal investigation can include searching, interviews, interrogations, evidence collection and preservation, and various methods or techniques of investigation. Modern-day criminal investigations commonly employ many modern scientific techniques known collectively as forensic science. A criminal investigation is an ancient science that may have roots as far back as c. 1700 BCE in the writings of the Code of Hammurabi. In the code, it is suggested that both the accuser and the accused had the right to present the evidence they collected. In the modern era, criminal investigations are most often done by government police forces. (Charles & Gregory, 2022). *"A good military intelligence investigator needs to be conscious of his or her own thinking, and that thinking needs to be an intentional process.*

A criminal investigation is a multi-faceted, problem-solving challenge in *military intelligence*. Arriving at the scene of a crime, an officer in *military intelligence* is often required to rapidly make critical decisions, sometimes involving life and death, based on limited information in a dynamic environment of active and still evolving events. After a criminal event is over, the *military intelligence* investigator is expected to preserve the crime scene, collect the

evidence, and devise an investigative plan that will lead to the forming of reasonable grounds to identify and arrest the person or persons responsible for the crime. To meet these challenges, *military intelligence* investigators, through training and experience, learn investigative processes to develop investigative plans and prioritize responses. M*ilitary intelligence in a c*riminal investigation is not just a set of task skills, it is equally a set of thinking skills. To become an effective *military intelligence* investigator, these skills need to be consciously understood and developed to the point where they are deliberately engaged to work through the problem-solving process that is a criminal investigation.

Rod (2021) opined that a m*ilitary intelligence* investigator's interpretation of data or information and evidence commonly requires answers to many questions that can lead to critical valid and reliable decisions, actions, and outcomes, such as:

i. What must be done to protect the life and safety of persons?
ii. Should force, up to and including deadly force, be used to resolve a situation?
iii. Who will become the focus or subject of a criminal investigation?
iv. What is the best plan to apprehend the person or persons responsible for a criminal act?
v. Will someone be subjected to a search of their person or of their home?
vi. Will someone be subjected to detention or arrest and questioning for a criminal act?
vii. Will someone have a criminal charge sworn against them?
viii. Will someone be subjected to a criminal trial?
ix. Will someone's liberty as a free person be at risk?
x. Will justice be served?
xi. Will the community be protected?

Rod (2021) considered military *intelligence* investigators must master this higher and more accountable level of analytical thinking for both tactical and strategic investigative response. The "switched on" m*ilitary intelligence* investigator must:

i. Respond appropriately to situations where they must protect the life and safety of persons
ii. Gather the maximum available evidence and information from people and locations
iii. Recognize the possible offence or offences being depicted by the fact pattern
iv. Preserve and document all evidence and information
v. Critically analyze all available information and evidence
vi. Develop an effective investigative plan
vii. Strategically act by developing reasonable grounds to either identify and arrest those responsible for criminal acts or to eliminate those who are wrongfully suspected

When critiquing past investigations, the same typologies of questions are frequently asked:

i. Is it possible that the wrong person was arrested or convicted?
ii. Is it possible that other persons were involved?
iii. Were all the possible suspects properly eliminated?
iv. Was information properly shared among police agencies?
v. Did the investigators miss something?
vi. Was all the evidence found?
vii. Was the evidence properly interpreted?
viii. Were the investigative theories properly developed and followed to the correct conclusion?
ix. Was tunnel vision happening and misdirecting the investigation?

Military intelligence investigators expect that they are well-trained with the knowledge and skills to respond to and investigate crime. The skills are as follows:

i. Critical Incident Response
ii. Interpretation of criminal law and offence recognition
iii. Crime scene management
iv. Evidence identification and preservation
v. Engaging forensic tools for evidence analysis
vi. Witness assessment and interviewing

vii. Suspect questioning and interrogation
viii. Case preparation and documentation
ix. Evidence presentation in court

Military Intelligence

In the twenty-first century, development in military intelligence grows with the generations and eras with great influence by the state of technological advancement at the time. Military intelligence applies through the three levels of warfare, namely: strategy, tactics and operation. Military intelligence is an amorphous concept that addresses the way and manner an army gathers and uses critical information for the safety of society and the eventual success of the war. It covers key aspects of intelligence such as warning and surprise; denial and deception; covert action; oversight and civil liberties; the role of policymakers; and intelligence reform. Military intelligence addresses theory, practice, and processes as they relate to the most important national security topics of the day; it debates and explores how ideas and interests work together or in opposition to shaping national security policies and priorities. It also looks at some of the key intelligence missions, such as strategic warning, counterterrorism, counter-proliferation and counterinsurgency. Also within the province of military intelligence is the history of cyphers, cryptanalysis, computer security system design, investigation of security system breaches, user access issues and associated policies (Sylvester, Sam, Darlington & Dickson & Brikins, 2021).

Ilan (2016) opined that there were two rival superpowers, familiar local leaders were the decision makers, enemies were conspicuous and existential threats to national security, both political and military (including nuclear), were largely transparent. Even terrorism was 'simpler' as it was predominantly local and organisations employing the tactic were well known, as were the countries supporting them. Intelligence stood on three pillars:

i. The contemporary situation and forthcoming trends
ii. Technology and

iii. Human nature. The first two were constantly in flux, while the third, major, pillar generally did not alter. Intelligence agencies were expected *vis-à-vis* such threats to expose secrets relating to the type and quantity of weapons, military and operational formations and the intentions of adversaries.

Military intelligence supports policy making. It examines the principal roles of intelligence in a terror-vulnerable environment and national policy formulation, in the provision of strategic and tactical warning, in providing support for military operations, and in covert action. There are, of course, problems inherent in conducting intelligence in a democracy and in the ethical considerations associated with providing high-quality intelligence analysis. Military intelligence guides national security policy formulation, the factors that influence and constrain policy choices, and the role of intelligence in this process. The changing nature of intelligence vis-a-vis policy formulation, with illustrations from the global war on terror, also falls within the purview of military intelligence. As cyber-attacks take the centre stage and are considered to be an act of war, they also became an issue for military intelligence. It is military intelligence that guides strategic thought and leadership, as it explores how strategic leaders at the executive level of organisations think and influence actions amid volatility and adversity. Military intelligence guides special operation forces and other elite groups. Military intelligence is however subject to legal and ethical constraints, which include the wide spectrum of topics involving the need for surveillance to ensure a state's continuing security as well as the necessity of providing constitutional protection for individual freedoms.

The intelligence profession is filled with moral and ethical dilemmas that require "doing the right thing" daily. This notwithstanding, military intelligence is of utmost importance to success in international armed conflicts, internal security and law enforcement. It provides details on how the intelligence enterprise supports a state's internal security and law enforcement programmes. Generally, military intelligence covers issues relating to cyber-security,

constitutionalism, emerging technologies in internal security and the overall well-being of society.

THE STAGES OF WAR IN MILITARY INTELLIGENCE

1. **The Strategic Level:** this level focuses on defining and supporting national policy and relates directly to the outcome of a war or other conflict as a whole. Usually, modern wars and conflicts are won or lost at this level rather than at the operational or tactical levels. The strategic level applies to all forms of war and conflict from military activities short of war through insurgent, conventional and nuclear warfare. This level involves a strategic concept, plans for preparing all national instruments of power for war or conflict, practical guidance for preparing the armed forces and leadership of the armed forces to achieve strategic objectives.
2. **The Operational Level**: The operational level is concerned with employing military forces in a theatre of war or operations to obtain an advantage over the enemy and thereby attain strategic goals through the design, organisation and conduct of campaigns and major operations. In war, a campaign involves the employment of military forces in a series of related military operations to accomplish a common objective within a given time and space. In activities short of war, a campaign consists of a series of related military, economic, and political operations to accomplish a common objective relative to a given time and space. Commanders should design, orchestrate and coordinate operations and exploit tactical events to support overall campaign objectives. Where and when to conduct a campaign is based on objectives, the threat, and limitations imposed by geographical, economic and cultural environments, as well as the numbers and types of military resources available.
3. **The Tactical Level**: In the traditional sense, the various operations that make up a campaign are themselves made up of manoeuvres, engagements and battles. From this perspective, the tactical level translates potential combat power into success

in battles and engagements through decisions and actions that create advantages when in contact with or in proximity to the enemy. Tactics deal with the details of prosecuting engagements and are extremely sensitive to the changing environment of the battlefield. Thus, in nuclear and conventional warfare, the focus of the tactical level is generally on military objectives and combat. However, combat is not an end in itself; it is the means to achieve goals set at the operational level.

INTELLIGENCE APPLICATIONS

i. Tactical intelligence - Evaluated information on which immediate enforcement action can be based; on intelligence, activity focused
specifically on developing an active case

ii. Operational intelligence - Intelligence information is evaluated and systematically organized on an active or potential target. This
the process is developmental in nature wherein it is sufficient articulated reasons to suspect criminal activity. Intelligence activities
explore the basis of those reasons and newly developed information
to develop a case for arrest or indictment

iii. Strategic intelligence - Statistical crime patterns and crime trends are collected, analyzed, and evaluated for management use in
decision-making, resource development, and policy planning.

a) Central Intelligence Agency (CIA)
b) Defense Intelligence Agency (OIA)
c) National Security Administration (NSA)

WHO IS A MILITARY INTELLIGENCE ANALYST?

A military intelligence analyst is a soldier who measures, analyze, assess, process, evaluate and distribute tactical intelligence, as well as create, document, organize, and cross-reference intelligence

records and files. It also has to do with a soldier who compiles timely facts about an enemy from as many sources as possible, interprets the information and relays that analysis to commanding officers to help them determine strategy on the battlefield. As a military intelligence Analyst, you are responsible for providing the Army with crucial and reliable information about enemy forces and potential areas of conflict.

The work of military intelligence is to analyze, assess, process, and distribute tactical intelligence, as well as create, document, organize, and cross-reference intelligence records and files. A person who takes the varied facts, documentation of circumstances, evidence, interviews, and any other material related to a crime and places them into a logical and related framework to develop a criminal case, explain a criminal phenomenon or describe crime and crime trends. In tactical intelligence, the framework will consist of:

1) Identifying the principals in the crime and their relationships
2) Tracking commodities and instrumentalities involved in the crone
3) Establishing the framework of a wide variety of evidence for case presentation in court:

In strategic intelligence, the framework is to describe trends and make projections and the analysts' duties will vary depending on the jurisdi ction of employment and whether the analyst is sworn in or a civilian beyond the analytic function, duties may include:

i. Conducting interviews
ii. Participating in surveillance
iii. Working with undercover officers/agents to develop a case strategy.
iv. Field research for records and other materials for which the analyst has a better understanding of needs than the investigator.
v. The analyst should be capable of effectively performing the basic
duties.

MEASURING INSTRUMENTS OF CRIME INVESTIGATION IN MILITARY INTELLIGENCE

The following are some of the measuring instruments of crime investigation in military intelligence:

1. Monitoring the Future: The Monitoring the Future (MTF) study, also known as the National High School Senior Survey, is a long-term epidemiological study that surveys trends in legal and illicit drug use among American adolescents and adults as well as personal levels of perceived risk and disapproval for each drug. Substance abuse by adolescents continues to be an issue, not only because it is itself illegal and can pose a health risk, but also because it may be linked to other types of criminal activity. In 1975, the National Institute on Drug Abuse sponsored the annual self-report survey Monitoring the Future: A Continuing Study of Lifestyles and Values of Youth. It is sometimes referred to as Monitoring the Future (MTF). The MTF collects information to measure substance and alcohol use patterns among youths. While the survey initially sampled just 12th-grade students, in 1991, 8th- and 10th-grade students were also included in the annual survey. Currently, the MTF survey of 12th-grade students contains about 1,400 variables. The survey measures the use of drugs such as tobacco, alcohol, marijuana, hashish, LSD, hallucinogens, amphetamines, Ritalin, Quaaludes, barbiturates, cocaine, crack cocaine, GHB (gamma-hydroxybutyrate), and heroin. 98 The MTF also collects information on students' attitudes and beliefs about drugs, drug availability, and the social meaning of drug use.
   In addition to measuring issues of substance and alcohol use, the survey asks students about their attitudes on topics such as education, work and leisure, sex roles and family, population concerns (overpopulation and birth control), conservation, religion, politics, interpersonal relationships, race relations, and happiness.

2. **Agencies accountability:** government agencies are obliged to keep records that document their actions and areas of responsibility. Such accountability is a basic principle of military intelligence in Nigeria (Michael, 2008).
3. **Survey Research:** measures of crimes are made for research purposes that are distinct from the purpose of surveillance or accountability. A survey is a method of acquiring knowledge about the characteristics or facts and figures, of something or somebody, some groups of things, people or places. It is designed for the collection of information from a cross section of a population on a defined subject matter within a given period of time. The survey intends to determine qualitative and quantitative characteristics about a population or universe which may be used for the purpose of drawing conclusions about the population itself.
4. **Uniform Crime report:** measures of crime form the basis for the Federal Bureau Investigations (FBI), a data series that has been collected since 1930 and has been widely used by criminal justice researchers. However, certain characteristics and procedures related to uniform crime reports its suitability as a measure of crime. The primary source of official crime statistics in the United States is the annual Uniform Crime Reports (UCR) compiled by the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI). The UCR reports crimes known to the nation's police and sheriff's departments and the number of arrests made by these agencies; federal crimes are not included. Offences known to the police are recorded whether or not an arrest is made or if an arrested pers on is subsequently prosecuted and convicted.
5. **The National Crime Survey**: The National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS), underwent lengthy development periods featuring record check studies and split-ballot experiments to determine the best way to measure crime victimization. In the records check studies, the samples included known crime victims selected from police records. In survey parlance, these

were studies of reverse records checks—the records had been "checked" before the survey reports were ever elicited.

6. Victimization survey method: is a form of data collection that requires the researcher asking the people to describe their experiences as a crime victim, National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) sponsored by the Federal Government of The United States is a good example of a victimization survey method. People are asked to report their victimization experiences such as rape, sexual assault, robber, assault, theft, household burglary and motor vehicle theft. Victimization surveys have uncovered a substantial dark figure, the number of crimes that actually occur but are not recorded. The dark figure exists for many reasons, especially the failure of victims to report crimes and the failure of the police to record all the reported crimes. The survey hopes to record crimes that have not been recorded by the police, by asking people what crimes they have been a victim of. The survey aims to count crimes that have not been recorded by the police for whatever reason. These unrecorded crimes are called the 'DARK or GREY FIGURE' OF CRIME – they are like the part of an iceberg below the water, invisible but very important. According to the BCS in 2006/7 around 11.3 million crimes were committed against adults living in private households in England and Wales. In comparison, around 5.4 million crimes were recorded by the police in England and Wales in 2006/7.

Surveys can be a rich source of indicators that measure police performance. They may be administered by police jurisdictions, other state or provincial law enforcement authorities, academics, public opinion polling companies, or national institutions collecting statistical data. Surveys can be a very powerful tool to collect data that would supplement the traditional measures of police performance. The types of questions asked in surveys depend on which dimension of police work the researcher is attempting to measure. The wording of questions and their placement within the survey influence the answers of the

respondents. There are different types of surveys that researchers can employ in order to derive these indicators (Anton, 2015).

Crime victimization surveys involve asking large numbers of people if they have been criminally victimized within some specified time frame regardless of whether they reported the incident to the police:

i. General community or national surveys usually ask questions about how the public views police performance, often resembling customer satisfaction surveys. Issues covered may include satisfaction with the work done by the police, the effectiveness with which police deal with social disorder and crime, whether individuals feel protected by the police, etc.
ii. Contact or victimization surveys target individuals who were in contact with the police, or who were victims of crimes and dealt with the police following their incident. These kinds of surveys usually ask questions regarding individuals' experiences dealing with law enforcement authorities.
iii. Employee surveys are mostly internal surveys asking police employees about their work. They can be used to assess the levels of job satisfaction and the integrity of police employees.

7. **Self-Report Studies**: These are another way of trying to get a more accurate picture of crime, by asking people which crimes they themselves have committed. Self-report surveys of offending provide a way for criminologists to collect data without having to rely on government sources. Questionnaires used in these surveys typically provide a list of offences and request subjects to check each offence they recall having committed and how often, and sometimes whether they have ever been arrested, and if so, how many times. Self-report surveys have relied primarily on college and high school students for subjects, although prison inmates and probationers/parolees have also

been surveyed. Several studies have addressed the issue of the accuracy and honesty of self-reported offences in various ways, and the results have generally been encouraging, at least for uncovering the extent of minor offences. The self-report survey is also concerned with the research technique for the collection of information by criminologists. According to Conklin (2007), Austin Porterfield's (1946) was the first researcher to use survey methods to gather self-reported information about involvement in crime and delinquency. Self-report studies confirm the conclusion of victimization surveys that the dark figure or hidden amount of crime is large. Most self-report studies focuses on juvenile delinquency and youth crime. They are also used to examine the offence histories of prison inmates, drug users and other segments of the population. The strengths of self-report surveys are that they include non-reported crimes, substance abuse and offenders' personal information.

8. Experiments: Experiments are controlled studies in which people are treated in different ways to determine the effects on their attitudes and behaviour. It is the ideal design for scientific research because it best provides researchers with data that enable them to accept or reject a hypothesis. To conduct experimental research criminologists manipulate or intervene in the lives of their subjects to see the outcome or the effect of the intervention. In an experiment, researchers work with two identical groups in all relevant respects through a process of random assignment. True experiments usually have these elements:

(a) Random selection of subjects
(b) The experimental group
(c) The control group
(d) An experimental condition.

9. Observation**:** In the observational research design, the researcher systematically observes behaviours, events and the contexts surrounding the events and behaviours. There are three basic kinds of

observations: Naturalistic observation, Participant observation and Contrived observation.

When a researcher observes and records behaviour in a setting without intervening in any way. It is called naturalistic observation or non-participant observation. A natural setting is one in which behaviour ordinarily occurs that has not been arranged in any way for the purpose of recording behaviour.

In a naturalistic observation, researchers try to be as inconspicuous and unobtrusive as possible, passively recording whatever occurs (Gravelter & Forzano, 2003). For example, studying the behaviour of protesters in a riot.

In the participant Observation studies, researchers actually participate in the situation or setting that they are observing. Participant observation can be overt, in that the researcher is easily identified and the subjects know that they are being observed It can also be covert, in which case the researcher disguises his or her identity and acts just like any of the other participants. For example, a researcher may feign prostitution to gain insight to the behaviour of the prostitutes.

In Participant Observation studies, researchers actually participate in the situation or setting that they are observing. Participant observation can be overt, in that the researcher is easily identified and the subjects know that they are being observed It can also be covert, in which case the researcher disguises his or her identity and acts just like any of the other participants. For example, a researcher may feign prostitution to gain insight to the behaviour of the prostitutes. A great example of participant observation is Rosenhan's (1973) research investigating the experience of mental patients and patient-staff interactions in a psychiatric hospital. One important advantage of participant observation allows researchers to observe behaviours that are not usually open to scientific observation. The disadvantage is that the research gets information that is neither testable nor accessible to outside observation. The third type of observation is called contrived observation or structured observation. It is the observation of behaviour in settings arranged specifically for observing and recording behaviour. Often such studies areconducted in laboratory settings.

THEORETICAL FRAME WORK

Multiple Intelligences by **Gardner (1983)**

The psychological aspects of crime include the relationship among intelligence, personality and, learning on the one hand and criminal behaviour on the other. The theory of Multiple Intelligences basically on the question sought to answer was: Is intelligence a single thing or various independent intellectual faculties? According to Gardner, intelligence is much more than 1Q because a high 1Q in the absence of productivity does not equate to intelligence. In his definition, "Intelligence is a biopsychological potential to process information that can be activated in a cultural setting to solve problems or create products that are of value in a culture". Consequently, instead of intelligence being a single entity described psychometrically with an 1Q score, Gardner's definition views it as many things. Gardner's endeavoured to define intelligence in a much broader way than psychometricians. To achieve this goal, in identifying capabilities to be considered for one of the "multiple intelligences" the construct under consideration had to meet several criteria rather than resting on the results of a narrow psychometric approach. To qualify as" intelligence" the particular capacity under study was considered from multiple perspectives consisting of eight specific criteria drawn from the biological sciences, logical analysis, developmental psychology, experimental psychology, and psychometrics. The criteria to consider "a military intelligence" are:

1. The potential for brain isolation by brain damage,
2. Its place in evolutionary history,
3. The presence of core operations,
4. Susceptibility to encoding,
5. A distinct developmental progression,
6. The existence of idiot-savants, prodigies and other exceptional people,
7. Support from experimental psychology, and
8. Support from psychometric findings

The idea that much early criminologist-maintained crime is the product

primarily of people of low intelligence. They opined that many delinquents and criminals have a below-average intelligence quotient and that low IQ is a cause of criminality. Criminals were believed to have inherently substandard intelligence and thus, they seemed naturally inclined to commit more crimes then the more intelligent persons. Furthermore, it was thought that if authorities could determine which individuals had low IQs, they might identify potential criminals before they committed socially harmful acts.

CONCLUSION

Indicators of measuring crime and military intelligence are explained here as a variety of means of gathering and analysing critical information to achieve national security. It showed how military intelligence supports policy-making, special operations, cyber-security, counter-insurgency, strategic thought and leadership and internal security and law enforcement. The unit observed some legal and ethical constraints on military intelligence and how these can be harmonized.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the foregoing discussion, the following recommendations were made:

1. In Every typology of investigation, there should be an intelligence gathering for effective and smoothly operation.
2. Before any punishment of crime, the intelligence department of any king should carry out a research or investigation with valid and reliable reports and recommendations.
3. Carry any typology of criminal investigation, methods or instruments of measuring crime need to be applied.
4. Elements of crime must be processed before a person is found guilty of a criminal act in a court of law.
5. Military intelligence investigators must be passionate about following the facts to discover the truth, to contribute to the process of justice.
6. Military intelligence investigators must be detail-oriented and observant of the facts and the timelines of events.

7. Military intelligence investigators must be flexible thinkers, avoiding tunnel vision, and being capable of concurrently examining alternate theories while objectively using evidence as the measure to confirm or disconfirm the validity of theories
8. Military intelligence investigators must be patient and capable of maintaining a long-term commitment to reaching a conclusion
9. Military intelligence investigators must be tenacious and not allow setbacks and false leads to deter continued effort.
10. Military intelligence investigators must be knowledgeable and skilful at the tasks, processes, and procedures while respecting legal authorities and the limitations to take action
11. Military intelligence investigators must be self-aware of bias and intuitive responses and seek evidence to support gut feelings.
12. Military intelligence investigators must be trained in the processes of critical and logical thinking that provide reliable analysis of evidence that can later be described and articulated in reports and court testimony.

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